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ABSTRACT

The document is a compilation of 15 fact sheets developed during 1980 by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Handicapped and Gifted Children. Fact sheets are single sheets which provide basic information in a question-answer format and include additional resources and references. The fact sheets have the following titles: "Sex Education for Retarded Students"; "On Being a Surrogate Parent"; "Preparing Severely Handicapped Individuals for the World of Work"; "Who Needs a Surrogate Parent?" "Relationship of the IEP to Grading and Graduation Requirements"; "The Community's Role in Continuing Education for Disabled Adults"; "Volunteers in Special Education"; "Affective Education for Exceptional Students"; "Fostering Peer Acceptance of Handicapped Students"; "Learning Disabilities"; "Managing Inappropriate Behavior in the Classroom"; "Leisure Education"; "Peer and Cross Age Teaching in Mainstream Classes"; "Postsecondary Options for Learning Disabled Students"; and "Visually Impaired Students in the Mainstream." (DB)

FACT SHEETS FROM THE ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON HANDICAPPED AND GIFTED CHILDREN

1980

ERIC Clearinghouse on Handicapped
and Gifted Children
The Council for Exceptional Children
1920 Association Drive
Reston, Virginia 22091

To meet the increasing demand for information on current high interest topics and trends, the ERIC Clearinghouse on Handicapped and Gifted Children develops an annual series of fact sheets as one of its user services products. The fact sheets are designed to present basic information on specific subjects following a question/answer format.

The fifteen fact sheets in this series were produced during the FY 80 contract year. They have been compiled in a single document for convenient entry into ERIC.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

SEX EDUCATION FOR RETARDED STUDENTS

Why is sex education important for mentally retarded students?

Knowledge about one's sexuality is a basic right of a retarded individual's total education. The normalization principle asserts that mentally retarded persons should have the same sexual rights as others.

It may be that sex education is even more important for mentally retarded persons than it is for others. Because of low reading levels, lack of opportunities for social development, and limited reasoning abilities, mentally retarded individuals may have difficulty acquiring accurate information about sexual matters. Lack of knowledge can lead to negative attitudes about one's own sexuality, and can increase the possibility that a person may be exploited by others or in some way become involved in socially inappropriate actions.

What are the goals of sex education for retarded students?

In its broadest sense, sex education touches on one's most basic attitudes, feelings, behaviors, and ways of relating to oneself and others.

Kempton (1976) listed the following objectives of sex education for retarded persons:

- To heighten their self concept through learning about their bodies and seeing themselves like others.
- To enrich their lives by helping them find sexual expression that best fits their abilities or needs.
- To help them enjoy the company of both sexes by acquiring social skills.
- To help prevent the overprotection that arises from fear of procreation by offering them information about birth control.
- To help them learn the responsibilities of a sexual person, appropriate sexual behavior, and social customs.
- To help them understand the commitments of marriage, parenthood, and family so they may set realistic goals for their future.

Who should provide sex education to mentally retarded students?

A child's earliest learnings about pleasure, bodily feelings, and functions come from his or her caregivers. All children learn much about sexuality from the general atmosphere of their family.

Parents and teachers should work together to set appropriate goals for the child's sex education.

What can professionals do to establish a positive and trusting relationship with parents regarding this subject?

Professionals should reassure parents that they will not undermine the parents' values or code of behavior when providing sex education to the child, but will try to teach the moral codes accepted by society—that sexual exploitation is wrong and responsible sexual conduct is important.

Should sex education be different for retarded persons than for nonretarded students?

Except for including more concrete and perhaps simplified material, instruction for mildly retarded students is similar to that for nonretarded students. If reading skills are poor, illustrated materials should be used.

For moderately retarded students, Kempton (1976) advocated role playing simple social situations to demonstrate appropriate sexual behavior.

As a general principle, she suggested that instruction should begin with personal identity and self care, then, depending on the student's ability to grasp more complex material, move outward to include a broader scope of masculinity and femininity.

What topics should the curriculum include?

Paul (Barrett, 1976) listed five specific topics that should be included in a sex education curriculum:

- Definitions and vocabulary. Proper terminology leads to better communication and more appropriate interaction.
- Fears and misconceptions. Allaying anxiety and guilt produced by misinformation is important.
- Health and hygiene. Practical information should be given about menstrual care, nocturnal emissions, and especially about venereal disease—its causes, symptoms, spread, and treatment.
- Personal responsibilities and social customs. Instruction should cover aspects of privacy, discretion, respect for the feelings of others, and being a law abiding citizen.
- Enabling information. Young people should be assured of their rights to privacy and the commitment of others not to violate that privacy.

Another important topic is masturbation. Students should understand that it is a natural part of sexual behavior for persons of all ages. Appropriateness of time and place must be stressed.

What about marriage for mentally retarded persons?

Statistics show that about 50% of all retarded people marry at some point in their lives. Frith (1971) noted that the chances of success for marriage, involving a retarded person are primarily related to such factors as compatibility, maturity, and financial status rather than the retardation itself. While the companionship afforded by marriage is important, neither marrying nor having children should be held up to retarded persons as an ideal to achieve.

In considering the possibility of marriage, three factors should be reviewed:

- To what degree can the individual maintain a long term relationship successfully?
- How responsible is the person for self and others?
- How does the person handle feelings? Is he or she capable of understanding the feelings of others?

What about children?

Studies of mildly retarded married couples have found that the large majority express satisfaction with their marriage. The fewer children they have the more satisfactory their marriage. At issue is not only the parents' ability to cope but also the possibility of having retarded offspring. The Milwaukee Project (Garber, 1975) found that the mother's IQ, not poverty, was the significant factor in predicting retardation among the children. The probability of having a retarded child was 14 times greater for retarded mothers than for controls. Poor childrearing practices and lack of stimulation were more significant factors than heredity.

Gordon (1977) stated that no mentally retarded person should be encouraged to have children, because people who have a hard time taking care of themselves should not be burdened with the care of another human being. In spite of documentation suggesting potential problems for retarded individuals who have children, many of their advocates do support the basic human right and freedom of choice to bear children.

What issues are involved in birth control?

Mentally retarded persons should be aware that whenever they have intercourse there is a chance of pregnancy. Recent court rulings have resulted in stringent requirements of informed consent regarding sterilization of retarded persons. The American Association on Mental Deficiency (1973) has published standards on the issue. It is suggested that persons meeting the requirements for giving informed consent are capable of using some form of contraception other than sterilization.

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Kempton, W., Bass, M. S., & Gordon, S. *Love, sex and birth control for the mentally retarded. A guide for parents*. Available in English and Spanish from: Planned Parenthood Federation of America, 810 Seventh Avenue, New York NY 10019. Single copy, $1.95; 50 for $75.00.

AUDIOVISUAL MATERIALS

Mental retardation and sexuality. 20 minute inservice filmstrip and record on puberty, masturbation, sex education, sexuality, dating, intercourse, venereal disease, marriage, contraception, sterilization, and abortion. Available from: Planned Parenthood Federation of America, 810 Seventh Avenue, New York NY 10019. Purchase $30.00. No rental.

On being sexual. 16 mm film and workshop training package, on dating, marriage, parenting, and birth control. Available from: Stanfield House, Box 3208, Santa Monica CA 90403. Film and training package rental $55.00; purchase $393.00; purchase of training package $50.00.

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ON BEING A SURROGATE PARENT

What is a surrogate parent?

A surrogate parent should be viewed as an educational advocate who is a qualified resource person able to facilitate the interrelationship between two complex public bureaucracies: the education system and child welfare services. The surrogate parent concept, as intended in federal legislation, is meant only to assure appropriate decision making in educational matters. Other, noneducational matters pertinent to a handicapped student's welfare would not be the responsibility of a surrogate parent. For example, the surrogate parent has no authority over care and maintenance of the child, custody, foster home placement, or any other area not specifically related to the education of the child. Simply defined, a surrogate parent is an educational advocate for a child in need of such representation, not a legal guardian, court appointed custodian, or usurper of parental rights.

What are the rights of a surrogate parent?

Surrogates enjoy the same rights throughout the educational decision making process as do natural parents, including access to records. Specifically, surrogate parents have the right

- To prior notice whenever a school district proposes to initiate or change the educational program for the child.
- To challenge the accuracy of information in the child's record.
- To participate fully in the planning of the child's individualized education program.
- To question the appropriateness of the child's educational program and placement.
- To all procedural safeguards, including the right to present evidence, confront, cross examine, and compel the attendance of witnesses.
- To full knowledge about special education programs for the child.

Who may qualify as a surrogate parent?

Typical of several states' qualifications are those stipulated by the Vermont Surrogate Parent Program (Thomas, 1978).

A person recruited as a surrogate parent shall:

- Be an adult and a legal citizen of the United States.
- Not be an employee of the state education agency, local education agency, institution, or private school involved in the education of the child.
- Have no vested interest that conflicts with the child's educational interests.
- Be committed to the child's educational interest.
- Reside in the same geographic area as the child, or reasonably close to it.

Some states stipulate that, when possible, surrogates be of the same racial, cultural, and linguistic background as the children they represent.

How are individuals selected to be surrogate parents?

Several approaches may be used in the selection of individuals for the surrogate parent program.

- A state department of education and local school districts, in cooperation with other public and private agencies, can recruit persons willing to serve as surrogate parents and develop a registry of such persons to be called on when needed.
- Surrogates can be chosen from a list of people recommended by a state-level advisory board or committee charged with advising or working with the state regarding the education of handicapped children. This board or committee should be representative of persons concerned with the education of handicapped children, including consumers, parents, and teachers.
- A roster of volunteers appointed to act as surrogate parents can be maintained in each county superintendent's office. States may also choose to offer the handicapped child the opportunity to participate in the selection or change of a surrogate.

What kind of training should a surrogate parent receive?

Effective involvement in the educational decision making process can only be achieved if a surrogate parent possesses the knowledge and skills that insure adequate representation of the child. States with training programs frequently address the issues of state and federal laws, the nature of exceptionalities, special education programing, the rights and responsibilities of a surrogate parent, and due process procedures.

Since the role of a surrogate is primarily one of advocacy on behalf of the educational rights of the child, it is of paramount importance that included among the trainers there be members of advocacy groups, educators, lawyers, legislators, and parents of handicapped children experienced in dealing with public bureaucracies in general and educational agencies in particular. If surrogates are to be effective in their role, they must be trained to use practical, workable strategies that achieve the ultimate goal of providing a free appropriate public education in the least restrictive environment for each handicapped child.

Do surrogate parents get paid?

At least three options are possible regarding compensation for surrogates:

1. The surrogate could personally bear all expenses incurred in functioning in such a capacity.
2. The surrogate could be reimbursed for actual costs incurred in serving in such a capacity.
3. The surrogate could be remunerated on a salaried or per diem basis.

It seems only reasonable that a surrogate should be reimbursed for all ordinary expenses incurred in advocating on behalf of the educational needs of a child. A strong desire to advocate on behalf of handicapped children leads some persons to volunteer their services. If policy makers determine that because of the qualifications required and responsibilities undertaken a paid surrogate is preferable to a volunteer, several options for compensation may be considered:

- A flat hourly rate, with or without maximum limits.
- A per diem honorarium.
- A flat rate for each assignment.
- An annual salary or some variation, regardless of the number of children served.

There should be a limit placed on the number of children a surrogate serves so that high quality representation will be assured.

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ERIC Clearinghouse on Handicapped and Gifted Children

FACT SHEET

PREPARING SEVERELY HANDICAPPED INDIVIDUALS FOR THE WORLD OF WORK

Who are the severely handicapped?

This population can be described as individuals who are nonverbal communicators, have minimal self care skills, display limited socially adaptive behaviors, and may also have one or more predominant handicaps such as a severe motor disability, blindness, or deafness. The majority of this population also demonstrate cognitive skills that do not surpass the sensory motor stages of development. When speaking about the educational needs of severely handicapped individuals, educators must constantly keep in mind the major objective of decreasing their dependent behavior and increasing their ability to demonstrate self initiated behavior (Scheuerman, 1976).

What questions need to be asked when developing programs for severely handicapped individuals?

The overriding goal of any program for a severely handicapped individual should be to help that individual become as independent as possible. This may mean a reduction in requirements for institutional care, participation in a semi-structured work environment, or placement in competitive employment. Vocational/career instruction should provide an opportunity for maximum self development.

Before beginning an instructional program, the following questions should be asked:

1. Why should we engage in this activity?
2. Is this activity necessary to prepare students to function ultimately in complex heterogeneous community settings?
3. Could students function as adults if they did not acquire the skill?
4. Is there a different activity that will allow students to approximate ultimate functioning more quicky and more efficiently?
5. Will this activity impede, restrict, or reduce the probability that students ultimately will function in community settings?
6. Are the skills, materials, tasks, and criteria of concern similar to those encountered in adult life? (Brown, Nietupski, & Hamre-Nietupski, 1976)

It is difficult for severely handicapped individuals to find meaningful employment, and if so, why?

It is estimated that between 9 and 21% of all severely handicapped citizens are employed and most of these people work less than full time (Posner, 1978). The problem of low employment rates for the severely handicapped may result from a lack of understanding of the work ethic. Severely handicapped individuals often fail to perceive their work efforts as a means to an end. If they have not learned the value of money, they probably lack the motivation to perform a job successfully.

Difficulties in self management, including poor interpersonal relationships, are frequently more of a problem than are inadequate job skills. It is important that vocational or career education programs focus on the development of work habits and attitudes.

Other reasons for low employment rates include lack of appropriate assessment and evaluation strategies, low expectations on the part of society, and inadequate personnel preparation.

What types of skills are severely handicapped citizens capable of learning?

Reports of severely retarded persons learning such tasks as the assembly of a 15 piece bicycle brake (Gold, 1974), a 26 piece printhead, and a 52 piece cam switch actuator (Bellamy, Peterson, & Close, 1975) confirm that at least some of these individuals are able to learn complex vocational tasks. Furthermore, research shows that production rates for the severely handicapped have often exceeded normal time standards established by contracting industries (Bellamy et al., 1975). With proper feedback and contingency management, severely retarded workers have been able to nearly double their time on-task and easily maintain attention (Martin, Flexer, & Newbery, 1975). In fact, observation has shown that severely handicapped persons can achieve success at tasks that are far more complex than the typical contractual work found in most of the nation's sheltered workshops.

What should be included in a program for preparing severely handicapped citizens for the world of work?

Training should take place in a simulated high demand work environment with tasks ranging from simple to complex. The program should focus on the following work behaviors:

- Appropriate dress.
- Promptness.
- Proceeding directly to the work station.
- Switching tasks upon command without maladaptive behavior.
- Attending to the task.
- Working alone.
- Working in groups.
- Producing rapidly under minimal conditions of reinforcement.
- Working without errors.
- Working with tools.

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FACT SHEET

WHO NEEDS A SURROGATE PARENT?

What is the role of the surrogate parent?

One of the significant features of Public Law 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, is that it mandates the active participation of informed persons in the educational decision making process to provide a free appropriate public education for each handicapped child. Usually a child's parent or guardian serves as an advocate in this discerning process. However, when a parent or guardian is not known or is unavailable, or the child is a ward of the state, someone else must assume the responsibility of advocating on behalf of the child.

The surrogate parent concept, as intended in federal legislation, is meant only to assure appropriate decision making in educational matters. Other, noneducational matters pertinent to a handicapped student's welfare would not be the responsibility of a surrogate parent. For example, the surrogate parent has no authority over care and maintenance of the child, custody, foster home placement, or any other area not specifically related to the education of the child. Simply defined, a surrogate parent is an educational advocate for a child in need of such representation, not a legal guardian, court appointed custodian, or usurper of parental rights.

Who are the children in need of surrogate parents?

No one knows exactly how many children are in need of a surrogate parent. Neither Public Law 94-142 nor its regulations specifically define the population of children in need of such an educational advocate—those whose parents or guardian are "not known" or "unavailable" or children who are wards of the state.

Undoubtedly, policy issues arise as to what is meant by a parent or guardian who is "not known" or "unavailable" and how the special educational needs of a child who is a ward of the state can best be met. The interpretation of the statutory language and the formulation of federal and state policies have considerable impact on the identification of children in need of a surrogate parent.

What is a ward of the state?

In the absence or inability of parents to provide care, protection, or guidance for a minor, it becomes the responsibility of the state to assure substitute residential care and protection for the child. Given such a situation, a child becomes a ward of the state when a juvenile or family court assigns him or her to an appropriate public agency for the provision of whatever services are needed. A ward of the state may reside in a public institution or be placed in a foster home. In either residential placement, Public Law 94-142 mandates that such a handicapped child must be provided with a surrogate parent.

A question arises as to whether or not a foster parent can participate in the educational decision making process and represent the child's best interests. Decisions must be made to determine whether or not a foster parent is qualified and interested in serving in such a capacity and assurance must be given that the foster parent has no interest that conflicts with the interest of the child he or she represents. If it appears that a foster parent is qualified and interested in serving in such a capacity, it may be in the best interests of the child to have such a person appointed as a surrogate. Before making such an appointment, however, a public agency should determine that the foster parent has the knowledge and skills necessary to represent the child in the educational decision making process. Such a determination can be made and the assignment made conditional on a foster parent's participation in a surrogate parent training program.

When is a parent "unavailable?"

One of the most complex issues to be resolved in identifying a child in need of a surrogate is to determine when a parent or guardian is "unavailable." Such a determination requires decision makers to consider the many reasons why a parent or guardian cannot act on behalf of a child. Such causes as illness, injury, institutionalization, and physical distance may make parents or a guardian "unavailable."

Is an uncooperative parent unavailable?

In practice, some parents make themselves unavailable by being uncooperative. One potential result of such action by uncooperative parents is the ability to deny possible special education and related services for their child by refusing to give consent for an evaluation. However, under present federal regulations, "uncooperative" should not be construed as "unavailable." A person should not be appointed a surrogate in those situations where the parents or guardians, when known, do not respond to communications, are uncooperative, or do not act to protect the interests of their child.

The argument can be made that refusal to consider a free appropriate education for a handicapped child is tantamount to deprivation of an education. In some situations, the appointment of a surrogate may be the only means of protecting the rights of the child. The benefit of such an action is that the unique educational needs of the child can be met, the criticism that might be leveled at such an action is that the state is allowed to intrude into a familial matter and place the child against the parents' wishes (O'Donnell, 1977).

Consequently, several distinctions must be made and procedures employed to protect the rights of the parents as well as those of their handicapped child. For example, when a child is *voluntarily* placed outside the home in a foster care setting or public institution by the natural parents, precautions should be taken to safeguard the consitutional rights of the natural parents and the educational rights of the handicapped child.

Yohalem (1979) maintained that even in a situation where the parents can be located and retain all the authority for the child's placement, if they refuse to participate in the educational decision making process mandated by Public Law 94-142, a surrogate could be appointed provided that adequate notice has been made in a manner the parents can understand and the parents are given the opportunity to participate in the process at any time they choose. A detailed approach for resolving the lack of parental involvement in such a situation was presented in the *Mattie T.* v. *Holladay* (1979) consent decree..

When is a parent "not known?"

States generally equate parents who are "not known" with those who cannot be located after reasonable inquiry.

Presumably, such parents have left their child in the care of others and cannot be identified. In such a situation, an educational agency must document all efforts to contact a handicapped child's natural parents or last known guardian. After reasonable inquiry, a decision can be made that the parents or guardian are "not known." A surrogate parent should then be appointed solely to safeguard the educational interests of the child.

The need for a surrogate parent in such situations is lessened if the person with whom the child lives acts as a parent. Given the regulatory definition of *parent* as a parent, a guardian, or a person acting as a parent of a child (such as a grandparent, step-parent with whom a child lives, or a person who is legally responsible for a child's welfare) there may be no need to appoint a surrogate. However, when such individuals have no desire or are unable to become involved in the long term educational decision making process, a qualified surrogate should be appointed.

What liability does a surrogate parent incur?

While liability varies from state to state depending upon particular state statutes, surrogate parents are likely to be liable only for gross and willful negligence. A state legislature can protect surrogates from most liability by the passage of a "good samaritan" provision. By providing the surrogate parent with a clear status and authority to act by state statute, regulation, or other comparable documents and by developing a surrogate parent system characterized by established procedures, defined roles, high quality training, and regular supervision, the potential for liability of a surrogate parent can be minimized (Kotin, 1979).

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RELATIONSHIP OF THE IEP TO GRADING AND GRADUATION REQUIREMENTS

How can the IEP be used to specify modifications in the standard graduation requirements?

Since the IEP explicitly calls for a description of the extent to which the child will participate in regular education, the IEP can be used to clarify specific graduation requirements on an individual basis. It could also be used to state whether a student is to be excluded in part or in whole from state or locally mandated competency testing programs, as well as specify precise modifications in standard assessment procedures.

What factors need to be considered by the IEP team in planning a program for secondary handicapped students?

The IEP team should consider whether the student will need (a) changes in required course areas or units of credit or (b) modifications of curriculum, method, material, evaluation, or time in order to meet the state's graduation requirements.

Specifically, the IEP team should consider and specify the following points about graduation requirements:

- *Adjustments in the time needed by a student to complete courses, assignments, tests, and overall program.* For example, students with health impairments, who lack stamina and must be absent frequently, may not be able to attend a full day of classes or carry a normal load. It may take such students longer to finish high school. Likewise, a learning disabled or emotionally disturbed student who attends regular classes but is heavily dependent on resource room support in order to pass may be unable to carry a full schedule.
- *Course substitution or alternative educational experiences the student will need for credit toward graduation.* For example, a deaf student may be permitted to substitute an art appreciation or music history course for a required course in music appreciation. A physically handicapped student may receive adaptive physical education. A blind student may substitute an electronics or mechanical theory course for industrial arts. Whenever a student's handicap makes participation in a course inappropriate, unduly difficult or meaningless, another course should be substituted which satisfies the intent of the requirement.
- *Modification needed in methods and materials.* For example, adjustments in practical arts courses or in science laboratories may include the use of brailled texts and a student partner assigned to a blind classmate. Other examples include taped texts, interpreters or other means of providing hearing impaired students access to lectures; providing books and other material at the student's reading level; oral texts and reports; and classroom equipment adapted for use by students with manual impairments.

Why is it critical to monitor the progress of special education students at the secondary level?

Using the IEP it is possible to set standards for graduation that take into account a student's special abilities, needs, and interests. But once those standards are written into the IEP, the student must reach the specified goals in order to graduate. With this in mind, it becomes critical to review the IEP whenever a student is not progressing at the rate anticipated. If a student's progress is not carefully monitored during the year, conditions calling for revision of the IEP may be overlooked and the student may fail to achieve the specified graduation requirements. Anytime during the year when lack of progress is noted, an examination of strategies, methods, and materials should be made to determine whether changes are needed to help the student learn. It may be that the objectives themselves are inappropriate or too difficult for the student. Whenever this conclusion is suspected, the IEP team should review the student's IEP.

Should handicapped students be graded using the same standards as for nonhandicapped students?

If a handicapped student is enrolled in regular education courses, a presumption has been made that (a) the student does not require special education in that area, and (b) the student can meet the regular requirements for the course. Although the student may receive additional support (for example, by adjusting the method and time needed to take tests), grading standards themselves should be the same as for nonhandicapped students. If a handicapped student is not able to keep up in regular classes, even with resource

room support, it may signal the need to reevaluate the appropriateness of the student's placement. However, failure alone is not a justification for grading any student on a different standard

When a handicapped student is enrolled in special education classes, the standards for evaluation in those classes should be derived from the objective criteria set forth in the student's IEP.

What kind of grades should special education students receive?

Five kinds of grades are most often used in schools today. These are: letter grades, number grades, pass/fail, complete/incomplete, and good/satisfactory/unsatisfactory.

When students are graded according to objectives individually designed for them, it matters little which type of grade is used. The important thing seems to be the preference of the students themselves for the same kind of grade and report card that other students receive

While grades are used primarily for the purpose of documenting the student's achievements, they are also used to inform parents of the student's progress. With that in mind, the use of anecdotal records and comments to clarify the student's grade may be helpful. Such comments should stress the areas in which the student made progress, the areas in which improvement is needed, and suggestions for bringing about an improvement

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THE COMMUNITY'S ROLE IN CONTINUING EDUCATION FOR DISABLED ADULTS

What is continuing education and what are its implications for disabled persons?

As one element of adult education, continuing education is usually sponsored by postsecondary institutions and most frequently involves short term or part time students. It is one approach to meeting different learning needs at various life stages. Continuing education, which includes vocational and leisure time pursuits as well as academic interests, is particularly important for disabled persons, who may encounter unique situations in their personal and vocational development.

What community agencies are involved in adult and continuing education for the disabled?

Community colleges, community recreation departments, and the public schools are among the most common resources for disabled adults. Recreation departments offer leisure courses and workshops for disabled citizens either through special courses or through efforts to make regular programs accessible. Many public schools provide adults with coursework to complete high school equivalency certificates. Community colleges offer a wide array of courses.

What are the advantages of the community college approach?

The sheer numbers are impressive: over 1,100 institutions in the United States enroll approximately 2 million students. This constitutes about 30% of all undergraduates. Other advantages include the community colleges' traditional open door policy to all high school graduates or citizens over 18 and the supportive services available through grants, scholarships, work opportunities, and federally funded work study programs. Because a large number of community college campuses have been constructed in the last few years, they are much more accessible architecturally than are many other facilities. Finally, since these colleges are community institutions, their vocational and non-vocational curricula reflect local needs and interests.

Are there programs that provide training in basic skills and socialization?

The College for Living movement, begun at Metropolitan State College in Denver, Colorado in 1974, offers courses in basic skills and provides opportunities for mentally retarded persons to socialize and participate in recreational activities. The College for Living concept has expanded to over 35 programs in nine states. Typical course offerings at Mesa College for Living (Colorado) include cooking, money management, human sexuality, and public speaking. Students range in age from the early 20's to the mid 50's, with some attending from a nearby state residential center and others from their community group homes.

At the State University of New York at Brockport, a similar approach was instituted to help mentally retarded adults retain the skills they acquired in their school years. College student volunteers help provide instruction and assistance in recreation and physical education activities.

What makes a continuing education program for disabled adults succeed?

The College for Living concept sums up three central philosophical considerations: (a) everybody can learn something; (b) all people have the right to an education; and (c) education must take place in a normal environment.

Counseling is essential in implementing an effective program. California community colleges have instituted an approach in which trained "enablers" provide counseling in addition to assistance with transportation, registration, courses in independent living skills, reference materials, adaptive devices, equipment, and general advocacy.

Other services that contribute to successful programs include opportunities for career exploration, work experience programs on or off campus, speech and language therapy, campus orientation, and designation of a resource person to assist college instructors. Obviously, architectural barrier removal is of prime importance.

What special provisions are made for learning disabled students?

Many community colleges are expanding services to learning disabled students. One approach is featured in Al-

legheny (Pennsylvania) Community College, which has established a Learning Assistance Center for students who have language deficiencies. The core of the center is composed of peer tutoring services.

Similarly, a Specific Learning Disabilities program at three Minnesota community colleges provides basic skills tutoring by staff and volunteers, in addition to specific course content tutoring. Consultation with college instructors about learning disabilities is also offered.

Other provisions for learning disabled students include lesson taping, learning centers, special equipment or seating, and self paced programs.

What types of programs exist for students with other disabling conditions?

Queensborough Community College at Bayside, New York, has instituted a summer orientation program for blind students about to enter college. Preparing for the academic demands of college, improving mobility and daily living skills, and making vocational decisions are emphasized.

New York City Community College trains deaf persons for nonmanufacturing occupations such as accounting and keypunching. Central Piedmont Community College in North Carolina, typical of many programs for hearing impaired students, provides counseling (vocational, academic, and personal), interpreting services, note taking help, and tutoring assistance.

De Anza College in Cupertino, California, annually enrolls nearly 2,000 disabled students. The Physically Limited Program there provides mobility training, speech therapy, classes in independent living skills, wheelchair repair, readers and interpreters for blind and deaf students, and assistive devices such as Braillling services and vans with lifts. A corrective physical education program, an educational diagnostic clinic for learning disabled students, prevocational and vocational services for developmentally delayed students, and an adaptive geriatric education program for institutionalized aged and retirement residents round out De Anza's offerings.

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Associations on Handicapped Student Services

Programs in Post Secondary Education. Tom Schworles, Chairman of External Affairs Committee, Center for Program Development and the Handicapped, City-Wide College of Chicago, 180 N. Wabash, Chicago IL 60601.

College for Living, Metropolitan State College East Campus, 1006 11th Street, Box 92, Denver CO 80204. Attention: Mackie Faye Hill. A listing of CFL programs is sent upon request.

Higher Education and the Handicapped (HEATH) Resource Center. One Dupont Circle, Washington DC 20036. HEATH answers questions about integrating handicapped students into campus activities, and has a hotline open Tuesday, Wednesday, and Friday, 1-5 p.m. EST (202) 293-6447.

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VOLUNTEERS IN SPECIAL EDUCATION

Is the use of volunteers in the classroom a revolutionary idea?

Far from it. Teachers have long been looking for extra help from parents and interested community members. What has changed is the visibility of successful programs and the momentum that the volunteer movement has acquired. From small scale, unorganized efforts, volunteerism in schools has burgeoned into a force estimated at over 6 million strong.

What kind of person volunteers?

Volunteers come in all shapes and sizes. Parents, the child's first and longest serving teachers, often become effective helpers in their own child's or others' classrooms. Under the teacher's supervision, parent volunteers can facilitate instruction by working with individuals or small groups of children. Many volunteers are highly skilled and provide enriching experiences that children would not ordinarily have. The strengthened connection between parent and school helps everyone concerned.

Students also have proved to be effective volunteers. Peer tutoring and cross age tutoring programs are proliferating. Some programs have been successful in using a mildly handicapped tutor to work with a younger child. Both tutor and client benefit from a well run program.

Older adults comprise a largely untapped source of volunteers. The Retired School Volunteer Program has helped to provide extra assistance to individual students and at the same time promote feelings of self worth in the senior citizen. Retired persons bring with them a rich supply of experiences and wisdom, and for some students they can help fill the role of missing grandparents. Typically, retirees have more time to volunteer due to reduced job and/or household responsibilities.

Members of the business community are another source of volunteers. Some companies actively encourage and make provisions for volunteer service. In addition to the extra attention they provide, business men and women help to bring the community and the schools closer together. When businesses become more involved with the schools they develop a greater stake in the education of the community's children.

What is the volunteer's relationship to the teacher?

Roles should be clearly defined. Teachers are in charge of the classroom and it is their responsibility to delegate duties to the volunteers and to supervise them. The teacher diagnoses learning problems and prescribes activities to meet each child's needs. The teacher then supplies the volunteer with information about the student's strengths and weaknesses as well as explaining classroom procedures and routines. For the teacher's part, it is imperative to make the volunteer feel comfortable and valued as a member of the education team. Volunteers must be wanted by the classroom teacher, for no program can succeed if it assigns volunteers who are not requested.

What roles can volunteers provide in special education settings?

With increasing emphasis on individualized goals and programs for handicapped students, the busy classroom teacher can make many uses of a volunteer. Trained helpers can provide the extra attention that may mean a great deal of difference to the special needs student. Under the supervision of the teacher, volunteers can perform such in-classroom tasks as individualized tutoring, small group instruction, or sign language assistance with hearing impaired students. Volunteers can also construct special materials, transcribe information into Braille for visually impaired students, help to maintain student records, or merely provide an extra pair of hands, eyes, and ears during a class activity or field trip.

What administrative arrangements help a volunteer program function efficiently?

The National School Volunteer Program recommends that one person be designated as a district wide coordinator of school volunteer services. The coordinator would supervise recruiting, orientation, screening, training, placement, and evaluation of volunteers from the community. Many successful volunteer programs operate with two chairpersons: a teacher or staff member who coordinates teachers' requests for volunteers and a building volunteer

who recruits and works with the volunteers themselves. The support of the school board and of individual school principals for the volunteer program is critical to its success.

What are some examples of successful programs?

The National School Volunteer Program has been funded to train volunteers and coordinators to work with mildly handicapped students. A training manual describes the functions of three programs:

- A kindergarten screening project uses trained volunteers to help detect problems involving hearing, vision, language, and motor development. Results of the gross screening are sent to the child's kindergarten teacher and to the school principal. Volunteers may then be used in treatment programs for those children with identified problems.
- A "listener" program involves nonauthoritarian adult friends spending time with children who have mild emotional problems. In this program children who are behavior problems, withdrawn, or involved in family crises such as parental divorce or death get an opportunity to share their experiences with a warm, accepting adult. Beyond the bonds of friendship, the program is designed to help improve the child's confidence and ability to achieve in the classroom.
- A program to help children with academic skills uses volunteers, under the teacher's direction, to reinforce concept learning and provide extra concentration in needed skill areas.

What actions are involved in setting up a district wide volunteer program?

The National School Volunteer Program lists 15 steps to consider:

1. Examine your needs. How could volunteers help?
2. Investigate the climate. Do teachers and administrators truly want volunteers?
3. Talk with representatives of all the groups you will want to involve in the program (PTA, teachers' organizations, school boards, industry, service clubs, etc.).
4. Assess your resources. What can the community contribute to the schools?
5. Set up an advisory committee to plan and set policy for the program.
6. Select goals for the program and determine specific objectives.
7. Establish a system for recording volunteer hours and types of contributions.
8. Decide on your organizational pattern. Who will supervise the total program? Who will coordinate the program in individual schools?
9. Write job descriptions for all the tasks for which volunteers will be sought.
10. Get written school board support for your school volunteer program.
11. Check the health requirements for school volunteers.
12. Check on other state or local policy matters relating to volunteers, including matters of insurance, bus riding, and confidentiality.
13. Plan recruiting strategies.
14. Plan a system to maintain volunteer morale.
15. Plan for a continuing evaluation of the program.

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AFFECTIVE EDUCATION FOR EXCEPTIONAL STUDENTS

The information in this fact sheet is taken directly from *Affective Education for Special Children and Youth*, by William C. Morse, John Ardizzone, Cathleen Macdonald, and Patricia Pasick (1980):

What are the special affective needs of exceptional students?

While we must not generalize about special children any more than we should about typical children, one thing we do know is that they are at higher risk for affective development. They have more to conquer to feel secure. . . . As the youngster grows, new awareness of his or her difference follows suit. The preschooler may not recognize all that is going on, but the preadolescent or adolescent child is well aware of discrimination. Some special pupils are even expected to lack socialization, which produces a self fulfilling prophesy. Therefore, not only must teachers of special children help their students in the regular processes related to self worth and social competency but, because of the vulnerability, they must build more strength for these pupils. . . . For the child in a more or less isolated special education environment, being different and apart takes its toll. For the mainstreamed youngster, being different among "normals" presents a different set of problems. Either way, helping special children through affective education is a significant obligation. (p. 17)

What is the goal of affective education?

The goal of affective education is not to produce an unrealistic blissful state of joy in youngsters but to facilitate their development as total human beings. To live fully, children with special needs must be capable of coping with frustration, making the best of adversity, seeing and choosing from a range of alternatives, and forming effective relations with others all in the process of becoming more and more instrumental in meeting their own needs. To be actively involved in their own destiny, exceptional children must come to know, understand, and accept themselves and others, express themselves, and form effective interpersonal relationships. (p. 51)

What strategies can a teacher use to enhance the affective growth of young handicapped students?

Common sense coupled with experience and knowledge about young children tell a teacher that, even without expensive materials, much can be accomplished through careful planning and thoughtful interactions.

1. Give the child with disabilities opportunities to help others. So often, he or she is on the receiving end. Make him or her responsible for a part of the classroom routine.
2. *Respond* to the child's need for assistance—don't *anticipate* it. This will help the child move toward autonomy, initiative, and industry.
3. Avoid labeling, comparisons with others, or a competitive atmosphere.
4. Respect the child's needs for stability, repetition, and routine, rather than pushing him or her to move on before he or she is ready.
5. Include each child as fully as possible in all activities.
6. Reassure children with disabilities that you understand how hard some processes are but express confidence in their ability to learn.
7. Talk over your own emotional reactions to particular disabilities with other staff to help ensure that children are not subjected to subtle messages of anger, rejection, pity, or overprotection.
8. Provide recognition for effort as well as achievement.
9. Be cautious about referring to children only in terms of disability ("our physically impaired children"). Instead, train yourself to view them as children first or foremost like everyone else with individual differences.
10. Be aware that a child with disabilities may have an especially difficult time separating from his or her caretakers and trusting a new teacher.

While it is true that, in a sense, affective education goes on each moment of a child's day, special activities can help teachers and staff focus more clearly on a curriculum of affective development. (pp. 31-32)

What are the issues that effect affective behavior at the adolescent level?

One of the challenges facing a classroom teacher is helping the adolescent develop a healthy concept of self, an image that includes a sense of personal worth and competency. We tend to live up to whatever it is we believe about ourselves. An adolescent quite visibly will dress, talk, and behave in keeping with the sense of what he or she believes he or she is. Thus, the special education teacher has a particularly difficult task because the children he or she is directing often are markedly deficient in healthy self concept. Issues of body image, sexual identity, effectiveness, and capability are intrinsically affected by any handicap. Almost by definition, a handicap places restrictions on one's sense of self. It is easy, particularly in the adolescent years, to believe that a handicap mars one's inner self. It becomes a self fulfilling prophecy. . . . We have only to remember the great emphasis adolescents put upon being "the same" as peers (dressing the same, liking the same music) to realize what harm the label "different" does when one believes it. . . .

At that junction in personality (the area of feelings) where labels hurt and harm most, affective education comes in. The teacher of affective education has as a purpose to explore feelings, experiences, values, and labels that young people have placed upon themselves or their world, feelings that color how they see what is before them and what they do with the future. Our aim in educating a student about his or her emotional side is to reach into the very level from which a person most often acts or may need to act. While it may seem that the angry acting out young person has too many feelings, the truth is that his or her actions are a substitute for feeling. Often he or she is trying to ignore or suppress feelings too difficult to acknowledge. In a nontherapeutic situation that is "real," a teacher can get to the emotional aspects of personality that are in need of development. (pp. 90-91)

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FOSTERING PEER ACCEPTANCE OF HANDICAPPED STUDENTS

The information in this fact sheet is taken directly from "The Social Integration of Handicapped Students into the Mainstream," by Roger Johnson and David W. Johnson, *Social Environment of the Schools*, Maynard C. Reynolds, editor.

What are the prevailing feelings of nonhandicapped students toward their handicapped classmates?

When mainstreaming begins and handicapped students enter the regular classroom, nonhandicapped students form an initial impression of their handicapped classmates, categorize the observable characteristics, and attach labels to the categories. The labels of "mentally retarded," "learning disabled," "emotionally disturbed," "hearing impaired," and so forth, have negative connotations that carry stigmas. From the beginning, therefore, handicapped students are perceived somewhat negatively, and this perception sets up a strong possibility of rejection by nonhandicapped peers.

The physical proximity between handicapped and nonhandicapped students, created by placing them in the same classroom, is the beginning of an opportunity, but like all opportunities, it carries a risk of making things worse, as well as the possibility of making things better. Physical proximity does not mean that stigmatization, stereotyping, and rejection of handicapped peers by nonhandicapped students will automatically result, or that handicapped students will automatically be included in the peer relationships with nonhandicapped classmates necessary for maximum achievement and healthy social development. (p. 17)

What is the relationship between acceptance, rejection, and the learning situation?

Whether interaction between handicapped and nonhandicapped students results in a process of acceptance or rejection is determined by the type of interdependence among students' learning goals and rewards that is structured by the teacher. Within any learning situation, a teacher can structure positive goal interdependence (i.e., cooperation), negative goal interdependence (i.e., competition), or no goal interdependence (i.e., individualistic efforts) (Johnson & Johnson, 1975). In a *cooperative* learning situation, students' goal attainment is positively correlated and students coordinate their actions to achieve the goal. Students can achieve their learning goal if, and only if, the other students with whom they are cooperatively linked achieve their learning goal. In a *competitive* learning situation, students' goal attainment is negatively correlated and one student can obtain his or her goal only if the other students with whom he or she is competitively linked fail to obtain their learning goal. In an *individualistic* learning situation, the goal achievement of each student is unrelated to the goal attainment of others; there is no correlation among students' goal attainment. The students' success is contingent on their own performance irrespective of the quality of performance of others. (pp. 18-19)

What are the dynamics of a cooperative learning situation?

Working cooperatively with peers:

1. Creates a pattern of promotive interaction, in which there is
   a. More direct face to face interaction among students.
   b. An expectation that one's peers will facilitate one's learning.
   c. More peer pressure toward achievement and appropriate classroom behavior.
   d. More reciprocal communication and fewer difficulties in communicating with each other.
   e. More actual helping, tutoring, assisting, and general facilitation of each other's learning.
   f. More open mindedness to peers and willingness to be influenced by their ideas and information.
   g. More positive feedback to and reinforcement of each other.
   h. Less hostility, both verbal and physical, expressed toward peers.
2. Creates perceptions and feelings of
   a. Higher trust in other students.
   b. More mutual concern and friendliness for other students, more attentiveness to peers, more feelings of obligation to and responsibility for classmates, and desire to win the respect of other students.
   c. Stronger beliefs that one is liked, supported, and accepted by other students, and that other students care about how much one learns and want to help one learn.
   d. Lower fear of failure and higher psychological safety.

e. Higher valuing of classmates.
f. Greater feelings of success. (pp. 20-21)

What are the dynamics of a competitive or individualistic learning situation?

When interaction between handicapped and nonhandicapped students takes place within a context of negative goal interdependence:

1. There is a pattern of oppositional interaction in which students
   a. Have little face to face interaction.
   b. Expect peers to impede the achievement of their learning goals.
   c. Face peer pressure against achievement and appropriate classroom behavior.
   d. Communicate inaccurate information and frequently misunderstand each other.
   e. Are closed minded to and unwilling to be influenced by peers.
   f. Give each other negative feedback.
   g. Express verbal and physical hostility toward peers.
2. There are perceptions and feelings of
   a. Distrust for other students.
   b. Higher fear of failure and more feelings of failure.
   c. Less mutual concern and feelings of responsibility for peers.
   d. Being rejected and disliked by classmates.

Both competitive and individualistic learning activities provide little or no information about handicapped peers, thus allowing initial stereotypes to continue. What little information is available is likely to confirm existing impressions that handicapped peers are "losers." The boundaries of the handicap are not clarified.

A direct consequence of competitive experiences is negative attitudes in which . . .

1. The negative value attached to a classmate's efforts to achieve becomes generalized to them as people (because if they "win," you "lose").
2. Students feel negative about their own actions when they lose and they generalize the negative evaluation to themselves as persons. (In the usual classroom, achievement hierarchies are relatively stable, leaving the majority of students to continually experience failure.) (pp. 22-23)

How can the teacher help foster acceptance?

The process of acceptance begins when handicapped and nonhandicapped students are placed in small, heterogeneous learning groups and assigned a lesson to complete as a group, making sure that all members master the assigned work. In other words, a positive interdependence is structured among students' learning goals. (pp. 19-20)

As nonhandicapped students work closely with handicapped peers, the boundaries of the handicap become clearer. While handicapped students may be able to hide the extent of their disability when they are isolated, the intensive promotive interaction under positive goal interdependence promotes a realistic as well as differentiated view of the handicapped students and their disabilities. If a handicapped member of a learning group cannot read or speak clearly, the other members of the learning group become highly aware of that fact. With the realistic perception, however, there also comes a decrease in the primary potency of the handicap and a decrease in the stigmatization connected with the handicapped person. (pp. 21-22)

Considerable evidence has accumulated that cooperative interaction, compared with competitive interaction and individualistic efforts, promotes a great deal of interpersonal attraction among students (Johnson & Johnson, 1975; 1978). When students expect to cooperate with each other and when they actually do cooperate, peers who are perceived to be markedly different from oneself are liked, even if they lower the overall achievement of the group. (p. 25)

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LEARNING DISABILITIES

What is a learning disability?

The term *learning disability* has been used to describe a variety of problems in acquiring, storing, and/or retrieving information.

Students with learning disabilities receive inaccurate information through their senses and/or have trouble processing that information. Like static on the radio or a bad TV picture, the information becomes garbled as it travels from the eyes, ears, or skin to the brain.

This inaccurate sensory information, sometimes called perceptual problems, leads to difficulty in academic work. The student might have difficulty reading, writing, speaking, or listening. These skills either have not been learned, have been learned after heroic work, or have been learned poorly.

The most commonly used definition is taken from The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, Public Law 94-142. It states:

> The term "children with specific learning disabilities" means those children who have a disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using language, spoken or written, which disorder may manifest itself in imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell or do mathematical calculations. Such disorders include such conditions as perceptual handicaps, brain injury, minimal brain dysfunction, dyslexia and developmental aphasia. Such term does not include children who have learning problems which are primarily the result of visual, hearing or motor handicaps, of mental retardation, of emotional disturbance, or environmental, cultural or economic disadvantage.

What are the problems associated with various learning disabilities?

Many handicaps come under the term *learning disabilities*. Following are those that most hinder academic performance.

Visual perceptual problems. Difficulty taking information in through the sense of sight and/or processing that information.

Visual figure-ground problems. Difficulty seeing a specific image within a competing background; for example, seeing the teacher's face when he or she stands in front of a blackboard with writing on it or picking out one line of print from other lines on a page. People who have this problem cannot see things that others can see. One line of print on the page appears to be missing.

Visual sequencing problems. Difficulty seeing things in the correct order, for instance, seeing letters reversed or seeing two knobs reversed on a machine. The person who has this problem actually sees the word incorrectly; he or she sees *was* instead of *saw*.

Visual discrimination problems. Difficulty seeing the difference between two similar objects, such as the letters *v* and *u* or *e* and *c*; between two similar chemical symbols; or between two types of leaves.

Auditory perceptual problems. Difficulty taking information in through the sense of hearing and/or processing that information. People with this problem frequently hear inaccurately. A sequencing or discrimination error can totally change the meaning of a message. For example, one might hear, "The assignment is due in May," rather than "The assignment is due today." People with auditory handicaps frequently do not hear unaccented syllables. They may hear "formed" instead of "performed," or "seven" instead of "seventy." Some auditory preceptual handicaps are:

- *Auditory figure-ground problems.* Difficulty hearing a sound over background noise, for instance, hearing the professor lecture when an air conditioner is humming in the room, hearing one bird chirp while other birds and insects are singing, or hearing someone talk at a party when music is playing.
- *Auditory sequencing problems.* Difficulty hearing sounds in the correct order, for instance, hearing "nine-four" instead of "four-nine," hearing "law" instead of "wall," or hearing music garbled because the notes are perceived out of order.
- *Auditory discrimination problems.* Difficulty telling the difference between similar sounds such as "th" and "f" and "m" or "n," hearing "seventeen" instead of "seventy," or hearing an angry rather than a joking tone of voice.

Motor problems. Difficulty moving one's body efficiently to achieve a certain goal. Following are some motor problems:

- *Perceptual motor problems.* Difficulty performing a task requiring coordination, because of inaccurate information received through the senses. This may result in clumsiness, difficulty in participating in simple sports, and awkward or stiff movements.
- *Visual motor problems.* Difficulty seeing something and then doing it, such as copying something off a blackboard or learning a dance step by watching the teacher.
- *Auditory motor problems.* Difficulty hearing something and then doing it, such as following verbal directions on a test or taking notes in a lecture.

Intersensory problems. Difficulty using two senses at once or associating two senses, for instance, not realizing that the letter *D* that is seen is the same as the sound "D".

Handicaps Classified by Academic Difficulty

Dyslexia—Inability to read.
Dysgraphia—Inability to write.
Dyscalculia—Inability to do math.

National Organizations and Associations

Association for Children and Adults with Learning Disabilities (ACLD), 4156 Library Road, Pittsburgh PA 15234. Phone: (412) 341-1515.
Description. ACLD is a nonprofit organization whose purpose is to advance the education and general welfare of children of normal or potentially normal intelligence who have learning disabilities.
Periodicals. *ACLD Newsbriefs* (newsletter), six issues/year, included with membership of $10/year or available by subscription for $4.50.

The Orton Society, 8415 Bellona Lane, Towson MD 21204. Phone (301) 296-0232.
Description. The Orton Society is an educational and scientific association founded in 1949. Members are concerned with the diagnosis and treatment of specific language disability or developmental dyslexia.
Periodicals. *Perspectives on Dyslexia* (newsletter), *Bulletin of the Orton Society* (annual journal), included with membership of $25/year, or available separately for $7.00.

The Council for Exceptional Children's Division for Children with Learning Disabilities (DCLD), 1920 Association Drive, Reston VA 22091. Phone (703) 620-3660. Toll Free (800) 336-3728.
Description. The purpose of DCLD is to promote the education and general welfare of children with specific learning disabilities through improving teacher preparation programs, improving local special education programs, resolving the research issues, and coordinating activities with other CEC divisions and with professional organizations outside the Council structure. Membership: CEC $25/year, DCLD $8/year.
Periodicals: *Learning Disability Quarterly* is issued to the membership four times a year. Content includes educational articles with an applied emphasis that focuses on learning disabilities. *LDQ* is available by subscription to nonmembers ($12.50 per year domestic, $16.00 per year PUAS, libraries, and other countries). Single copy price is $3.50.

Prepared by Dale Brown, Public Information Specialist, The President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped.

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MANAGING INAPPROPRIATE BEHAVIOR IN THE CLASSROOM

The information in this fact sheet is taken from *Managing Inappropriate Behaviors in the Classroom*, by Thomas C. Lovitt.

Are there ways to prevent misbehavior?

The atmosphere of the classroom has much to do with student behavior. The setting should be appealing, with attention given to varying the physical features and the schedule to prevent boredom in both the teacher and the student. Teachers should let students know specific do's and don'ts: which behaviors are expected or desired and which will not be tolerated. Then teachers must consistently reinforce the desired behaviors while ignoring or in some other way extinguishing the undesirable ones.

What about establishing rules?

Some teachers make too many rules, and the children, confused or frustrated, ignore them. Teachers should establish only a few rules and should specify the consequences for not following them.

How can teachers increase student motivation for academic tasks?

One approach could be to make one activity contingent on another: students can earn time in one favored activity by performing well in another. Students having difficulty in one subject area could serve as tutors to younger students in that same skill, dependent upon the older child's satisfactory performance. Classroom privileges such as helping to distribute papers can also be made contingent on performance.

What about token economies?

This approach, in which pupils are given a mark for rewards redeemable at a later time, can help students learn. However, token economies are usually costly. In addition, results of research investigating whether or not performance is maintained after the system is removed have been discouraging.

How can teachers decrease unwanted behavior?

Teachers can reward a student when a specified behavior does not occur, or when it occurs below a designated frequency or duration level. Differential reinforcement of other behaviors (DR) is a way to decelerate a behavior when behaviors other than the target behavior are systematically reinforced.

Overcorrection is another possibility. Teachers instruct students to correct the inappropriate behavior and execute the act within a natural sequence of events. For example, in one case a child who mouthed objects was told "no" and required to brush his teeth and wipe his lips with a washcloth each time he put a potentially harmful or unhygienic object in his mouth.

Satiation involves actually giving students more of the event that the teacher ultimately wishes to eliminate. The classic example of this technique involves a hospital resident who hoarded towels. Staff began giving her towels—up to 60 per day—until she voluntarily returned most of them and ceased the hoarding.

What role does punishment play in classroom management?

Punishment can be defined as a technique that decelerates the frequency of a behavior when it is given contingent on that behavior. Reprimands, frowns, reminders and other subtle expressions can serve as punishment, and can be very effective when used appropriately.

A possible disadvantage of punishment is that its effects may overgeneralize, eliminating more behaviors than originally intended. Another difficulty is that the student might associate the technique with the person who administered it, causing ill feeling toward the teacher.

What about taking something away to decrease unwanted behaviors?

Teachers can take away the opportunity to obtain reinforcement, attention, or a portion of some event contingent on target behavior. These three procedures are also known as timeout, extinction, and response cost. Timeout can involve physically removing a student for short periods from the reinforcing event or area. Ignoring tantrums is a

withdrawal of attention that may lead to extinction of the problem behavior. Taking away tokens or points for disobeying rules is an example of response cost.

If a teacher can't concentrate on individual problems, are there group methods that will work?

- *Independent group contingencies*. Each student receives the same consequence for stated behavior, as in staying after class for out-of-seat behavior. Although easy to administer, this approach does not take into account individual student differences.
- *Dependent group contingency*. The same consequence is given to all members of a group. In order to receive the consequence, a selected member must perform at or better than a specified level. One student's behavior can influence the group's consequence. This approach can improve peer group behavior at the same time. A program in which a student accumulates free time for the entire class by on-task behavior may encourage fellow students to support his appropriate activity and not engage him in off-task interaction.
- *Group consequence, contingent on group*. The entire class is considered as one group. An example is making free time dependent on appropriate behavior: an individual's inappropriate activity reduces the entire class's reward. This approach might be effective when several individuals are behaving inappropriately. However, repercussions might occur if group members feel unduly punished due to the behavior of an individual student.

What are some general guidelines for managing inappropriate behavior?

1. Examine the events that maintain students' behavior.
2. Keep data to determine whether or not an approach is working. Compare behavior during baseline and treatment phases.
3. Consider a variety of techniques.
4. Combine approaches to be more effective. For example, a teacher might praise appropriate behavior while ignoring inappropriate behavior.
5. Concentrate on teaching new behaviors and deal with inappropriate ones only to the extent that they interfere with the individual's or group's learning.

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Lovitt, Thomas C. *Managing Inappropriate Behaviors in the Classroom*. Reston VA: The Council for Exceptional Children, 1978. Stock Number 178, Price $5.00. This publication is part of a series on *What Research and Experience Say to the Teacher of Exceptional Children*, developed by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Handicapped and Gifted Children.

Other titles in this series are:

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LEISURE EDUCATION

What is leisure education?

Although there is no one accepted definition of leisure education, it is generally acknowledged as a process that includes, but is not limited to, the development of knowledge, skills, and values that prepare individuals to make more constructive, wholesome, and independent use of their discretionary or leisure time. The long term goal of leisure education is to help individuals develop a positive leisure lifestyle.

What is the philosophy underlying leisure education for the handicapped?

The philosophy of leisure education is based on a concern for the humanity of handicapped persons and their rights to the same everyday life experiences afforded nonhandicapped persons. This philosophy, based on the concept of normalization, affirms the right of all human beings to live by the norms and practice daily patterns within the mainstream of society. Thus, education for leisure is appropriate for all handicapped persons, regardless of age, type of handicap, or level of functioning. This philosophy assumes that most life experiences are as appropriate for the handicapped person as for the nonhandicapped person, if tailored to meet the abilities and interests of the individual.

Why is leisure education important for the handicapped?

Because of their unique needs, many handicapped students require direct instruction in certain areas of learning, including leisure learning, in order to develop desired knowledge, skills, and values.

Many handicapped persons need increased opportunities for achievement and personal development in order to develop self esteem and form healthy self concepts. Inherent in leisure are choice, enjoyment, and opportunities for the individual to pursue his or her own interests at his or her own level of ability. The result is often improved self acceptance, self confidence, and motivation that support continued personal development.

Because job opportunities are often limited, many handicapped persons are faced with disproportionately large amounts of leisure time. Such enforced leisure too often results in the handicapped person having extensive amounts of unfilled and unfulfilling leisure time.

Many handicapped persons experience problems in social skills that adversely affect successful adjustment within the mainstream of the community (i.e., normal peer interactions on the job or in leisure settings). Since many out-of-school and postschool personal interactions occur during leisure time with nonhandicapped persons, an emphasis on leisure education should improve the handicapped person's social development and enhance acceptance by others in various areas of living (i.e., school, home, community).

How can P.L. 94-142 be interpreted to support leisure education for the handicapped?

The law defines special education in terms of meeting the unique needs of handicapped students. Since many handicapped children and youth have unique needs that require specific instruction in all major life functions including leisure time, this area should be considered an important aspect of an appropriate education.

The law mandates individualized education programs (IEP's) for all handicapped students based on an evaluation of their educational needs. In recognition that improved leisure functioning is a unique need of many such students, a comprehensive evaluation should result in leisure objectives and/or experiences being included as a part of the IEP.

The law defines recreation (including leisure education) as a related service; it also requires school programs that are nonacademic or extracurricular in nature such as music, art, athletics, and special interest clubs to be equally available for handicapped students.

Is leisure education a separate curriculum?

No. The identification of leisure education as a major educational goal does not require that a new or discrete subject be added to the school's curriculum. Rather, an emphasis on leisure allows the schools to deal more meaningfully with an area of preparation that has long been recognized by educational authorities as being important for students. Many leisure related concepts (i.e., attitudes, social skills) and activities (i.e., art, music, sports, games, hobbies) are currently being taught in school programs, but in a manner that usually is not clearly related to helping handicapped students develop positive leisure lifestyles.

Educational leaders need to reorient their thinking for purposes of adapting their existing school curriculum to

incorporate leisure learning experiences and outcomes. Such an approach is more feasible, because proposing a new subject area is probably an unrealistic demand and one that would be difficult for most administrators and teachers to accept today in an already crowded school curriculum.

How can leisure education be integrated into the school's curriculum?

Leisure provides a logical outcome and extension of learning for all areas of the school's curriculum. The employment of leisure concepts and activities in various subjects and courses allows for the meaningful application of the academic subjects to real life problems facing the handicapped, and gives more meaning to the subjects because of their reorientation toward life preparation.

The integration of leisure outcomes and experiences into the school's curriculum is needed for handicapped students who often require many prerequisite skills and understandings that can logically be taught in various school subjects and courses. An example: For a handicapped student to fully participate in dining out as a leisure experience, he or she should become aware of the community (social studies), travel (physical education), use money and tell time (math), dress appropriately in terms of the weather and fashion (science, arts), order from a menu (reading), choose nutrious foods (home economics, health), and interact socially with various peers and adults (speech, language).

In summary, an emphasis on leisure education contributes to the total education of the handicapped student.

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PEER AND CROSS AGE TEACHING IN MAINSTREAM CLASSES

The information in this fact sheet is taken directly from "Peer and Cross Age Teaching: Promoting Social and Psychological Development in Mainstream Classes" by Norman A. Sprinthall and Lynne T. Blum. This chapter appears on pages 39-59 of *Social Environment of the Schools*, Maynard C. Reynolds, editor.

Why are peer and cross age teaching needed?

In the old and to some extent still current view of education in the classroom the assumption is that each teacher is a Toscanini or Sarah Caldwell, that is, each teacher has the ability to orchestrate individual differences, the different needs of clusters of children, and the different demands of the curriculum.

In reality, of course, such a view does not work. Studies of classroom interactions over the past 70 years have indicated clearly that the teacher simply cannot function as the orchestrator of all learning activities. In most classrooms, the activities of the pupils are passive or mindless or a series of minor routines with small point or consequence. Teachers tend to spend an inordinate amount of classroom time in directing children: 65 to 75% (estimates vary) of all classroom talk is by the teacher, and at least two-thirds of that talk is in the form of asking for short, rote-like pieces of information or giving procedural directions. Other studies have shown that the general curriculum--the content of what is being taught in most classrooms--tends to be equally pedantic, in the form of a recitation of facts. Clearly, not all children benefit from such classroom interactions. It is also clear that when handicapped children are brought into conventionally organized classrooms they receive an even smaller proportion of actual positive teaching time than their regular class colleagues.

As new children enter the mainstream, it is important to rethink the educational objectives of schooling as well as instructional techniques. Without restructuring, mainstream education will not work any better than the old exclusion/segregation/deviant status placement model.

It is becoming increasingly obvious that a major educational goal of schooling should be the promotion of healthy psychological development in all pupils, that is, the stimulation of each individual's psychological maturity, sense of personal confidence, and successful interpersonal development.

Studies conducted during the past 25 years indicate that segregating special education children into separate classes does not yield social benefits. Unfortunately, simply placing children from previously segregated classrooms into regular classrooms is not a benign activity. A recent study showed that in such an instance the regular class children develop increasingly more negative attitudes toward the mainstreamed children, which means that social engineering through desegregation will not work automatically. Indeed, bringing diverse groups together without adequate educational plans more likely will have negative effects on both groups. (pp. 39-41)

What are the positive effects of peer and cross age teaching?

To create a more facilitative educational environment, programs should be created that will stimulate the psychological as well as intellectual development of children. Role taking theories provide increasing evidence that placing children or teenagers in genuine role taking situations stimulates personal growth and development.

The idea of employing pupils as teachers is not new in itself; what is new is how this strategy can be employed for the benefit of all groups in the classroom. Studies indicate that pupils who act as tutors benefit at least as much as the pupils they tutor in terms of learning activities and learning outcomes.

Studies at the University of Minnesota have been able to document the positive outcomes of cross age teaching programs. At the elementary school level, studies showed the positive impacts upon levels of psychological maturity that accrued when children took the role of teachers. For children who act as teachers, there is an increase in their level of psychological maturity. They develop a greater sense of empathy, individuality, interpersonal maturity, and personal competence. For the pupils tutored, on the other hand, the benefits are also significant, but in a somewhat different realm. Since the tutors spend more time on the learning task because of the amount of individual attention that can be applied, the tutees receive more practice and, under appropriate conditions, can learn in a less threatening environment. Thus, both the child

who teaches and the tutee who learns in such a cross age program achieve significant gains, and the teacher is no longer exclusively responsible for all of the learning activities in the classroom. (pp. 41-42)

How can peer and cross age teaching be used most effectively?

It is most important to note . . . that all the studies cited here indicate clearly that such procedures do not work without a serious commitment of time and supervision by the school staff. Weekly seminars in which both teaching techniques and discussion designed to help the tutors process their own experience are an absolute necessity. Role taking in practice and a weekly seminar for tutors are essential. Such supervision sessions provide the time for pupils who are engaged in teaching to examine readings, practice new techniques, discuss some of their emotional reactions, view some of their teaching activities through the use of technology (e.g., video and audio playbacks), and the like. (p. 43)

What skills and experiences should be provided for tutors?

A specific outline of activities has been designed to help implement such a plan. (The complete curriculum guide appears on pp. 45-56 of the book from which this material is excerpted. Specific materials and activities are suggested.) The outline itself, of course, is not prescriptive but rather suggestive of the kinds of activities and processes that may improve a design for cross age or peer tutoring with recently mainstreamed children.

The objectives of these procedures are twofold: (a) to teach skills and (b) to help the tutors to process their own experiences.

The first six lessons center on specific techniques to be used while tutoring. These lessons are designed to meet the following objectives:

- Introduce the children to each other and underline the importance of their roles as tutors; discuss the similarities and differences between themselves and the handicapped children; and model/practice some role taking elements.
- Show how to give clear, simple verbal directions accompanied by "hands on" help.
- Discuss the use of praise in increasing the tutee's performance level and building his or her self esteem; discuss other techniques to build the tutee's attention span.
- Show how to demonstrate and redirect behavior rather than use criticism.

The last four lessons center on experiencing the handicapping condition. These lessons are designed to meet the following objectives:

- Experience how to communicate with one who has a very low level of language comprehension and expression
- Experience what it is like to be limited in coordination.
- Understand what it is like to have a gross motor coordination handicap.
- Experience a fine motor handicap. (pp. 43-56)

What are the implications of such a program?

Effective cross age programs require two sets of role shifts. The teacher needs to develop supervision techniques to give his or her teaching skills away to the pupils. For the pupil-tutors, the role shift requires them to move from passive to active learning, from "studenthood" to a responsible helping and caring role, from dependence to independence. For recently mainstreamed pupils, of course, the benefits are most obvious: individualized attention, more time on learning tasks, and genuine social interaction with regular class peers. The change in social interaction patterns of classrooms may be by far the most important shift in the entire context for all participants. Peer and cross age caring programs inevitably change relationship patterns. Isolation is reduced while interdependence is increased. Under such conditions all children may grow at their own pace toward useful adult roles. (pp. 56-57)

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ERIC Clearinghouse on Handicapped and Gifted Children

FACT SHEET

POSTSECONDARY OPTIONS FOR LEARNING DISABLED STUDENTS

What academic problems do learning disabled students face?

Learning disabilities can make academic achievement difficult. Learning to read is not easy for people who have visual perceptual problems or difficulty coordinating what they see with what they hear. Even when these students do learn to read it is often at a low level, so it might take them a long time to complete their assignments. Writing requires fine motor skills that some learning disabled students do not have. Informing oneself through lectures requires good auditory perception.

Sometimes students behave inappropriately in class to cope with their learning disabilities. For example, hyperactive students might have to leave the class to walk up and down the hall. Some students will need to cut out their visual sense in order to listen. They will close their eyes, causing their teachers to think they are asleep. Taking notes might not be possible for pupils with auditory-motor or fine motor problems.

Perceptual problems often affect the student's cognitive abilities. For example, visual and auditory sequencing problems can cause difficulty thinking in an orderly, logical way. A person with this problem might tend to jump to conclusions. Or a student with visual and auditory discrimination problems might have difficulty distinguishing between two like concepts such as *socialism* and *communism*. Sometimes short term memory is affected, because information must be perceived properly before it can be remembered.

How can the school accommodate for these handicaps?

Students who cannot take notes or who have difficulty with auditory perception might need to tape record their classes. If a professor is worried about the tape being misused, students can sign a notice declaring that the tapes are for their own use only and that they may not be used for any other purpose. A student who takes good notes can be asked to take notes with carbon paper or lend his notes to the learning disabled student.

Most coping skills for learning disabilities take extra time. The student might have to check and recheck his work for errors. It takes longer to write and read. It might be necessary to help the student find extra time to study by providing reading materials, and some assignments in advance, so preparation for the following year's courses can begin over the summer. It is helpful if professors are willing to extend deadlines for certain assignments so that a student is not overwhelmed by too many things being due at the same time. Some students can only manage one course per semester.

Some learning disabled students with writing problems might need a person to write the answers for them or might need to speak into a tape recorder. Others will need to have examinations read to them. Tests for learning disabled students should be printed clearly with dark ink so the letters are easy to see. Double negatives are confusing for students with directional handicaps. Computer cards are difficult for some students with motor problems, since they have a hard time keeping the pencil marks within the lines. Also, students with visual tracking problems might fail this type of test by putting answer "1" in answer space "2," answer "2" in answer space "3," and so on. Many students can take tests normally, but need extra time to complete them because of their slow reading and writing abilities.

Do the regulation for Section 504 cover learning disabled students?

Yes. The term *specific learning disabilities* is listed in the definition of *handicapped person* in the regulations of Section 504 (see Subpart A, 84.3 (j) (2) (i)). These students need and deserve accommodations similar to those received by students with physical handicaps.

Do learning disabled people have social skills problems?

Some learning disabled people have social skills problems because their perceptual problems make it difficult for them to understand others. A person who is unable to discriminate visually between the letters *V* and *U* might also be unable to see the difference between a friendly smile and a sarcastic smile. A person unable to discriminate between two different musical notes might be unable to hear the difference between a joking and a questioning voice. People with auditory handicaps work so hard to understand the words of a statement that they might ignore the nonverbal meaning. This confusion can cause learning disabled people

to have difficulty fitting in with others. They might have trouble meeting people, working with others, talking to authority figures, and making friends.

However, other learning disabled adults have superior social skills, which they have developed in order to compensate for their handicaps.

Is it possible for people with learning disabilities to go to college?

Of course. Many learning disabled people are bright and articulate. They are frequently good college material. Many famous people such as Leonardo Da Vinci, Hans Christian Anderson, and Albert Einstein had learning disabilities.

The two handicaps *learning disabilities* and *mental retardation* are frequently confused. Mentally retarded people have limited learning capacity. They think more slowly and less effectively than other people. Learning disabled people, on the other hand, are capable of learning and performing at their age level, but their learning is affected by their handicaps. They tend to have unique ways of gaining accurate information from the world around them.

What college programs have successfully worked with learning disabled students?

The following list of people have agreed to serve as resources for college administrators planning a program to assist learning disabled students.

Jeffrey Barsh 805/642-3221
Learning Disability Center
Ventura College
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Free publications

Learning Disabilities, a fact sheet for the postsecondary level, is published by HEATH Resource Center, American Association for Higher Education, 1 Dupont Circle, Suite 780, Washington DC 20036. It lists many additional resource people who can be helpful.

Learning Disabilities, Not Just a Problem Children Outgrow is a brochure that discusses employment difficulties of learning disabled people. It also has an article about forming a self help group for learning disabled adults. Write: President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped, Washington, DC 20210.

Learning Disabilities, an ERIC Fact Sheet, briefly describes 13 different problems associated with various learning disabilities. Available from the ERIC Clearinghouse on Handicapped and Gifted Children.

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VISUALLY IMPAIRED STUDENTS IN THE MAINSTREAM

Mainstreaming has a longer history for visually impaired children than for children with any other handicap. It goes back to the first years of this century. Yet classroom teachers continue to have many questions and concerns when visually handicapped students are placed in their classrooms for the first time. The following questions and answers are taken directly from *Supporting Visually Impaired Students in the Mainstream*, by Glenda J. Martin and Mollie Hoben. This book is a publication of the Leadership Training Institute/Special Education and The Council for Exceptional Children.

Why isn't this child being sent to a special school?

This child is not being sent to a special school because she or he can make it in a regular school. And when this child attends a local public school, several good things will become possible.

For one, the child will stay in his own home with his family and will attend school with children he knows from his own neighborhood and community.

For another, the child will get the day-by-day practice of functioning in a sighted world. He or she will learn to cope and, hopefully, to succeed.

For another, the child's presence in the regular classroom can help the other students learn the important lesson that people who are different are not thereby disabled, that an impairment need not be a handicap. (p. 29)

What kind of help in lesson planning will I have?

Your lesson planning itself should remain the same; the content of what you teach will not change. Any unique concepts or skills that the visually impaired child must learn will be taught by the vision teacher. (p. 30)

Won't we have to assign a guide or let her leave class 10 minutes early?

A visually impaired student who has learned the building layout should be expected to travel through the halls when the other students do and to do so without a guide.

If a student is unable to maneuver in the halls alone, the vision teacher will work with the child on the skills she or he needs to do it. This is a much more valuable solution than giving the child special privileges or assigning a guide. (p. 31)

What about fire drills?

This is the one time the visually impaired student may need a partner. (p. 31)

Won't he hurt himself . . .

- On the playground?
- In the gym?
- In the shop class?
- In the home economics class?

A visually impaired student is no more likely to get hurt in the educational setting than any other student is as long as proper procedures are taught and the usual safety precautions are taken. (p. 31)

Will I need to have a particular physical arrangement in my classroom?

No specific arrangements need to be adopted for the classroom or the building. The student will learn whatever arrangement is used. When you move or add furniture or equipment, however, be sure you tell the blind student. (p. 34)

If the child can't see well, how is she going to learn when . . .

. . . we have films?

Visually impaired children listen to films in school just as they do when they go to a theater. An occasional word of explanation from you during quiet parts of the film might help the child's understanding.

. . . we use dittoes?

Many low visioned children can use the darkest ditto with success. On teacher-made dittoes, spacing (both horizontal and vertical), contrast, and boldness are more important than size of print.

When necessary, the vision teacher will reproduce the ditto in large type or braille. (p. 35)

Can I say "see" or "look"?

Of course. The vocabulary of the sighted world and the classroom need not be altered because of a visually impaired child. He or she will use the words "see" and "look" in the same way the other children do. To the visually impaired child, these words mean "attend to this" or "examine this." (p. 36)

Will materials be available for this child as they are for other children?

If the child cannot use the materials you provide, the vision teacher will supply materials in a medium the child can use: on tape or record, in braille, or in large type. These will be the same materials as those used by your other students. (p. 37)

Can I still teach color words first?

Of course. Most visually impaired children, including many braille readers, are able to enjoy color. Even if they cannot, color words are part of everyday vocabulary and need to be learned. Blind children need to know that grass is green, snow is white, etc. Color words are also a necessary part of their reading vocabulary. (p. 38)

What about physical education?

Visually impaired children often move more slowly and carefully than normally sighted children. They especially need the experience of freedom and gracefulness of movement, as well as the exercise, that comes from participating in physical education activities.

With a little thought, adaptations can be made that will enable the blind child to participate in many activities. (p. 39)

How will he take notes?

Blind children learn to use a slate and stylus to take braille notes. Because this method is slower than writing, they may have to rely on memory more than a normally sighted student would. Remember, however, that a good memory is not necessarily an attribute peculiar to blind persons.

Many low visioned children are able to take written notes, but they are likely to find note-taking more of an effort than a sighted person might. Older visually impaired children often find cassette recorders useful for note-taking. (p. 41)

Isn't it unfair to ask the visually impaired child to compete?

Probably just the opposite is true: it is unfair to the child when he or she is not allowed to compete.

The visually impaired child lives in a sighted world and will have to compete in a sighted world as a visually impaired adult. What better preparation could there be for meeting the standards of the sighted world than being allowed to practice and learn while growing up. (p. 47)

Should I expect him to follow the same rules?

Definitely yes. The visually impaired child, as a member of your class, should follow the same rules, meet the same standards, and assume the same duties as other class members.

Exempting a visually impaired child from class rules will make it difficult for her or him to feel a part of the class, and it will make it difficult for the other students to accept the child as part of the class.

Holding the visually impaired child to the same rules and standards as the other children will help the child avoid the notion that impairment entitles him or her to favored treatment. (p. 47)

How do I answer the children's questions about the child?

Answering other students' questions and helping them understand the child's impairment should be an ongoing process in the classroom, not just a one-time event. (p. 51)

How will the other students cope with having this child in the class?

Probably the best way for you to help children cope positively with a visually impaired child is to reduce their level of uncertainty about the child as much as possible. Deal with the child's impairment in an honest, matter-of-fact way, not overemphasizing it to the point that it becomes more important than it should be, but also not ignoring it or pretending it's not there. (p. 52)

Won't it be uncomfortable for him to be the only visually impaired child in our school?

Because visual impairment does not occur frequently among children, mainstreaming often results in the visually impaired child being the only one in school. The child is truly a minority member: in school, in society, and (usually) in the family.[6]

This can be a disadvantage for the child, and it may be important for the child to have an occasional chance to get together with other visually impaired children, to interact with people who are different in the same way the child is and who have experienced things from a similar perspective. (p. 54)

REFERENCE

Martin, Glenda J., & Hoben, Mollie. *Supporting visually impaired students in the mainstream*. Reston VA: The Council for Exceptional Children, 1977. Stock Number 159, Price. $3.00.

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