

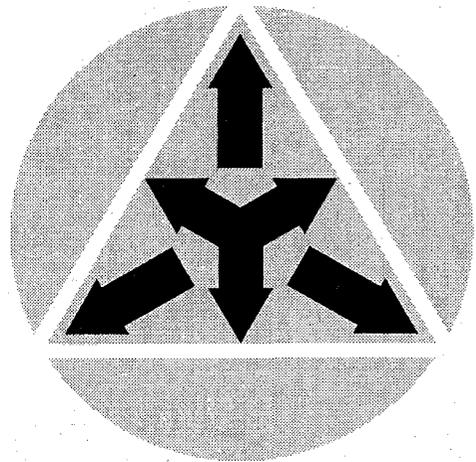
INCLUSION: **Recent Research**



Gary Bunch & Angela Valeo

INCLUSION PRESS

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for its early support of our research into inclusive education
and for its support of children in need**

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INTRODUCTORY THOUGHTS

The place of people with disabilities in our world is undecided. There are some who argue that they have the same place as anyone else, that they are simply members of the wider community with the same rights, responsibilities, needs, and strengths. Josephine Jenkinson (1993), for instance, argues that persons with intellectual challenge should participate in decision making activities in their own interest, seeing such participation as "in accord with principles of human dignity and autonomy" (p. 372). Others believe that many of those with disabilities have no rightful place in the mainstream of regular society and that accommodations made to assist them in societal interaction are acts of charity which may be rescinded. The Jerry Lewis' of today, well intentioned as they might be, fit comfortably into the ethic of helping those with disabilities from the same charity motivation noted by Davidson, Woodill, and Bredberg (1994) in their analysis of images of disability from the 19th century.

Society continues to struggle with its commitment to do what is necessary to bring about a world which is not divided on the basis of characteristics such as gender, race, and heredity. It is a struggle begun long ago and likely to go on long into the future. In our view the struggle around those with disabilities will be decided in the favour of those who desire that difference should not divide, but the conflict will continue for some time yet. We have but begun the battle.

The education system is a centre in this struggle, an eye of the storm. Over the past century or so children who differ from the majority of their peers in terms of physical, sensory, emotional, and intellectual characteristics have gained access to education. Most commonly, this access was not to the same settings as those not labelled as handicapped. At first the pace of access was halting, but more recently it has accelerated significantly. Indeed, the right of all children to education has been legislated in some countries and is being advocated in others. In this, society has made a major step forward.

The translation of this right to education varies from child to child within the majority of educational systems. The determining factor is degree of difference in one or more of the categories mentioned above. When first faced with the understanding that society believed children with challenges should have access to the education system, educators responded with what has now become known as special education. It was believed up to quite recently that what a student with disability needed was a protected environment in which to learn: a place away from

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the jeers of other students; a place where special programs could be brought to bear; a place with special teachers and special equipment; a place where the child with disability would enjoy the security of being with like others. There was absolutely nothing wrong with this thinking - at the time. Society had not previously attempted to educate large numbers of those with some type of disability. The development of segregated special education provision was based on the best understanding of educators, psychologists, the medical field, governments, and parents. Those who worked to develop, improve and maintain special education services were, and are, dedicated, hard working, and well intentioned. Many students received needed assistance in special education classes. Many were challenged to learn as well as they could. The development of segregated special education was a boon to parents and children and a progressive step by a concerned society.

But that is the story of yesterday. Today, a growing number of educators, advocates, parents, and individuals with disability are persuaded that, though special education provision was a necessary starting place, new understanding suggests that it would be inappropriate to be satisfied with what has been achieved to date. They point to the success of programs that have left traditional, segregated special education structures behind and moved to include students with challenges in regular classrooms of community schools. They point, as well, to research which suggests that special class placement, while undertaken for the best of reasons, has not proven to be academically and socially stronger for the average student with disabilities, than would be regular class placement. In fact, at a time when progressive thinking and action are required to meet the needs of those with disabilities, something less is often offered. Curt Dudley-Marling and Don Dippo (1995) suggest that contemporary thinking such as that represented in the theory of learning disabilities, "despite its impressive rhetoric, is fundamentally conservative in that it functions to preserve ideological practices by reinforcing taken for granted assumptions of schooling" (p. 413).

Educators have long accepted that full time segregated placement is not ideal for many students. That is why so many students, primarily those with lesser disability, have been enrolled in regular classrooms. Unfortunately, in reinforcement of traditional assumptions of disability, a large number have been enrolled with the proviso, explicit or implied, that to remain they would

have to keep pace with the other students in the classroom and that sufficient resources be available. They not true members of the classroom, but visitors always and visitors on condition of acceptable progress and sufficient resources, both as defined by the teacher. A significant number of other students attend regular classes for some subjects and are withdrawn to special classes for other subjects. They are also visitors to regular classrooms, but without even the appearance of conditional full time attendance. As noted, the right of all students to be in a regular classroom routinely is subject to the rights of teachers, and comes out in second place in that equation. Slee (1993) has suggested that determining right to placement in a regular classroom on the basis of "getting more resources is inadequate. Depicted in this way, the politics of integration becomes the politics of struggling to open the public purse wider to wrest more funds for the integration program" (p. 351). We interpret such barriers to regular classroom membership as adjustments leading to conditional full or part time participation in regular classes, and, as such, highly questionable. The idea of resources outweighing children and of individual teachers determining if a child is maintaining acceptable pace in learning is not one which is acceptable. Without argument, necessary resources should be available and teachers should always be evaluating progress, but resources and lockstep progress with other students are not the deciding considerations. Making them so demeans both teachers and students.

However, education is moving on. With today's knowledge supporting them many educators, parents, advocates, and individuals with disability believe that it is time for all children, regardless of degree of disability, to attend their community schools in classes with their neighbourhood peers. They cite research which indicates that regular class placement is equal to or superior to special class placement (i.e. Baker, Wang, and Walberg, 1994/95), and that regular students, too, benefit from experience in inclusive classrooms (i.e. Staub and Peck, 1994). They find comfort and motivation in studies, such as that by Hunt and Goetz (1997), which lay out guidelines for inclusive practice: (a) parental involvement; (b) positive learning outcomes; (c) opportunities for friendships; (d) positive learning for regular students; (e) collaboration; (f) curricular modifications. There is a sufficient body of evidence out there for us to realize that inclusion is not a dismissible, theoretical construct. How can it be when so many teachers practice it every day and so many regular students and their peers with disabilities benefit from experience

in diverse classrooms every day?

Conversely, others decry inclusion for both students with mild and severe disabilities as poor education. They believe that inclusion is an utopian ideal and that research does not prove its feasibility or value. They seem unaware that other utopian ideals, such as girls and women being fully accepted members of the educational community or people of differing colour and ethnicity being educated together, have come to pass and have proven their feasibility and value.

Enough of that type of discussion, though. We are not particularly interested in the conflict between those who support and those who deny inclusive education. Our own experience, experience which includes years spent in segregate and partially segregated settings ranging from residential schools to community schools, tells us that more students than ever imagined can be educated well in regular classrooms. Flexibility and creativity are necessary. The view of who can be recognized as a student must change and expand. Teachers must enter into collaborative relationships with colleagues, parents, and relevant others. The financial and personnel commitments made to special education situations must be renewed and follow students to the regular classrooms of community schools. Teacher preparation must prepare all teachers to work with all children. To us facts such as these are obvious and must be acted on to support inclusion, just as similar steps must be taken to support any educational reform. There is sufficient evidence of the power and potential of the inclusive approach to persuade us to devote our efforts to furthering it and to clarifying it for interested others.

One task the two of us recently undertook was to review the available literature for studies which lay out the benefits of the inclusive approach, studies which point to practice which, while generally supportive of inclusion, requires alteration in some instances to support inclusion well, and studies which focus on already supportive strategies. Our efforts resulted in this book.

To us acceptance or rejection of inclusive education for all students is primarily a matter of attitude. There is no longer any argument that the inclusive approach cannot work, that teachers cannot undertake it without unfair stress, that the education of other students will be harmed, or that included students will suffer wholesale rejection by their peers. Such arguments are disproved by the fact that teachers successfully practice inclusion in preschools, elementary schools, and high schools every day. We know that any significant educational reform will draw resistance

from some or many educators due to fear that their working conditions will be affected, that the task is beyond their capacities, and due to the implied or direct challenge to the manner in which they have understood and practised their profession. Therefore, the first two sections of the book examine teacher attitudes, and the attitudes of other participants in the practice, toward inclusion. We believe that attitudes and their roots, whether negative or positive, must be understood for reasoned reform of what has been accepted as the only way to do things. Without knowing what teachers, parents of included students, parents of regular students, and the students themselves believe, efforts to move ahead and address concerns will be less fruitful than they should be. Teachers do have concerns about inclusive practice, but they also see many values in it. These values should be our guides in development of strategies to deal with these concerns.

Closely related to the attitudes of those involved in inclusion of students with challenging needs, is what actually happens in terms of student progress. Sections three and four examine social and academic achievement respectively. Represented in these sections, in addition to discussion of achievement, are supportive strategies, such as social skill programming and peer tutoring. Success in inclusion is not simply a matter of adding students with challenges to regular classrooms and waiting for the dust to settle. Careful planning and good teaching are as necessary in regular classrooms as they are in any situation where teachers work with students with diverse abilities.

The next section focusses on the behaviour of students who are included. Behaviour is an area of fundamental concern and may be the one which alerts teachers most. When we speak to individual teachers, groups of teachers, and future teachers, it is routine to discover that they believe almost all teachers will encounter students whose behaviour is dangerous and fundamentally disruptive. Our own experience tells us that this is not the case, though there are students whose needs can result in explosive behaviour. There are just not as many such children as teachers fear. But it is a fear. Therefore, we included discussions which suggest how to understand the behavioural problems some students have, and how to respond to them with skill and effect. Flexible solutions can be brought to almost any situation given positive attitude, knowledge of appropriate strategies, and collegial support.

One valuable response to behavioural needs is to enlist the assistance of a child care

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worker or educational assistant. Both of these paraprofessionals can work with the teacher to respond to behaviour in positive ways. We extended this point into a discussion of the paraprofessional in the next section. These staff members have become and, in our view, will remain a vital support for many students and teachers. Paraprofessionals are not teachers, and should not be expected to take on teacher responsibilities, but together the teacher and the paraprofessional can forge an effective team. The variety of needs that paraprofessionals can address is large, and though they are not needed for as many students as some believe, when they are in place and well prepared, they can work wonders.

To us this kind of question, "What is the role of the paraprofessional in the classroom?", leads to larger considerations. After all, the paraprofessional is but one part of an overall plan. It is at the level of the overall plan, or model for instruction, that all the pieces become apparent and how they fit together becomes clearer. The model chosen to address any particular need is important. It is important in determining aspects such as whether a paraprofessional should be worked into the program, or whether peer tutors might meet the situation more effectively. Such strategies should be thought through before inclusion is attempted. The model for any educational reform is best approached with forethought. But forethought can be a luxury. Time is not always available. Events have a habit of simply happening and then you are left to develop your model for inclusion as you go along. The articles in this "models" section outline procedures for when time is available, but also chronicle what can happen when events overtake educators who have responsibility for the education of all students. Sometimes, it is possible to plan in advance. Sometimes you just have to do it.

Our final two sections turn to strategies which are common among those who practice inclusively, and which have support through research as well. Their use can be preplanned or they can be put in place as needs arise.

First we isolate collaboration as a major strategy. We do this because collaboration appears as a basic element of every model of inclusion with which we are familiar. It is a fundamental practice within this educational reform. Inclusion calls for teachers to work together in support of students with challenging needs, for parents to be involved in planning, for the input of related professionals, and, very definitely, the cooperation of the regular students in the

classroom.

The final section reviews explorations of particular strategies. The ways to support inclusive education require careful examination of one's basic understanding of the teaching and learning process at one end of the spectrum of practice, and of daily, functional tasks such as how to deal with homework at the other. The teacher's task is indeed varied. It calls for a reflective practitioner who is not afraid to explore new ground or to question old tactics. In fact, the task of teaching all children calls for teachers to teach well and, at its best, to teach all comers. .

We have referred to inclusive practice as educational reform. In fact, it may more appropriately be regarded as the natural result of reform which has been in progress for many, many years. In an effort to place students with challenges in the contemporary context of education, we began this book with an interpretation of how education has regarded such students over the ages. The present-day move to what we call inclusion, in our minds, is part of the centuries old concern with individuals with disabilities and their place in society. We focus on the educational society as that is our area, but societal concern for this group encompasses everything from birth to marriage to death. We see a connectedness, a continue move from complete segregation toward a future of complete involvement in community. Our role as educators is to try to understand what is happening, identify barriers, and clarify positive concepts and strategies.

Therefore, we have chosen to deal with how best to support inclusive practice and those who wish to choose it. We see little value in arguing over whether education should be moving toward more inclusion. It is. We are. The world is.

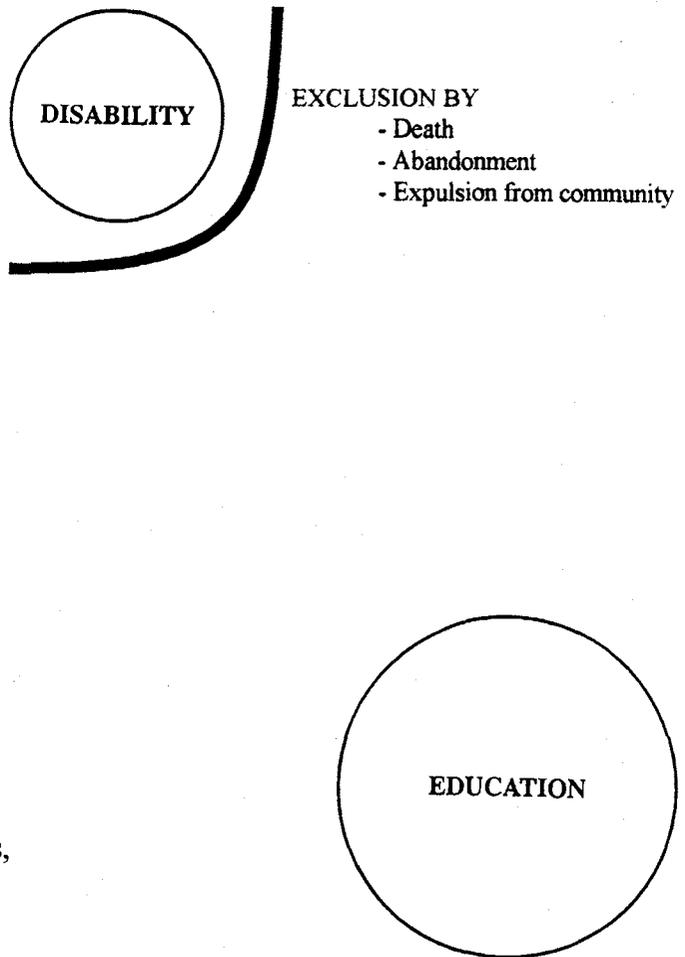
**FROM THERE TO HERE:
THE PASSAGE TO INCLUSIVE EDUCATION**

Gary Bunch

We used to be there. Now we are here. It is often said that we must understand history to have a firm idea of how the present came to be, and to form a picture of what the future might look like. That saying is as true for how the educational system and the community in general have included children with disabilities as it is for anything else. There is a history of how we moved from where we used to be in inclusion to where we are now.

Present understanding of the term “inclusive education” is that it is a recent phenomenon. The term may be recent, but inclusion of children with disabilities in education is not. Inclusive education is simply the latest term for offering education to those whose learning is challenged. The difference in this particular term is that it signifies that all children, regardless of differences in learning ability, are placed in age-appropriate regular classrooms of their neighbourhood schools for their education.

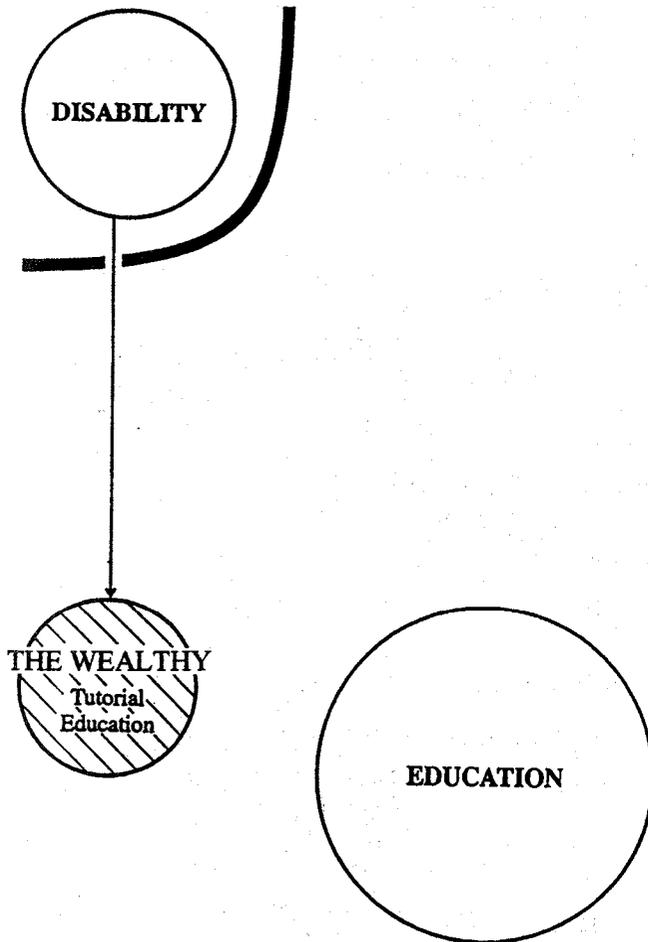
Education may be seen as placed on a continuum of increasingly inclusionary periods. From distant times when education was characterized much more by exclusion for the great majority of all possible learners, disabled or not, to the contemporary period when educators and others struggle with “inclusion”, there has been continuous movement along the continuum toward less exclusion and more inclusion.



**FIGURE 1: Exclusionary Education:
How It Was in the Beginning**

Inclusion by Class: The Early Years

Though educational opportunities have been offered to those without disabilities for centuries, acceptance of individuals with disabilities within the mainstream of education does not have nearly as lengthy a history. Certainly inclusion of such individuals with other learners in regular classrooms is quite recent. Historical precedent began with total exclusion from education.



Not only were children with disabilities excluded from education, they were excluded from community. In many places those with disabilities could not live in a village or town. Remember those with leprosy who were expelled from their own communities and forced to wander from place to place ringing a bell to warn others that they were coming? Remember the children of Sparta who were taken outside their communities and left in the wild to die? Remember all those who were seen as a burden on a society which rejected them as unable to contribute to the community or to learn the skills required in daily life? Such

Figure 2: Inclusion by Class: The First Movement

individuals were considered as less than human and worthy only of death in many early societies.

It is tempting to interpret educational history as a history of exclusion. Society has been exclusionary and continues to be exclusionary to a great degree. However, even within the exclusionary reality of early societies with regard to those with disabilities, the first, faint glimmerings of educational inclusion may be seen. We know, for instance, that some families were sufficiently wealthy and influential that their children, though disabled, were educated by

tutors. Ponce de Leon is an example of one such tutor. He taught the deaf sons of wealthy Spanish families the rudiments of oral and written communication in the 1500's (Winzer, 1987).

Numerous individual examples of this type have been evident over the centuries.

Until the mid 1700's a limited number of children with disabilities obtained the benefits of education, and through those benefits, some degree of inclusion in society. Beginning in Europe and Asia, tutorial education eventually passed to the New World. The same pattern of education for some children with disabilities, if their families had the resources, was evident.

From the mid 1700's to the early 1900's in most Western countries, more and more individuals with disabilities were included in education, particularly in residential schools. In general, such inclusion continued to be restricted to those from families in the upper economic strata, although there were some institutions for the needy. Eventually females with disabilities came to be represented, in modest numbers, among those offered some degree of education. Residential schools for children with the sensory disabilities of deafness and blindness became relatively common. Individuals with physical disabilities, too, were beginning to appear in educational venues. It was in this period that deafness, blindness, and physical disabilities were seen to have "face validity" with the appropriateness of "special" educational provision obvious to all (MacMillan & Hendrick, 1993). It was less obvious that the

intellectually and behaviourally challenged could benefit from education, though some were "included" in non-educational residential institutions with various degrees of habilitative

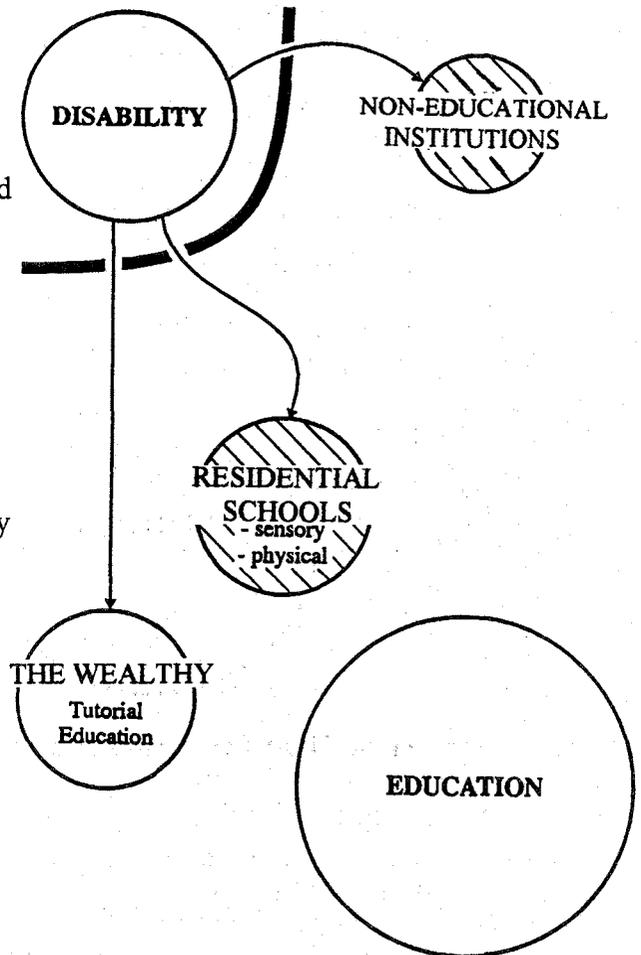


Figure 3: Inclusion by Disability: Grouping in Residential Schools & Habilitative Institutions

programming.

Inclusion by Disability: The Segregated System

By the twentieth century, society had recognized that certain groups of individuals with disabilities should be exposed to educational (deafness, blindness, & physical challenge) or habilitative (intellectually & behavioural challenge) services. Though gender, race, and class differences were not responded to with equity, and though educational and habilitative institutions most often were set well away from major centres and regular education, the passage to inclusion in education had begun and momentum gained. By 1900 there were rare instances of special day classes in regular schools (MacMillan & Hendrick, 1993).

Though such classes were the exception, their growth, and the inclusion of more and more children with disabilities, resulted in the creation of a special education segregated system which paralleled the regular system, and competed with it increasingly for funds and personnel. An entire new bureaucracy, complete with specialized administrators, specialized teachers, specialized teacher preparation programs, specialized assessment methods, specialized instructional methods, specialized associations of teachers, specialized publications, and specialized transportation systems was firmly in place and in its heyday by 1970. The process of development of this system was one of including children with disabilities, many of whom previously had been excluded from education completely, within the segregated special education system. But they were closer than ever before to families,

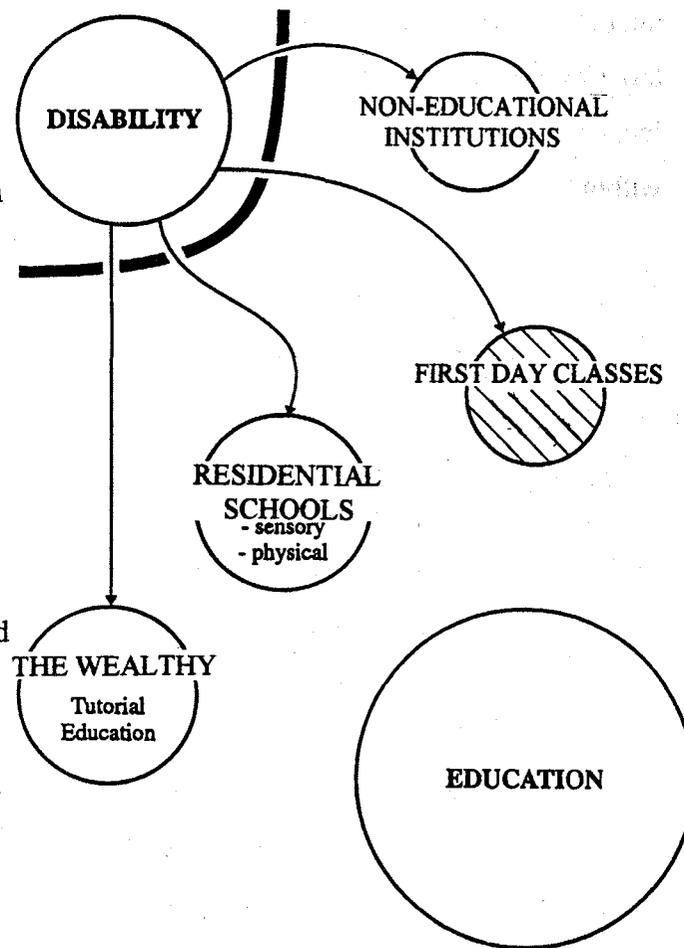


Figure 4: Inclusion by Disability: Beginning of the Parallel Segregated System

homes, and communities. By 1980 many governments had enshrined the right of all children to an education in legislation.

Driving what was fundamental change in education was fundamental change in societal regard for children with disabilities. Lazerson (cited in MacMillan & Herrick, 1993) hypothesized that four concomitant social changes, apparent at the turn of the century, centred on recognition of the value of education for the populace at large, and stimulated by criticism of the public school system as inefficient, led to the growth and elaboration of the segregated, parallel, special education system comprised of residential schools, day schools, and special classes in centrally designated schools. Each change can be interpreted as evidence of a continuous, though hesitant, movement toward the inclusion of students with disabilities within the educational system.

- **Society began to regard the school system as a logical agency within society to address social problems.**

Social problems such as cultural, racial, and ability differences were designated as educational problems.

Society expected educators to deal with them and to alleviate them.

- **The new corporate-industrialized model of organization.**

Structures such as “centralization,

specialization of function, administrative hierarchy, and cost accounting” (p. 29), gained

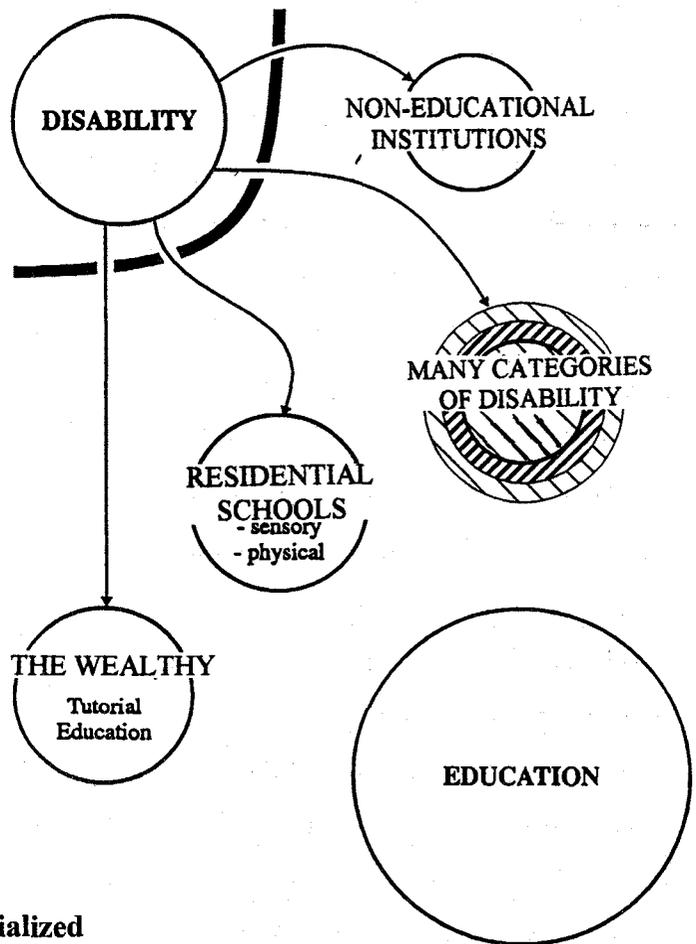


Figure 5: Inclusion by Disability Growth of the Parallel System

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advocates in society. They were seen as increasing educational efficiency, particularly with regard to those whose learning was suspect.

- **Education was viewed as being not merely an academic enterprise for those who could keep pace.**

The benefits of vocational curricula which would prepare groups of students for successful employment gained appreciation.

- **Lastly, the intelligence test was developed as a scientific tool.**

Psychologists and educators believed that the intelligence test could differentiate accurately among children on the basis of intellectual ability, with the resultant direction of the majority of students to “regular” education and others to “special” education.

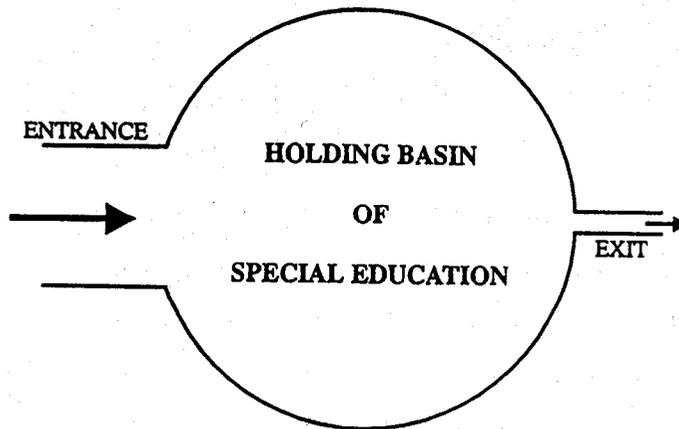
Within 70 years one public system of education had grown into two. The second system included children who previously had been excluded completely or allowed to visit only the margins of education. The development of a parallel, segregated system was a major step, and a rapid one given the pace of most educational change, toward inclusion.

Son of Inclusion by Disability: The Least Restrictive Environment

Segregated special education has its roots in the medical model. Difficulty experienced in dealing with regular academic curricula was viewed as a deficit, a deficit which could be remediated to greater or lesser degree through administration of special education. Degree of deficiency could be measured by IQ and other standardized tests, remedial activities provided, and degree of academic recovery measured by those same tests. The parallel special education system was developed to offer students with disabilities maximum opportunity to develop their potentials and do better in the world than they otherwise would. That was the guiding rationale for separate schools, separate classes, small class size, specially prepared teachers, and specialized instructional methods.

Unfortunately, special education has not fulfilled the promise that so many saw in it. As MacMillan and Hendrick (1993) noted, “Special classes failed to demonstrate substantive advantages over regular classes” (p. 39), despite advantages of pupil-teacher ratio and specialization. The majority of children who entered special education never left. The exit route

was much narrower than was the entrance. It was an “eye of the needle” exit. Dissatisfaction with the results of special education, and particularly with separation of “special” students from “regular” students, grew over the years even as the size and sophistication of the special education system itself grew.



**Figure 6: “Eye of the Needle”:
Exit Model of Special Education**

As with so many aspects of life when differing findings or values pull society in conflicting directions, educators were pulled both toward and away from special education placement as appropriate for students with challenges. Some might see this as a classic approach-avoidance syndrome. In typical fashion, the educational society and government opted for compromise. The concept of the Least Restrictive Environment (LRE) was articulated and acted on formally and informally in many jurisdictions (Stainback, Stainback, & Bunch, 1989). Whereas the term LRE is generally taken to mean that a student should be placed full-time as close to the regular classroom as possible (Salend, 1994), with due regard to needs and degree of learning challenge, two definite forms of LRE have developed.

- Full-time placement in a classroom and program as close as possible to the regular classroom and program, if not actually in a regular classroom.
- Split placement between regular and special classrooms to “gain the benefits of both”.

The two forms of LRE reflect growing acceptance by educators of the value in having

children together in educational settings. The first recognizes that the greatest value is to be found in regular classroom placement and represents the first significant move from parallel systems to a single, united educational system. The second, split placement or “son of inclusion by disability”, is a Solomon-like compromise by educators which cleaves in twain the educational life of children with challenges to their learning. It is regarded as acceptable middle ground by those who value special education placement, but who know they have to give in at least partially to pressure from those who prefer full-time regular class placement for all. It is regarded, too, as acceptable by those who simply want to cool down the argument and live a more peaceful life. For those who fervently believe that to be partially included tears a child in half, and leaves her/him in an educational never-never land, this “son of inclusion by disability” interpretation of the least restrictive environment is not acceptable.

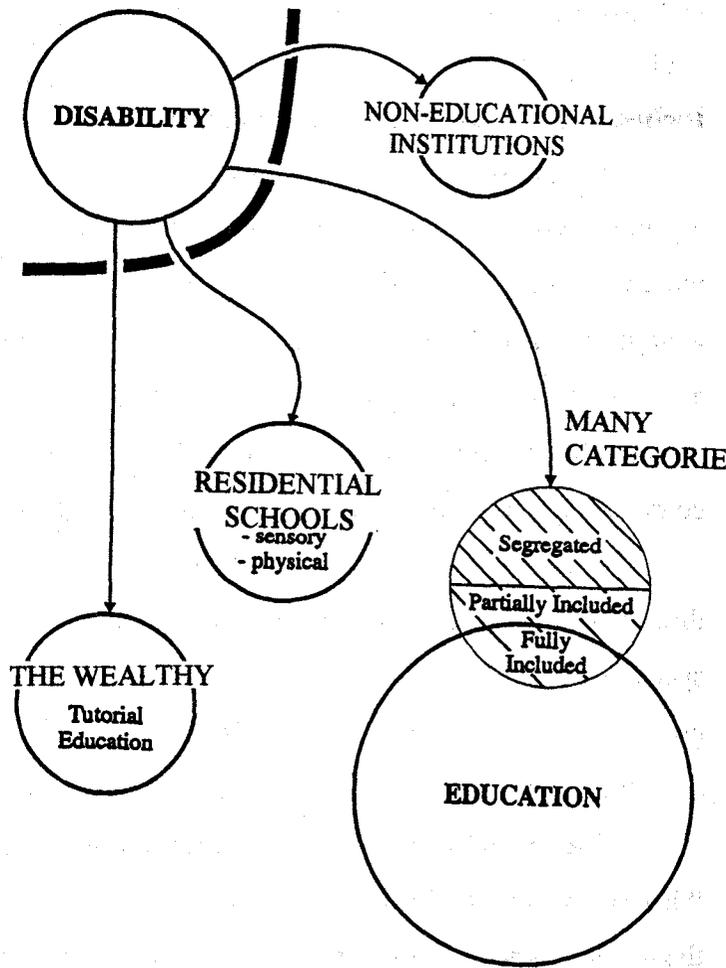


Figure 7: The Least Restrictive Environment: Moving Toward the Regular Education System

Between approximately 1970 and 1985 educational compromise was a major dynamic. Many students, almost all classified as mildly to moderately challenged in their learning, were placed in regular classrooms. Others were neither fish nor fowl and were educated in the land of split placement. Still others, primarily those with higher degrees of challenge to their learning, remained in segregated schools or classes.

If the least restrictive environment and its variations can be conceptualized as “son of

inclusion by disability”, it may be seen that the offspring was regarded as possessing questionable legitimacy.

Inclusion by Right: The Regular Classroom

Not all have accepted the least restrictive environment concept. Those who see little right and much wrong with special education have pursued their demands for regular classroom placement vigorously in the past ten years. They have taken their fights to the courts, the media, government, and the public. Choice of placement in a regular classroom, if such is desired, is advanced as an issue of human rights and natural social justice.

With equal vigour others dispute the value of regular class placement and advocate the continuance of segregated special education. Such advocates may be divided into four camps.

The first is comprised of parent groups such as associations concerned with learning disabilities and or giftedness. Such groups have fought hard and long for the benefits they see in special education classes. Availability of special education is perceived as a rights issue and governmental legislation of regular class placement for all children is feared. Access to segregated special education placement is demanded.

The second group defends “quality education” and high achievement levels. Members of this group fear that widening diversity within regular classes will dilute achievement and placed the nation in a weakened competitive position internationally. This view is articulated in a position paper of the Quality Education Network of Ontario, Canada (1992) in the following terms: “Students with severe disabilities cannot be fully integrated into a classroom without seriously encroaching on the educational rights of the majority of students.” To this group inclusion in regular classrooms of students with challenges is educational anarchy.

The third group is that of educators who are concerned that regular teachers will not be supported when children with challenges enter their classrooms. They see teachers as unprepared professionally to deal with diversity in terms of ability and as pawns at a time of economic stringency. They argue against inclusion as an infringement of teacher rights on the basis that educators have practical concerns which “centre on inappropriate placements, inadequate training, class time and discipline “ (Capitol Publications, Inc., 1994).

The fourth group is that of educators and others who believe that enforced inclusion will

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be detrimental to the interests of students whom they believe to benefit from segregated placement. This group tends to include teachers who have spent their teaching careers in special educational settings. They value what they have worked for and what they have experienced educationally. A particular focus of this view may be found within the community of educators and deaf individuals associated with residential schools for deaf children. Baldwin (1994), for instance, views inclusion as founded in idealism and lacking reality. He posits that "Although advocates of full inclusion might argue that [special] programs are isolationist in nature, we in turn argue that special programs are best equipped with the resources needed to prepare most deaf students to enter the mainstream of life". Similar arguments are made for other categories of educational exceptionality by relevant authorities.

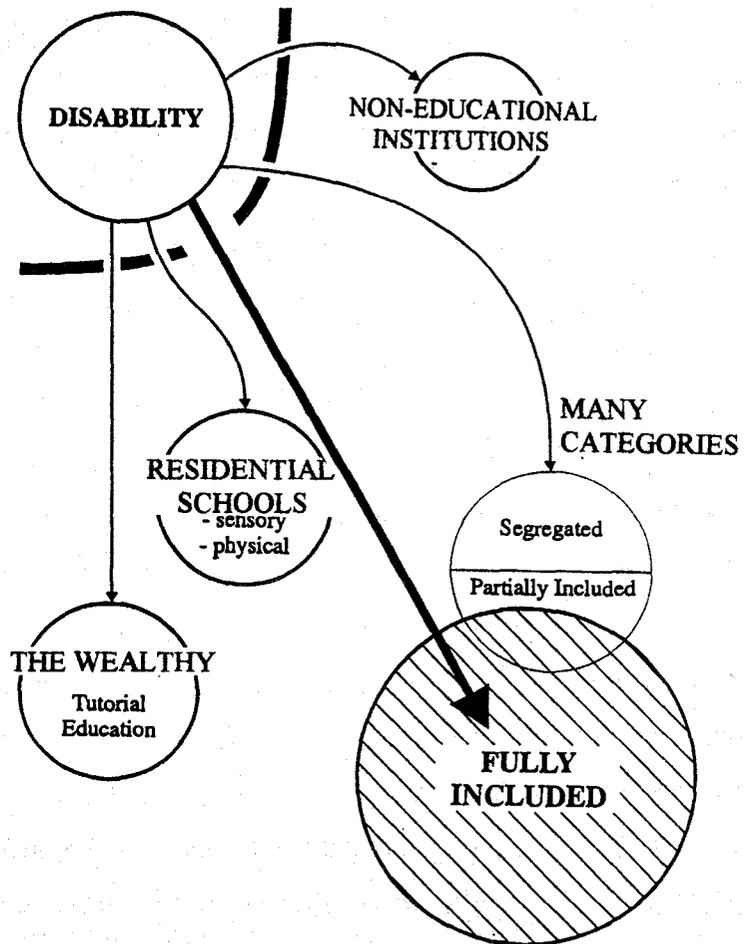


Figure 8: Inclusionary Education: The Direct Route

Despite reservations of such groups, present striving for inclusion in regular classrooms is simply today's aspect of a societal movement which began hundreds of years ago. Advocates argue that, just as King Canute could not halt the incoming tide from covering the beaches of England, so opponents of inclusive education will be unable to halt the tide of inclusion in the long run. In this instance the tide is one of children with disabilities entering regular classrooms directly, without recourse to a

parallel, special system.

A number of governments have opted for, or are in the process of opting for, inclusive educational policies. A growing number of school systems have taken inclusive stances. Individual educational leaders are creating channels and pools of inclusion in the midst of segregation. Teacher preparation programs are slowly recognizing the need to prepare all teachers, and not merely a few specialists, for increased regular classroom diversity by ability. Considerable time may pass before the movement is complete, but the tide is coming in.

Summary

Formalized approaches to education have a history extending back many centuries. A common element, no matter the length of existence of various approaches to schooling, is that, until the last two hundred years, formal education was characterized more by exclusion of learners with special needs, than by inclusion. Only with painstaking slowness did such learners begin to take their place in the educational community. The beginning of the twentieth century witnessed the extension of public education to almost all children. It was at this point that the large number of children who were challenged by the age-grade, academically focussed model basic to the educational structure of the time came to the attention of administrators. In order to include these children efficiently, and to respond to their perceived needs, special education structures which paralleled regular education were created.

With startling speed for education, this new parallel structure grew and obtained strength through the first seven decades of the twentieth century. More and more students with challenges to their learning were included in education for the first time. Within recent years a move beyond parallel special education structures to inclusive placements has occurred for many children. Though presently a controversial movement, as those tied to the past and with vested interest in the parallel system argue against increased inclusion, the inclusive education movement may be seen as simply a continuance of the centuries-old movement from exclusion to inclusion in the educational community. It may be seen, too, as the future.

Originally published in *Exceptionality Education Canada*, 1994, Vol. 4, Nos. 3 & 4.

TEACHER ATTITUDES

A growing number of educators, researchers, and advocates familiar with inclusive education believe that it is the attitude of the teacher which determines whether inclusion can occur or not. They base this belief on the fact that, while many educators decry inclusion and swear that it is an unrealistic, overly demanding ideal, others teach inclusively every day of the school year and have been doing so for years. As one teacher said when asked whether inclusion was sound educational practice, inclusion is sound practice

“Because it works. It works for that particular student. It works for the parents.

And it can work for the teacher as well. It can work for everyone.

Yet inclusive practice is questioned, and questioned severely, by teachers, teacher associations, and others who cannot believe that regular class placement is feasible, that the students who are included will do as well as, or even better than, they would in special classes or schools, that the education of regular students will not be harmed, but enhanced, and that regular teachers and resource teachers can work together in inclusion without being over stressed and burning out. Some even believe inclusion to be an evil plot hatched by government and administrators to cut expenses at the cost of teachers. Witness one teacher’s comment from the same study quoted above:

We are suspicious about the board’s or government’s hidden agenda and do not want to be part of any cost saving scheme.

It is evident that a considerable number of teachers are unwilling to become involved in inclusion because of what they think about it, factual or not. Until teacher attitudes and their roots are understood, it will be difficult for parents, administrators, teacher educators, advocates, and governments to respond positively, to plan, and to implement strategies of support. Fortunately, the growing research literature exploring teacher attitude has changed direction from research which simply documents teacher concerns about inclusive practice, to studies which attempt to understand teacher concerns. The following articles sample the range of findings on teacher attitude now becoming available.

In the first article Vaughn and her colleagues use focus group interviews with teachers

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from across the U.S. to explore the views of regular class and special education teachers toward inclusion. A main result of the study is a listing of teacher concerns. However, the study also lists keys to inclusive practice suggested by teachers. There is an indication that teachers do not see drawbacks only, but also are aware of central strategies supportive of inclusive practice. The following study by Karge and her research team reviews concerns regarding sufficient time for conferencing with colleagues and for planning, but goes on to emphasize the value of collaboration, a key inclusive strategy. Werts et al. next outline the major teacher concerns regarding supports for inclusive practice. This study represents the type of practically oriented study required to understand what teachers think they need and to what degree the support available is meeting those needs. The final study in this set of four focuses on specific aspects of concerns and how they might be addressed. Rodden-Nord, Shinn, and Good attempt to define how providing achievement data for included students and comparing it to that of the lower achieving readers in a regular class affects teacher willingness to reintegrate students with special needs. It is an interesting examination of a particular strategy, even though the position of the research team appears to be based more on the cascade model with its range of possible placements for students with challenges than on an inclusive model.

The fifth and sixth articles on teacher attitude stand to one side of the first four and may be seen as definitely going beyond concerns only. The first by Bunch, Lupart, and Brown undertook individual interviews with approximately 140 educators across Canada. They also collected questionnaire data from a large number of teachers and spontaneous written commentary on inclusion from another sizeable group. The study listed teacher concerns, as have others, but, importantly, went on to research what teachers find of value in inclusion. A surprising number of benefits were perceived by participating educators. Finally, the research team, in collaboration with community research partners, derived implications for government, school systems, support/advocacy agencies, and faculties of education.

The final article is a charming one by Giangreco and colleagues, if research can be referred to as charming. At any rate, it is our favourite in this section. Giangreco et al. interviewed teachers who had a student with severe disabilities placed in their classrooms, but not under their direct responsibility for programming and teaching. The study describes the transformation of the

majority of the teachers regarding inclusive practice as they interacted over a year with their new students.

Taken together these studies sketch teacher attitudes toward inclusive education. They point to common concerns regarding practice, but also extend to supportive strategies and to the very definite benefits of inclusion. A number stress that teacher attitude is crucial in bringing children together in regular classroom.

TEACHERS' VIEWS OF INCLUSION

**Sharon Vaughn, Jeanne Shay Schumm, Bonnie Jallad, Jason Slusher,
and Linda Saumell**

Using focus group interviews, Vaughn et al. explored views of regular and special education teachers without experience with inclusion. A total of 74 teachers from 27 elementary schools, 9 middle schools, and 9 high schools from a large metropolitan school district in the southeastern U. S. participated. There were ten separate focus groups (4 elementary, 3 middle, and 3 high school) consisting of from four to twelve participants. Interviews ran an average of 60 minutes. Interview questions focussed on four areas of discussion: (a) teachers' knowledge of the practice of inclusion; (b) barriers to implementation of inclusive practices; (c) beliefs regarding the shape of a model of inclusion; and (d) opinions about research on inclusion.

Data Analysis and Results

Focus group interviews were taped and later transcribed.

Analysis of data using the constant comparative method resulted in 9 categories of responses. No differences in pattern of response were found among elementary, middle or high school teachers. Therefore the results are discussed for teachers as a whole.

Teachers were found to have strong concerns about inclusion and the effect such practice might have on them. Frequently expressed comments reflected a desire for "concrete operational" definitions of inclusion, and clear, explicit expectations of teachers. Lack of a common definition resulted in confusion and feelings of inability to come to grips with inclusion. Class size, lack of personnel, lack of parental involvement, difficulty with grading and evaluation, lack of preparation, and a desire not to teach those with special needs were other barriers to inclusion mentioned. Most participants felt that inclusion would interfere with the learning of all students.

On the other hand, respondents recognized that labelling students resulted in stigmatization and that removal of labels was a key element of inclusive practice. They also saw that inclusion called for communication among teachers and others, and for the use of strategies such as cooperative learning and peer tutoring. Both general and special education teachers at all school levels believed that adequate teacher preparation was another key to meeting student needs in regular classrooms. Finally, a small number of teachers were optimistic about the potential

success of inclusion and the benefits it promised for both regular and included students.

Discussion

Vaughn et al. believe the opinions of the teachers in this study are likely to be shared by other teachers, and that their reservations may be due to a lack of knowledge and information about inclusion. They cite other research which has described the belief among teachers who have worked in inclusive settings that students with special needs benefit both socially and academically in such programs. The conflict between the concerns of those who fear the effect of widespread inclusion and the benefits often seen by teachers engaged in inclusive practice combined to form a puzzling scenario which is yet to be clarified.

Final Word

The use of focus group interviews provides an interesting difference to the usual individual interview design. However, it is questionable whether focus group participants are more willing to share their true opinions and feelings (as Vaughn et al. suggest) or whether this format may have restrained discussion or compelled some to agree with majority opinion. However, the study was well thought out, clearly written and interesting to read. Although the opinions of the bulk of respondents may have been quite negative, they are nonetheless generally representative of issues which concern many teachers and appear in other studies.

Of particular interest is the evidence that even teachers with marked reservations regarding inclusion saw its advantages, were able to nominate strategies supportive of inclusive practice, and pointed to professional development as at least a partial solution to their concerns. Such evidence suggests to us that administrators, leaders among teachers, teacher educators, and researchers could take steps to address concerns which would have positive effect, even in the presence of initial resistance.

Learning Disabilities Research and Practice 11(2), 96 - 106, 1996

THE SUCCESS OF COLLABORATION RESOURCE PROGRAMS FOR STUDENTS WITH DISABILITIES IN GRADES 6 THROUGH 8

Belinda Dunnick Karge, Melinda McClure, and Patricia L. Patton

Karge and colleagues examined collaborative models in use at middle and junior schools for meeting the needs of students classified as learning disabled (LD). The study was stimulated by recognition of the increasing implementation of general educator - special educator collaboration and the potential for an interdisciplinary approach in middle schools.

A Likert-type survey was distributed to 124 resource room teachers in 69 middle and junior high schools. Survey questions solicited information about the type of students and classes taught, the kind of programs in place, and problems teachers were facing. The 98 surveys returned represented a variety of teaching backgrounds and experiences.

Data Analysis and Results

Comparisons and correlations were computed from survey data. Numerical means and percentages were derived as well.

A major finding was that, although most teachers felt they had sufficient time to discuss an individual student with another teacher, they did not feel they had enough time to permit full realization of a collaborative program in their classrooms. Overall, collaboration time was somewhat limited, tended to be initiated by the special education teacher, and was often the result of seizing passing opportunities for discussion.

Seventy-one percent of teachers preferred combinations of consultation/collaboration and pull-out models for those with challenges to their learning. However, most teachers also believed that inclusion could be achieved if collaboration took place. Teacher attitudes (rather than degree of severity of student's disability) was the most important factor for successful collaboration.

Most teachers also believed that they had been poorly trained for working together and that workshops were inadequate. They were also concerned about an increase in workload as a result of having to accept more students under a collaborative model.

Discussion

On the whole, Karge et. al conclude that collaboration between special education and regular class teachers is becoming more common and that most teachers are positive about the

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practice. Some form or other of a collaborative model was a feature of almost all resource room programs in schools participating in this study. However, the researchers caution readers that teacher roles and expectations must be clearly laid out, and that clear policy objectives are as essential to the success of collaborative programs as is administrative support. Furthermore, the need to provide stronger training to teachers should be given strong consideration.

The research team suggests their findings support the belief that, while problems may result from inadequate design and staff preparation, definite benefits are to be found in the collaborative resource model.

Final Word

Although not particularly complex regarding data collection or analysis, and based solely on survey information, this study does, nonetheless, give a general impression of the state of collaborative programs in schools in one area of the U. S. It highlights some important questions regarding design, implementation, administrator support, and the kind of training that should be in place to ensure success of collaborative programs.

The focus on possible barriers to successful implementation and benefits to be gained provides clear guidelines for others considering higher levels of collaboration between general and special educators. The fact that teachers felt inclusion could occur under collaborative practices is a very positive finding.

Remedial and Special Education, 16(2), 79 - 89, 1995

SUPPORTS AND RESOURCES ASSOCIATED WITH INCLUSIVE SCHOOLING: PERCEPTIONS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS ABOUT NEED AND AVAILABILITY

Margaret Gessler Werts, Mark Wolery, Erin D. Snyder, Nicola K. Caldwell, and
Christine L. Salisbury

This team of researchers examined teachers' perceptions regarding the availability of, and need for, supports and resources which would allow elementary teachers to integrate students with challenges. A total of 1430 regular class teachers from kindergarten through grade 6, and from every geographic region of the U. S. responded to a questionnaire. Of these, 75% responded as having had a full-time student with special needs. This group of teachers was divided into those who rated their students high (indicating more severe disabilities) on an adapted "Abilities Index", and those who rated them low. Teachers' beliefs were solicited on five categories of supports: training; material and physical resources; additional personnel; personal support/resources; and meetings.

Data Analysis and Results

All questionnaires were sorted by grade level. Data were analysed using a database developed for the purpose. On the issue of perceived availability of resources and support, no significant differences were found between teachers with and without a student with special needs in availability of training, material and physical resources, additional personnel, and meetings. A difference in personal support was found for those teachers who had an included student in their classes. The difference was in support from the family of the challenged student, from families of other students without disabilities, and from principals. In addition, teachers with low-rated students reported a greater availability of support in training, and in personal support, than did teachers with students with higher degrees of challenge.

On the issue of perceived necessity for resources and support, the study found a small, but significant, difference between the two levels of disability in each of the 5 categories of resources and supports. Teachers with high-rated students reported greater need across all categories. Both groups reported personal support as being more necessary than any other. Overall, with the exception of availability of university courses and contact with team members, both groups

reported that they needed more resources and supports than were available to them.

Discussion

On the simple issue of whether teachers perceived resources in the form of training, material and physical resources, additional personnel, and meetings to be available to them, no differences were found regardless of whether the teacher had or did not have a student with disability in her/his classroom. There was a difference in personal support with the support coming to teachers with students with challenging conditions from other families and administrators, but particularly from families of the students with challenge. When asked about actual need for various resources, teachers with included students reported needing resources and supports at a higher level than did other teachers. More teachers with students with higher levels of disability stated need for resources they did not have, than did those with lower need students. Similarly, teachers with students with higher levels of disability reported greater discrepancy between need for resources and their availability.

Without commenting on the factual bases of actual need, the research team did conclude that as levels of disability increased, so did teacher perceptions of need for resources and belief that needed resources were not available. Among the resources and supports teachers including students said they needed, and which were not always available, were professional development opportunities, written information on adapting classrooms, funds for needed extras, and smaller classes. With regard to staffing, teachers indicated that more in-class help was needed.

Final Word

This study of need and availability may be considered an example of the type of implementation study needed once a new and innovative educational philosophy has been accepted and actual practice entered into. Inclusion is such a philosophy now in practice in many jurisdictions. The study is important in its delineation of what teachers perceive and expect as they encounter students with challenges in the regular classroom, and as degree of challenge increases.

The study, while not easy to read, contains valuable implications for teacher preparation, inservice, assistance in classrooms, administrator support, and creativity in all these areas.

The Journal of Special Education, 30(2), 187 - 203, 1996

EFFECTS OF CLASSROOM PERFORMANCE DATA ON GENERAL EDUCATION TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARD REINTEGRATING STUDENTS WITH LEARNING DISABILITIES

Kathleen Rodden-Nord, Mark R. Shinn, and Roland H. Good III

In an attempt to find variables which influence regular class teachers' attitudes toward reintegration of students with learning disability, this study examined whether giving teachers information on the academic achievement and reading levels of each student influenced teachers' willingness to reintegrate. Twenty-six general education teachers and 26 students with learning disabilities in grades one to five participated. All students were receiving special education services. Academic achievement scores were determined using the Broad Reading Cluster (BRC) of the Woodcock-Johnson Psychoeducational Battery. Reading level was determined through curriculum based measures using regular class readers. The reading level of each student was compared to the reading levels of students in the regular teacher's lowest reading group. Thus, the teacher was told whether the student being reintegrated read as well as any member of her/his low reading group.

Thirteen students from among a pool of 50 diagnosed with learning disability met this requirement and were classified as potential candidates (PC) for reintegration. A second group of 13 was selected randomly from the remainder of the group and designated as UC or unlikely candidates. A pre-reading and a post-reading level questionnaire was used to probe the teachers' attitudes toward reintegration. In addition, special education teachers serving the students were asked to rate readiness for reintegration using a single 7-point item.

Data Analysis and Results

All initial responses indicated teachers were either unwilling or neutral toward assuming responsibility for language instruction for reintegrated students. However, four weeks later, after receiving information on the reading levels of their students, and if the identified student could read as well as at least one member of their low reading groups, willingness rose significantly. Willingness decreased if students did not reach this level. Statistical analysis of the influence of the standardized BRC achievement scores revealed that giving teachers percentile scores of achievement levels had little influence on willingness to reintegrate.

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Of more importance was whether students were within the levels of the lowest reading group.

Special education teacher ratings of readiness for reintegration did not systematically relate to willingness of general education teachers to reintegrate. Special education teachers tended to rate students as unready whether or not general education teachers indicated readiness.

Discussion

The research team conclude that the findings of this study offer evidence that teachers' attitudes can be changed. Curriculum based assessment results were found to be one variable which significantly influenced teacher attitudes. The team also calls into question any reliance on the opinions of special education teachers in order to determine whether a student should or should not be reintegrated. They argue that special education teachers may not have the necessary data base for making judgements on student readiness, and suggest that procedures for making such decisions should be set in place.

Final Word

Important findings from a fairly well designed study. The research team itself points out limitations of the study in that reported attitudes, rather than actual behaviours, were discussed. Furthermore, they suggest that the study be replicated in another jurisdiction to determine whether the results obtained may be location specific.

An interesting aspect of the study is that it is premised on the position that students can be divided into those ready for reintegration and those not. This is a quite common premise within the mainstreaming/integration model, and is considered a viable option dependent on academic and social achievement. Those who advocate inclusion see such a position as questionable.

Nevertheless, the study is an addition to the literature which deals with why teachers believe as they do about students with disabilities and their place in the regular classroom. We need to understand how and why some teachers divide students with challenging needs into groups perceived as acceptable or unacceptable in regular classrooms. With such information we will be able to work with teachers more successfully in guiding them to the understanding that all children have a rightful place in the regular classrooms of their community schools.

School Psychology Review, 21(1), 138 - 154, 1992

RESISTANCE AND ACCEPTANCE: EDUCATOR ATTITUDES TO INCLUSION OF STUDENTS WITH DISABILITIES

Gary Bunch, Judy Lupart, and Margaret Brown

This study presents findings regarding educator attitudes toward inclusion of students with challenging needs across Canada. Regular classroom teachers, administrators, resource teachers, special class teachers, and university students participated. Practising educators were drawn from traditionally structured school systems having both regular and special education structures, and inclusively structured systems having regular classes, but few special education classes. The research team was complemented by research partners representing school systems across Canada, provincial ministries of education, the Canadian Teachers' Association, the Canadian Association of Community Living, the Canadian Council for Exceptional Children, and the Centre for Integrated Education and Community.

Data and Findings

Three data sources are used in the study: the Educator Opinion Questionnaire (EOQ); spontaneous written comments on inclusion recorded on the last page of the questionnaire; and individual, in-depth interviews with regular classroom teachers, school administrators, resource teachers, and special class teachers. Educators at both secondary and elementary levels participated. Discussion focussed on data derived from qualitative analysis of interviews. EOQ and spontaneous written commentary analyses appear as appendices.

Results indicated that educator attitudes toward inclusion fell into two main areas. The first related to teacher concerns. Reservations about inclusive practice were held with regard to work load and effect of inclusion on regular teachers, adequacy of preservice and inservice professional development, and administrator support. These findings echoed those of other studies of teacher attitude in this area.

The second theme resulted from probes for positive values seen in inclusive practice and teacher ability to function inclusively. Generally positive attitudes were held regarding professional ability to accept primary responsibility for included students, and for the development of strong working relationships between regular classroom teachers and special

education resource teachers. The majority of respondents believed that regular students benefited both academically and socially from inclusive experiences. They also believed that the students included in regular classes gained in social and academic domains. Benefits are detailed.

The controlling factor for a substantial number of educators appeared to be concern for workload and support. Regardless of aspect of inclusive practice considered, workload and support were mentioned by many participants. However, educators in both traditionally and inclusively structured systems felt inclusive practice possible, beneficial, and appropriate if supports were in place. Furthermore, data indicated what teachers meant by support; that which calls for increased funding, such as educational assistants, and that which does not require additional expenditure, such as empathetic support by administrators.

Implications of Findings

A major focus of the study was interpretation of findings in terms of implications for government, school systems, support/advocacy organizations, and faculties of education. Research partners from all these areas participated fully in drawing out implications.

For government, implications included consideration of a "Ministry of the Child" to bring together policies and resources presently spread over a number of ministries in each province, the issue of right to inclusive placement, the need for adequate funding when students are included, the manner in which inclusive practice alters the roles of educators, stimulation of school-family collaboration, and clarification of government policies on inclusion.

Implications for school systems focussed on consideration of right to inclusive placement, clarification of system policies toward inclusion, need to prepare the system for increased placement of students with challenges in regular classrooms, leadership, and professional preparation.

Support/advocacy agencies were seen to have a valuable role in supporting and stimulating inclusion. Implications for support/advocacy agencies revolved about the issue of child rights, need for collaborative relationships with educators in support of families, provision of resources, and research into the nature and effect of inclusion.

The primary implications for faculties of education were the development of preservice courses and other activities focussed on equity in educational provision for all groups in society,

the development of teacher competency for inclusive education, and practicum experiences in inclusive settings. Development of model programs, collaboration with school systems and teacher federations on inservice and professional development, development of resources, and initiation of research agendas around inclusive education were also seen as appropriate activities for faculties.

Findings of this study strongly suggest that the structures of the past cannot be applied to societal reconceptualizations of education of students with challenging needs. Further, teachers see concerns in inclusive practice, but also many significant benefits.

Final Word

This study is interesting in the number of participants engaged in various roles in the school system and the involvement of both traditionally and inclusively structured systems. Findings have a wide and diverse base.

Derivation of implications in collaboration with research partners from the community is a valuable aspect. Too often researchers conduct their projects with little reference to the actual practitioners or those charged with making changes recommended by research.

Of importance is the finding of a variety of benefits of inclusion. This suggests that, if teacher concerns are addressed in adequate fashion, resistance to inclusive practice will be reduced and acceptance of the practice increased.

Faculty of Education, York University, Toronto, 1997

"I'VE COUNTED JON": TRANSFORMATIONAL EXPERIENCES OF TEACHERS EDUCATING STUDENTS WITH DISABILITIES

**Michael F. Giangreco, Ruth Dennis, Chigee Cloninger, Susan Edelman,
and Richard Schattman**

This study describes and discusses the experiences of 19 general education teachers, kindergarten to grade 9, all of whom have had a student with severe disabilities in their classrooms. All the students were characterized as having "dual sensory impairments" and many also had "severe orthopaedic disabilities". All were receiving statewide services for intensive special educational needs. Semi-structured interviews with follow-up questions, and a brief mail-in survey were used to investigate teachers' beliefs and opinions about the inclusion of these students into their classrooms.

Data Analysis and Results

Categorical coding of the interview data led to the creation of 57 codes. Survey data was analysed using the Statistical Analysis System (SAS). Although teachers' initial responses regarding integration of these students into their classrooms was described as cautious, 17 out of the 19 teachers said they experienced positive changes in attitude as a result of working with the students over the course of the year. Transformation of attitude was gradual and resulted in increased ownership and interaction with the included students for all but two teachers. Participants talked about becoming more confident in their abilities to teach the students and finding the task much easier than they first believed. Most also noted that having an exceptional student in the class did not increase disruptions in class, and that their presence had a positive effect on everyone. In addition, teachers believed that the regular class environment provided exceptional students with opportunities and challenges which led them to become more aware and responsive. Successful approaches used with the exceptional students focussed on the similarities between them and the regular students and on teachers' efforts to treat them like everyone else. Teachers also found cooperative learning, group problem solving and other active, participatory strategies to be helpful. Teamwork was a major theme.

Participants noted a range of acceptance by their regular students for the included students. The majority took the presence of a peer with severe disability as commonplace. Some students

actively sought the companionship of the included students and occasional deep friendships resulted.

Lastly, teachers felt that the experience of working with their exceptional students made them more “reflective” in their teaching, and that they would welcome the opportunity to teach other students with severe disability in the future.

Discussion

Giangreco and colleagues comment that those teachers whose attitude changed took the time to become involved with the student and did not defer to their teaching assistants. This change took place even though their initial expectation was that someone else (e.g. teaching assistants, special education resource personnel) actually held responsibility for the included student’s program. Giangreco et al. credit transformation for all but two of the 19 participating teachers to openness and willingness. This openness and willingness to become more involved was interpreted as a result of personal characteristics of the teachers. The authors also noted that most of the teachers in this study had positive experiences despite having little training for working with severely challenged students. They advance the idea that transformation was due to direct experience and that, though preparatory training may be of value, experience was a critical factor. Suggestions for inservice preparation prior to receiving an assigned student with challenge are offered.

Final Word

A well documented study with every effort being made to ensure that teachers’ perspectives were accurately summarized. Reading the teachers’ perspectives on the impact of inclusion in their classrooms is a refreshing change. The researchers do warn that the conclusions of their study cannot automatically be generalized to other settings. In this study the teachers volunteered to have an exceptional student integrated which may bias results. However, the results here are extremely encouraging for those supportive of inclusive practice.

Exceptional Children, 59(4), 359 - 372, 1993

WHAT OTHERS THINK

Others beside teachers have developed attitudes and beliefs toward including students with disabilities in regular classrooms of neighbourhood schools. Inclusion is a new practice and a change to what many parents experienced in their own school days. It is so new that many regular students have never had opportunity to get to know other students who happen to have disabilities, except at a distance.

One characteristic of the unknown, and inclusion is unknown to many parents and their children, is that it raises fears. In the instance of including students with challenges, fears are often advanced as reasons not to support inclusion. One fear is that regular students will reject and tease peers with disabilities. Another is that the education of regular students will be harmed through the presence of students with challenges in regular classrooms. Indeed, a position paper of the Quality Education Network of Ontario, Canada (1992, May) states, "Students with severe disabilities cannot be fully integrated into a classroom without seriously encroaching on the educational rights of the majority of students". No evidence is offered in support of this belief, but it is evident that it is part of the understanding of this lobby group with regard to inclusive practice.

It is challenging to deal with such attitudes in a logical fashion. Often they are based on horror stories passed along over the years. At other times they result failed attempts to integrate students without sufficient preparation or support. Fears also may rise from the feeling of discomfort society has experienced in the presence of those with disabilities, those who have been kept apart from society in the past. Hahn (1988) speaks of the anxiety some experience when they see the physical and other differences characteristic of some types of disability. Such differences are seen as unattractive and the viewer may fear that he or she, too, may become disabled and rejected. Such beliefs have no substance in most instances. Those holding them have little to no direct, long-term experience with disability. The movies they have seen, and the books they have read play up differences and often dwell on negatives. The Elephant Man's appearance shocked viewers. Rain Man was charming, but constantly stood out in society and eventually could find peace and acceptance only in the institution. Lenny, in Steinbeck's *Of Mice and Men*, did not have the sense not to kill. Such images instill fear and revulsion and create negative societal attitudes.

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Researchers have begun to investigate the reality of societal attitude once people have had opportunity to experience inclusion. Not a great deal has been done to date in chronicling events, but some studies do exist. Included in this review of research around inclusive education are four studies which point to student and parent acceptance of students with disabilities in regular classrooms.

Roberts and Lindsell explored the attitudes of Australian children toward peers with disabilities. They found that students who had routine contact with other students with challenges to their learning, had more positive attitudes than did those without such contact. In addition, their attitudes were influenced by significant others, particularly parents and principals. Views of regular students toward instructional modifications made when students with challenges are members of the classroom were investigated by Vaughn and others. This research team found that textbook adaptations, mixed ability groups, flexibility in group membership, and peer tutoring were well accepted by the majority of regular students. Regular students also accepted the slower pace of instruction which characterizes some inclusive classrooms.

Two studies focus on parental views of inclusive practice. Giangreco and colleagues discuss the benefits parents found for their regular children through contact with peers with disabilities. They point out, as well, that parents believed that the academic and social development of their children was not compromised by experience in inclusive classrooms. Ryndak and her colleagues looked at the perceptions of parents whose children with disabilities were placed in regular classrooms following experience in segregated, special settings. The parents found many positives to the inclusive setting in comparison with the segregated setting.

The picture emerging through research, and in our own discussions with parents who have experienced the effects of inclusion on their children at first hand, is that it is a positive practice which contributes to the development of their children. Parents of children who are included have little doubt that they prefer inclusion to exclusion. Other students accept peers with disabilities. Included students experience feelings of increased confidence and acceptance. In our experience, the fears held by those who have not yet experienced inclusion are not held by those that have.

CHILDREN'S ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOURAL INTENTIONS TOWARDS PEERS WITH DISABILITIES

Clare M. Roberts and Janina S. Lindsell

Roberts and Lindsell investigated the attitudes of regular students toward included students with disabilities on the basis of Fishbein's and Ajzen's theory of reasoned action. According to this theory, "beliefs govern attitudes, attitudes guide behavioural intentions, which in turn predict behaviour: (p. 134). A central aspect of this position is that a child's attitudes, and hence behaviour, can be influenced by significant others in her/his environment.

In this study Roberts and Lindsell predicted that the attitudes of teachers and parents would impact on children's attitudes toward working with peers with physical disabilities, and that principals would have impact as well, though to a lesser degree.

Grade 4 and 5 students from eight primary schools in Western Australia, along with their mothers, regular class teachers, and principals participated in the study. In four of the schools a child with physical disability (cerebral palsy in all instances) was included in regular grade 4 and 5 classes, while no children with any disability attended parallel classes in the other four schools. Some 62 grade four and five students attended the inclusive schools with 81 in the noninclusive settings. All mothers of the 143 children participated, as did 8 regular class teachers and 8 principals.

The regular students completed the Peer Attitudes Toward the Handicapped Scale (PATHS) which consists of 30 items focussed on common behaviours of young children with disabilities. PATHS yields physical, learning, behavioural, and total scores. Students also completed the Behavioural Intention Scale created for this study. This instrument presents a vignette about a child with cerebral palsy type characteristics enrolling in a new class. Ten questions exploring friendship situations accompany the vignette.

Teachers, principals, and mothers responded to the Interaction with Disabled Persons Scale (IDP), a 20 item instrument. The framework of reference was persons with physical disabilities.

Results

The relationships between children's attitudes and those of their teachers, principals, and mothers were explored through correlational analysis. Prediction of "school children's behavioural intentions to interact with peers with physical disabilities" (p.139) was of interest. Significant correlations were found between children's attitudes and their behavioural intentions, between teachers' attitudes and children's intentions, and between teachers' attitudes and contact in a school with inclusion, this latter being the strongest correlation at .87.

T-tests revealed significant differences in inclusive and non-inclusive schools between teachers's and children's attitudes, with teachers and children in inclusive schools being more positive.

More sophisticated analysis indicated that children's attitudes were the most important predictor of behavioural intentions, with the attitudes of mothers and principals also of significance. Teachers were not significant agents of influence.

Discussion

Roberts and Lindsell conclude that children's intentions to interact with peers with disabilities are predicted by their attitudes. In turn, mothers' attitudes and those of principals were found to influence the attitudes of children. An unexpected result was that teachers' attitudes were not seen as influential, whereas principals' were the most influential.

The authors hypothesize that principals may be of importance in creating a climate of acceptance in schools, and that this influences the attitudes of children. They go on to suggest that lack of influence by teachers might result from a difference in attitudes between teachers in contact with included students and those without. This difference in teachers' attitudes would be consistent with previous research. Overall, Roberts and Lindsell are cautious in their interpretation regarding teachers.

Discussion regarding mothers' influence was much firmer. Mothers definitely were influential on children's' intentions to interact with students with challenging needs. This finding is in line with previous research.

Roberts and Lindsell suggest that the findings may hold importance for inclusive education for a number of reasons.

- The theory of reasoned action, which has been applied to other fields with some success, may be useful in the investigation of attitudes toward inclusion of students with challenging needs.
- Application of the theory in planning for inclusion may be appropriate for preparation of regular students and for the development of supportive resources.
- Use of the theory may reduce criticism of lack of theoretical base some see in research in the area.

Final Word

This study from Australia is evidence of the world-wide interest and activity in inclusive education. Educators in many countries are engaged in inclusion and the researchers in those countries are contributing to the clarification of many aspects of the practice. They also provide evidence that certain questions regarding inclusion are universal in nature.

Though, as Roberts and Lindsell point out, there are a number of limitations to the study, the findings are of interest. A major tenet of inclusive theory and practice is that regular students will model off significant others, just as included students are believed to model off regular students. This study supports the belief that both home and school are influential in the development of positive attitudes in regular students. It may be assumed that they are equally influential in the development of negative attitudes. There is support in the study, too, for the provision of programming to ready those who will interact with students with disabilities for that experience and, also, for the development of supportive resources.

International Journal of Disability, Development, and Education, 44(2), 133-145, 1997

STUDENTS' VIEWS OF INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICES: IMPLICATIONS FOR INCLUSION

Sharon Vaughn, Jeanne Shay Schumm, Janette Klingner, and Linda Saumell

Studies in education investigate a great variety of topics, but rarely does attention turn to what students think about their education and what is happening to them and to their peers. This fact is true about inclusive education as well, but not quite to the same degree. Students are recognized as partners in inclusive education and, as such, their views are of importance.

The views of middle and high school students regarding lesson adaptations are examined in this study. Forty-seven, 7th and 8th grade students, and forty-eight, 11th and 12th grade students' opinions were sought regarding teacher adaptations for students with challenging needs, specifically the way textbooks are used in classes, and effectiveness of teaching strategies of teachers. A stratified sample of 15 low achieving students (LA), 20 average achievers (AA), 20 high achievers (HA), 20 learning disabled students (LD), and 20 English as a Second Language students (ESOL) of predominantly Hispanic background were selected. All groups (except that of LA) included an equal number of students at the middle and at the high school levels.

Achievement was measured by the Stanford Achievement test. Median percentile scores were 34 and 45 for the two grade divisions. Data was collected using The Students' Perceptions of Textbook Adaptations Interview (SPTAI) which consisted of 11 structured questions about classroom practices and strategies. Three additional questions were added regarding the effect of lesson adaptations on students.

Data Analysis and Results

All interviews were audiotaped and transcribed. Qualitative analysis was conducted by independent researchers who read and coded the transcriptions thematically. Results are grouped by theme according to the questions under which they fell.

Textbook Adaptations Versus No Adaptations

The majority of students in both grade groupings agreed that textbook adaptations made it easier for them to understand content. However, middle school students favoured adaptations designed to promote interest, while high school students preferred adaptations to help them learn the material. All indicated that strategy instruction was the most helpful. Adaptations included

purpose statements and study guides. Many also commented positively on the use of projects and experiments rather than textbook readings as those activities required teachers to be more involved. The majority of students felt that they learned material from activities requiring them to write summaries or answer questions, though they did not enjoy these activities as much.

Heterogeneous versus Homogeneous Ability Grouping

Overall 55% of students preferred heterogeneous groupings. A slight majority of middle school students were more in favour of homogeneous groupings, whereas two thirds of high schoolers preferred heterogeneous groups. Differences were also found between low achieving and high achieving groups with low achievers preferring homogeneous groups because they feared boring high achieving student peers, or falling behind. However, those who favoured mixed ability groupings believed that higher achieving students could help lower achieving students.

Consistency in Grouping of Students

The majority of students (especially low achieving students) favoured occasional change of group members and thought it would allow them to get to know others. Interestingly, students with learning disabilities and ESOL students preferred to choose their own groups while other students preferred to have teachers choose group members.

Peer Tutoring, Pairing, or Working in Groups

Forty % of students preferred to work in pairs rather than alone or in larger groups. Sixty % of students with learning disabilities preferred working in pairs. Middle school students were inclined to work in groups, whereas high schoolers preferred working alone.

Ninety-one % of students, regardless of grade or achievement level, favoured peer tutoring and believed it had benefits for both tutors and tutees. Many felt that other students explained material more clearly than did teachers.

Effects of Adaptations on Students

The majority of students believed that all students should receive the same tests and assignments. This was especially so at the high school level, whereas middle school students felt that some students could receive different tests or homework. Students with learning disabilities were evenly divided on the issue.

The overwhelming majority of students also felt that teachers should slow down or change

lessons when students didn't understand instruction. Low achieving and average achieving students were more disposed towards altering lessons than were high achieving students. Many students (85%) also felt that adapting lessons to help slower students did slow down the rest of the class, but 46 % of these thought it beneficial. Overall, 55 % of students did not regard adaptations problematic in this regard.

Conclusion

Although students differed in grade and achievement levels, most felt that the teaching of learning strategies was appropriate, that peer tutoring was of great value, and that there should be more teacher direction in learning from printed material. Vaughn and colleagues conclude that:

- Inclusive practices need to consider the direct teaching of learning strategies in order to try and make students more independent in their learning.
- Grouping practices should also take into consideration the learning styles of students.
- Both heterogenous and homogenous grouping have a role in the regular classroom.
- Students view lesson adaptations as being more positive than negative.

Final Word

Students have definite beliefs regarding how they are taught by their teachers and these beliefs do not always coincide with those of their teachers. Information gained from studies such as this can contribute much to the teacher's understanding of how students view the effect of classroom instructional dynamics on them and their peers.

Perhaps the most interesting point is that, though the majority of students participating in this study approved of teacher adaptations to instructional practice and textbooks, few reported that teachers did make such adaptations. There is much for administrators, teacher leaders, parents, and teacher educators to do in fostering adaptations to meet the needs of all students.

Learning Disability Quarterly, 18(3), 236 - 248, 1995 (Summer)

MY CHILD HAS A CLASSMATE WITH SEVERE DISABILITIES: WHAT PARENTS OF NONDISABLED CHILDREN THINK ABOUT FULL INCLUSION

Michael F. Giangreco, Susan Edelman, Chigee Cloninger, and Ruth Dennis

Inclusion of students with challenging needs has brought with it a number of questions which serve to make some parents of regular students cautious about the practice. One of these questions is "What effect will being in the same classroom as a students with disabilities have on my child?". This is a fair concern, an important one, and one to which Giangreco and colleagues bring some clarification.

Eighty-one parents whose nondisabled children in Kindergarten through grade eight had disabled classmates, were surveyed for their opinions regarding their children's experiences. The study covered seven general education classrooms in six different rural small towns. Each regular class included at least one student with a severe disability. Four of the seven students were in full-time placements. All had hearing and vision impairments and six of the students were assessed as within the moderate to profound range of intellectual ability. Surveys were sent home to parents with the regular students in each class and parents asked to rate statements about their children's experiences with peers with disabilities on a scale with scores ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 10 (strongly disagree).

The survey questions explored comfort level of their children, impact on social/emotional growth, level of positive feeling, interference with the regular educational program of their children, and overall reaction to the program.

Data Analysis and Results

Ratings were analysed using the Statistical Analysis System (SAS). Written comments were analysed using categorical coding procedures. T-tests and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) procedures were also used to examine differences related to sex, age, class, grade, and location.

The great majority of parents believed that:

- Their children felt comfortable interacting with disabled classmates.
- Their children felt positively regarding having a classmate with severe disabilities.
- Having a disabled classmate resulted in positive social and emotional growth for

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their children and was a positive experience overall.

- Their children's education was not in any way compromised by the presence of disabled students.
- The relationship between the disabled child and their children was friendly and of a helping nature.
- The inclusive experience was positive for their children.

Written comments supported survey ratings and served to give them vitality.

Discussion

Although the results of this study are positive, Giangreco and his colleagues caution that parents' perceptions of their children's experiences may differ from the perceptions held by the children. Differences regarding level of comfort were noted only in the grade eight class and in the kindergarten class in which disabled student placements were part-time in nature indicating that full-time placement may affect parental opinions.

Final Word

A number of written comments indicated that parents saw the school as addressing worthwhile educational goals for all children, their's and those included. This did not interfere with other educational objectives which might be held for any students. Negative comments were few, but those that were offered suggested positive directions for future enquiry.

Despite any reservations noted, and even within the limitations of survey research and the restricted sample of participants, the overall parental view was positive. The education of their children had not been harmed by the presence of classmates with disabilities. In fact, as those who advocate inclusion would argue, and as the majority of these parents discovered, the presence of such classmates contributed to the education of regular students.

Developmental Disabilities Bulletin, 21(1), 77 - 91, 1993

PARENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF EDUCATIONAL SETTINGS AND SERVICES FOR CHILDREN WITH MODERATE OR SEVERE DISABILITIES

Diane L. Ryndak, June E. Downing, Andrea P. Morrison, and Lilly J. Williams

Ryndak and colleagues investigated parental opinions regarding educational services and settings available for their children with moderate or severe disabilities. Semi-structured interviews explored the views of parents of 13 children (aged 5 to 19 years) who had had experience with both self-contained and inclusive settings. Parents were recruited through regional parent advocacy organizations and from regional protection and advocacy agencies in western New York State. Participants were Caucasian, from a broad range of socioeconomic backgrounds, and located in seven different school districts (3 urban, 5 suburban, 5 rural schools). Six of the 13 students were classified as moderately disabled, five as severely disabled, and two as having multiple disabilities. At the time of this study all were provided with support services in inclusive settings in their home school or school of choice. All had previous experience in self-contained settings of up to 13 years.

Initial inclusive placements for approximately half of the students were age-appropriate, but with younger students for the other half. In each case, support from a special education teacher was received directly during regular class activities or indirectly through consultation as an education team member. Other support services varied. Pull-out service was provided for five students as part of their new programs.

Data Analysis and Results

All interviews were audiotaped and transcribed to facilitate analysis. Ten 60 minute interviews were held with the balance being 90 minutes. The first reading of the transcripts by the researchers resulted in the development of three themes: (a) comments regarding the location in which services were provided; (b) comments about the nature of instructional content, and; (c) the way in which services were delivered. Transcripts were then re-read and coded under these three themes.

Location in which services were provided:

Parent participants spoke primarily to three sub-topics; the decision-making process, rationale for a specific setting, and classroom and building environments. Discussion of these

aspects arose particularly when education was offered in self-contained classes and when such classes were beyond the home districts of the students.

A number of parents spoke of feeling powerless when placement decisions were made for their children. This feeling was centred on assignment to self-contained classes. Some advocated for inclusive placements to foster interaction with nondisabled students to prepare for future experiences in the general community. When such points were raised in discussion, they were received with lack of concern for interaction with same-age regular peers and the belief that the children "belonged" in self-contained classes. Parents and educators often appeared to be working from dramatically different agendas.

Instructional content:

The lack of individualized programming, lack of ability and effort to define students' learning needs, inappropriate and nonfunctional curricular content, meaningless and repetitive work, use of norm-referenced assessment tools, and the low expectations held by personnel in **self-contained settings** in this area were some of the concerns parents voiced. Many parents felt they were not consulted about curriculum content for their children's programs.

However, they described **inclusive settings** as providing age-appropriate programming, a range of subjects, and meaningful, more individualized work .

Manner of service delivery:

Parents felt **self-contained settings** stressed their children's weaknesses rather than their strengths. There was reliance on materials which were age inappropriate and not usually found in the "real world". Services provided were often out of context, or acted to reduce potential contact between regular students and those with disabilities.

In **inclusive settings**, more effort was made to provide related services and supports within the regular education class. The majority of parents reported experiences with general education teachers who valued the presence of their children in their regular classrooms. However, parents felt that there was little collaboration between the regular class teachers and the special education teachers.

Discussion

Ryndak et al. conclude that parents had very clear ideas about what constituted

appropriate or inappropriate services for their children with particular reference to self-contained settings. Parents felt that they were not valued members of their children's educational teams and were frustrated by lack of appreciation by school personnel for their desire that their children interact with same-age peers.

Parents, themselves, placed a great deal of emphasis on exposing their children to the same educational activities as non-disabled peers. They valued teachers who were open, tolerant, accepting, patient, and willing to collaborate.

Final Word

The research team nicely summarizes limitations of their study; the small number of participants recruited; that parents were active in their children's' educational experiences thus creating a somewhat biased sample; school personnel views not solicited giving the results a somewhat one-sided view. However, Ryndak et al. are, in our opinion, quite correct in concluding that teachers and other school personnel need to alter the way in which they deal with parents and need to stress the critical role that parents have in the decision making process.

As the authors state, "It must be remembered that special education is a service, not a place, and the lack of professional expertise should not interfere with the child's right to a free appropriate education in the least restrictive environment" (p. 117).

Remedial and Special Education, 17(2), 106 - 118, 1996

SOCIALIZATION

If there is one defining characteristic of inclusive education, it may well be its emphasis on community and the right of all to be fully accepted as members of the larger community. There is no doubt that those who favour inclusion would agree with Spinoza that:

MAN IS A SOCIAL ANIMAL

At the same time, there is no doubt but that the educational system has determined in the past, and to a large degree still holds to the idea, that students with challenges to their learning should be placed elsewhere in education than in the regular classrooms of community schools. This is the core belief of segregated special education. Students with challenges need to be separated from the main educational society for their own good. Among the primary social reasons for special placement are that a student does not make friends easily, behaves unlike the majority of other students, may suffer teasing, or has poor self-esteem.

Teacher participants in a national study by Bunch, Lupart, and Brown (1997) found these social concerns, among others, to be reasons why educators would question inclusion.

Their peers can also be ... the ones that hurt you the most. There can't be the protection as much from just plain peer interaction and teasing and name calling. (Secondary teacher)

In some cases the students with exceptionalities suffer when they recognize that they're being socially ostracized. (Elementary teacher)

Concerns were advanced as well that regular students would be affected negatively by being educated with students with challenges.

One of the little girls has temper tantrums quite often. And if you don't watch it, the better students will think that's acceptable and they can do it too. (Elementary teacher)

They [the regular students] could assume some of the inappropriate behaviours themselves in order to get more attention. (Secondary teacher)

Other participants in the same study found social benefit for both student groups in being together. Regular students were believed to benefit socially in a variety of ways.

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More tolerance. Realizing that there are people with physical and mental capacities that may not match theirs, and that's the way it is. And they'll be able to get along with everybody. (Secondary teacher)

Ethically, the learning to accept everyone as an individual and looking for the abilities and what the other person is worth, is something that cannot be taught from a book. (Elementary teacher)

The benefits of inclusion for those students being included in regular classes were just as apparent to some teachers.

Learning to get along with others. Learning how to cope when there are lots of people around you Learning the proper behaviour. (Elementary teacher)

Self-esteem. Feeling part of the crowd, part of the group. (Secondary teacher)

Past research has bolsters the arguments of those who believe students with challenging needs will benefit socially more from full or part time special placement than from experience in regular classrooms with regular peers. It was drawn from a model based on identification and measurement of deficits and closely associated with medical and psychological restorative models. There is no lack of studies which outline the extent of social challenge experienced by some students, and which call for remediation with special techniques in special settings.

Inclusion favours a model where difference is recognized as normal to society. In this model social challenge is expected of some individuals and is not reason enough to segregate those individuals. Recognized as well is the need for teachers and special education support personnel to address that challenge. The big difference between the restorative model and the inclusive model is the belief that challenge can be addressed in regular classrooms. Underlying this is the belief that social development proceeds most strongly in the society of all others, those with challenges and the majority without. The fact that some students are challenged is accepted as one aspect of the diversity of true community. Accepted as well is the fact that challenges do not disappear in most cases. However, interaction in the regular classroom is considered to have the potential to create positive change in many included individuals as far as their social being is concerned. Inclusion is regarded as beneficial to the regular students, as well, and to the community at large through increased understanding and acceptance.

It is just now that research is becoming available on the differential effect of segregation

and inclusion on the social being of students with challenges to their learning. It is just now that workable strategies for the regular classroom and the regular school are being researched and implemented. Selected articles outlining some of these research findings and programs follow. They are not articles which set forth sudden change in social strength. But they are a set of writings which support the practice of inclusion.

The articles here are led by a thought piece by Trina Epstein and Maurice Elias. They outline the argument for increased attention to the social/affective curriculum in regular education and suggest a particular program approach which they have found of value in strengthening social functioning.

This general article is followed by a set of three which examine aspects of how regular classrooms are planned, resources provided, and programs planned. The first article looks at how the organization of the regular classroom affects social interaction between students with physical challenges and their peers. This article is of obvious value to anyone considering an inclusive approach. Next is a consideration of whether concentration of resources, as is familiar in traditional special education schools and classes, is the best way to support students with challenges. It is one of a number of insightful projects which examine the validity of arguments used to support established special education strategies and organization. Last in this group is a thought-provoking discussion of the quality of program planning between inclusive and segregated settings.

The final three articles focus on students with particular kinds of challenges (learning disability, hearing impairment, visual impairment). These articles both compare the effects of placement on students with these particular characteristics, and remind us that the educational world continues to view labels as valuable for certain purposes.

As a set these selected writings cover a great deal of ground. They also combine to support the inclusive argument that social growth occurs at least as well, and quite possibly more strongly, in inclusive settings than in those more removed from the mainstream of education.

**TO REACH FOR THE STARS:
HOW SOCIAL/AFFECTIVE EDUCATION
CAN FOSTER TRULY INCLUSIVE ENVIRONMENTS**

Trina Epstein and Maurice Elias

Epstein and Elias describe an educational approach for fostering positive relationships among regular students and included students. They point to the lessons to be learned from the trials and tribulations of deinstitutionalization of individuals challenged by mental illness. Their analysis suggests that inclusive education requires the school to adapt to the needs and qualities of those being included as much as this group must adapt to regular expectations for behaviour and learning. Simply expecting those with challenges to conform to society was a fundamental error of deinstitutionalization. In the same way, simplistic answers to the complexity of inclusion, such as simply placing more educational aides in the classroom or focussing special educators on supporting regular classroom teachers, are really no answer in themselves.

Collaboration

Epstein and Elias cite Ellen Willard's focus on collaborative culture in schools and her six sets of relationships which support inclusion. These are relationships:

- Between parents, teachers, and the school.
- Among school personnel.
- Among administrators.
- That schools must build with policy makers.
- Which develop partnerships with community agencies.
- Forged with colleges and universities.

Epstein and Elias, however, suggest that just as important are a seventh set of relationships, those among students.

Social/Affective Education

Discussion then moves to the need for schools to partner the traditionally favoured academic curriculum with social and problem solving aspects of learning. Inclusion, in their view, reflects the position that education must move beyond the three R's to seeing one's self and others as worthy of respect, acceptance, and friendship, no matter what

challenges might exist. This view is supported by reference to research, the development of guidelines for the affective curriculum, and the impact of social problem-solving programs.

A Type Program

The authors then outline the Improving Self Awareness - Social Problem Solving program. A widely used, established program, the ISA-SPS has proved successful in promoting social learning. This three part program focuses on: (a) prerequisites for individual and group participation, self-control skills, social awareness, and group participation; (b) instruction in critical thinking; and (c) generalization and transfer of what has been learned.

ISA-SPS is blended into the regular instructional program by the classroom teacher supported by other school personnel. Epstein and Elias are strongly advocate the program and offer examples of one successful class and the successful experience of one particular individual.

Final Word

Though not strictly a research article, *To Reach the Stars* brings out a number of fundamental aspects of inclusion. One is the need to learn from deinstitutionalization, and to apply our learning to today's schools. A second is that inclusion calls for a re-thinking of school structure. Yet another is the importance of a school culture in which an affective curriculum parallels the academic. This echos the argument of many educational reformers who see more need to alter the structure of the system to meet new needs such as inclusion, than to fiddle with it.

Finally, Epstein and Elias point to the need for an organized approach to the affective curriculum and note one program in particular. We believe, with regard to this and other programs, that what is of importance is not a particular program, but that a variety of programs and the knowledge of how to develop them are readily available to educators who wish to develop inclusive approaches to education. Our own preference is not to rely on a packaged program, but to learn from what is available, modify that to meet local needs and resources, and rely on the professional skill of colleagues who wish to develop their own inclusive programs.

Nevertheless, Epstein and Elias very correctly point to the importance of relationships in fostering inclusion and clearly describe a social program in which they have confidence.

Phi Delta Kappan, 157-162, October, 1996

INTEGRATION AND SOCIALIZATION OF YOUNG CHILDREN

Susan J. Peters

This ethnographic study looks at the process of socialization for 8 young children with physical challenges fully integrated into regular kindergarten and grade one classes in an elementary school. The children ranged in degree of challenge from mildly to severely disabled (5 of 8 were dependent on a wheelchair for mobility) and came from a variety of economic and racial backgrounds. The primary goal of the study was to examine the ways in which classroom organization and expectations affected social interactions between included students and others in the classroom. Of particular interest was an examination of the accommodation and assimilation strategies used by students integrated into the classroom.

Data Analysis and Results

Using participant-observation, descriptive field notes were taken 3 days a week over a nine month period. From these notes Peters developed a "taxonomy" of classroom interactions. The data was then explained within the context of socialization theory.

Students with physical challenge were found to use a number of strategies in interactions with their able-bodied peers. The type of strategy used depended on the formality of the classroom structures in place. Students with a range of strategies were able to create social interaction opportunities across a range of classroom environments. Situations making use of small group play in which activities were self-selected, student centred, and which had open flexible rules resulted in the use of bargaining strategies (use of toys or other objects to create positive interactions) and rule negotiations (altering rules to open up interaction opportunities) by exceptional students. Students who relied heavily on these strategies to interact with peers in various environments were found to be at a disadvantage in more highly structured classroom environments in which strong verbalization skills were required for social interactions.

Found also was that differences in physical abilities, mobility, and physical co-ordination were not critical factors in socialization experiences of the students with physical challenges; rather, personal resources, such as level of speech, self-concept, motivational level, and ability of the student to assert her/himself were seen to compensate for severity of physical challenge.

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However, the student's environment must be designed to minimize physical limitations to grant personal resources opportunity to function.

Discussion

Peters points out that included students are actively engaged in their own socialization. Thus, it is insufficient to focus solely on teacher intervention strategies to assist integration of exceptional students. If all classroom participants, students and teachers, engage in a two way process of socialization, the process of integration will be facilitated. The point is also made that classroom structures need to be flexible and open-ended in order to maximize the student's ability to interact with her/his peers. In addition, teachers and aides should be able to utilize a variety of strategies, and must themselves be flexible and sensitive to the timing of these strategies, in order to be effective agents of the socialization process for exceptional students.

Final Word

An excellent study with a considerable amount of insightful and important information. Would be especially helpful to classroom teachers who rightfully have a great deal of influence on the structures of their classrooms. The descriptive focus on two particular students as case studies permitted the drawing of a clear picture of how manipulation of classroom environment coupled with flexible use of personal resources facilitated social interactions and integration.

Anthropology & Education Quarterly, 21, 319 - 339, 1990

SOCIAL INTEGRATION AND SEVERE DISABILITIES: A LONGITUDINAL ANALYSIS OF CHILD OUTCOMES

David A. Cole and Luanna Meyer

This study examines whether concentration of special education resources and support services in segregated settings best meets the needs of students with severe or profound needs. The educational outcomes of 91 students between the ages of 6 and 21 years, and having an estimated IQ of not greater than 30, were followed over a two year period. Fifty-five of these students were in segregated school settings and 36 were in integrated situations. Using the ASC (Assessment of Social Competence) and the TARC (Topeka Association of Retarded Citizens), data were collected on the intellectual and social functioning of students in the two settings. In addition, an observational coding system described students' environmental interactions (physical setting and social interactions). Forty-three classrooms in 14 schools participated.

Data Analysis and Results

Intellectual Functioning

There were no significant differences found in the overall TARC scores, or in any of the four TARC subscales, between the two groups. Thus, in the areas of self-help, fine and gross motor, expressive and receptive communication skills, or appropriate and inappropriate behaviours, the two groups did not show any significant differences.

Social Functioning

Overall, students in the integrated settings scored significantly higher on the ASC than did those in segregated settings. Specifically, integrated students scored higher on the subscale items of initiating contact, obtaining cues, accepting assistance, and indicating preferences.

Student-Environment Interactions

Of importance in this area was that, although both groups spent the same amount of time in classrooms, integrated students spent significantly less time in the school building and more time in the community. In addition, although both groups spent roughly the same amount of time with special education teachers, integrated students spent more time with teacher assistants and with other children (both handicapped and regular). On the other hand, segregated students spent more

time with therapists or alone.

Longitudinal Analysis

Together with the initial differences described above, students were compared for rate of progress over time. No difference in general intellectual functioning (TARC scores) was found over a two year period.

When social competencies were examined significant differences in rate of progression were found. Positive change occurred for integrated students in self-regulation, following rules, providing negative feedback, accepting assistance, indicating preferences, coping with negatives, and terminating social contact. Negative change was found in each area for segregated students.

Discussion

Cole and Meyer conclude that this study challenges the assertion that students with special needs are most likely to benefit from segregated settings where resources are concentrated. In the area of intellectual functioning there was no difference in the two groups over a two year period despite greater availability of resources in segregated settings. Consistent differences in social functioning in favour of integrated students were found over the same period. Cole and Meyer point to the logic of students with severe to profound intellectual challenge, taught social skills in a variety of ordinary environments, showing greater gain than those experiencing restricted environments. Integrated students benefited, rather than suffered, as a result of being integrated. Centralization of resources was not the determining factor.

Final Word

Method was clearly set-out and explained. However, as Cole and Meyer note, the study may be criticized on the basis of narrow outcome criteria. In addition, some may question the use of little known assessment instruments. On the other hand, the ASC appears technically acceptable and the TARC meets AAMD criteria for levels of intellectual functioning.

A particular point of interest in this study is that both student groups received the same amount of teacher time, but that the integration group spent more time in social interactions while the segregated group spent more time alone.

The Journal of Special Education, (25)3, 340-351, 1991

EVALUATING THE EFFECTS OF PLACEMENT ON STUDENTS WITH SEVERE DISABILITIES IN GENERAL EDUCATION VERSUS SPECIAL CLASSES

Pam Hunt, Felicia Farron-Davis, Susan Beckstead, Deborah Curtis, & Lori Goetz

Hunt and colleagues compared the effects of full inclusion in a general education class versus special educational placement of students with severe disabilities. Based on a sample of 32 students participating in 16 different programs (8 full inclusion and 8 special education) in the California education system, the research team examined: (a) the quality of IEP (Individual Education Plan) objectives; (b) the curricular content of IEP objectives; (c) engagement time; (d) integrated activities; (e) affective demeanor; and (f) social interactions for both sets of students. Participants were recruited from TRCCI (Training and Resources for Community and Curriculum Integration), PEERS (Providing Education for Everyone in Regular Schools), and from Severe Disabilities Credential Programs at San Francisco State University and California State University. All students initially were assessed for ability level and then grouped as having severe disabilities or less severe disabilities. Thus, there were two subgroups (lesser disability and greater disability) within each inclusive or segregated student group. A range of disabilities were represented among the students, though intellectual challenge predominated.

Data Analysis and Results

Data on the six dependent variables was collected over one to two day site visits. Variables were measured using a variety of instruments.

Results for a number of variables were found to differ between included and segregated settings for lesser or greater degrees of disability. For instance, IEP objectives for included students with lesser disability focussed more on community, social, sensori-motor, and academic areas than did those for the comparison segregated student group. IEP objectives for included students with greater disability had higher overall quality, more opportunity for participation with peers, and were planned for more settings. Similarly favourable comparisons for the inclusive group were found for aspects of Curricular Content of IEP Objectives, Engaged Time, Integrated Activities, and Social Interactions. No differences were found for Affective Demeanor.

Discussion

The overall conclusion reached by Hunt et al. was that significant differences

existed across a number of program quality and student outcome variables between students who were fully included and those in special class placements. Most differences suggested that the integrated setting was a richer environment than was the segregated class. This was especially evident in the area of curriculum for fully included students with lesser disability.

The research team caution, however, that the additional research is needed to identify specific variables, particularly those relating to achievement of educational objectives and the development of complex social relationships.

Final Word

Efforts were made in this study to explore well-defined variables. Commendable regard was turned to design aspects. The researchers acknowledge limitations of the study, such as the short time period spent on data collection and the difference in time spent on visits between inclusive and segregated settings. They acknowledge, as well, that objectives written in IEP's may not necessarily translate into practice.

Nonetheless, the study does raise a number of important questions regarding differing expectations between inclusive and special education settings in terms of curriculum development. Placement may affect the overall quality of the educational program delivered.

JASH, 19(3), 200-214, 1994

RELATIONSHIPS AND DIFFERENCES AMONG SOCIAL SKILLS, PROBLEM BEHAVIORS, AND ACADEMIC COMPETENCE FOR MAINSTREAMED LEARNING-DISABLED AND NONHANDICAPPED STUDENTS

Stephen N. Elliott and DeAnna Marcia McKinnie

Elliott and McKinnie look at whether students with learning disability (LD) are more likely to show social skill deficits than their regular peers, and attempt to specify the social skills involved. Relationships among social skills, behaviour problems, and academic competence of students with LD are investigated as well. Using the Social Skills Rating System (SSRS), developed by Gresham and Elliott, parents, teachers, and students made note of behaviours which they believed affected students' interactions both at home and at school. A sample size of 882 grade 3 to 6 mainstreamed students identified as LD (n=112) or nonLD (n=770) was used in this study. In addition, 882 parent and 147 teacher ratings were collected.

Data Analysis and Results

Use of recognized statistical methods resulted in findings of differences between mainstreamed students with learning disability and their regular peers. Both parents and teachers rated students with LD as demonstrating positive skills less often than nonLD peers. Identified students showed more behaviour challenges, fewer self-control behaviours, and were less cooperative. Although not statistically significant, student ratings suggested a tendency for non-LD students to rate higher on socially acceptable behaviours. A statistically significant relationship was found between frequency of prosocial skills, problem behaviours, and academic competence as perceived by teachers. Increased frequency of appropriate social skills led to decreased perception of behaviour problems and an increase in academic competence.

Discussion

The research team found their study to be in agreement with previous research which indicates that students challenged by learning disability often demonstrate lower levels of social skill than do their regular class peers. The study also supports the hypothesis that there is an inverse relationship between academic performance and problem behaviours. Thus, Elliott and McKinnie conclude that attention should be paid to social skill training for students experiencing behavioural challenge, with particular reference to the mainstream setting.

Final Word

This study is typical of others which have established that some students identified as learning disabled are challenged in their social behaviour when compared to regular students. What may be seen as important for inclusion is not this fact so much, but the implications for teachers and parents which arise from it. Education figures show that the great majority of students identified as learning disabled are already in regular classrooms. They represent by far the largest population of students with challenging needs in regular placements.

Elliott and McKinnie make a convincing argument for the need to offer social skills education to many students with behavioural components to their learning challenges to enhance their chance for success in the mainstream environment. We would agree that this is one particular area where the expertise to resource teachers may well be focussed in support of regular classroom teachers.

Canadian Journal of School Psychology, 10(1), 1-14, 1994.

SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL ADJUSTMENT OF HEARING-IMPAIRED CHILDREN IN ORDINARY AND SPECIAL SCHOOLS

D. Yvonne Aplin

In this study the social adjustment behaviours of 42 (19 male and 23 female) integrated hearing-impaired (HI) students was examined and compared to that of hearing-impaired children who attend special schools. The students ranged in age from 7 to 16 years, with a mean age of 12 years, 5 months, and had hearing losses ranging from 23 dB to 102 dB, with a mean 46 dB. All students attended neighbourhood schools, though 5 were in a school with a unit for children with hearing loss attached. Assessments consisted of the Bristol Social Adjustment Guides (BSAG) and the Rutter Children's Behaviour Questionnaire (RCBQ). Both were completed by each child's teacher. Additional psychometric tests were carried out on 38 of the children. These included the WISC-R, the English Picture Vocabulary Test (EPVT), and the Widespan Reading Test. These children's scores were compared to those of 61 hearing-impaired students who attended special schools.

Data Analysis and Results

Mean BSAG and RCBQ scores of the integrated students and the special school students were compared. The comparison revealed that students with hearing impairment in ordinary schools showed a significantly lower prevalence of maladjustment on the BSAG and on the RCBQ than did those in special schools. The students in ordinary schools were often rated as quiet, shy, and conforming, while those in special schools were rated as displaying higher levels of hostile and aggressive behaviour. In addition, while there were differences in behaviours between females and males in the special school group, with the latter displaying more aggressive behaviour, no such differences were found in the integrated group.

Discussion

Integrated students were found to be better adjusted both socially and emotionally than were those in special schools. In addition, the number of maladjusted students with hearing impairment in regular schools was much less than in previous studies. The difference may be due to improvement in hearing aids, earlier diagnosis, and increase in support services. However, numbers of maladjusted students in special schools for those with

hearing impairment had not changed over time. Aplin suggests that special schools may be receiving more students with behavioural challenges than are regular schools, and that this may account for the difference.

Degree of hearing loss was found to be unrelated to social adjustment, as were age, social class, and cause of deafness. These findings are in keeping with those of earlier studies.

Though Aplin notes that it could be argued that the finding of stronger social adjustment in ordinary schools than in special schools could result from differences in teacher perceptions of student behaviour, other causes may also be hypothesized. Provisions for students with hearing impairment may have improved since earlier studies. Teachers may possess greater awareness of deafness and provision of support services may have been extended. This uncertainty should be explored through further research.

Final Word

An interesting study which highlights some important issues around hearing impairment and behaviour.

Comparability of the two groups is questionable on the basis of differences in composition of the integrated group and use of a group from a separate study for the special school group. It is not clear whether the differences found may have been due to differences between the two settings, or to improved services for integrated students.

Nevertheless, study findings are consistent in suggesting social advantage for those students in integrated settings. One might suggest that this study, at the minimum, provides evidence that integrated placement is as socially positive as is special placement.

Educational Research, 29(1), 56-63, 1987

SOCIAL PARTICIPATION OF YOUNG CHILDREN WITH VISUAL IMPAIRMENTS IN SPECIALIZED AND INTEGRATED ENVIRONMENTS

E. J. Erwin

Erwin compared social behaviour of groups of fifteen 3 to 5 year-old students with visual impairment in integrated and segregated settings. Scarcity of integrated early childhood educational settings did not permit use of randomization. Instead, the researcher ensured that each equally sized group included was matched for age, gender, degree of visual impairment, and additional disabilities. Statistical tests showed no significant differences between the two groups.

Through four 15 minute free play time observation periods in classrooms, independent observers collected 60 minutes of behavioural data for each child. Student interactions were grouped in five categories of behaviour: (a) unoccupied behaviour in which the student's behaviour is unfocused; (b) transitional behaviour in which the student is in the process of changing activities; (c) solitary play; (d) interaction with teacher; and (e) interaction with a peer.

Data Analysis and Results

Statistical measures revealed no significant differences between settings on any of the 5 behaviours. The most useful and interesting findings resulted from exploration of patterns of activities between the two groups.

In both settings, children with visual impairments were found to spend most of their time in solitary play and the least amount of time moving between activities, as might be expected. However, in the specialized setting students spend more time in unoccupied behaviour than did their integrated counterparts.

On the hypothesis that additional disabilities may affect social participation, a test of significance was administered using presence or absence of additional disabilities as an independent variable. Significant differences were found for the categories of unoccupied behaviours, solitary play, and transition. Students with additional disabilities spent less time in transition and in solitary play and more with time unoccupied.

Though settings were not statistically different overall between the two groups, staff members' anecdotal reports suggest differences between settings for those with additional disabilities. In the special settings these students were found to engage more often in self-abusive

or self-stimulatory behaviour, and had no interactions with peers. Those with additional disabilities in the integrated setting did not engage in this kind of behaviour..

Discussion

It is suggested that the larger amounts of time spent by special setting students in unoccupied behaviour may be due to inadequate instructional planning or poor programming on the part of the teacher. This finding is particularly disturbing in light of the fact that differences in pupil-teacher ratios favoured the specialized setting. This setting had between 8 to 10 students and two adults, while integrated settings had between 15 and 20 students and two adults.

The suggestion is also made that students in the integrated setting may have demonstrated lesser self-abusive behaviour because they were more engaged in peer interactions. The lack of statistically significant findings between the two settings may also have been due to the fact that the students presented a wide range of behaviours given the relatively small sample size.

Final Word

An interesting study which raises quite a few questions for further research. However, the small sample size limits generalizability. Groups were not balanced on ethnic background and were otherwise so diverse that control of a few variables could not account for the range of behaviours observed.

Of particular interest is the finding of a trend toward segregated placement resulting in less interaction than did integrated placement. It is popularly believed that integration would result in less interaction, particularly with teachers, than would segregated placement.

The finding that children with additional disabilities do not transition from activity to activity as frequently as do similar children without additional disabilities points to the importance of more direct intervention for this group.

Overall, this study contains food for thought regarding both setting and presence of additional disabilities. It certainly appears that the integrated setting may benefit students with visual impairment, particularly those with multiple disabilities.

Journal of Visual Impairment & Blindness, 87(5), 138-142, 1993

ACADEMICS

Academic progress is, and has always been, the touchstone by which teachers and many others have judged the worth of a student. Our educational system has been designed to take in the mass of young children and progressively whittle that mass down in size on the basis of academic achievement. The final few go on to university. The majority go on to occupations suited to their more modest academic abilities.

Along the way we invented special schools and then special classes for those students we considered unable to match the academic levels of even those with modest abilities. Placed in these special situations were those society deemed unable to learn sufficiently in the company of their peers. The decision to segregate was almost always an academic decision, and one which branded a child for life.

More recently many teachers, parents, and advocates have challenged this “win or go elsewhere” academic philosophy and with it the practice of separating child from child, sometimes even sister from sister or brother. Separation from the community of the neighbourhood school and neighbourhood friends seems a high price to pay for needing to struggle with learning. Others have argued, and argued with force and eloquence, the values of bringing all learners together in neighbourhood schools and classrooms. We will not rehearse all those arguments in this book.

We will, however, visit the main argument of segregation, that students will progress more in segregated full time or part time classes with specialist teachers than in regular classes. The picture remains somewhat unclear, but sufficient evidence has been amassed to convince many that regular class placement, or inclusion, equals or surpasses the academic achievement levels of special schools or classes for the majority of students with challenging needs. Baker’s, Wang’s, and Walberg’s (1995) article, *The Effects of Inclusion on Learning*, for instance, encapsulates academic and social findings comparing the effect of regular class placement to special class placement from pre-1980 to the 1990's. Evidence of positive academic and social effect in favour of regular class placement is apparent.

The eight articles in this section make a number of valuable individual points. Together they provide a template for why more and more teachers, parents, administrators, and researchers believe that being included in regular classes in neighbourhood schools is at least as academically

BUNCH & VALEO

effective as other placements.

Lee Ann Truesdell looked at the regular class behaviour and achievement of Junior High students with mild disabilities compared to regular students. Her findings in both areas are positive. Findings with regard to curriculum and instructional modifications by the regular class teachers underline the continuing challenge of teacher willingness to change. Partnered with the Truesdell study is a discussion of regular and special class placement of students in Israel. Eshel and colleagues conclude that regular class placement does not take second place in achievement to special class placement. The study also documents that the same questions about appropriate placement of students with challenges being asked in the United States and Canada are asked in other countries as well. The third article specifically examining placement of students with special needs in regular classes is an interesting piece by McDonnell and his research team. They investigated the classroom learning behaviour of included students compared to that of regular students. The closing article in this first section is an investigation of what effect being in the same classroom as students with challenging needs has on the academic performance of regular students. In contrast with an often heard forecast of negative effect, this study by Sharpe, York, and Knight found no academic decline for regular students in inclusive settings when compared to peers in non-inclusive settings. The findings call traditional beliefs about the learning behaviour of many students into question.

Of the remaining four articles, two focus on models for inclusion. Centre and Curry compared the effect on academic and social development of students with challenges of placing them with a regular class teacher supported by a specialist resource teacher to that of special class placement with a specialist teacher. Stevens and Slavin explored the effect of a cooperative learning approach in inclusive regular classes to that of more traditional approaches. Both sets of researchers found the specific models investigated to be superior to alternative, traditional models.

Britz and colleagues reviewed the literature on tutoring, a central strategy in support of included students with challenging needs, in the area of mathematics. Tutoring, whether cross-age or by same-age peers, was found to have positive effect on academic achievement levels.

The closing article by Walsh is one we believe talks to practitioners directly from their work environments. Walsh reviews results of one school system which moved to an inclusive

INCLUSION:RECENT RESEARCH

model over a period of five years. The article presents a practical approach to implementation of an inclusive model and summarizes effect on included students, other students, teachers, and parents. It provides an excellent wrap up to this section on academic progress.

BEHAVIOR AND ACHIEVEMENT OF MAINSTREAMED JUNIOR HIGH SPECIAL CLASS STUDENTS

Lee Ann Truesdell

Truesdell compared behaviour and achievement levels of eleven mainstreamed, mildly handicapped students with their regular peers. Three large junior high schools in New York which had instituted a mainstreaming program for students previously segregated participated in the study. Using an observational checklist targeting different behaviours and an "interval" and "event sampling" procedure, each of the eleven students was observed during thirty minutes of class time on two separate occasions. Two regular students, randomly selected from a nomination list, were also observed in each class and formed a comparison group.

At the end of each thirty minute observation session pertinent information was recorded (number of students in the class; subject being taught; the grouping pattern for the lesson; materials students brought to class; lesson activity; where included students were seated; modifications made for students). In addition to observational data, teachers were asked to rate behaviours of both students with mild disability and regular students. Lastly, end of year report cards and achievement test results were analysed.

Data Analysis and Results

The 19 observed behaviours were collapsed into eight categories for the purposes of analysis. T tests were used to explore for differences between the groups on academic behaviour and achievement scores. A Wilcoxon Mann-Whitney Test was employed to analyse teacher ratings.

The only significant difference found between mildly handicapped students and regular students was that included students were less attentive during lessons (approximately 1/3 of the lesson time), answered fewer questions, and participated less often during class discussions. Teacher ratings of behaviour did not differ significantly between the two groups.

No modifications were recorded as having been made by teachers for included students. Nevertheless, reading achievement did not differ significantly between included and regular students and there were no statistically significant differences in grade averages.

Discussion

Truesdell concluded that behaviour of included and regular students was similar. The only differences found were in attention during lessons and level of participation during class discussions. Truesdell notes that these findings are supported by other research in the field. Also interesting, was the finding that regular class teachers did not appear to modify lessons for included students regardless of guidance from the special education department on how to do so. Despite this, the students can be said to have performed as well as the regular class students. However, Truesdell suggests caution interpretation of this result. Nonsignificant differences in achievement levels between the two groups of students may mean that students chosen for mainstreaming were a selected group who had already demonstrated appropriate behaviour patterns, and were likely to succeed when integrated into low achieving regular classes. Secondly, teachers may be less demanding in their evaluation practices for students with disabilities. Truesdell advises that more research be directed to these areas.

Final Word

An interesting study. However, as Truesdell notes, generalizability is quite limited. The sample size is small and the selection of students for mainstreaming was out of the researcher's hands. Definitions of academic behaviour guiding observers were clear and detailed. More discussion of the relationship between behaviour and achievement level would have been a valuable addition.

Findings are of interest despite any design or other weaknesses just on the basis of lack of any attempt by the Junior High teachers to adapt lessons or instructional style for included students. Activities consisting almost entirely of lecture, discussion, reading, and writing may not coincide with the needs of many students, regular or with mild challenges. This situation may be viewed as that bound to exist in many classrooms. The reality of teacher response in this study can be a guide to what will happen in many classrooms as more students are included. Principals and resource teachers should take note. In the final analysis, however, included students performed much like regular students, a positive finding for those who advocate inclusive practice.

The Journal of Special Education, 24(2), 234 - 245, 1990

MAINSTREAMED OR SELF-CONTAINED CLASSES FOR STUDENTS WITH MILD LEARNING DISABILITY: THE CASE OF ISRAEL

Yohanan Eshel, Michael Katz, Sara Gilat, and Carlos Nagler

This team of Israeli researchers investigated academic, social, and personal achievement levels of segregated versus fully integrated secondary and elementary students with learning difficulties. In the Israeli educational system segregation of students with exceptionalities is not mandatory and depends on the availability of special education resources. Many students with learning disabilities remain full-time in the regular class, thus making a comparison of segregated versus integrated settings feasible.

Two studies are reported. In the first study, 33 elementary school children (grades 3 to 6) in self contained classes for learners with mild disabilities were matched to low achieving students in 34 regular classes on IQ level. In the second study, 20 students in self-contained classes from grades 9 to 12 were similarly matched with 21 students from regular classes. Students in the self-contained classes were randomly selected. All students were of similar socioeconomic background. In both the regular and self-contained classes, the curriculum offered was the standard curriculum of the Israeli educational system. However, teachers in the segregated classes had more flexibility in modifying both the pace of learning and the subject matter in order to meet special needs of individual students.

At the elementary level, academic achievement was measured by the same reading and math tests used by the government to monitor school achievement. In addition, a 24 item self-image test was administered. Classroom climate was assessed, and home room teachers were asked to rate the motivation, academic ability, social behaviour and adjustment of each student.

At the secondary level, psychometric tests (given to all grade 9 students at the beginning of the year), achievement tests, and end of year grades were used to assess achievement levels. Student attitudes and self-concept were also assessed using a number of selected instruments.

Data Analysis and Results

At the elementary level, academic achievement, self-concept and perception of classroom climate were measured. No significant differences were found in mathematics or reading between integrated and segregated groups. Likewise, no significant effects

were found with respect to social, familial, or personal self-image. No differences were found regarding classroom climate. However, students in the segregated classes did demonstrate higher perception of academic self-concept. Teacher ratings of motivation, academic ability, social behaviour, and adjustment were analysed using multivariate analysis of variance. Results indicated that students in self-contained classes received higher teacher ratings.

At the secondary level, analysis indicated no difference between groups for self-concept and attitudes. However, there was a significant difference in mathematics achievement levels between the two groups of students with students in the regular classes performing at a much higher level than their comparable peers in the self-contained classes.

Discussion

Eshel et al. conclude that the data do not support the contention that students do better in self-contained classes. Though they state that results do not necessarily indicate that segregated classes are ineffective, they do conclude that placing students with mild learning difficulties in separate classes, with teachers trained in special education, and with a lower pupil-teacher ratio, has not been shown to translate into higher academic or social development. They view creation of segregated classes as an organizational rather than an educational intervention.

Final Word

Article is very well written. Sample sizes are modest and methods used to equate groups might have been strengthened. In addition, the quality of some data gathering instruments is open to question. Researchers recognized and attempted to address the concerns over design details. They conclude, however, that their results are in keeping with other findings in the same area.

An interesting finding is that of students in self contained classes receiving higher teacher ratings than did their integrated peers, despite equal or superior achievement by this latter group. This may be yet another example of teacher tendency to believe that special education placement must be better due to smaller numbers and specialist teachers.

International Journal of Disability, Development and Education, 41(3), 185 - 200, 1994.

ACADEMIC ENGAGED TIME OF STUDENTS WITH LOW-INCIDENCE DISABILITIES IN GENERAL EDUCATION CLASSES

John McDonnell, Nadine Thorson, Camille McQuivey, and Richard Kiefer-O'Donnell

McDonnell et al. employed a quasi-experimental design to examine levels of academic engagement between exceptional students integrated into regular elementary classes and their regular class peers. A total of six students with "low incidence" disabilities (four with mental retardation, one with a physical disability, and one with autism) comprised the experimental group. Three of these students were integrated for the whole day with an educational assistant (EA) assigned to them. The other three were integrated for the majority of the school day and pulled out for short periods of time for one-on-one work on specific objectives. These last three students did not have special education support while in the regular class. Differences between those students with an EA and those without were also a focus of investigation. All students were integrated for math, language, or one other "content area" subject such as science or social studies. Six regular students functioning at grade level in the same class formed a control group. In addition, six regular class students from the same grade but from a different non-inclusive classroom constituted a contrast group. Four schools participated in the study. All were neighbourhood schools for the students.

The research team looked at three specific types of behaviours: (a) academic responding (i.e. any behaviour related to an academic task such as reading or writing); (b) task management (i.e. behaviour which resulted in clarification of an academic task such as asking for help); and (c) competing behaviours (i.e. behaviours negatively affecting completion of academic tasks). Behaviours were measured observationally weekly over a five month period using The Code for Instructional Structure and Academic Response Mainstream Version (MSCISSAR).

Data Analysis and Results

To equalize size of data sets, although fifteen to twenty observations were collected for each group, only fifteen observations were analysed. A Wilcoxon matched-pairs test was used to probe for differences between the experimental group and the control group. A Mann-Whitney U test examined the data between control group and contrast group.

No significant differences were found between the experimental and control groups for level of academic responding or for task management behaviours. Exceptional and regular students demonstrated similar levels of academic responses and task commitment.

There were statistically significant differences between the two groups with respect to competing behaviours. As a group, the exceptional students appeared to spend slightly more time on off-task behaviour, such as looking around or talking to peers. However, on closer inspection of the data, this difference was seen to result from very high competing behaviour levels of two of the six students.

In addition, no significant differences were found for any variable between those students who had an EA and those who did not. This, McDonnell et al. suggest, raises questions about the role of paraprofessionals in inclusive classrooms.

Likewise, no significant differences were found between regular students in the control (inclusive) and contrast (non-inclusive) groups for academic responding and task management behaviours. The presence of students with exceptionalities in the control group classrooms did not appear to affect level of on-task, academic behaviour negatively. However, in comparison to the contrast group, students in the control group did have higher levels of competing behaviours.

Discussion

Based on the above findings, McDonnell et al. conclude that students with exceptionalities do become meaningfully involved in the academic activities of a regular classroom, and that their presence does not appear to impede the academic involvement of regular students in the class. These findings, they maintain, are in keeping with other studies in the field.

In order to further explain the differences found between the groups for the category of competing behaviours, the research team undertook a Spearman rank order correlation for the total frequency of competing responses. Responses for regular and included students in each class were highly correlated. Competing responses, McDonnell et al. suggest, may be related more to the influence of overall classroom environment than to specific differences between students.

Finally, the research team suggest that the lack of any effect on academic engaged time resulting from the presence of an educational assistant in the regular classroom does not necessarily mean that educational assistants should not be used, but rather, that how they are used

be thought through more carefully.

Final Word

This study raises significant questions, but also begins to provide answers to concerns about the impact of inclusion on the regular classroom. As recognized up by the authors, there are limitations to the study. The sample size is small, and the inclusive classrooms were staffed by teachers with strong commitment to inclusion. Teachers and administration had had training in the area of support strategies for the purposes of including children with disabilities.

Interestingly, the study also found that the strategies used in the inclusive classrooms varied considerably. The idea that each school and each classroom develops its own model of inclusion is one with which we agree. In our view, though there are a variety of strategies which can support inclusive practice, there are no definitive strategies in inclusion.

The suggestion that educational assistants' duties be carefully thought through is one well worth accepting. This staff person can contribute much to the education of included students, but care must be taken that duties are appropriately focussed on student needs, and are under the direction of the regular classroom teacher as classroom leader.

Mental Retardation, 35(1), 18 - 26, 1997

EFFECTS OF INCLUSION ON THE ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE OF CLASSMATES WITHOUT DISABILITIES

Michael N. Sharpe, Jennifer L. York, and John Knight

Sharpe, York, and Knight address the concern of various educators that inclusive education will have negative impact on the learning of regular students. Though a number of studies indicate no such impact, the concern remains. The authors sought to investigate whether test scores of regular students decline with inclusion, and whether behaviour problems increase. Using a quasi-experimental, pre-test/posttest design, Sharpe et al. investigated the academic performance of regular students in inclusive classrooms and the performance of regular students in non-inclusive classrooms over a one year period.

The site was an elementary school of 640 students from grades Kindergarten to grade six, in a rural area of Central Minnesota. One hundred and forty-three general education students in grades two and three participated in the study. Participants were divided into an inclusion group of 35 and a comparison group of 108. Four inclusive classrooms included a total of five students with exceptionalities classified as trainable mentally retarded, as educably mentally handicapped, and as severely emotional disordered. These students had been previously educated in segregated settings. At least 80% of the school day was spent in the regular class and the students took all academic subjects with the regular class peers.

Performance in the area of reading, language arts, and mathematics was measured using the Science Research Associates Assessment Survey (SRA) ; reading levels were assessed using the definitions provided by the Houghton Mifflin basal reading series (basal readers were ranked and data converted to numerical data); other academic evaluations as well as indicators of conduct and effort were taken from report cards in which teacher ratings were assigned numerical equivalents.

Data Analysis and Results

Data was analysed using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Pearson chi-square procedures. No differences were found among students in the regular student integrated group and the comparison group on pre-test data indicating that groups were relatively homogeneous at the start of the study. Results of posttesting one year later again indicated no statistically significant differences in performance between regular students sharing a

classroom with disabled students and those regular students in non-inclusive classrooms. This finding applied to reading, language arts, mathematics, and a composite score.

Discussion

The findings of this study did not indicate any decline in the academic or behavioural performance of regular students educated in inclusive classrooms compared to those in non-inclusive settings. Sharpe et al. note that the area of study is complex and a number of limitations apply to this study. They recommend that future studies in this area be longitudinal in nature. Their view of this study is that it is an "initial step" only.

Final Word

These findings in the academic realm agreed with those of other studies focussed on social achievement. Although a very significant finding and topic, as noted by the authors, this study did have a number of limitations which detract to some degree from the strength of findings. As Sharpe, York, and Knight suggest the study should be viewed as merely a peek at a potentially informative view of effect on academic performance of regular students..

Nonetheless, it is an addition to the literature and is interesting in its focus on the academic side of regular student experience. Certainly, it should serve to lessen the concern of those who argue that inclusive practice may be detrimental to the academic progress of regular students.

Remedial and Special Education, 15(5), 281 - 287, 1994

A FEASIBILITY STUDY OF A FULL INTEGRATION MODEL DEVELOPED FOR A GROUP OF STUDENTS CLASSIFIED AS MILDLY INTELLECTUALLY DISABLED

Yola Centre and Craig Curry

Centre and Curry examined the feasibility of a model in which a special educator supports students with mild intellectual disability and regular class low achieving students in regular classes. Twenty six identified students from two segregated classes and 52 low achieving regular class students participated. The 26 students with mild intellectual challenge were matched in pairs on a variety of academic and social skills. Random assignment was made to a continuing segregated class (control) setting or to age appropriate regular classes spanning grades three to six (experimental). Low achieving students were identified in each regular class. The special class was taught by a qualified special educator, while the regular class teacher of included students and low achieving students was supported by a special education teacher with preparation in integration strategies.

Included students were pretested on selected academic, behavioural, and social measures. Academic measures focussed on word attack skills, reading comprehension, and math. Behavioural and social measures included observations of on task behaviour and of free play interactions. Regular students, including low achievers, but with specific exceptions, were not pretested.

Two classes differentiated on the basis of instructional approach were created. One class was offered a mastery oriented, team teaching approach to math. The second class experienced a traditional whole class approach in which the support teacher withdrew students. Computational skills of all students in both classes were pretested. Posttesting for all identified students and all grade four students was conducted after a 16 week treatment period.

Both control and experimental groups used identical vocabulary lists, reading schemes, phonics programs, and math programs to control treatment conditions.

Data Analysis and Results

Multiple comparisons indicated no pretest differences on word attack skills. The integrated group, however, achieved statistically higher on a posttest. There was also improvement over time on word attack skills for included students, but not for the segregated

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group. A similar finding was made for math scores. Both groups improved with regard to the on task behaviour measure. The included group showed significantly higher scores for social interactions.

The mastery instructional math scores were significantly higher for included students than were those for the traditional withdrawal approach.

Discussion

Centre and Curry concluded that results indicated a full integration model was feasible. Pre to posttest findings showed no detrimental effects to integrated placement. Rather, scores on various measures indicated superiority to a control group maintained in a segregated setting. The authors note the value to low achieving students of specialist support as well.

The authors suggested that increase in direct instruction time in reading for integrated students may have been effective. In math, exposure to a regular class curriculum may have stimulated progress. Gains for both groups in on task behaviour indicated no negative effect of integration in that area. Social interaction, however, was comparatively marked for integrated students leading Centre and Curry to hypothesize "that positive social interaction is linked to the academic success of students with disabilities working cooperatively in the mainstream" (p. 233). Finally, support was found for a mastery learning instructional approach in integrated classes.

Final Word

Group sizes were small and generalizability uncertain. The study attempted to examine many variables and was overly complex. The attempt to investigate instructional approaches might well have been left for a further study. Not all variables were controlled.

The greater academic gains of the included group, however, suggest that students with mild intellectual challenges may progress at least as well as in a segregated setting when integrated with specialist support. More optimistic readers may even see evidence of greater gain in the inclusive setting than in the segregated class setting.

International Journal of Disability, Development and Education, 40(3), 217 -235, 1993.

THE COOPERATIVE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL: EFFECTS ON STUDENTS' ACHIEVEMENT, ATTITUDES, AND SOCIAL RELATIONS

Robert J. Stevens and Robert E. Slavin

In this two year study, the effect of using cooperative learning strategies on mainstreaming students with learning disabilities is examined. Twenty-one classes in two treatment schools were matched with 24 classes in 3 comparison schools on the basis of mean scores for reading, language, and math on the California Achievement Test. All schools were selected from similar working class neighbourhoods in order to control for ethnic and socioeconomic variables.

Both treatment and comparison schools followed the same curriculum and devoted similar amounts of time to reading, language arts, and math. However, treatment schools implemented a cooperative learning program: TAI for math, CIRC for language; peer coaching; and regular cooperative planning between teachers. In addition, teachers in the treatment schools were trained in use of cooperative learning models such as Jigsaw II and Teams-Games Tournaments (TGT).

During the second year of the study all students with learning challenge in the treatment schools were fully integrated into the regular classes. Special education help was delivered in the home class.

Measurements of student achievement included pretest scores from the California Achievement Test (form C) and posttest scores from the same test (form E) administered at the end of the first and of the second year. Students were also asked to rate their attitude to, and their perceived ability in reading, language arts, and math on a three point scale at the beginning of the first year and at the end of the second year. Pre and posttest measures were also taken of social relations between included and regular students.

Data Analysis and Results

Statistical analysis of scores for each grade level revealed no significant grade-by-treatment effects. Therefore, data was collapsed across grade levels and analysed separately for each year. Due to the nature of the study design, a hierarchal linear model was used to support separation of treatment effect from school or teacher effect. At the end of year one treatment and comparison groups differed significantly on reading vocabulary, but not on reading comprehension, language mechanics, language expression, math computation, or math

application.

At the end of year two significant differences in favour of the treatment group were found for attitude measures of perceived ability in reading and language arts, and for number of friends, a social relations measure.

For students with learning disability no significant differences were found between treatment and comparison groups at the close of year one. Stevens and Slavin point out, however, that all scores for included students were somewhat higher. At the end of year two significant differences in favour of students included in the cooperative learning group were found for reading vocabulary, reading comprehension, language expression, math computation, and math application. Similar effects were found for perception of ability in reading and language arts, and in number of friends. In addition, regular peers in the cooperative learning environment selected students with learning disability more frequently than did those in the comparison situation.

Interestingly, gifted students in the treatment schools who, unlike their gifted counterparts in the comparison schools did not attend enrichment classes, were also found to have significantly higher scores in reading vocabulary, reading comprehension, language expression, and math computation than gifted students in the comparison schools. In addition, gifted students also perceived their abilities to be higher and believed they had stronger social relationships.

Discussion

The researchers conclude that cooperative learning can be used as the primary mode of instruction and that it is a highly effective tool for successful mainstreaming of students with learning disability. A particular advantage of the cooperative learning model was seen to be the involvement of students in the management of the classroom. This resulted in freeing up teacher time for work with individual students. Cooperative learning strategies were also seen to result in improvements in peer relations between students with LD and their regular peers and in improved attitudes to learning.

Final Word

A well written, well conducted, and well thought-out study. As Stevens and Slavin note, the complexity of the experimental program did not allow ascription of all effects directly to cooperative learning. However, cooperative learning can be singled out as an effective

approach to instruction. Method of selection of schools for the experimental group may have introduced some bias, but, reducing concern is the finding that groups were equivalent at pretest. The positive results of the cooperative learning model here are similar to those we have found in other research with which we have been associated. It appears to be a method well suited to inclusive practice.

American Educational Research Journal, 32 (2), 321 - 351, 1995

THE EFFECTS OF PEER TUTORING ON MATHEMATICS PERFORMANCE: A RECENT REVIEW

M. W. Britz, J. Dixon, and T. F. McLaughlin

The strategy of using peer tutors to assist the learning of students with challenges is fundamental to inclusive practice. Britz, Dixon, and McLaughlin offer a review of the literature of the 1980's on the effects of peer tutoring on the mathematics performance of students at elementary and postsecondary levels.

Sixty-five articles were located through a review of relevant sources. Fourteen studies and nine position papers were eventually chosen. Eleven of the fourteen studies deal with cross-age tutoring. Three concern same age tutoring. Several of the more interesting studies are summarized below as a sample of the findings in the literature.

Cross-Age Tutoring

- Bar-Eli and Raviv (1982): 5th and 6th grade tutors were randomly paired with 2nd grade students (both tutors and tutees were underachievers in math). Tutoring replaced instruction by classroom teachers and took place three times per week for four months. Standard Achievement Test scores showed significant improvement in mathematics achievement for both tutors and tutees. Class marks for math for tutors indicated improvement in overall achievement in comparison with 5th and 6th graders not involved in tutoring.
- Burton (1986): College freshmen enrolled in remedial math classes and provided with peer tutoring showed significant gains on Wide Range Achievement Test scores at the end of the semester over a comparison group which did not receive peer tutoring. The program was easy to administer and inexpensive. Burton concluded that the performance of college freshmen encountering challenge in math could be improved through implementation of a peer tutoring program.
- Eisenberg, Fresko, and Carmeli (1983): This research team conducted a follow-up study of disadvantaged students in grades seven to eleven two years after being tutored by university students. Eisenberg and colleagues found tutored students

studied in more conventional settings, had higher levels of aspiration, and completed homework regularly.

- Fresko and Eisenberg (1985): Math and reading achievement of 325 grade three and six students from a socially disadvantaged background were pretested and posttested over one year. Fresko and Eisenberg found that one year of tutoring resulted in significantly greater gains in math in comparison to a control group. However, a second year of tutoring did not increase these gains.
- Hill and Tanveer (1981): In a four week program, 6th grade students tutored 2nd and 3rd grade students for 30 minutes during six sessions over a two week period. Both tutors and tutees made progress. Forty-seven percent of tutees had achieved mastery level performance on one or more of their individual objectives. Tutees, according to teacher anecdotal comments, also showed greater confidence and improved attitude towards mathematics.
- Maher (1984): Mildly handicapped, emotionally disturbed 14 to 16 year olds were assigned as tutors to 9 to 12 year old students classified as educably mentally retarded for 30 minutes per week for 10 weeks. Both tutors and tutees were found to have made cognitive gains. Completion rate for academic assignments and scores on tests and quizzes increased dramatically and remained high in follow-up. Disciplinary referrals for tutors decreased. Maher concluded that cross-age tutoring following the study model would affect achievement by students with mild handicaps positively.
- Szydal-Brown and Morgan (1983): Effects of different levels of reward on the behaviour of 96 grade 3 tutors working with 96 grade 1 tutees were explored. Only social interaction was found to be affected by the presence of a reward system. All had posttest improvement regardless of rewards. Also found same sex pairs were found to be more relaxed in their interaction.

Same-age (Peer) Tutoring

- Grossman (1985): Fifty high school students from disadvantaged backgrounds participated in a peer tutoring program to reinforce mastery learning techniques in

algebra. Students had a chance to be both tutors and tutees over the school year. Seventy-six percent improved their math scores on the New York State Regents Examination by the end of the year compared to only forty-six percent of students in the school not participating in such a program.

- Maheady and Sainato (1985): Examination of the effect of peer tutoring on social status and social interaction of high and low status elementary students was undertaken. Tutors and tutees worked in the regular classroom as other students undertook seatwork nearby. Peer tutoring resulted in increased academic gains for tutees. Tutoring of a low status peer by a high status student improved the standing of the low status student without detracting from the high status student.
- Roach et al. (1983): Remedial and special education students tutored other low achieving students in regular secondary math classrooms. Peer tutoring was found to improve standardized test achievement scores of the mildly handicapped students more than did traditional instruction, working alone in class, or working in pairs.

Conclusion

Britz et al. conclude that peer tutoring and cross-age tutoring are powerful, flexible, educational tools which have been found to have significant positive effects on both tutors and tutees. Furthermore, there did not appear to be a relationship between the tutor's intellectual abilities and her/his effectiveness as a tutor. In addition, structured peer tutoring programs appeared to have stronger effect than did unstructured, but shorter programs were as effective as longer. The research team points out that more research is required to determine whether tutor training is a factor in the effectiveness of a peer tutoring program.

In short, Britz et al. see peer and cross-age tutoring as "uncapped potential" and a tool necessary for meeting the diverse needs of today's classrooms.

Final Word

Though a variety of tutoring approaches were represented in the studies review by Britz, Dixon, and McLaughlin, all reported some type of positive effect. Though the researchers commented that they did not discriminate among articles on the basis of methodological flaws, and some studies are questionable on the basis of design, the consistency of finding was impressive.

Clarification of points such as effect of degree of structure and need for tutor training would be of value.

Those who advocate for peer tutoring as a rewarding strategy in inclusive education have solid support in the literature.

B. C. Journal of Special Education, 13(1), 17 - 33, 1989.

INCLUSION WORKS IN ANNE ARUNDEL COUNTY, MARYLAND: 5 YEAR EVALUATION RESULTS

James M. Walsh

In this report Walsh briefly describes the process and results of Arundel County's efforts to implement fully inclusive classrooms at the elementary, middle, and secondary school levels. Through the use of surveys and questionnaires, the social and academic effects of including students who range from severely to moderately disabled are investigated and discussed.

Two phases of the five year project are described. In phase I (first 2 years of the project), a process of establishing "outreach" classes for ninety-six severely disabled students from segregated schools was begun by partial integration into non-academic classes such as music and art. At the same time, students with mild exceptionalities who had been attending special education classes within their neighbourhood elementary, middle school, and high schools were given the opportunity to receive special education assistance in the regular class. Furthermore, information and support programs for staff and regular students were developed in each of the eleven schools involved in the outreach program.

During phase II, students began attending their neighbourhood schools and became fully integrated into regular classes and all facets of the curriculum. Staff training and support services were expanded and formalized. Surveys and questionnaires were used to evaluate the program at various stages.

Data Analysis and Results

Evaluation at the end of the first year invited parents, special education teachers and regular, middle school students to comment on the social aspects of the experience. Analysis indicated that, in comparison to previous special education placements, a majority of parents and teachers:

- Saw development of friendships between regular students and those with disabilities.
- Believed included students felt better about themselves.
- Felt included students tried harder.
- Noted growth in independence.

In addition, regular middle school peers strongly supported inclusion with a majority approving of regular school and regular class placement. The greater number also indicated personal attitudinal changes.

- Findings from a variety of data collecting techniques found similarly positive results with the implementation of Phase II.
- The majority of teachers responding to an implementation survey indicated that both regular and included students benefited from inclusion. Furthermore, the teachers had gained in professional knowledge and skill.
- Secondary teachers from a variety of subject areas indicated that inclusion had only “slight” impact on organization and flow of lessons, classroom management, lesson participation, and student mastery of lessons.
- Fourth graders’ responses on an acceptance scale increased over a one year period during which a student with Downs Syndrome was included in their school. Similar results were found in the grade five year.
- Secondary school peer tutors indicated more than slight improvement in their tutees’ academic and social skills over a one year period. Tutors also noted that they had benefited personally from the tutoring experience.
- A comparison of “passage rates on statewide minimum competence tests” of regular and included students in co-taught inclusive classrooms to passage rates of students in other classrooms, indicated significantly higher rates on reading, math, and citizenship for those in the co-taught environments.

Discussion

Walsh concludes that both regular and exceptional students of all levels were found to benefit both socially and cognitively from the experiences of inclusion. Regular students and teachers also showed positive shifts in attitudes toward working with exceptional students. Classroom management, student participation, and knowledge content were found to have been minimally affected by the presence of disabled students in the regular classroom. However, Walsh does stress the need for supports for teachers and students and believes that what has been achieved in Arundel County came about only because an effort was made to provide those supports.

Final Word

This report is successful in giving a general overview of the process of the inclusion initiative in Arundel County. However, the study doesn't claim to be a scientific investigation and not all data was not collected within a study format. Rather, it is simply an attempt on behalf of the county of Arundel to understand its initiative. Despite variability in academic rigour, there are some interesting, and very relevant, findings for the practice of inclusion. Namely, that the practice of inclusion does change attitudes, that there are very real academic benefits to both exceptional and regular students, and that teachers felt they improved their skills giving them more confidence in beginning to meet the general diversity in their classrooms.

Anne Arundel County is one of a growing number of locations which have invested in the inclusive approach to students with challenging needs. Such places have experience which makes them good places to visit.

Paper presented at the Conference of the Council for Exceptional Children, Salt Lake City, April, 1997

BEHAVIOUR

Behaviour disruptive to classroom learning is perhaps the most frequently cited reason teachers give for questioning the inclusion of students with challenging needs. Teachers fear that they will need to spend inordinate amounts of time dealing with behavioural outbursts, that time will be taken up by behavioural needs at the expense of regular students, that teaching will be disrupted, and that their safety, the safety of their regular students, and the safety of the included students will be compromised.

Such concerns are real, but experience has proven that they do not loom as large in actual practice as teachers believe they will. It is doubtful if as many students with high levels of behavioural challenge, as teachers appear to believe, actually exist. For the great majority of students with needs in this area, and not all of them formally identified, the management systems familiar to most teachers for mildly to moderately challenged students are effective. For most students with higher degrees of challenge regular classroom teachers, special education resource teachers, and parents working in partnership are able to develop workable, individualized plans to deal adequately with whatever behaviour is being presented. At least this appears to be the experience of many teachers willing to spend the time to plan well for behavioural management and to follow through.

Doubtless, behaviour is a concern. It does not simply disappear with an inclusive approach. However, teachers have documented through practice that it need not control whether most students are included or not. Under the inclusive philosophy behaviour remains a concern which must be dealt with so that the fears noted above do not come to pass. For those situations in which behaviour is overly disruptive, inclusive teachers know that recourse may be made to timeouts from the classroom, to classroom assistants or volunteers who will work directly with the student, and even to periods in small group situations outside the classroom. The intent, however, always remains to keep every student as close to the regular classroom situation as possible, and that any time out of classroom be as short as possible.

Those practising inclusion say that they have discovered that the great majority of students modify their behaviour once among their peers for a sufficient length of time. Teachers have

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discovered, as well, that a greater range of behaviour than previously believed can be accepted in the regular classroom without affecting other students. This is certainly our experience and the experience of many teachers and students we know.

The articles in this section encompass both views representative of the traditional integrative/mainstreaming model and of the inclusive model. Behavioural needs challenge teachers and students in all instructional settings. Therefore, and to show the blending of purposes within the two primary models, articles have been selected from both.

The lead article is a good example of the thinking behind mainstreaming/integrative practice. It focuses on ways to determine which students might fit into a regular classroom and which might not. Meadows et al. examine the academic and social levels of integrated students and compare these levels to those of students in segregated classes. The second article, by Dadson and Horner, is similar in that it looks at a student's environment in and out of school to discover behavioural outburst triggers. If triggers can be identified, interventions might be designed which will allow more integration time. To our eyes the Dadson and Horner article is closer to the inclusive idea than is the first, but still fits within the more traditional model.

Foster-Johnson's and Dunlap's article returns to the theme of assessment, but to functional assessment which is attractive to those supportive of inclusion. The article describes an approach to determining needs and designing interventions to support continued placement in the regular classroom. Finally, Carpenter and McKee-Higgins describe a behaviour management plan centred around one student, but having effect on others, which altered inappropriate behaviour quickly and over the period of a school year.

**ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE, SOCIAL COMPETENCE, &
MAINSTREAM ACCOMMODATIONS:
A LOOK AT MAINSTREAMED AND NONMAINSTREAMED
STUDENTS WITH SERIOUS BEHAVIORAL DISORDERS**

Nancy B. Meadows, Richard S. Neel, Catherine M. Scott, and Gerilyn Parker

Meadows and her team compared academic and social competence of 19 sixth, seventh, and eighth grade mainstreamed male students with behavioural challenge to others placed full-time in a self-contained class. The study also examined regular class accommodations made for integrated students. Students were drawn from three Pacific Northwest urban middle schools supporting segregated classes. The students themselves were culturally, ethnically, and linguistically diverse. Thirteen students were mainstreamed for regular math, science, social studies, and language arts for a minimum of one hour per day. Six students remained in the segregated classes. Groups were comparable on mean IQ. Data was gathered using: The Child Behaviour Checklist - Teacher Report Form (TRF), The Achenbach Youth Self-Report (YSR), The Walker-McConnell Adolescent Scale of Social Competence and School Adjustment, The Social Task List (STL), and an adapted version of the School Archival Record Search (SARS).

Data Analysis and Results

Due to small and unequal sample size, the Mann-Whitney U Test was used to investigate differences between the two groups. Descriptive statistics were used to evaluate the data concerning academic, instructional, and social accommodations made in the regular class for included students. Overall, included students were found to have higher reading and written language scores, and stronger work habits. Those in the segregated class for the full day showed greater extremes in behaviour and tended toward more aggression and less self-control, or toward being more withdrawn. The majority of mainstream teachers used the same curriculum with regular and integrated students and the same evaluation criteria. Teachers reported making minimal modifications for those mainstreamed in the belief that these students were "ready" to be mainstreamed. Not all teachers received academic planning or behavioural management support, though many indicated that such support was desirable.

Discussion

The researchers contend that the data point to differences between mainstreamed and nonmainstreamed students with behavioural challenge and indicate a need for a fuller investigation of the individual characteristics of children who are successfully mainstreamed. In addition, lack of teacher willingness to make accommodations for these students may explain why the success rate of mainstreaming practices may be so low. This, without doubt, is an issue which schools considering moving towards full inclusion need to further investigate.

Final Word

Although examination of academic and social differences between mainstreamed and non-mainstreamed students with serious behavioural problems is an important undertaking, this study leaves unanswered questions. Aside from the uneven sample size, there was no discussion regarding how students were chosen for mainstreaming and who made this decision. The study also found that mainstreamed students were absent more than segregated students, but a discussion of why this was so and whether it affected study results was not offered. In short, the results of this study cannot be generalized.

However, the finding that regular teachers did not feel they needed to make accommodations for these students does highlight an area of teacher preparation which needs further investigation in light of the diversity of today's classrooms. If a teacher does not respond to a student's obvious and documented needs, failure is a probable result.

This study was based on acceptance of the cascade model of educational placement options. It is typical of the types of studies emanating from such a premise and more related to integration and mainstreaming than to inclusive practice. A drawback to the cascade model is that teachers always are aware that a student is on trial and there is another placement available if the teacher's standards for academic or behavioural progress are not met.

Despite this caveat, it is possible that findings of the type found may assist some students to remain in regular classes, particularly if teachers make effort to adapt curriculum and instruction. The steps taken toward inclusion may not be as large as advocates wish, but all journeys begin with a single step.

Behavioral Disorders, 19(3), 170 - 180, 1994

MANIPULATING SETTING EVENTS TO DECREASE PROBLEM BEHAVIORS: A CASE STUDY

Stella Dadson and Robert H. Horner

This article presents a case study of a 17 year old special class student with severe intellectual disabilities whose unpredictable verbal and physical outbursts were significantly decreased after the setting events in her life were examined and a support plan developed as a result. Setting events can be defined as occurrences taking place in the life of the student which alter the student's mood so as to make the usual educational reinforcers or stimuli less effective. These occurrences are not limited to the classroom, but may relate to the home and elsewhere. Thus, strategies which work in the classroom one day may not work the next despite apparently similar dynamics as the pertinent occurrence was outside the classroom. Data was collected for 45 consecutive school days. A setting event checklist and a functional analysis interview were used to monitor setting events and problem behaviours. These tools were developed using readily available published information.

Data Analysis and Results

Initial examination of the data led to seven events being identified which appeared to affect the student's behaviour. Parents and the classroom assistant contributed to the process of identification. A chi square analysis narrowed the identification to two events, insufficient sleep and a bus being late, as being the most significant. From this information, an intervention strategy was developed and implemented during the second school year. The family and the school collaborated closely in monitoring for the two selected events. On days in which either of the two events occurred, the teacher modified the student's schedule to accommodate changes in mood. As a result, disruptive behaviour was found to significantly decrease over the course of the school year.

Discussion

The researchers point to the importance of going beyond events immediately preceding or following a problem behaviour in order to develop suitable assessment and intervention strategies. In addition, having knowledge of a setting event, and having the flexibility to alter the student's routine, can be effective in preventing certain problem behaviours.

Final Word

An interesting, but short article which clearly describes a method of working out solutions to the unpredictable behaviours which can sometimes be displayed by severely challenged students. The importance of considering the student's total environment and of close collaboration with parents is rightfully emphasized.

Though the case study example is that of a student assigned to a special class, integration in some regular classes was a part of the program. The technique described here is one of many which are being developed to enable students with challenge to spend more time in regular classrooms. The practice of involving parents and informed others in problem solving and programming is central inclusive education strategy. Knowledge gained from studies such as this contribute to the extended presence of some students in regular classrooms.

Teaching Exceptional Children, Spring, 53 - 55, 1993

USING FUNCTIONAL ASSESSMENT TO DEVELOP EFFECTIVE, INDIVIDUALIZED INTERVENTIONS FOR CHALLENGING BEHAVIORS

Lyn Foster-Johnson and Glen Dunlap

Foster-Johnson and Dunlap describe a process known as “Functional Assessment” which can be used to develop behaviour management strategies for dealing with behavioural students who do not respond to the more standard reinforcement strategies used by educators. Functional assessment is based on the assumption that a student’s challenging behaviour is related to the classroom environment in which it occurs. A major tenet is that triggers for behaviours can be identified and steps taken to alter the circumstances giving rise to inappropriate behaviour.

A second assumption is that behaviours serve a function for that student. The student knows that a certain behaviour has worked previously to obtain a desired result. The anticipatable student reaction is to try the behaviour again when some reward is desired.

There may appear to be no logical connection between the environmental context and the behaviour exhibited. This is not surprising as we are rarely aware of the student’s needs and skills until we stop to interpret what is happening. Thus, any development of behaviour management strategies must examine the relationship between the student’s behaviour and her/his classroom environment. This information then leads to development of “hypothesis statements”. These are then used to develop possible intervention strategies to change student behaviours which impact negatively on her/his learning.

Foster-Johnson and Dunlap lead the reader through a clear three step process.

- Collection of information about the behaviour and its context.
- Development of informed guesses (hypotheses) regarding the manner in which the behaviour and the environment interact.
- Development of interventions logically arising from the information gathered and the informed guesses made.

A case study example accompanies the description of the process and additional sample informed guess statements and suggested interventions are provided.

Final Word

A clear outline of steps involved in carrying out a functional assessment.

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Explanations and definitions are well presented and augmented by numerous examples from a case study. Although the process of functional assessment is particularly pertinent for teachers dealing with students who have severe behavioural challenges, it may be equally informative in offering a different perspective for those working with milder behavioural challenges. It strikes us that the technique would be easily learned and would be worth any effort taken, both for the teacher and the student.

Teaching Exceptional Children, Spring, 44 - 50, 1993

BEHAVIOR MANAGEMENT IN INCLUSIVE CLASSROOMS

Stephanie L. Carpenter and Elizabeth McKee-Higgins

The successful experience of a primary grade teacher in using a “proactive behaviour management program” is described. This is a program which can be used with both exceptional or regular students whose behaviour is thought to interfere with classroom instruction and the learning of other students. The focus of the program is a five part instructional approach in which students are given the opportunity, through structured activities, to learn and practice desirable behaviour/s. The approach also requires that teachers examine their own behaviour in an effort to understand if and how it might be contributing to the problem. The authors emphasize the importance of a positive classroom climate and the need to develop interventions which are dynamic and carefully structured on the basis of the student’s changing behaviours.

The setting is a first-grade classroom with 25 students of whom 6 have disabilities ranging through speech/language delay, learning disabilities, hearing impairment, and/or emotional disturbances. All 6 students were full-time members of the class except for one student with severe emotional disturbances who was integrated on a part-time basis. This student, Alex brought acting out tendencies, wandering around the room during seatwork, touching other students, and basic off-task behaviour which distracted others in the classroom. Other students began to emulate these behaviours and the teacher’s basic management system was no longer effective.

In conjunction with a university supervisor the teacher collected data on the problem behaviours. This information, including both student and teacher behaviours, led to the development of a behaviour management plan. The plan was immediately effective in decreasing disruptive behaviours of all students and in particular that of the student with high degrees of challenge. Positive behaviours were sustained through the remainder of the school year.

The authors emphasize that a guiding principal of their approach was that the focus of behaviour management shift from viewing the student as a problem to viewing the teacher as a solution to the situation in the classroom.

Final Word

The article is clear and does a good job of describing how the teacher went about

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the process of developing a program aimed at decreasing disruptive student behaviours. The results achieved through the program are impressive.

Our experiences tell us that careful observation of student behaviours and examination of how the classroom environment acts to draw out behaviours often leads to effective intervention. Careful thought and consistent management expectations can solve or reduce even the most challenging behaviours.

Remedial and Special Education, 17(4), 195 - 203, 1996

PARAPROFESSIONALS

Paraprofessionals acting as educational assistants (EA's) to regular classroom teachers in support of students with challenging needs have become an important element within inclusive education practice. Not all included students need the support of an EA, or other type of in-class support person, but, when needed, good assistants can contribute greatly to the success of inclusion. They can be god-sends to teachers, students, and parents in complex situations.

Yet, many educators have been challenged by having EA's in classes. Often they do not know what to do with them, how to use them effectively, or how to develop an appropriate relationship with them. It is the rare teacher preparation program which pays any attention to working with EA's in the classroom. If a teacher and an educational assistant are to work together efficiently and effectively, and the teacher is the senior partner in the partnership, it would seem logical that the teacher know something about developing and directing the relationship and the work. Between us we have been associated with six teacher preparation programs and have yet to see one which offers any instruction focussed on the teacher - educational assistant relationship. We have also worked as teachers in a number of school systems and have been aware that little attention was paid to preparing regular classroom teachers or EA's for their forthcoming relationship. Even special educators have little to no preparation in this area.

On the other hand, we have met a good many EA's at one time or another and have heard of, or witnessed, the types of duties they are assigned. In many cases the work EA's are asked to do in support of students with disabilities is well-reasoned and valuable. In other instances, EA assignments have caused us to raise our eyebrows. We know of EA's assigned to:

- Routinely prepare morning, lunch, and afternoon coffee for staff.
- Prepare bulletin boards and other displays.
- Prepare for and clean up after parties in recognition of staff or visitors.
- Go to a neighbourhood store and purchase the teacher's lunch.

There can be many duties which do not involve direct support of students, but those such as the above strain the bounds of appropriate responsibilities. They are much more fitting for a volunteer than for an educational assistant hired to work with students.

We do not believe teachers wish to waste a valuable support. We do believe that many teachers and administrators have not thought through the types of contributions an EA can make. Given the lack of attention to the topic in teacher preparation programs and established guidelines for preparation of teachers and EA's in many school systems, this is hardly surprising. If you have never had to consider the teacher - EA relationship, it is unlikely that you will be familiar with its intricacies.

Equally unsurprising is the absence of any substantial literature focussed on the role of educational assistants in regular, or even special, classrooms. In preparing for this book we conducted fairly wide searches of the literature for articles on research and practice. Few were found and the great majority of these predated 1980. At that time EA's tended to be used quite differently than leaders in inclusive practice would suggest for today's needs.

We found no article which investigated or described the actual work of an EA, how the teacher and the EA formed their relationship, or the outcomes of EA contribution to the education of students with challenging needs. The first two articles selected for this section describe the position of Educational Assistant (EA) and point to issues related to appropriate use of the EA.

Ginger Blalock provides a useful sketch of who EA's are, considerations for hiring, the value of good training and supervision, and types of training presently available. Her description is general, but provides needed background. The Jones and Bender article takes an "issue" approach. These writers recognize the weakness of current literature and point to areas which might well warrant attention. Central to their concern is that we don't know how EA's affect student outcomes and the degree of that affect. A second major concern is lack of preparation for EA's or teachers for their joint responsibility.

Dan Zaroski took a different tack and looked at how issues mentioned in the literature compare to the views of practising EA's. His wide ranging study produced interesting information of a quite practical nature. This article is a good example of the value of testing what the literature says against what actually occurs in practice.

The final article takes a different tack in referring to the role of the Educational Interpreter whose role it is to work with students with degrees of hearing loss which render oral communication difficult in the regular classroom. Salend and Longo describe the work of such

support personnel with emphasis on their differing interactions with school staff, students, and parents.

At the end of our work on this section we were much more aware than previously of the lack of research interest in paraprofessionals, a resource many believe is fundamentally important to the success of many included students. This is an area where effort is needed.

Effort is needed in more directly practical ways as well. Principals and resource teachers are leaders in inclusion of students with challenging needs. They are the natural people to guide regular classroom teachers in appropriate utilization of paraprofessionals in the classroom and school. It is to them that teachers and parents look first when additional assistance is required in support of any student.

PARAPROFESSIONALS: CRITICAL MEMBERS IN OUR SPECIAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Ginger Blalock

Blalock describes the position of paraprofessional and its various aspects with a focus on utilization in special education. Encapsulations of major areas of discussion in this article follow.

PARAPROFESSIONALS: Who Are They?

Blalock cites Pickett the Director of the National Resource Centre for Paraprofessionals in Education and Related Services who defines paraprofessionals as a person:

- Whose position is either instructional in nature or who delivers services to students and/or their parents.
- Who serves in a position for which a teacher or another professional has ultimate responsibility for the design and implementation of individual education programs and other services. (p. 200)

Paraprofessionals, typically have a minimum of high school graduation or, perhaps, some postsecondary preparation, and primarily are employed working with students with higher degrees of challenge in special education programs.

Effective Use of Paraprofessionals:

Paraprofessionals are considered to contribute strongly to special education programs. Of special note are the **low cost of extending the effect of teachers** through paraprofessionals, the service orientation of the role, the ability to **match paraprofessionals to the cultural and linguistic backgrounds of students**, the **advocacy position** they may take for students, and the extension of **career opportunity** to populations with modest educational and socioeconomic backgrounds.

Blalock stresses that the collaborative teacher-paraprofessional relationship requires thought and preparation to avoid a variety of possible pitfalls. A number of these are listed.

History:

A concise historical review of the movement of paraprofessionals from the corrections and health fields to that of education is provided.

Current Employment Role:

Blalock notes that the educational system values paraprofessionals and their employment has increased dramatically over the past 40 or more years. Their adaptability is demonstrated by the range of their assistive roles (listed) and the variety of secondary contributions they make, such as interpreter services and bridging between school and family.

This section finishes with a listing of demographic and occupational characteristics which may serve as guidelines for selection and placement.

Hiring:

The need for teacher and paraprofessional to develop a strong, collaborative relationship is stressed. Blalock argues for early and ongoing close communication, paraprofessional input into program, flexibility in determining teacher and paraprofessional functions, and daily interaction with all students by both parties.

The recruitment pool for paraprofessionals should be interpreted on a wide basis. Parents, substitute teachers, high school students, and education students should all be considered.

The value of orientation to the role and responsibilities of paraprofessionals is emphasized, as is vocational assessment at an early stage in the hiring process.

Considerable space is given to the need for effective interviews. Blalock suggests that the teacher supervising the paraprofessional be involved from the point where the responsibilities and role of the paraprofessional are developed, the selection criteria laid out, and interview questions designed. Proposed interview questions are noted along with the need for a focus on working style. Though there are real and sometimes substantial differences between the typical teacher and the paraprofessional, experience indicates a successful working relationship is possible.

Training and Supervision:

“Teachers and other professionals are rarely taught to instruct and supervise paraprofessionals and other ancillary staff” (p. 205). So begins this section, which then goes on to stress the need to define roles and responsibilities and to resolve differences, the value of communication through meetings, need for teachers and administrators to provide feedback, and, finally, the benefits of enhancing paraprofessional role and recognition of contribution.

Resources for Training:

The article closes with a review of the benefits of training opportunities for paraprofessionals. Not only does training enhance knowledge, it is related to prevention of burn out. Though the role of primary trainer may fall to the supervising teacher, such is not always the strongest model. Training options ranging from informal to formal in nature, are discussed. Among the formal options are inservice, dedicated postsecondary programs of various lengths, preparation of teachers during their academic programs for working with educational assistants, program development for administrators, and professional conferences.

Blalock's closing comment is that attention to the various points discussed in her article has been minimal. Paraprofessionals are looked on as " 'stepchildren' of their professions" (p. 213) and little has been done to upgrade the status of the role. Blalock warns that "Those personnel constitute a resource that we cannot continue to waste, if we are to appropriately meet the needs of individuals with disabilities" (p. 213).

Final Word

This article reviews basic aspects of the roles, selection, and preparation of paraprofessionals to work with students with challenging needs. It is straightforward, informative, and balanced. Valid points are made regarding the value of educational assistants, their selection, and their training.

Interest might have been heightened by a more critical approach to the subject. We agree with Blalock's closing warning, but were somewhat surprised by its strength given the more neutral tone of preceding discussion. The inserted case studies were valuable and might have been used more to highlight weaknesses in carrying through with the suggestions made in areas such as selection and training.

The relative dearth of a professional literature on paraprofessionals may well be indicative of the low level of regard paid by the teaching profession. Certainly, in our experience lack of recognition of the paraprofessional as a colleague is characteristic of many situations. The role of paraprofessionals is one which is important and one which merits more attention, if their potential contribution to inclusive education is to be realized.

Intervention in School and Clinic, 26(4), 200-214, 1991.

UTILIZATION OF PARAPROFESSIONALS IN SPECIAL EDUCATION: A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Karen H. Jones and William N. Bender

In this review of the literature on use of paraprofessionals, Jones and Bender point out that it is an area of significant growth and one which has received scant attention from researchers. That research which is available focuses on peripheral issues rather than those at the core of paraprofessional use. The intent of Jones and Bender is to provide "a foundation for future research on paraprofessionals in special education" (p. 7).

History of Utilization:

Discussion under this heading focuses on growth in number of paraprofessionals and change in role. Beginning in the 1950's and continuing to recent years, growth in numbers has been fuelled by need to address severe teacher shortages early on and the United States' 1970's "War on Poverty", with its emphasis on early special education intervention. Jones and Bender forecast continued increase in the paraprofessional population as the **model for service delivery for students with challenging needs continues to change**. The need to address efficacy questions grows in importance as service delivery changes.

Over the years the role of paraprofessionals has moved from one of clerical and administrative support to assumption of responsibilities traditionally reserved to teachers. Though this is true, and specific changes have been researched, the **implications of role expansion for paraprofessionals have been left unanswered**.

Efficacy Research:

Efficacy of paraprofessionals would seem to be a fundamental area of interest. Though this may be true, efficacy studies have been indirect and turned to topics such as teacher satisfaction with paraprofessional performance, rather than to student outcomes. Jones and Bender argue for a view of paraprofessional efficacy including both topics, as well as others.

In terms of student outcomes, Jones and Bender conducted an intensive - extensive literature search to identify research articles on paraprofessionals. Few experimental or quasi-experimental articles were found with none between 1980 and the date of this research. Study results varied in support for paraprofessionals, with a number being flawed in design. Jones and

Bender conclude that "At present, the use of paraprofessionals in special education seems to be unsubstantiated in terms of quality experimental or quasi-experimental research relative to outcome measures" (p. 10).

The perception of educators regarding use of paraprofessionals is generally positive. Jones and Bender review a number of studies, including some undertaken during the 1980's. These contributed to:

- Definition of tasks paraprofessionals could perform and teacher satisfaction.
- Clarification of teacher and administrator views of paraprofessional contribution.
- Outline of paraprofessional positive reaction to teacher- paraprofessional relationship.
- Documentation of generally positive paraprofessional reaction to role assignments.
- Description of differences between teachers and paraprofessionals in respective roles.

Jones and Bender conclude that **research on efficacy is limited and not entirely convincing**. Problems related to study design, the dated nature of research, design flaws, and unsupported conclusions were noted.

Certification and Training:

The research team comments on lack of training for paraprofessionals and teachers. Discussion of paraprofessional training is present in the literature, but **training models have not been submitted to research examination**.

Though most commentators encourage training, the majority of jurisdictions neither require it nor have set standards. The effects of inadequate training are apparent in a number of ways. For instance, Jones and Bender refer to studies which suggest that lack of preparation, which is more the case than not, is related to burn out.

A considerable amount of what research is available orients on training models for paraprofessionals. A specific point is made of the fact that job descriptions do not sufficiently reflect changing roles in terms of such variables as resource vs contained class assignment. Need for continuing training to supplement initial training and the possible simultaneous preparation of paraprofessionals and teachers is noted.

In summary, Jones and Bender point to inadequate understanding of fundamental aspects of paraprofessional role and responsibility, training, efficacy, student outcomes, job description and paraprofessional status, and efficient utilization. All require examination in light of significant changes in practice regarding placement of students with challenges and implications of change for paraprofessionals.

Final Word

This article points to the fact that we are still at the point where we are trying to determine what is important to study relative to the role of educational assistants. A goodly number of suggestions with which we agree are made. However, educators and researchers yet need to decide what to study first and how to relate our studies to practice. We are convinced that research which does not contribute to the understanding or strengthening of practice in inclusive education is questionable. Resources are scarce and those which are available need to be focussed on areas of most need.

Remedial and Special Education, 14(1), 7-14, 1993.

INCLUSION AND THE EDUCATIONAL ASSISTANT: ISSUES FROM THE EDUCATIONAL ASSISTANT'S PERSPECTIVE

Daniel P. Zaroski

Zaroski compared issues regarding the role of Educational Assistants (EA) as found in the literature to issues brought forward by EA's during interviews. Implications were developed from the comparison.

Five EA's from elementary and secondary schools in an inclusive school system volunteered to participate in the study. Each was interviewed using a set of prepared questions, supplemented by appropriate clarifying questions as required. Questions were derived from an analysis of relevant literature and were organized in six sections: (a) background; (b) hiring and training; (c) role; (d) self-esteem; (e) relationships; (f) problems/solutions. A running comparison between interview responses and issues as addressed in the literature was conducted.

Results and Discussion

Background:

Educational backgrounds of participants ranged from partial high school completion to six years of post-secondary education. The majority had employment background as home makers. One had experience with children through an Association for Community Living.

Zaroski found this background to be similar to that of EA's in other studies. He suggested that it should not be considered the ideal.

Hiring/Training:

The hiring process of the school system involved written application and interview. In actual practice three participants were hired as EA's, without passing through the formal process on the basis of being known to principals or other system employees. These three had modest formal education relative to the two EA's who went through the formal process. Zaroski notes that a formal process is recommended in the literature to safeguard quality of employees.

Training available to EA's focussed on professional activity days during which a variety of topics relevant to working with students with challenges were presented. However, **the majority of participants found their training inadequate**. A number indicated that their strongest support

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came from meetings and other interactions with in-school colleagues. Even at the level of orientation to schools in which they were to work, EA experiences tended to be less than positive. For the most part no particular orientation to schools, information on students with whom they were to work, or discussions of roles and responsibilities were offered. Zaroski notes that material in the literature emphasized need for adequate training of EA's, and that consistent, appropriate training was not a feature of the school board in which these EA's worked.

Role:

Zaroski's analysis of the literature suggests that **clarity is required with regard to EA role** and responsibilities. However, Zaroski found, as did other researchers, that clarity was not an attribute of many placements.

Though the system in question had a written job description for EA's and each participating EA had read it, the majority found that **teachers to whom they were assigned did not discuss roles and responsibilities**. In practice teachers tended to state their expectations of the EA and for EA's to work within that stated framework. Feedback from teachers on performance of duties varied from none to considerable. The majority of principals were not involved in feedback.

Zaroski pointed to a generalized communication gap with EA's tending to be told what to do rather than having opportunity to participate in discussion or to receive feedback. Though most experiences were satisfactory, it appeared that teachers had little understanding of how to work collaboratively with an EA.

Self-Esteem:

Zaroski was interested in self-esteem due to the suggestion in the literature of **burn-out related to lack of recognition** of work done, need for positive feedback, and restricted career ladder.

In this study he found variability in self-esteem as related to recognition by teachers. Some teachers make apparent their belief that a status gap exists between them and EA's. Conversely, the majority of EA's stated that they received respect from staff, students, and parents. Variability from school to school and teacher to teacher was fairly common and EA's recalled specific examples of teacher behaviour which affected their self-esteem negatively.

Relationships:

The teacher and the EA are referred to as an instructional team in the literature. The need for the teacher to be skilled in working with paraprofessionals is emphasized.

EA's in this study believed that teachers would benefit from preparation for working with paraprofessionals. A number emphasized that EA's were not teachers and should not expect to take teacher responsibilities. But, at the same time, EA's should be working with students and not assigned duties unrelated to that role.

Considerable need for improved communication was noted in EA responses to questions under Relationships. A relationship which begins at the interview stage, extends through daily work, and includes collaborative planning and meetings with parents, was suggested by most study participants. This view was in keeping with recommendations in the literature. However, as Zaroski noted, it was not the experience for the majority of those in this study.

Problems/Solutions:

An open-ended question concluded the interview and provided EA's with the opportunity "to share any problems or experiences they wished" (p. 47). Concerns regarding the future for EA's at a time of financial restraint, professional status of EA's, and, particularly, the number of students needing assistance, and the quality of relationships with teachers emerged.

The study concluded with recommendations for selection, preparation, and role of EA's with implications for school systems, principals, and faculties of education.

Final Word

Zaroski explored an area of considerable importance if growth in number of students being included/integrated is any measure. Yet the literature on EA's is modest and not particularly revealing. More research effort is needed.

This study followed a straightforward qualitative design based on structured interviews. It was more exploratory and descriptive than conclusion oriented. It serves, however, to point out a number of significant concerns affecting optimal realization of EA potential contribution to the education of students with challenging needs.

Unpublished Master's Research Project, York University, Toronto, 1996.

THE ROLES OF THE EDUCATIONAL INTERPRETER IN MAINSTREAMING

Spencer J. Salend and Maureen Longo

Whereas the classroom educational assistant (EA) is most often thought of when one mentions paraprofessionals in the regular classroom, there are other roles and other responsibilities. One of these is that of educational interpreter (EI) for students who are deaf. This is a newer position within community schools and regular classrooms as it is only recently that any numbers of students with significant hearing loss have been included. The controversies regarding preferred communication method (sign or oral), and that resulting from some elements of the deaf community advocating for placement in special schools and classes, make it a contentious one.

Salend and Longo accept that educational interpreters are part of the educational scene in many schools. They offer a set of guidelines for the role and for relationships with students, teachers, peers, parents, and others. The guidelines are designed to apply whether the service required is one of the various sign language systems, oral interpretation, or cued speech.

Interactions With Students:

In anticipation of the school year the educational interpreter should meet the student to agree on the service to be provided and to initiate their relationship. Important points will be the particular communication method needed, interpreter timetable, and interpreter role vis a vis student, peers, teachers, and others. A key will be to consider the need for student independence in academic and social development in conjunction with appropriate and sufficient support from the interpreter.

Interactions With Teachers:

Just as the student and interpreter meet at an early point, so the teacher and interpreter should arrange a meeting. Within a context recognizing the lead role of the teacher, the EI plays a variety of supportive roles. Definition of respective roles at an early stage will pave the way for a positive and productive relationship. Among the matters to be determined are:

- The responsibility of the teacher for presentation of material, monitoring of the student's work, and setting schedules.
- Familiarization of the EI with the curriculum and instructional approaches of the

class through discussion and available resource materials.

- Plans to deal with anticipated challenging lessons and units, particularly those with associated new vocabulary.
- Positioning the EI in the classroom to permit a clear view for the student during various activities.
- Unique aspects of communication through the EI; time required for transliteration of information and for its processing; the temptation for the teacher to talk to the interpreter rather than to the student; the temptation for student and EI to become engaged in extended discussion during class.
- The manner of handling problems in clear communication.
- The way in which the teacher and the EI function when audiovisual aides are in use.

Interactions With Student Peers:

Most regular students will not have interacted with a peer with hearing impairment or with an interpreter. A plan for introducing the EI and her/his role by the teacher, EI, and student (if appropriate) should be made. Discussion can include areas such as explanation of any hearing aid system to be used, how to access EI support in social or other situations, whether instruction in sign or fingerspelling will be available, and note-taking.

Interactions With Parents:

The teacher has the primary responsibility for interacting with parents, but may require EI support if the parents use sign themselves, or if the student is included in a meeting. Parents may not understand the role of the EI at times and may turn to that person for information more appropriately coming from the teacher or other school personnel. Early clarification of EI role will do much to forestall problems arising from such misunderstandings.

Interactions With Support Personnel:

The EI will be in a position to develop insights into student needs, strengths, functioning, and problems which may be valuable to others. School personnel may solicit this information for program planning, to evaluate the success of the communication plan, and for other purposes. The EI may be seen as a team member and bound by confidentiality as are all team members.

Interactions with Administrators:

Administrators are responsible for familiarizing EI's with the physical aspects of the

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school, school routines, and school culture, as well as with the EI role description, schedule, confidentiality, and such. The EI becomes a staff member of the school and falls under the supervisory responsibilities of the administration. Interactions will normally relate to points such as the above, but may extend to direct interpreter service at times.

Conclusion

Salend and Longo emphasize that “the primary goal of the educational interpreter is to facilitate communication between two parties who use different communication systems” (p. 28). They iterate the complexity of the role and encourage careful attention to planning.

Final Word

We know from our own experience in the field of deafness of the complications in communication often occasioned by hearing loss. It is only recently that students with any significant degree of loss have been placed in regular classrooms in any numbers. The great majority of principals, teachers, and regular students have little familiarity with students who are deaf or with interpreters. This pragmatic article will be of value to any educator who will be working with an educational interpreter in support of a student with hearing loss.

In our experience one thorny dynamic to watch for is that of the teacher surrendering responsibility for instruction to the EI simply because the EI communicates through sign language. The teacher should retain responsibility for instruction and not permit encroachment in this area. Despite controversy in some areas regarding inclusion of students with hearing loss, research documents higher levels of achievement in the regular class setting.

Teaching Exceptional Children, 22-28, Summer 1994.

MODELS

Inclusion is shaped on a number of levels, as are all educational initiatives. It takes on its most direct shape at the level of the individual child, the individual teaching team, and the individual classroom. The shape is different and more general at the school level. At the school system level, it takes the shape of policy and wide-ranging support. Whatever the level of activity the design or model of inclusion must be well thought out and focussed on bringing students together in the community of the school. It must support students with challenging needs in maximum interaction with peers and all elements of school life.

While such is always the objective, the paths to it are diverse. A phrase often heard among those who advocate and practice inclusion is that "Each classroom and each school develops its own model for including kids with disabilities". We believe that there is no one way to include. Students and schools differ too greatly for facile application of a preset box of larger and smaller strategies. Schools and classrooms must be staffed by educators aware of the range of these larger and smaller strategies and able to adapt them to match local conditions and needs.

It is at the level of a range of larger and smaller strategies that this book is written. The inclusive approach to education is so innovative and new that we are still in the midst of exploring, discovering, and trying out new strategies. The shape of education, the understanding of who can be regarded as a student, the roles of educators at various levels of responsibility, and the contribution family and community can make to education of all students are all issues within inclusion. Forward looking thinking in such areas challenge the ways we have done education in the past.

It is fortunate that so many leaders have been found to pursue the exploration of new ways, new ideas, and new knowledge. This section contains articles by four research teams which have studied how school systems and/or individual schools can blend individual strategies into models which might serve in inclusive practice. In quite different ways, and motivated by quite different needs, teams of educators designed models to serve all students within neighbourhood schools. Others can use information contained in these four studies, and a growing number of others in the literature, to guide their own efforts toward inclusion.

McDonnell and her colleagues describe an elementary school level project in Utah to move

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students with challenging needs from segregated settings to age appropriate regular classroom placements. The project involved students with severe challenges, six elementary schools, and transdisciplinary teams. The student progress reported, the interactions between students, and the positive response of regular classroom teachers speak to the positive nature of the project.

A second Utah based project, but this time at the junior high level, is described by Tina Taylor Dyches and her research team. The central strategy of the inclusion model described is that of a close working regular and special education educator team. Of particular interest in this study is that it presents the views of the included students on how well the program worked. It is clear that the actual students involved reacted positively to the regular class setting and found teachers particularly supportive.

The third article looks at the experiences of two high schools in Atlantic Canada. A rural high school was forced to consider an inclusive approach by withdrawal of various supports around special education. The second high school, one in an urban setting, decided to develop an inclusive model when it first enrolled students with highly challenging needs. McKinnon and Brown describe the initial frustrations, the moves to structural reorganization, and the growth of collaborative practice which characterized both developing models.

In the final article Tralli and her team present the experiences of two high schools as they implemented the instructional methods and procedures found in the Strategies Intervention Model or SIM. Over time both schools adapted the SIM to meet their particular needs. Cautious implementation of the SIM and the flexibility shown by regular and special education staff as the schools worked through the process characterized both schools.

EDUCATING STUDENTS WITH SEVERE DISABILITIES IN THEIR NEIGHBORHOOD SCHOOL: THE UTAH INTEGRATION MODEL

Andrea McDonnell, John McDonnell, Michael Hardman, and Gale McCune

McDonnell and colleagues describe the Utah elementary school integration model (UEI) developed for students with severe disabilities in six elementary school programs in Utah. Forty-three, five to twelve year old students with severe disabilities were integrated into regular classes in neighbourhood schools. Group IQ scores for 27 students on whom data were collected for this study ranged from 10 to 60 points; 11 % were nonambulatory with a further 15 % experiencing moderate to profound orthopaedic impairments; 52 % required services from occupational and/or physical therapists; 93 % were seen by speech and language specialists; and 7 % received services from a vision or hearing specialist. Use of the General Maladaptive Behaviour Index (GMI) placed students in the normal to serious range of independent behavioural skills.

The UEI was designed to:

- Support integration in age-appropriate grade-level home rooms.
- Provide peer and community referenced curriculum.
- Use a transdisciplinary team to design and implementation of student IEPs.

Structures were set-up to maximize interactions between students with disabilities and non-disabled peers, and between special education and regular class teachers. There was also an emphasis on involving students in school routines as fully as possible.

Six teachers were used as case managers for the 43 students. A full-time special education teacher and a part-time (25-30 hrs/wk) paraprofessional assistant served six to nine students in a single elementary school. Alternatively, an itinerant full or part-time special education teacher served 6 to 8 students in 3 different schools. The educational, physical, or behavioural support needs of individual students directed assignment of paraprofessional help. A supervising teacher was also assigned to travel between schools to develop and monitor instructional programs, observe student performance in regular classes, train and monitor paraprofessional staff, and collaborate with elementary class teachers. Extensive in-service training was provided for regular classroom teachers. In addition, on-site technical assistance, additional materials, or joint problem

solving activities were offered..

Data Collection, Analysis, and Results

Data was collected for 27 of the 43 students.

Evaluation of the UEI involved four different measures: (a) an implementation checklist to assess the **extent of implementation**, (b) The Scales of Independent Behaviour (SIB) to assess **students' behaviour** in the areas of motor skills, social and communication skills, personal living skills, community living skills, and general maladaptive behaviour, as well as providing a single measure of overall level of adaptive behaviour, (c) **level of student integration** in terms of amount of time students spent in the home room, in contact with peers outside of the home room, and with non-disabled peers outside of school time (determined every 3 months), (d) **level of satisfaction with the program** expressed by the regular class teachers. Reliability measures included training all research staff on data collection procedures, debriefing of program teacher, special education teacher, and supervisor or principal, and verification of data collected by school staff.

Ninety five % of UEI model components had been implemented during the second year of the study.

- Student pre/posttest scores on the SIB showed statistically significant gains on the Independence Full Scale Score, and all skill clusters except that of Personal Living
- Contact between disabled and regular students during playground and lunchtime activities comprised 14% of the school week..
- 44% of the school week was spent participating in the regular class;
- Outside the regular class, students spent 10% of the school week in contact with their regular school peers.
- After school contacts between disabled and regular student peers (determined using parent logs) ranged from 1 to 21 contacts per month and were found to increase as the model was further implemented.
- Regular class teachers expressed a very high level of satisfaction regarding support from the special education staff at their schools (89 to 99%).
- 74% of responses from the teachers indicated a belief that it was appropriate for students with disabilities to be in the regular class for part of the day.

Discussion

Overall, integrated students were found to have made significant gains in adaptive behaviour levels during the year. The authors concluded that the gains made were unlikely to be explained by maturation alone. Opportunities for interaction between disabled students and regular class peers were found to increase substantially. Regular class teachers expressed strong support for the model and a willingness to work with disabled students.

The research team stated that these results, in conjunction with those of earlier research, confirm that models such as the UEI:

- Increase interactions with non-disabled peers.
- Enhance communication skills.
- Result in more positive attitudes among regular students for those with disabilities.
- Create opportunities for friendships between members of the two groups.
- Disprove the belief that regular classroom teachers cannot or will not work with students with severe disabilities.

McDonnell et al. caution that study findings are limited. It was not a controlled research study, and the number of students participating was small. Participating schools volunteered and their staffs were supportive of inclusion. Lastly, quantity rather than quality of interaction was assessed and additional research is needed to determine more specifically the nature of student interactions.

Final Word

Though the study was challenging to read and had a number of limitations, the results were encouraging. Findings such as those outlined by the research team add to the weight of other studies and the experiences of numerous educators which argue that inclusive education is feasible. Careful thought is required. Support for those involved, students, teachers, and others, is mandatory. However, these requirements should be anticipated in the case of any educational reform and are not unique to inclusion. If care is taken with the basics of implementation, acceptable success can be achieved with inclusion.

Remedial and Special Education, 12(6), 34-45, 1991

INCLUSION THROUGH TEAMING: PERCEPTION OF STUDENTS WITH LEARNING DISABILITIES

**Tina Taylor Dyches, M. Winston Egan, James R. Young, Cregg Ingram,
Gordon Gibb, and Keith W. Allred**

Set in a junior high school in Utah, this study examined the perceptions of twenty students with exceptionalities (19 classified as learning disabled; one as behaviourally disordered) who, along with 110 regular students, participated in an inclusive program using student and teacher teaming. Regular students were randomly selected from the grade eight students at the school, while the students with special needs were nominated by the special education department.

All 130 students remained as a group for all their core classes (English, American history, science, math, health). Five regular class core subject teachers, one special education resource teacher, and two resource interns comprised the teaching team. Each core class was taught by a subject teacher and a special education teacher or resource intern who assisted the integrated students. In addition to assisting these students in the regular class, the special education teacher and resource interns also taught a skills class daily for included students.

Teacher teams met daily for approximately forty minutes to discuss student progress and concerns. Eighteen of the included students participated in semi-structured interviews regarding their perceptions of the program at the end of the school year.

Data Analysis and Results

Interview data were qualitatively analysed for themes. Three, perceptions of program, perceptions of teachers, and perceptions of self and others, emerged.

Program Perceptions: Many of the students commented that they enjoyed being part of a regular class and found the program more interesting. Many felt they received more help than in the past and were learning more. They also found the study skills class to be very helpful.

Perception of Teachers: Many students said they felt the teachers were nicer, knew them better, were much more helpful, and were more willing to spend time with the students. Students felt more comfortable asking for help or direction.

Perception of Self and Others: These perceptions were positive. No students felt singled out for special treatment; in fact, they felt they had more friends than in previous years.

Most also felt that their own behaviour had changed over the course of the year; they felt more mature, less shy, less hyper, and better behaved. Many said they felt more motivated to do well and complete assignments.

Discussion

Dyches and colleagues conclude that students' reactions to the inclusive team structure were positive overall. A team structure was preferred to withdrawal which they had experienced previously. Students appeared to have enjoyed the experience and felt smarter and better about themselves. They shared a belief that teachers were more willing to support them.

Part of the success of the program was felt to be related to the fact that team members discussed student problems promptly and "proactively" during daily meetings, thus putting them in an excellent position to help students in the next class.

The research team suggests that more research should be conducted to investigate factors which make inclusion a successful experience. Issues related to staffing patterns and cooperative teaming require examination.

Final Word

A number of criticisms may be levelled at this study. Hawthorne effect needs to be considered. Integrated students who participated in the program were chosen because they were most likely to succeed in the regular class and obviously were regarded as having skills in place to take advantage of their placement. Teachers were not interviewed for their perceptions, nor were regular students.

However, these criticisms do not diminish the findings that students who would ordinarily be placed in a pull-out program believed they benefited from inclusion. Program effect was very encouraging and related to many areas, both social and academic in nature.

The model of inclusion described in this study would seem to make sound educational sense. It appears economical in staff, involves manageable amounts of planning and collaboration, and maintained standards.

B. C. Journal of Special Education, 20(3), 5-24, 1996

INCLUSION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS: AN ANALYSIS OF SCHOOL STRUCTURE BASED ON TEACHERS' IMAGES OF CHANGE

J. David MacKinnon and Margaret E. Brown

Inclusive education has taken root at the elementary level more firmly than at the secondary. Many credit this to the student centred environment at the elementary level and a more subject centred secondary school setting. Whatever the differences might be, a growing number of secondary educators are attracted to inclusive philosophy and have initiated inclusive structures. Understanding the success of changes at the secondary level and clarification of teacher attitudes to change are important aspects of the initiation of inclusion at any level.

MacKinnon and Brown report on a study of the attitudes and behavioural changes of teachers in two schools (one urban, grades 7-9, and one rural, grades 7-12) which initiated placement of students with exceptionalities in the regular classrooms.

Twenty-three teachers from the urban school and 34 teachers from the rural site participated in the study. The rural school integrated eight students with mild to moderate mental and physical disabilities, previously educated in segregated settings. Budgetary restrictions had forced the closure of segregated facilities and elimination of special education resource positions. Three regular classroom teachers were then asked to share the responsibility of including the eight students. The urban school began its inclusion program when three students with highly challenging needs were admitted. Supports in the urban school consisted of one full time resource teacher, a special education integration facilitator for one hour per day, and two full time educational assistants. In both schools inclusive programming was a new concept.

Data was gathered over the course of a year by examining policy documents, observation of school and classroom practices, and semi-structured year-end interviews with administrators, teachers, and paraprofessionals. Interviewers asked participants to discuss the nature of supports which were required, problems they encountered, and recommendations for improvements.

Results

Both schools were traditionally structured and teachers initially expressed frustration that these students did not "fit into the system". Teachers spoke of being fearful of having to deal with students with challenging needs. As one resource teacher commented, "I think we tend to teach program and not students" (p. 140). It was apparent to teachers that the traditional ways of

teaching to groups of students of roughly equal academic ability was not appropriate to their new situation. Such feelings were common in the urban school, but present as well in the rural setting.

As the year proceeded, it became evident that structural reorganization was taking place in each school. Teachers began to collaborate with each other, sharing ideas and experiences. This was especially so in the urban school. Classroom practices also began to change. Teachers began to adapt instruction and became more comfortable with another adult in the classroom. In short, teachers began to develop into a team. As a part of a team individuals felt productive and supported, that they could discuss the obstacles they faced, and that the team could make progress.

Discussion

MacKinnon and Brown suggest that the original structure of the high school resembled that of a professional bureaucracy. Hence the emphasis on teaching programs with an accompanying lack of emphasis on individuals. However, the development of teams and cooperative strategies for solving problems arising from inclusion reflected a move towards more "adhocratic" methods and away from traditional bureaucratic structures.

Central to adhocracy and inclusion is the need for cooperation among teaching staff in solving problems specific to their situation. MacKinnon and Brown argue that adhocracy and diversity are "inextricably linked" and that such a structure offers the flexibility in which inclusion may occur. Workable solutions are generated from within rather than from outside sources.

Final Word

MacKinnon and Brown describe two situations in which secondary educators, for quite different reasons, became involved in a move from traditional instructional organization and practice to structures and methods designed to accommodate students with challenging needs in regular classrooms. They review the very real concerns teachers had when first faced with change.

The central message for us is that secondary schools can change and respond to the needs of students in progressive and appropriate ways. The natural turning to a team approach in response to educational challenge speaks to the resourcefulness of the average teacher. Such findings are very encouraging to those who advocate an inclusive approach.

Educational Administration Quarterly, 30(2), 126 - 152, 1994

THE STRATEGIES INTERVENTION MODEL: A MODEL FOR SUPPORTED INCLUSION AT THE SECONDARY LEVEL

Rosemary Tralli, Beverly Colombo, Donald D. Deshler, and Jean B. Schumaker

Advocates of inclusive practice know and understand that teachers are only part, albeit a central one, of what it takes to implement a practical and successful program. Colleagues, administrators, regular students, and parents must work together to create a supportive environment and recognize the fact that all students are learners. This article is based on the premise that it is not enough to simply include students with exceptionalities in the regular class, but, rather, that there must be “supported inclusion”.

Tralli and her research team begin with descriptions of a series of instructional methods and procedures combining in the Strategies Intervention Model (SIM). The model is one which secondary school teachers can use to accommodate students with mild to moderate disabilities in the general education class. The strategies fall into three categories:

- **Learning strategies interventions** which focus on teaching students specific strategies for a task, such as writing a paper or taking a test.
- **Content enhancement routines** which are instructional routines teachers can use to organize the content and presentation of lessons so as to make content more accessible for both disabled and regular students.
- **Empowerment interventions** which aim to bolster student initiative in guiding their own learning and in building positive relationships with peers and teachers.

These category definitions are supported with examples of specific strategies.

The SIM stresses the need for staff commitment to meeting the needs of all students in the regular education class and the value of close collaboration between special education and regular class teachers. The three groups of interventions described above call for collaboration and coordination across teachers and classes. The realities of working in diverse classrooms require a shared approach, sound strategies, and belief that all students are learners.

The second section of the paper describes the efforts of two secondary schools (Wethersfield Public School System in Connecticut, and Clayton High School in Missouri) to implement SIM. The schools approached the task in different ways and stressed different components of the model, but both feel the program was successful.

Wethersfield Public School

Wethersfield began using the model in 1988. It is now a fundamental part of the school's strategic plan for meeting the needs of a diverse school population. Staff at Wethersfield believe their success in implementing the model can be attributed to seven factors:

- A school mission statement which emphasized life long learning and the contribution of each student to a community of learners through development of potential and growth as independent learners with a strong sense of self.
- Strong administrative support at central and building levels through funding for professional development and purchase of materials, as well as coordination of effort across schools.
- Training of staff which, after the one to three years of initial training, involved continuous opportunity for debriefing and problem solving sessions.
- Procedures and efforts in place to identify the strategies which students needed and to teach those particular ones.
- Strong parental support for the program (parents were informed of every step).
- Focus on both process and content as well as leading students to think about their own learning process.
- Strong collaborative efforts between special and regular education teachers for monitoring student progress.

Each of these is discussed and strategies for use between grades 5 and 12 noted. Special emphasis is given to building self-advocacy skills in included students.

Clayton High School

Clayton High School (a college prep school) decided to eliminate low-track courses in favour of heterogeneous classes. In recognition of the magnitude of this change the staff were cautious in their efforts to implement SIM. They began by forming a team of special and general education teachers to meet over the course of a year to develop a plan of action. This team decided on a small scale pilot project to test prospective methods by having regular and special class teachers co-teach a basic English class. The plan was to introduce writing strategies into the regular curriculum. Particular challenges faced in trying to teach learning strategies to a large group of heterogeneous students included finding opportunities for students to practice strategies, providing

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feedback to each student, and maintaining student interest. These challenges were resolved through organizational structures as well as the use of peer tutoring.

In year two, the school implemented SIM in English and Science classes. Regular class teachers were hesitant to spend much class time on the teaching of learning strategies or study skills because they felt it would reduce the teaching of content. The resolution was that special education teachers took over that part of the model and provided extensive teaching of strategies in a resource room. Regular class teachers did, however, agree to use content enhancement strategies so that critical content could be made more accessible to all students. In addition, teachers worked together over the year to develop concept diagrams, (as developed by Bulgren, Deshler, and Schumaker), for each important concept in the course. There was also an effort to move from objective type testing to performance based testing.

Both students and staff felt the program had been successful. There was substantial success for students with challenging needs in regular classes, though resource room support was required by some students. Teachers recognized the value of the collaborative relationships developed and the need to extend the support system developed for included students to all students. Recognized as well was the desire of general educators to focus on content rather than on strategy instruction, but also their willingness to modify their teaching approaches to a certain degree. A resource room - regular classroom design emerged for the teaching of strategies.

Discussion

Tralli et al. comment that the successful inclusion of students with disabilities at the secondary level requires strong administrative support and time for teachers to plan and collaborate, as well as for instructional adjustments. Both case studies point to need for careful planning and the time to do it. They concluded that, though change is not easy, inclusion can be successful if those involved collaborate and if support is provided.

Final Word

Tralli and her colleagues discuss a feasible model based on proven instructional and collaborative strategies. Flexibility of the SIM is apparent in the two quite different manners in which Wethersfield High and Clayton High implemented the model. Those becoming involved in inclusive education are well advised to maintain a flexible approach, such as that described. The diversity of school populations and the local conditions of individual schools demand it.

One very positive aspect of the article was recognition that regular classroom teachers are accustomed to a content focus, whereas a strategy approach to instruction is traditionally more familiar to those versed in special education methodology. As is documented in the two case studies, a content focus and a strategy focus can blend to produce benefit for all students.

Remedial and Special Education, 17(4), 204 - 216, 1996

COLLABORATION

Whenever teachers, parents, or advocates speak of inclusive education and how it best can be accomplished, the value of a collaborative approach is part of the conversation. Collaboration is a central strategy of the inclusive approach and a part of every model with which we are familiar.

Among students collaboration is an accepted and well regarded part of education due to the stress placed on cooperative projects now characteristic of most schools. Most teachers now entering the profession have been exposed to instruction on collaborative structures and strategies to use with their students. Though evidence of the effect of cooperative grouping under the inclusive model is slim at this point, collaboration is generally considered to be a positive dynamic. A specific collaborative activity, that of peer tutoring, is described under the ACADEMICS section of this book. There is little doubt that it is effective.

However, most teachers are not accustomed to working closely with other educators when it comes to what they do in their classrooms. Teaching, traditionally, has been an individual, independent effort. The principal assigns you to a class and you and your students then go about teaching and learning as you see appropriate. Collaborative planning in most schools remains a recent and problematic affair. Teacher preparation programs advocate a collaborative approach in classrooms, but how the teachers themselves might collaborate is not a major topic of discussion in most places. In other words, an initial reaction of many teachers is to feel hesitant when collaboration is presented as a central strategy of inclusion.

One result is that the literature on the collaborative approach in inclusive settings is more focussed on advocating teacher teams than it is on how such teams function in practice. Teachers are familiar with the theory, but practice is another matter.

Nevertheless, collaboration among teachers, and extending to parents, advocates, and colleagues from other disciplines, is steadily increasing. Those who take the time to work through the growing pains associated with any change in how we do things, find that they become more efficient, less time is required, participants begin to take on complementary roles, and progress results.

Following our own careers as basically individually functioning professionals we, too, have

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moved to more collaborative relationships in what we do. We have experienced the clashes of teaching style, beliefs about teaching, and other interpersonal differences which persuade some educators to avoid collaboration. However, though we continue to function individually in many situations, we have formed collaborative relationships in various settings because we have experienced the value of working with others.

Though we believe collaborative teaming to be such a central strategy that we dedicated this section to it, this is not the sole place it is discussed. It will be found in other articles throughout this book and in the literature generally. Our intention is to focus on the structures of collaboration and to give a taste of the success that teachers meet when they practice collaboratively.

Paula Stanovich described the characteristics of collaboration in inclusive education in a tidy little article in *Intervention in School and Clinic*. She outlines its essentials and develops discussion of the relationship of the regular classroom teacher to special education colleagues, parents, paraprofessionals, principals, and other relevant personnel. The article would be good reading for any teacher considering the collaborative approach.

Walther-Thomas, Bryant, and Land also describe collaborative strategy, but from a different viewpoint than does Stanovich, that of an entire school system. They deal in succinct fashion with the structures needed at the district, building, and classroom level. All of these are interrelated, with each dependent on the one preceding. Teachers cannot do it all. They need commitment to collaboration from the highest to the lowest levels of their system G137

The final article is an exploration of a collaborative approach to math instruction by Robert Slavin. The collaborative team here is composed of students with a range of ability levels. In two quite sizeable studies regular students and students with challenges in collaborative groups achieved at higher levels than did peers using more traditional instructional structures.

The ultimate value of collaboration, whether it be among educators or students, has yet to be clearly understood in relation to inclusive education. However, the basics of the approach and evidence of its positive nature are apparent in the modest amount of literature available.

COLLABORATION - THE KEY TO SUCCESSFUL INSTRUCTION IN TODAY'S SCHOOLS

Paula J. Stanovich

Stanovich believes that the diverse student populations characteristic of inclusive classrooms create a need to re-think the role of the regular classroom teacher. The primary change she foresees is that from independent professional to that of a collaborative professional.

Collaboration among interdependent professionals is viewed as:

- A voluntary association.
- Requiring parity among associates.
- Tied to mutual goals.
- A sharing of responsibility.
- A sharing of resources.
- A sharing of accountability.

Stanovich argues that collaboration along these lines will result in the development of a support network, professional growth for colleagues, and a strengthening of teaching. It leads to benefits for all students.

Collaborative Relationships:

With Special Education Teachers

The regular classroom teacher and the special education teacher form the nucleus of the team responsible for development of the Individualized Education Program (IEP) and its delivery. While the regular classroom teacher is the primary instructor for all students and more familiar with the regular curriculum, the special education resource teacher brings expertise in curriculum modifications and alternate methods of delivery of curriculum content to the team.

Partnership is of particular value where students with behavioural challenge are concerned. A further benefit of collaboration between the regular teacher and the resource teacher is the possibility of a co-teaching arrangement through which both can bring their individual skills to bear.

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With Parents

A central tenet of inclusion is that teachers and parents should work together closely. Stanovich emphasizes that this collaboration should extend to parents of all children in a class, not just those with challenges to their learning.

In an increasing number of jurisdictions parents have legal right to participate in IEP development. The collaborative regular teacher does not wait for legislation to be passed, but actively implements a collaborative relationship. Parents are made to feel appropriate and valued members of the team. Among the ways to realize the riches of a positive, collaborative relationship is establishment of the routine presence of parents at meetings regarding their child and as volunteers in the school.

With Paraprofessionals

The regular teacher has a central role in realization of the potential of paraprofessionals through enlisting them as team members in planning and program delivery. Involvement in meetings, open lines of communication, and respect for the contributions of the paraprofessional will do much to overcome the difficulties sometimes present between teacher and paraprofessional.

With Principals

Principals can support inclusion as can few others. They can support the collaborative approach, encourage team contributions, provide needed concrete supports, solve problems, and demonstrate personal leadership. Theirs is the primary responsibility for developing a positive and supportive school culture.

The regular classroom teacher can work toward realization of these potential principal contributions by ensuring that the principal is informed of progress and problems, a participant in relevant meetings, aware of needs as they arise, and welcome at any time.

With Other Personnel

Depending on the strengths and needs of individual students, a host of support personnel may move into and out of the collaborative team as their particular skills are required. When involved they should be fully functioning and respected team members aware of the regular classroom focus of the educational program. Open lines of communication will do much to foster a feeling of team membership.

Summary

Stanovich notes the key role of the regular teacher in successful inclusion and the value of a supportive network of colleagues from the school, home, and community. She recognizes the need to support teachers not accustomed to collaborative team relationships through professional development opportunities.

Final Word

Stanovich has written a short, simply presented, but important, article for those who wonder about the form and functioning of the collaborative team. It would be valuable reading for novice teachers, those about to enter collaborative situations, and parents seeking ways to support their children in the school environment. It serves as a useful frame of reference for the following more specific treatments of collaboration and team work in support of inclusive practice.

There is no doubt among those who practice inclusively that some form of collaborative relationship eases the task and results in stronger programming. It is our experience that each school and, indeed, each set of collaborators, will develop a model within which they can work productively.

Intervention in School and Clinic, 32(1), 39-42, 1996

PLANNING FOR EFFECTIVE CO-TEACHING: THE KEY TO SUCCESSFUL INCLUSION

Chriss Walther-Thomas, Mimi Bryant, and Sue Land

The premise that inclusive models of education for students with disabilities are growing in popularity is accepted in this article. The authors point to U. S. Department of Education data documenting the trend toward inclusive models and believe it will continue. Further, they point to co-teaching as a major collaborative strategy facilitative of inclusion.

This article is a discussion of considerations needed to successfully implement inclusive classrooms operating on the principles of cooperative team teaching. Walther-Thomas et al. regard team teaching as essential to inclusion and believe team teaching partnerships must be carefully and thoughtfully set-up. Issues which may arise at three levels (district, building, and classroom), and the importance of commitment at each particular level, are considered.

District Level Planning

According to Walther et al. **effective leadership and commitment at the district level** are essential. It is at this level that the **efforts of individual sites are coordinated** so that cooperation and collaboration among schools is supported and facilitated. **Involvement of district level offices** also ensures that resources are more likely to be available and appropriately distributed. In addition, administrators at this level can facilitate dialogue with agencies of the larger community. **Diversely structured district-level committees** tasked with development of long range plans and consideration of potential consequences of change are recommended.

Building Level Planning

At this level **principals are seen as “instructional leaders”** and their involvement as critical. In addition to the more practical considerations such as class sizes, planning time and staff development, **principals need to provide encouragement and moral support.**

Walther-Thomas et al. warn against the temptation to rush through the implementation stages at this level and encourage allowing time to build solid partnerships. Teachers and others who are regarded as leaders by their colleagues, who value collaboration, and who are willing to put in the time and effort required should be recruited to **a leadership team.**

On going staff development should be a prime focus at this level. Effective co-planning,

student scheduling, instructional considerations, performance assessment and interpersonal communication are just some of the topics which the authors suggest should be part of staff development programs. Also essential are the establishment of a **balanced classroom roster** (not more than six out of twenty-five pupils with mild to moderate disabilities), providing **weekly scheduled co-planning time**, and developing **appropriate IEPs** (Individual Education Plans). Again, Walther et al. recommend that co-teaching partnerships be given time to develop and that it may be wise to do some **test piloting of co-teaching** before attempting a school wide program.

Classroom Level Planning

At this level, the need to **select teachers who are open minded and willing to try new ideas** is stressed. Beyond this there are several guidelines which should be kept in mind. First, teaching partners should be given **time to get to know each other's strengths, weaknesses, and interests**. Secondly, teachers should be adept at, and willing to **continuously evaluate their plans and programs**. This, the researchers say, is critical to the success of effective co-teaching and inclusive programming. Thirdly, **regularly scheduled meetings** of one or more hours per week are essential in allowing teachers to plan programs and solve problems.

Discussion

In conclusion, the research team stresses the need for commitment at all three levels of service for inclusion to become a long-term reality instead of a short-lived experiment. As Walther-Thomas and colleagues say "To ensure appropriate learning experiences for students with disabilities in general education environments, program planning cannot be left to chance" (p. 263). That all efforts be "deliberate and thoughtful", and that community members also have opportunity to become involved are stressed. If care is taken with planning and implementation, the authors are confident that co-teaching can be an effective basic strategy.

Final Word

A good general overview of issues which should be kept in mind when implementing any innovative program. The section on district level planning is somewhat short and vague. However, the section on classroom level planning is quite comprehensive and includes a case study of two teachers' experiences teaching together with an example of co-implementation of a process writing program

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The key to a sound co-teaching model is willingness of those involved to plan and implement carefully and to accept that changes will take time. Patience and determination are elements as essential to movement to an inclusive educational program as are creativity and solid planning.

Co-teaching is one type of collaborative model. It can be powerful in the hands of teachers who wish to work closely together as teaching partners. In our experience it can be quite valuable when used to initiate the inclusive approach. For those who wish, it may then be continued. Others may move from it to other forms of collaboration in keeping with their views of their strengths and the needs of their students.

Remedial and Special Education, 17(4), 255 - cover 3, 1996

TEAM ASSISTED INDIVIDUALIZATION: COOPERATIVE LEARNING AND INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTION IN THE MAINSTREAMED CLASSROOM

Robert E. Slavin

Slavin reports the results of two studies designed to assess the effect of a program known as Team Assisted Individualization (TAI) on mathematics achievement and attitude of handicapped and regular students. TAI is a math program which involves students working on individual math units within a cooperative learning team. Teams are a mix of four or five low, average, and high achieving male and female students who manage all aspects of their individual assignments, thus freeing the teacher to work with small groups. All curriculum materials are individualized and team members change every four weeks. Achievement certificates are given to teams in accordance with level of weekly team scores..

In the first study, 504 students from grades 3, 4, and 5 in six different schools randomly were assigned to (a) the TAI group, (b) an instructional group using TAI curriculum materials but without grouping, and (c) a control group which used traditional teaching methods with textbooks and group-paced instruction. Six % of the students were receiving special education services and 17 % received speech or special reading instruction. These students were included in regular education classes. The experiment was conducted over an eight week period.

The second study involved 1371 students in the same grades and from the same suburban Maryland school district, but different schools. However, this study was conducted over a 24 week period with a TAI group and a control group only. Eight % of this student population were receiving special education services. All were included in regular education classrooms.

Pre and posttest data was gathered using (a) The Mathematics Computation subscale of the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills (CTBS), (b) two - eight item attitude scales to assess how much students like math and their self-concept in math, (c) The School Social Behaviour Rating Scale completed by the teachers, and (d) a peer-rating assessment designed to examine acceptance level of disabled students by their regular peers.

Data Analysis and Results

All data was analysed using multiple regression techniques and analysis of covariance. Results of study one showed a marginally significant overall treatment effect for achievement with both the TAI and instructional groups scoring higher than the control. No differences were found between the TAI and the instructional group. Similar results were

found for attitude and behaviour. There were no significant differences between the experimental groups. However, those in the TAI group scored much higher in self-concept than did the instructional and control groups. Included students in the TAI group did not vary in achievement from those in other groups, but effect was noted for behaviour, attitudes, and social acceptance.

Results of study two indicated a greater significant difference between experimental and control groups with the TAI group scoring higher for mathematical computations, concepts and applications. For disabled students, significant differences were noted in the area of computations, but not for concept development or applications.

Discussion

Results showed that regular students and those with disabilities in the TAI group made significantly greater mathematical gains than their control group peers over the 24 week period. Results from the first study showed that students with disabilities using TAI had greater acceptance among their regular peers, and were rated by teachers as having fewer problems. Cooperative learning strategies were supported by both groups of students.

In terms of inclusive practice, these results indicate that students with learning challenges can be accommodated in the regular class and that inclusion does not hinder the education of regular students. Both groups of TAI students made significant gains over the control groups indicating that all students benefit from cooperative learning strategies.

Final Word

An interesting study. There are, however, questions around the fact that TAI group members, and those working individually in instructional groups, benefited more than those in the control group in experiment one. Are the two approaches equal in effect?

Regretfully, there was no instructional group in study two. It would have been interesting to see whether the instructional group would have achieved similar results over the 24 week period.

These studies support the belief that students with challenging needs and regular students can work together in regular classrooms. Mutual academic benefit is realized when programs such as TAI are implemented. In addition, there appears to be social benefit for included students.

Remedial and Special Education, 5(6), 33 - 42, 1984

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES

Teachers who include students with challenging needs find that the practice promotes certain ways of conceptualizing and refining their instruction. The old, traditional technique of planning and delivering lessons aimed at the average student of a fairly homogenous class falls flat when the class is diverse in ability. It is just about impossible to operate a classroom on a teacher centred basis when the needs of the students before you vary considerably. Of course, thinking educators have known and accepted for some time that the preferred classroom management style was to be student centred and to address individual student needs.

Instruction in the inclusive classroom may be considered to work on a number of levels, from that of the theoretical basis of instruction to that of individual strategies. That is one of the reasons why we advocate for the thinking teacher, the professional who has put effort into understanding the whys and wherefores of how to teach, how best to meet the needs of students. The effective teacher of students of diverse abilities tends to be one who relies on flexibility in instruction and no one fixed approach.

To us the need for a knowledgeable, flexible teacher holds implications for teacher preparation programs and their designs in the first instance. Programs focussed on memorization of procedures, on slavish imitation of host teachers in practice teaching situations, and on a view of education as ruled by a lockstep curriculum are programs which will not serve education well. Obviously, it is necessary to learn something about classroom management, of the present ways teachers practice their profession, and of the gradual progression of curricula with change in age and ability. However, teacher preparation programs should teach future teachers to question present practice to discover its strengths and its needs. We will not do well with non-thinking acceptance of past and present practice. University and college programs must present a range of theoretical views of child development, teaching, and learning in an effort to provide a wide ranging familiarity with the ideas underlying various instructional approaches. Teaching requires more than a simplistic view of how teaching should proceed. Preparation programs must emphasize creativity in preparing teachers to meet the learning needs of all students within the community of the regular classroom. The development of strong preparation programs, ones which give rise to independent, interactive, inquisitive professionals, is a challenge yet to be met by the majority of professional

programs. Yet, teaching all children together in the regular classrooms of neighbourhood schools is worth the effort.

Teacher preparation programs will work best when complemented by the efforts of school systems to involve teachers in vibrant, meaningful, inservice professional development activities, and by the collegial leadership of forward looking principals and other administrators. The preparation obtained in university and college based programs is the beginning of professional development. Field experience must continue that beginning and constantly renew the instructional expertise of teachers so that they might respond to the constantly changing needs of the students in front of them.

The nine articles in this section lead the reader from consideration of fundamental constructs which underlie instruction, through an exploration of planning, and to examination of particular instructional practices supportive of an inclusive approach.

The first three articles focus on theoretical underpinnings of instruction. Cecil Mercer and his colleagues bring together two approaches which many have regarded as distinctly divergent. Mercer and team reject such simplistic notions and argue that explicit and implicit strategies represent differing instructional emphases which might be called on to meet differing student needs. Alice Udvari-Solner and Jacqueline Thousand extend this level of thought through social interaction with a diverse community of learners and a flexible view of the abilities of students. Udvari-Solner then moves discussion to the need for teachers to engage in critical reflection as they plan inclusive strategies and adapt instruction to meet the needs of all learners.

The theme of reflective planning continues to the next set of three articles. In the first Jennifer York and Terri Vandercook offer a guide for program planning within a collaborative context and with a view to consideration of the whole child. A team headed by Michael Giangreco pursues program planning through an analysis of Individual Educational Plans (IEP's) developed for students with multiple disabilities. Their work reminds us of faults which may occur in IEP's if planning is not student centred and based on flexible, reflective understanding of learning and teaching. Vaughn and Schumm add discussion of the value of basing planning on a model strong enough to avoid the temptation to pay more attention to content than to student, and to focus on individual needs rather than on teaching to the whole class in general. The development of inclusive strategies requires that we examine the strategies we already use in order to move our

planning to firmer foundations.

The final three articles deal with day to day teaching. King-Sears and Cummings remind the reader that there are certain generic strategies which promote inclusion and meeting student needs. Deborah Jacobs and Cheryl Houtwed, whom we met doing a poster presentation and liked their paper so much that we included it here, discuss peer tutoring, a strategy found to be of great value in supporting students. These two short reviews are very informative and get to the basics of teaching as does the final study. Sawyer and her team review aspects of that routine activity referred to as homework. Included students need to do homework as do their peers if they are to be accepted in all ways in the regular classroom. As with all areas of teaching and learning, there are basic strategies which will ease the way.

EMPOWERING TEACHERS AND STUDENTS WITH INSTRUCTIONAL CHOICES IN INCLUSIVE SETTINGS

Cecil D. Mercer, Holly B. Lane, Luann Jordan, David H. Allsopp, and Mary R. Eisele

This is a wonderful discussion of the merit of providing teachers with the means, and freedom to use a range of teaching strategies which encompass both explicit and implicit instructional practices. On the theoretical level these two approaches to teaching have been regarded as mutually exclusive. Explicit teaching, which hails from a behavioural perspective, focus on the teacher as the central figure; the teacher is regarded as the provider of knowledge who transmits this knowledge to the student via direct instruction strategies which promote mastery and generalization. Implicit teaching, on the other hand, sees the teacher as a facilitator with the central focus being on the student as an individual who constructs her/his own meaning. The teacher creates situations in which skills and concepts arise naturally and in which the teacher can offer guidance as needed.

Mercer et al. believe that the two approaches are not mutually exclusive but should, instead, be seen as a continuum, or spectrum, of teaching practices. The decision to use strategies which lean more towards either end of the continuum will depend on a number of factors such as the extent of the student's background knowledge in a subject, the student's learning style, and the nature of the content to be learned. For students with a rich background of experiences, implicit methods may be more suitable; for other students challenged in their learning explicit methods may be more appropriate; students in the middle range have been shown to benefit from either strategy. The ultimate goal of any teacher should be to move the student toward the implicit end of the spectrum. However, the use of explicit teaching may be necessary in the beginning.

Meeting the needs of students in today's diverse classrooms will demand that teachers have at their disposal the use of a range of teaching strategies which can be placed somewhere along the explicit/implicit continuum and, therefore, encompass both direct teaching practices and child-directed learning. For example, research has shown that teaching word recognition skills is more effective under direct teaching. However, this does not mean that all students will need this kind of explicit teaching for word recognition skills to develop. Furthermore, it should not mean that this is the only type of language exposure which is available to the students. Exposure to holistic language practices will suffice for some, but will also benefit those who require direct teaching;

whole language practices should be used alongside the explicit methods. The same can be said of the teaching of mathematics. A balanced approach is best.

Short reviews of the research base for viewing apparently conflicting instructional approaches as parts of a continuum are provided. Language, reading, writing, math, and science are considered. Implications are drawn for each of these, as well as for teacher preparation.

Lastly, the research team notes that instructional strategies for grouping students can also be useful in promoting the use of one or the other method. For instance, teachers can arrange small homogeneous groupings when explicit instruction is more desirable, or heterogenous groups can be arranged for instruction utilizing implicit methods.

Conclusion

Mercer and colleagues feel strongly that pre-service teacher education programs should provide teacher candidates with a variety of teaching experiences including exposure to the teaching of students with special needs. Teachers should also be encouraged to practice a variety of instructional strategies during their practica. It is also their belief that “ideological extremes” are more likely to be found at the university level than at the classroom level. Researchers should remember the needs of the students and the teachers.

Final Word

Mercer and colleagues have put into clear prose an approach to teaching with which we agree and one which we promote in our own instruction. The belief that there is one best way for all learners to learn anything is a dangerous one, and one that should have no place in education.

The variety of student strengths and needs should be sufficient evidence to persuade any thinking person of the need for teachers to be familiar with a variety of instructional approaches. Recognition of this truth is increasingly necessary as inclusive practice expands.

Remedial and Special Education, 17(4), 226 - 236, 1996

Alice Udvari-Solner and Jacqueline S. Thousand

A stimulating article by Udvari-Solner and Thousand which examines the **basic tenets of constructivist theory, Vygotskian theory, and Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences**. The authors discuss how they can be used to alter school curriculum to enable the creation of fully inclusive classrooms. They argue that the current curriculum approach in schools arises out of a reductionist perspective which sees learning as a rigid, sequential progression of isolated facts, and which requires strong logical-mathematical or linguistic skills on behalf of the learner. A standardized curriculum and homogeneous grouping is fundamental to this traditional approach to instruction.

Those students who cannot adhere to this learning format are believed to be deficient and must receive remediation. In contrast, constructivism, Vygotskian theory, and Gardner's theory contain assumptions allowing the creation of classrooms in which students with diverse backgrounds, learning styles, and needs can be successful learners.

Both Vygotskian and constructivist theory emphasize the **social aspect of all learning** and posit that social interaction is essential in order for any learning to occur. **Learning begins from knowledge the student already has acquired**. Exposure to social contexts and a community of others is a catalyst to further development. The teacher's role is to connect new information to what the student already knows. The role is more of facilitator than that of a directive teacher. Heterogeneity and diversity creates an enriched learning environment and, for those who think as does Vygotsky, are essential.

The strength in Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences lies in its recognition that the **traditional view of intelligence is limited and restricts our understanding of learners**. Gardner argues that at least seven types of intelligence exist: linguistic; logical-mathematical; musical; spatial; bodily-kinesthetic; interpersonal; and intrapersonal. All people possess varying levels of strength in all the different intelligences.

Thus, rather than focussing on a weakness in, for example, the area of written language or mathematical intelligence, the teacher would call on a student's stronger abilities for acquiring,

and demonstrating knowledge of a skill.

Udvari-Solner and Thousand believe that an inclusive, responsive curriculum holds eight basic characteristics which arise out of the theories discussed above:

- Multi-age grouping.
- Multicultural education.
- Interdisciplinary curriculum.
- Teaching responsibility and peacemaking.
- Use of technology.
- Peer-mediated instruction.
- Community-referenced instruction.
- Authentic assessment.

The first five of these characteristics affect classroom design. They are concerned with achieving a classroom which is varied in gender, ability, ethnicity, interests, and age levels, and allow learning to proceed at different rates and levels. Units of study would be theme-based and cut across disciplines. Students would be taught responsible behaviour and learn values which build community.

The next two characteristics concern basic strategies of instructional practice. Peer-tutoring results in learning for both the tutor and tutee. Cooperative learning in pairs or groups allows students with different abilities and interests to work together. Conceiving of education as taking place in, and involving, the larger community expands the concept of learning.

Lastly, assessment practices can reflect the new shift in curriculum through methods such as portfolios which allow for demonstrations of learning gathered over time and which involve the student. The simple acquisition of knowledge is not as important as the possession of constructs built over time.

Conclusion

Udvari-Solner and Thousand argue that considerably more work is needed in identifying strategies which would allow students with disabilities, and especially those with more severe degrees of challenge, to participate in the regular classroom. They also believe that **those who are closest to the daily activities of a classroom are in the best position to help develop positive strategies** for curricular and instructional practices and that action research has a great

deal of potential. They observe that "Philosophy, theory, and practice are beginning to converge so that (a) viewing and treating children as individuals are built into the daily operation of the classroom, and (b) making adaptations is commonplace, routine, and expected implicitly and explicitly (e.g. in teachers' job descriptions and evaluations)" (p. 190).

Final Word

Clearly written, insightful, and thought inspiring. A valuable reading for teachers, for those who teach teachers, and for parents. Drives home the limitations of current curriculum practices while also offering something else in its place.

Inclusive education calls for the thoughtful blending in of the newer knowledge we have, but which has not yet affected the fabric of education as it is woven in most school systems and in the majority of teacher preparation programs. Forward looking concepts, such as those falling under constructivist, Vygotskian, and multiple intelligences theory, possess the potential to strengthen and brighten this fabric for teachers, regular students, students with disabilities, and for the community at large.

They also leave room for both explicit and implicit teaching as required by changing situations and differing needs.

Remedial and Special Education, 17(3), 182 - 192, 1996

EXAMINING TEACHER THINKING: CONSTRUCTING A PROCESS TO DESIGN CURRICULAR ADAPTATIONS

Alice Udvari-Solner

This study is part of a larger 3- year study in which the methods used by teachers to include students with disabilities in classrooms were investigated. The article reads more as a discussion of a discourse model developed by Udvari-Solner than as a formal treatment of methodology and data analysis. It has a practical focus which makes it attractive to all who are concerned with strengthening practice in order to facilitate inclusion.

Through semi-structured interviews, participant observation, and review of planning documents, the author investigated the thinking processes of 10 elementary class teachers who changed their instructional practices in order to create inclusive classrooms. Four specific areas were examined: (a) how teachers chose and created curricular adaptations, (b) the influence of teacher behaviour on inclusion, (c) characteristics of classrooms and classroom climate which affected inclusion, and (d) successful curricular adaptations which facilitated inclusion.

The study is premised on the belief that **creating inclusive classrooms requires teachers to be aware of how they teach and to engage in “reflexive” and “reflective” decision making.**

Udvari-Solner found that the teachers appeared to use **internal personal dialogue and a self-questioning strategy** to help them plan for their students. She believes that this type of critical reflection is necessary in the teaching profession, and that school reform can be advanced if the format of personal reflection is utilized routinely in discussions among school personnel. To this end, a discourse strategy based on a series of questions has been developed. This strategy poses nine questions which educators can work through to assist them in developing inclusive strategies.

- **Can the student actively participate in the lesson without modifications and achieve the same essential outcomes? Are adaptations really needed or can the student work through the material without them and still gain the same understanding as everyone else? Over-support of a student can be a pit-fall.**
- **Will student-specific outcomes need to be identified?** This question ensures that team members focus on a student’s individual needs to obtain a clear and accurate

picture of learning needs.

- **Can the student participation be increased by changing the instructional arrangement?** This point refers to grouping of students for lessons and whether they are being given opportunities to demonstrate their abilities.
- **Can the student's participation be increased by changing the lesson format?** Considerations of methods to be used, such as lecture versus activity-based, thematic instruction, is the focus of this question.
- **Can the student's participation and understanding be increased by changing the delivery of instruction** or the general educator's teaching style? The teacher is asked to reflect on her/his teaching style and appropriate changes which would further assist that particular student.
- **Can changes be made in the physical or social classroom environment that will facilitate participation?** Factors such as noise level, lay-out of furniture, accessibility of materials, should be taken into consideration.
- **Will different instructional materials be needed to ensure participation?** Consideration of forms of expression other than pencil and paper or worksheets is the focus of this question.
- **Will personal assistance be needed** in the form of natural support and supervision to ensure participation? Consideration of an educational assistant or other support personnel should come only after curricular, instructional, environmental, and other considerations have been made. Provision of intensive instructional supports often creates an unnatural situation. It should be remembered that there are others (eg. peers) in the exceptional student's environment who can provide assistance when necessary.
- **Will an alternative activity be needed** for the student and a small group of peers? This question warns against the tendency to create separate activities for exceptional students which are unrelated to the content and context in which the rest of the class is involved. Designing an activity in which other classmates are involved ensures that the activity is meaningful and that the student is still part of the class.

Other findings of the study included the discovery that special education and regular education teachers did not appear to have a common language when discussing curricular adaptations. This resulted in misunderstandings which impacted negatively on the inclusion of students with disabilities into the regular class. Both groups of teachers need to have shared values and similar teaching philosophies.

Final Word

The reflective dialogue approach suggested is valuable and will help teachers who follow it. At first glimpse thinking through a set of nine questions may appear a too lengthy process. However, our experience with planning strategies for inclusion is that the process may take time initially, but becomes automatic and rapid. It moves from conscious and deliberate thought to quick review in most instances. Only new situations call for deeper levels of planning, as is the case for all classrooms, inclusive or not.

Examination of the actual process suggested by Udvari-Solner reveals her strength in blending theory and pragmatism in support of inclusive practice. Elements of authentic assessment, a team approach, consideration of learning style, and other instructional considerations appropriate for inclusive practice are apparent. The ability to blend knowledge toward achievement of a desired end is the reward of consistent reflective teaching.

Remedial and Special Education, 17(4), 245 - 254, 1996

DESIGNING AN INTEGRATED PROGRAM FOR LEARNERS WITH SEVERE DISABILITIES

Jennifer York and Terri Vandercook

York and Vandercook support a team approach to planning individual education programs (IEP's) for students with high degrees of challenge to their learning. They believe it is critical that all those involved with any child understand the nature of desired outcomes and their personal roles in reaching those outcomes. The authors present outlines of a guide for team planning of goals and objectives related to learner needs and strengths. The guide's holistic basis, and its potential for blending all aspects of a student's life in school, home, and community is attractive.

The authors begin by outlining five assumptions essential to the process:

- **Exceptional students must be participating members of all aspects of school life** and that requires that isolation from regular classrooms, school community, and extracurricular activities must be minimized. Special education support and service is necessary, but the IEP is based on **integration** in the regular classroom.
- Student **needs should be individually assessed** by those closest to the student and most knowledgeable of needs, strengths, and life context.
- **Teamwork is basic** and teams should include the learner, the learner's parents, friends, special educator, regular educator, principal, and others such as paraprofessionals and therapists, if required. Pooling of expertise leads to stronger planning. Administrative support facilitates success.
- An IEP is a "working" document requiring continual updates as student needs change, and as team members understand more about the student. **Flexibility in modifying objectives** to meet changing needs will strengthen any student's program.
- It is important that targeted **skills be related to the environment** in which they are to take place. Goals and objectives focus both on skills to be obtained and the context in which they will be put to use.

The balance of the article details four steps involved in developing an integrated IEP. In step 1 ("**getting the big picture**"), team members review the assumptions essential to the process,

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engage in general discussion to develop a common consensus about the learner's overall educational needs, and distinguish specific contexts (environments) in which the skills are to take place. An example of a worksheet to help determine contexts is provided. Step 2 requires team members to select a few of the contexts from step 1 and **begin identifying goals and objectives**. These goals and objectives should be viewed as tentative and to be finalized after observing the student in the environment. Step 3 discusses **pragmatics of how integration can be carried out**; questions related to actual needs are posed and answered at this stage, with a view to environmentally referencing goals for priority contexts. Step 4 calls for implementation of the IEP in priority contexts and for **flexible revision** as needs and strengths become clearer.

York and Vandercook provide examples of worksheets outlining life span domains (school, general, recreation/leisure, domestic, and vocational) and primary skills for both an elementary and a secondary student. Included as well are responses to common questions regarding starting, roles, time, and peer involvement which sometimes perplex those just becoming familiar with a new planning process.

York and Vandercook continually stress the need to observe the student's behaviour in the environment to confirm appropriateness of IEP objectives. They also point out that regular peers can also be helpful in setting socially appropriate IEP objectives and should not be left out of the process. Lastly, it must be remembered that the aim is to link the skills to be learned in the classroom with skills useful in the student's life outside of the classroom.

Final Word

York and Vandercook present a framework, an overall process, for planning IEP's. This is an important stage-setting part of viewing students with severe challenge as participating members of regular classrooms, a view which will be new to many. Though we found the writing to be rather formal and drawn out at times, and as leaning toward "jargonese", the content of the article is of undoubted value. It conveys a deceptively simple point. Team planning aimed at inclusion works. It is feasible to plan for inclusion and, thereby, to help students, families, and teachers. Sometimes the simplest answers are the best.

Teaching Exceptional Children, 22 - 28, 1991(Winter)

DRESSING YOUR IEPs FOR THE GENERAL EDUCATION CLIMATE: ANALYSIS OF IEP GOALS AND OBJECTIVES FOR STUDENTS WITH MULTIPLE DISABILITIES

Michael F. Giangreco, Ruth E. Dennis, Susan W. Edelman, and Chigee J. Cloninger

Giangreco et al. investigated the appropriateness and suitability of IEPs (Individual Educational Plans) for students with multiple disabilities integrated into regular classes. IEP documents for 46 students classified as deaf-blind and ranging in ages from 4 to 21 were examined. The students (26 female, 20 male) also had additional disabilities (severe mental disabilities as well as severe orthopaedic disabilities) and had moved from segregated facilities to full or partial integration. Giangreco and colleagues examined IEP's, collected for an earlier study, for themes and barriers to design of strong educational plans. On the basis of the information gained they suggested strategies to address needs of included students more effectively.

Data Analysis and Results

Objectives from all IEP documents were read into audiotapes which later transcribed for analysis using categorical coding. Three major themes characterizing the IEP documents emerged: (a) broadness, inconsistency, and disconnectedness from the context of regular education; (b) frequent inclusion of staff-oriented, rather than student-oriented goals; (c) goals with a disciplinary orientation as opposed to an interdisciplinary, integrated approach.

Broadness, inconsistency, disconnectedness: Goals and objectives were found to be vague and usually referenced to general educational goals instead of reflecting the individual needs of the students. Language used, although functional and age-appropriate, did not communicate substance and was generally uninformative (e.g. "Thomas will improve in reading and math skills." [p. 290]). Goals and objectives were internally and externally inconsistent and many had little connection to what took place in the **classroom**.

Staff Oriented Goals: IEP goals were often found to describe or direct behaviour of those working with the included student rather than focussing on behavioural change in the student. These staff goals often placed the student in a passive role.

Disciplinary Orientation: Goals and objectives were "discipline referenced" and reflected the expectations of specific disciplines such as speech and language pathology. Most IEPs involved members of several disciplines in writing goals and objectives. This

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gave the documents a disconnected format. Many of those contributing goals relied on jargon which made the goals unintelligible to those outside those disciplines.

In short, the IEPs analysed in this study did not adequately represent the learning needs of the individual students which they attempted to describe and were unsuitable for, and unused, in the regular class.

Discussion

Giangreco et al. believe that questions raised in this study should be of concern to those pursuing inclusive education. IEP documents were not being used to meet individual needs. The research group discusses ways in which IEPs could be written more appropriately for regular class use. First and foremost is that IEP goals and objectives should be developed through extensive consultation with the family. Family may contribute to goals functional to the student and valued within the home. This would also ensure that goals and objectives were truly educational rather than simply described in terms of curriculum. In addition, objectives for staff and students should be differentiated, or involvement of the student emphasized. Disciplines involved in the students' education need to work as a team on shared, jargon free, goals.

Lastly, IEP documents should be short. Many were too lengthy to be inviting to any regular class teacher and to be taken into serious consideration.

Final Word

This article was easy and interesting to read thanks in part to the good humour with which it was written. The questions raised are pertinent to inclusive education because they call into question the validity and utility of IEP documents which (as the researchers themselves point out) appeared designed more for a segregated than an inclusive environment. To this end such IEP's have been shown to be of little use to the regular class teacher and badly in need of restructuring. In addition to the valid criticisms made, the study also gives good practical illustrations and would be particularly informative for those special education teachers whose responsibility it is to write IEPs.

Remedial and Special Education, 15(5), 288 - 296, 1994

MIDDLE SCHOOL TEACHERS' PLANNING FOR STUDENTS WITH LEARNING DISABILITIES

Sharon Vaughn and Jeanne Shay Schumm

Vaughn and Schumm discuss the lesson planning process of three middle school teachers (grades 7 to 9) who teach in diverse classes containing several integrated exceptional students. Of particular interest is planning aimed toward accommodating students with exceptionalities; what facilitates planning, and what interferes with it. An earlier survey study indicated that secondary level regular classroom teachers paid minimum attention to instructional modification for students with disabilities and did not feel confident in their ability to develop modifications.

Two participating teachers taught social studies and one taught science. The teachers were selected for the study on the recommendation of their respective special education departments and their principals as being "effective" teachers. Each class studied included, in addition to an already diverse population, two students with learning disability. The ninth grade class also included two gifted students and one with a behavioural disorder. Class sizes ranged from 27 to 38 students.

Using the Classroom Climate Scale (CCS) to assess teacher and student behaviours and interactions, the researchers observed and videotaped eight 50 minute classes over the course of the school year in each teacher's classroom. Extensive field notes were taken during each of the last five classes. Additional data included 90 minute interviews of each teacher and a final focus group interview.

In order to capture as much of the planning process as possible, all three teachers were trained in use of the "Flow of Planning Process Model" with its stages of preplanning, interactive planning, and postplanning. The overall approach also involved written lesson plans, think alouds, stimulated recall, and semistructured interviews.

Data Analysis and Results

To ensure a thorough analysis of the data, all material was first categorized and coded at both the individual data source level and at the full data set level for each teacher. A more integrated overview of all the teachers together was then conducted. Final analysis was conducted using the constant comparative method to identify general themes. Efforts were made to ensure validity of procedures by using independent and external coders and by presenting

the resulting themes to teachers for confirmation.

Three general principles which appeared to influence all three teachers' lesson plans were identified: coverage of curriculum content; classroom management/student interest; and planning at the whole class level.

Coverage of curriculum content: Teachers were preoccupied with **covering as much course content as possible in a given time**. This preoccupation was driven by a belief that they must teach every student the content specified for a given grade. Teachers talked about feeling pressure to expose their students to as much course material as possible rather than about how much of the material was actually digested by the students.

Classroom management/student interest: All classroom activities were planned to result in a **seamless, no surprises continuum of instruction and application to task**. Lesson plans were carefully constructed to ensure as little student disruption as possible. Teachers often planned several different activities during a class in an effort to ensure that students remained focussed. Descriptive examples are provided to elaborate this approach to curriculum coverage.

Planning at the whole class level: It was clear that all three **teachers planned for their class as a whole rather than thinking about individual needs**. In fact, all teachers appeared to resist differentiating any part of the curriculum, or of their approach, in order to meet individual needs. They felt it would be unfair to do so or would compromise standards. As one teacher stated, "I don't think a student that is mainstreamed should get any additional attention and help. I want the classroom to reflect the real world" (p. 158). However, videotapes of lessons did reveal that teachers gave a bit more attention to the exceptional students during the course of a class. It was also noted that the teachers in this study had little contact with the special education teachers in their schools.

Discussion

Based on the results of this study, Vaughn and Schumm conclude that content coverage of course material has become far too important, and that the result is a lack of concern for student learning. Teachers believe content is defined for them, that their colleagues and administrators expect that it will be covered, and that their teaching will be questioned if they do not obey the curriculum. Furthermore, they believe that the public's demand for greater

accountability in education will only result in further stress being placed on covering content. Further research should focus on restructuring the curriculum so that individual needs can be considered.

Final Word

This study was well-conducted and, though providing a close-up view of only three teachers' reactions to inclusion of students with challenging needs, yields information of importance to those who believe that all students should be integrated in the regular classroom. At first reading the resistance of teachers to changes supportive of inclusion, and their view of the curriculum as their master, may be discouraging.

However, such information is needed if regular classroom practice and the belief of teachers in an inflexible curriculum are to be "restructured" to the benefit of all students. Without an understanding of what the present structure is in the minds and practice of regular classroom teachers, little progress toward positive change is possible.

Research has documented that there is plenty of misinformed resistance among teachers. Allowing this to control efforts toward reform of a system too fond of restricted beliefs and inflexible practice would be an error of the first order.

Remedial and Special Education, 15(3), 152 - 161, 1994

INCLUSIVE PRACTICES OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS

Margaret E. King-Sears and Craig S. Cummings

King-Sears and Cummings describe several effective teaching strategies used by elementary and middle school teachers in inclusive settings. The teachers were part of a university program initiative which examined teacher practices in creating inclusive classrooms. Teachers were asked to find at least one student with a disability in their schools for inclusion in their classrooms. In addition, they were required to use teaching strategies which were new for them, as well as to implement a specific program which promoted independence and academic success for the student. Teachers received support from a university supervisor and from the special education teacher in their school. The research team notes that a significant number of instructional techniques supportive of inclusion have been researched and validated, yet few are implemented in serious and consistent manner.

King-Sears and Cummings identified several strategies which were then implemented by the teachers in this study and their effectiveness evaluated.

Techniques Evaluated and Results

Effective Teaching

Effective teaching refers to certain procedures which teachers can use to **enhance the meaningfulness of a lesson for all students in the class**. This strategy involves beginning the lessons with five to eight minutes of review, providing reminders of lesson rules and procedures, providing time to actually teach the target skills, and develop lessons which keep students highly engaged. Though all components of the strategy are known to regular teachers, it is common practice to omit some, particularly advance organizers and closure activities.

The Practicum Student Observation Instrument (PSOI), developed by the research team, was used to assess the practices of teachers. As anticipated, King-Sears and Cummings found that all teachers incorporated some elements of effective teaching in their practices. The PSOI revealed missing elements and subsequent classroom observation and guidance focussed on incorporation of these.

Classwide Peer Tutoring (CWPT)

In Classwide Peer tutoring **pairs of students typically are randomly assigned to work together** for ten minute intervals a number of days each week. Students take turns being tutor or tutee. This strategy is thought to compliment the strategies used in effective teaching and allows students the opportunity to work at their level while interacting with others of various levels. It also gives students with disabilities a chance to act as a tutor (which would seldom happen otherwise) and allows them to work on their social skills.

The four part CWPT implementation plan is emphasized:

- Selection and preparation of materials.
- Training students in tutor and tutee roles.
- Implementation.
- Monitoring of progress.

An extensive description of CWPT is provided in the article.

Use of Class Wide Peer Tutoring resulted in an increase in mean posttest scores for all groups. It appeared to be particularly beneficial for students in the low achieving group who showed an increase of 20 % in scores. The largest gain, however, was demonstrated by students with disabilities with a 35 % increase in mean posttest scores.

Self-Management Techniques

Research in the field of self-management strategies have shown this technique to be highly effective in helping students with disabilities improve their behaviour, become more independent, follow classroom rules, and increase on-task behaviour. The three components of self-management are **self-monitoring, self-evaluation, and self-reinforcement**, all of which assist a student in strengthening both social and academic behaviour.

Implementation of the strategy requires an initial time investment, but is known to empower students of all ability levels. Kings-Sears and Cummings report the self-management outcomes of one student. On-task behaviour was found to increase dramatically after use of a self-monitoring form.

Conclusion

King-Sears and Cummings are convinced that teachers and students will benefit

from use of strategies known to support inclusive practice. They believe that more effort should be made at increasing the comfort level of teachers in use of selected effective practices. This can be done through preparation and support of teachers. It is not enough to develop good teaching strategies. Researchers must also consider how to get the strategies into the classroom.

Final Word

The basic concept of this article was strong. We agree with the research team in their overall view of the effectiveness of the strategies they discuss. The description of Class Wide Peer Tutoring was quite extensive and well done. Unfortunately, there was little to no discussion of the methodology used in the study and no discussion of data analysis.

Despite these omissions, the thrust of the article is sound. Inclusive instructional practices have been developed and they can be implemented with a good deal of success by the average teacher. What is required is thorough professional development and support in the use of such practices.

Remedial and Special Education, 17(4), 217 - 225, 1996

PEER TUTORING TO SUPPORT INCLUSIVE EDUCATION: WHAT TEACHERS NEED TO KNOW

Deborah Jacobs and Cheryl Houtwed

While agreeing that peer tutoring can be of value, Jacobs and Houtwed point to the need for tutor training, a point made elsewhere in the literature. Training is central to the three stage model for peer mediated tutorial instruction described.

Jacobs and Houtwed present a plan for the selection, training, and monitoring of a “peer-mediated” tutoring program to support inclusive education of students with mild mental retardation. They believe that peer-mediated tutoring can be effective with students who need more time to learn material, are unable to discriminate relevant information, and have difficulty mastering, maintaining and generalizing what they’ve learned.

Selection:

The authors note that, to become tutors, students should demonstrate willingness to participate, acceptable attendance, punctuality, good communication skills, good rapport with teachers, sensitivity, responsibility, and good academic standing. Jacobs and Houtwed note, however, that desirable qualities are found in a wide range of students and that both average and advanced students should be considered as tutors.

Training:

Trained tutors are more effective than untrained. Group or individual training of tutors should focus on providing students with explanatory and supportive information.

- Information on characteristics of learners with mild disabilities, especially strengths and weaknesses.
- Learning strategies and techniques. Mnemonics, rehearsal, highlighting information, and providing additional time for completing work are all strategies appropriate to the regular class teacher and which will maximize learning potential.
- All students learn more strongly when effort and success are recognized. Peer use of positive reinforcement strategies such as praise, activity reinforcers, and social reinforcers has a different quality than similar recognition from others.
- Prompting procedures to elicit correct responses should not be over-used, but can be

of assistance to learning. Many students challenged by a learning task function more strongly when given reminders or prompts of verbal, visual, or other nature.

- Tutors should be given a list of responsibilities. For example, they should not be expected to make qualitative comments about the tutee's work. Tutors and teacher together ensure that consistent, information of efforts and progress are developed. All participants in the process will obtain value from self-evaluation and evaluation of those with whom they interact. The teacher should establish a system to monitor tutors through direct observation, evaluation forms, or regular conferencing.
- Objective evaluation is a must.

While outlining these points, the authors note other factors requiring attention. A tutorial program operates within a school and reaches beyond participants. Parents and principals must be briefed and appropriate permissions obtained. In addition, check lists, summaries of student characteristics, strategies, prompts, and evaluation guidelines should be developed and used.

Conclusion

Jacobs and Houtwed feel that there is considerable evidence in the literature to support the contention that peer tutoring can be a "powerful" tool in support of students with mild disabilities. They emphasize that there is benefit for both the tutee and the tutor in the experience.

Final Word

This paper was easy to read and to follow. Jacobs and Houtwed effectively highlight various aspects of the tutorial process and pay appropriate attention to the central role of tutor training within that process. The extensive list of forms and checklist guidelines appended to their paper do much to clarify the written description of the suggested model.

The belief that a wide range of students may act as tutors is one with which we agree. In fact, we would even suggest that students with challenges, themselves, can be effective tutors.

All in all, a clearly presented, simple and effective review of a strategy which can contribute to the success of an inclusive program.

Paper Presented at the Convention, Council for Exceptional Children, Salt Lake City, Utah, 1997.

VIEWS OF STUDENTS WITH LEARNING DISABILITIES OF THEIR HOMEWORK IN GENERAL EDUCATION CLASSES: STUDENT INTERVIEWS

**Valerie Sawyer, Janet S. Nelson, Madhavi Jayanthi,
William D. Bursuck, and Michael H. Epstein**

Though the reality of homework traditionally is more a characteristic of regular education than it is of special education, regular class placement creates the need for all to deal with it. As might be anticipated for many students with challenging needs, homework is a challenge. Parents, and teachers, too, find that regular homework for students with special needs poses difficulties. Yet it must be part of the educational experience, if inclusion is to be pursued and all students taught to accept as much responsibility as possible for their own learning.

Sawyer et al. investigated perceptions of students with learning disabilities on homework. Using standardized, open-ended interviews, ten high school students with learning disabilities (7 male, 3 female) were queried about factors which made homework easy or difficult, and what strategies and advice they would give to teachers, parents, and other students. The study used purposive sampling procedures and deliberately chose students who (a) had been classified as learning disabled by their school district, (b) were enrolled in at least one general education class, and (c) represented a broad range of grade point averages.

The interviews, consisting of 9 primary questions and 47 follow-up probe questions, included: a pre-interview to obtain information and build rapport with the students; the actual interview; the development of interview notes; and a follow-up interview with the student (one week later) in order to clarify or elaborate on data.

Data Analysis and Results

All interviews were audiotaped and transcribed. Two independent readers read and coded the transcribed data to strengthen interpretation and to reduce individual bias. A third person then summarized the results and further qualitative analysis was undertaken in order to identify themes. Intercoder and intracoder reliability procedures were strictly adhered to and every effort was made to ensure that final results were valid. Three themes emerged: factors which made homework easy; factors which made homework difficult; and recommendations.

Factors which made homework easy.

Students listed several factors:

- The **method teachers used in assigning homework** was thought to influence students' understanding. Assigning homework early in the class gave students a chance to ask questions or get an early start. Having teachers explain the task and provide examples was also seen as being very helpful.
- **Receiving assistance** with homework (explanations, demonstrations, checking for accuracy) was also an important factor. Students were especially grateful for help from teachers, although many also cited family as providing some assistance.
- Many stated that **routine and structure**, such as the use of an assignment book or keeping homework in one place, was helpful.
- The **traits** of those who helped students were thought to influence matters. The trait most often desired was that of patience. Students also said that teacher help was preferable to parent help because teachers had the knowledge base.
- Many also commented that **getting serious about their future** influenced their effort and level of commitment in completing homework.

A table outlining salient points under each factor is included by the research team.

Factors that made homework difficult.

Answers in this category related to many of the factors above. Differences in how the factors applied to homework in terms of easy and difficult may be gleaned from the explanatory tables provided. Students did add that **individual student ability** and personal areas of weakness interacted greatly in their efforts to do homework. Some stated that such things as understanding the assignment, or remembering what to do when at home created difficulties for them. Negative **attitude and effort** toward a subject or a teacher was also thought to hinder their efforts. Dislike for either meant that homework often was not completed. Frustration while doing homework assignments was also a factor.

Recommendations

Students felt that parents and teachers could help greatly by establishing routines for homework completion, such as establishing a specific time for homework and being patient and

willing to help. Many felt consequences should result from not completing the work.

Discussion

Sawyer et al. conclude that their findings are in keeping with other studies which have shown that types of homework, motivational factors, difficulty with content, and skill areas all influence homework behaviour of students. Teachers need to consider more carefully how and when to assign homework, and parents need to think about establishing supportive structures and routine at home. The limitations of this study are well noted by Sawyer et al. and include the small sample size, lack of random selection of subjects, and the nature of self-reporting data. The reader should be aware that such aspects do limit generalizability of any findings.

Final Word

The study is informally written and easy to read. Much of its length comes from a detailed, but quite understandable, description of the methodology and data analysis.

The factors cited by the students in this study are strategies which should be in the standard repertoire of every teacher for use with all students, not just those with challenges.

Knowledge of the challenges of homework will also prove of value to parents who wish to assist their children. Though many disagree with the educational practice of homework, it is a continuing and pervasive characteristic of the system. Students with challenging needs must deal with appropriate homework as routinely as do other students, if they are to become a part of a regular class.

Learning Disability Quarterly, 19, 70 - 85, 1996 (Spring)

FINAL THOUGHTS

Does the research support inclusive education as sound educational practice? This question did not occur to those who began to teach inclusively going back to the 1960's. The educators, parents, and advocates involved simply decided that placing some students with challenges to their learning in regular classrooms with regular peers was preferable to separating them on the basis of disability. Inclusion was an intuitive move for the earliest pioneers in inclusive practice. If investigated after the fact, reasons could most likely be found, but the initial impulse appears to have been rooted more in person views of right and justice for children, than in carefully thought through argument.

But the idea of inclusion attracted a growing number of supporters; parents, advocates, individuals with disabilities, and teachers. As others argued that all students had a basic right to education, a smaller, foresighted group began to argue that that right extended to regular class placement in neighbourhood schools, if such placement was desired by the student and family. At the same time, a number of research studies examining the effect of special education placement began to question its efficacy - and found it wanting. Pressure for inclusive placement has grown steadily over the past few years and has caught the attention of individual schools, school systems, social agencies, and governments. In 1994 the UNESCO supported World Conference on Special Needs Education held in Salamanca, Spain issued what has come to be known as the Salamanca Statement. It recognized the right of every child in the world to an education and encouraged governments to assign the highest priority to making educational systems inclusive. Advocates of the inclusive approach found themselves both supported and, as critics voiced concern and opposition, faced with the need to document the validity and practicality of inclusive practice.

Unfortunately, interest in inclusive practice resulted in a number of conflicts. Some educators feared increased workload and erosion of the quality of education. A number of parent groups, especially those with recently won rights for special programs in the areas of learning disability and giftedness, feared that their children would not be well served in regular classes. Some groups of individuals with disability, most particularly centred in the deaf community, voiced concern that inclusion would act against their interests. At the same time a number of vocal advocates of inclusion appeared to ignore the support, teacher preparation, and financial arguments of educators and others in their push for change. A sense that problems were being swept under the rug and opponents unfairly castigated grew in some quarters. Adding to this was the rapidity of

change. A belief grew in some quarters that those who called for a slowing down, and for respect for the efforts of those who continued to find value in special education decisions and practices, were obstructing undeniably needed progress. Sides were being drawn up, entrenched positions taken, and regrettably little honest communication occurring.

We believe that it is time to pause and attempt to understand the view society, and particularly the educational society, has of those with disabilities and their place in the community. As we noted in the first sentence of this book, "The place of people with disabilities in our world is undecided". It is evident that the rapidity of the general move to include all children with disability in education has given rise to differing views, and that these views are sometimes seen as polar opposites. Our interpretation that history has witnessed a long-term, but presently escalating, move to bring students together in the mainstream of education suggests to us that special education and inclusion are not opposites, but places on a continuum. Educators must see that the two are related, and work to clarify that relationship in order to move forward with as little conflict, and as much unanimity, as possible.

This book is one such attempt. It deals with research supportive of inclusion in terms of attitudes, results, models, strategies, and related positives and concerns. Our choice was to focus, not on the argument of whether or not inclusion or special education should or should not be, but to investigate research which some find sufficiently persuasive for them to advocate for inclusive practice. The studies we selected for analysis recognize the well known concerns that some hold, but do more than that. They document that even teachers who are not inclusive are aware of the negative effects of labelling, and that they are aware of supportive strategies, such as collaboration and peer tutoring, which are key to inclusion. The studies describe the positive change in many teachers when they experience inclusive practice. They outline the values teachers of all stripes find for both regular students and those with disabilities when they are educated together. They discuss the positive views of regular students toward their peers with challenging needs and toward instructional adaptations made for them. Similarly, these studies document that parents of regular students find academic and social benefit for their children, rather than decrease in standards and the learning of inappropriate behaviours. There is no doubt but that inclusive practice has much in its support. There is also no doubt but that the practice is in its early days and that there are issues to be resolved.

The studies of attitude we chose document two things. One is that many teachers are persuaded that without sufficient support, inclusive practice is too challenging. The other is that teachers and regular students and their parents find value in bringing students together in the regular classrooms of neighbourhood schools. Many of the fears that inclusive practice will have negative effect are answered by studies such as the ones we chose. That is not to say that support for regular classroom teachers is not a major issue. But we disagree with those who suggest that because support is an issue, the move to inclusive practice should halt. Other articles throughout this book, and in other places, describe ways to address support needs. We believe it is necessary to be aware of the extent and quality of support concerns such as the need for adequate teacher preparation, strong administrative leadership, for sufficient planning time, and to address the perplexing question of behaviour. Without such knowledge concerns cannot be addressed. However, focus must be maintained on the values teachers and others find in inclusive practice, and steps taken to decrease concerns while realizing those values.

Research such as that reviewed in this book, and practice such as that occurring every day in many schools, demonstrate that inclusion is sound educational practice.

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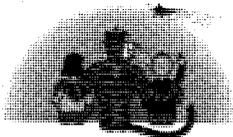
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