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ABSTRACT

These instructional materials are designed to improve the performance of paraeducators working in inclusive classrooms servicing school age students with limited English proficiency. The competency-based program helps participants to learn skills they can apply immediately, to accept new practices, and to increase their understanding of education issues. The modules cover: (1) strengthening the teacher and paraeducator team, paraeducator roles and responsibilities, communication and problem solving; (2) the philosophy of diversity; (3) principles of human development and factors that may impede typical human development; (4) the instructional process (language development, second language acquisition, the individualized education and family programs, assessment, data collection, goals and objectives, instructional interventions, and strategies for one-to-one instruction and reinforcing lessons); and (5) working with culturally diverse children and youth and their families. The format for the instructional modules includes: instructional objectives, time required, equipment and resources required, suggested training activities and exercises, background information for the trainer, and handouts and transparencies. Training procedures involve small group discussions, brainstorming, problem solving, case studies, and role plays. (References accompany each module.) (CR)

A CORE CURRICULUM & TRAINING PROGRAM TO PREPARE PARAEDUCATORS TO WORK WITH LEARNERS WHO HAVE LIMITED ENGLISH PROFICIENCY

THE NATIONAL RESOURCE CENTER FOR PARAPROFESSIONALS IN EDUCATION AND RELATED SERVICES
CENTER FOR ADVANCED STUDY IN EDUCATION
GRADUATE SCHOOL AND UNIVERSITY CENTER
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PREFACE

As public schools in the United States prepare for the 21st' century they are, as always, respondents to and agents for change. Nationwide school boards, superintendents, principals, teachers and parents are working together to find more effective ways to serve children and youth who have disabilities, speak hundreds of languages and come from diverse cultural and ethnic minority backgrounds.

Efforts to restructure education practices and systems in order to improve the quality of education and provide individualized programs for all learners who can benefit from them have led to an expansion and redefinition of teacher roles. Teachers are both facilitators of learning, and program managers with increased responsibility and accountability for: determining education priorities based on learner needs, modifying and evaluating curriculum content, and conferring with colleagues and parents to determine how best to organize schools and programs to achieve learner goals.

To enable teachers to successfully assume these new more complex roles and to expand the availability of individualized instruction for learners who have exceptional education needs including limited English proficiency, policymakers have turned to paraeducators to support the programmatic and management functions of teachers.

This curriculum and instructional materials were developed by the National Resource Center for Paraprofessionals in Education and Related Services. The goals of the program are to provide personnel developers and trainers with resources they can use to prepare paraeducators to work with learners with limited English proficiency, who also have different ability levels, learning styles/preferences and other education needs.

The instructional objectives, curriculum content and format of the materials were pilot tested nationwide in sites that included two and four year colleges and local school districts. The instructors who assisted us with evaluating the quality and usability of the modules ranged from experienced personnel developers to teachers and paraeducators with no prior experience in the field of adult education.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Many people made invaluable contributions to the work of this project. We had the advice of an advisory panel who represented a cross section of disciplines, who also had expertise in the needs of learners and their families from diverse language minority backgrounds, and who had a knowledge of various factors that influence the performance and preparation of a skilled paraeducator workforce. They met once to help us establish project priorities and to identify the training needs of paraeducators working with learners who have limited English. Panel members were: Vasthi Reyes, Professor; Early Childhood Education, Hostos Community, the Bronx, New York; Richard Guerra, Paraeducator and Regional Vice President, California Association of Bilingual Education; Sonia Manuel - DuPont, Professor, Communicative Disorders and Deaf Education Department, Utah State University - Logan; Gloria Guzman, Project Director, Human Development Department, Rancho Santiago College, Santa Ana, CA.; Mary P. Forde, Director of Pupil Personnel Services, Greenwich Public Schools, CT.; Eugene Thompson, Executive Director, St. Michael's Association for Special Education, The Navajo Nation, Arizona; John Antinasi, Director Bilingual Teacher Credentialing, Department of Teacher Education, California State University - Long Beach; Ginger Blalock, Coordinator Special Education Programs/College of Education, University of New Mexico-Albuquerque; Helen Valdez, Director Bilingual and Migrant Education, Washington State Department of Public Instruction; and Karen Hergenhahn, Minnesota Department of Children, Families and Learning. Several members of the panel pilot tested the materials at their college or agency, and all of them reviewed and evaluated the appropriateness and quality of the curriculum.

The modules were also pilot tested for the usability in different demographic areas and training models by Annette Jennings Bradley and Anita Mohammed, instructors in the Paraprofessional Continuing Education Program sponsored by the New York City Board of Education; Cynthia Hutton, curriculum coordinator for the California State University - Long Beach Paraeducator Training Program and teacher in the Huntington Beach Unified High School Districts; and Arlene Barresi, paraeducator training coordinator, Eastern Suffolk (New York) Board of Cooperative Education Services. Bill Roulston, Director of the Migrant Education Regional Office in Yakima, Washington reviewed the content and instructional strategies and made very helpful suggestions for enhancing the modules.

Donna Schwan, from East San Gabriel Valley, (California) Regional Occupational Program reviewed video and print resource materials for us. Ross Graham edited the final draft to make sure the we followed the same format in all modules, that commas are in the right place, that tenses of verbs and nouns agree, and more.

Finally, Charlotte Fisk maintained her cool as she dealt with the revision phase and merging the various disks from the authors. In fact it is a miracle that she was able to retain her sense of humor.

Anna Lou Pickett
Lynn Safarik
Project Directors

SUGGESTED TRAINING PROCEDURES

This competency based instructional program is designed to build on the life and work experiences participants will bring to the training. While participants will learn skills they can apply immediately, the training will also facilitate acceptance of new practices and increase their understanding of instructional strategies and education issues. They will also learn communication and other skills that will enable them to become more effective team members.

The format for the instructional modules includes: 1) instructional objectives, 2) equipment and resources required to teach the lessons, 3) suggested training activities and exercises; 4) background information for the trainer and 5) handouts and transparencies. The training procedures are designed to foster active participation and include small group discussions, brainstorming, problem solving, case studies and role plays.

The suggestions that follow are designed to provide instructors with ideas they can use to motivate participants.

BEFORE THE TRAINING BEGINS. You should review each module and become familiar with the goals, content and instructional strategies. Since you are using material developed by others, you may want to adapt some of the instructional methods to reflect your individual training style. To arouse the interest of the participants, case studies that relate directly to their on-the-job experiences are contained in the different modules. You may want to develop your own case studies or role plays to supplement the activities and exercises contained in the materials.

In addition, you should: a) make sure that the information in the training modules accurately reflects district policies and practices; b) become familiar with local agencies and practitioners who can assist with the training and provide background information and other resources; c) make sure that information handouts and other materials for participants are available for each session; and d) request AV equipment early, set it up and test it before the session begins.

DURING THE TRAINING SESSION. You might want to use introductory ice breaker activities to set the stage for the different lessons. You should outline, on a chalkboard or chart paper, the specific goals of the training session and describe briefly what the participants will be expected to do and to learn. Be sure to stress the value and practical application of the training and the beneficial impact it will have on improving job skills and productivity. Before you move on to a new subject, make sure the participants have a clear understanding of the information presented. It is important that you not assume that because trainees use jargon or technical terms they understand the information. And finally, make sure there is time to respond to expressed needs, questions, requests and feelings of the trainees.

AFTER THE TRAINING. Be sure to follow-up on requests for additional information and resources for participants and incorporate trainees' comments and reactions into future training plans.

MODULE I

STRENGTHENING THE TEACHER & PARAEDUCATOR TEAM

OVERVIEW

Nationwide, policymakers and administrators increasingly are turning to paraeducators (teacher aides, instructional assistants, paraprofessionals, job coaches, education technicians, therapy aides/ assistants) to assist with the delivery of education and related services to growing numbers of children and youth who can benefit from individualized education and support services. The roles and responsibilities of teacher aides have evolved and become more complex and demanding since they were introduced into classrooms and other learning environments more than 40 years ago, "in today's schools they are technicians who are more accurately described as paraeducators, just as their counterparts in law and medicine are designated as paralegals and paramedics" (Pickett, P.1, 1989).

Paraeducators work in home and center (school) based early childhood programs and elementary, middle and high schools. They work alongside teachers and other school professionals in inclusive general and special education classrooms serving children and youth with and without disabilities who have limited English proficiency (LEP), or who come from economically disadvantaged homes and other backgrounds that may place them at-risk of failure.

Diversity in our society takes many forms. Differences among people that impact on the delivery of instructional and other education services include, but most certainly are not limited to: differences in culture, ethnicity, language, religion, socioeconomic status, age, and gender. These differences also include physical, cognitive mental and emotional ability levels. This training program contains a series of instructional modules designed to prepare paraeducators to work with children and youth of different ages, who have different ability levels and learning styles, and who come from language minority backgrounds, and different ethnic and cultural heritages.

The content in this introductory module is divided into two units. The purpose of Unit 1 is to provide paraeducators with an understanding of their programmatic, and ethical responsibilities no matter whether they work in inclusive classrooms serving children and youth with and without disabilities, or in bilingual and English as a second language programs (ESL), Title I and other compensatory education programs. Unit 2 centers on communication and problem solving skills that will enhance the ability of paraeducators to work effectively with teachers and other school professionals, administrators, children, youth and their parents, and members of the community.

If you are a trainer who has used other instructional materials developed as part of the NRC Core Curriculum, you will notice similarities in the content in this unit. There are, however, new activities and information incorporated in both units that comprise the module.

UNIT I

PARAEDUCATOR ROLES & RESPONSIBILITIES

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

The paraeducator will:

1) Define the distinctions in the roles of teachers and other school professionals and paraeducators.

2) Describe the roles and responsibilities of paraeducators working in inclusive special and general education, ESL/bilingual, Title I and other programs serving children and youth with exceptional needs.

3) Describe the professional and ethical responsibilities of paraeducators.

TIME REQUIRED

The time required to teach this unit should be approximately 2 1/2 hours depending on the level of experience of the participants and the activities selected by the instructor.

EQUIPMENT & MATERIAL REQUIRED

- ❑ A flipchart and easel, and/or chalkboard.
- ❑ An overhead projector and screen, or if you prefer write the information contained in the Transparencies on the flipchart or chalkboard.
- ❑ Copies of the Information Handouts, Exercises and Transparencies from this unit.
- ❑ Copies of: 1) your district's job descriptions for teachers and paraeducators; 2) descriptions of your district's professional, ethical and legal responsibilities for school personnel; and 3) criteria, standards, and credentialing mechanisms for paraeducator employment, roles, and preparation of paraeducators developed by the department of education or other agencies in your state.

  NOTE: Across the country more and more states are revising or establishing new administrative guidelines or regulatory procedures for paraeducators. In some cases, they apply to all paraeducators, no matter which program they are assigned to. In other states, they may apply to paraeducators working in a specific program such as special or early childhood education. To obtain copies of state standards or credentialing systems contact the Office of Personnel or Human Resources in your district. If the information is not available in the district, ask the staff who you should contact in the State Department of Education.

- ❑ Demographic and other data available from your school district and/or state about the number of children and youth who come from language and cultural minority heritages.

- ❑ Information about the various programs in your district or agency that serve children and youth with special needs including limited English, disabilities, or who come from backgrounds that place them at risk.

BEFORE THE TRAINING BEGINS

- ❑ Obtain the information described above about demographic data, policies and regulatory procedures, job descriptions and personnel practices from your district or state department of education.

- ❑ Review the Background Materials, Information Handouts and Transparencies that are included in this unit and compare the information with the policies and practices established by your district and or state.

- ❑ Review the activities and exercises provided in this unit; select those you feel are the most relevant to the needs of the paraeducators.

- ❑ Prepare a series of brief lectures that describe: 1) the history of the paraprofessional movement, 2) reasons for increased employment of paraeducators and their expanding roles and responsibilities, 3) distinctions and similarities in teacher-paraeducator roles, 4) the contributions paraeducators make to the delivery of education and related services, and 5) the professional and ethical responsibilities of paraeducators.

DURING THE SESSION

- ❑ Begin the session by delivering a lecture that includes: 1) an historical overview of paraeducator employment and contemporary reasons for increased reliance on paraeducators, 2) the emerging roles of teachers as classroom and program managers and supervisors of paraeducators, and 3) the evolution of the roles of teacher aides to paraeducators. Use Transparencies 1, 2, 3 & 4 as an outline.

- ❑ Ask the class to brainstorm a list of the school professionals they assist in the delivery of education and related services. Record the answers on the chalkboard or flip chart.

- ❑ Divide participants into groups of 5 or 6. If they work in different schools and/or programs, organize the groups so they include representatives from the different program areas and buildings. This exercise is divided into two parts. Ask the groups to work together to: 1) compile a list of daily, weekly and periodic tasks performed by paraeducators in different programs or settings, and 2) develop a list of duties performed by teachers and other school professionals not performed by paraeducators.

- ❑ Ask for a volunteer from one of the groups to read the list of tasks performed by paraeducators and record them. Ask for other groups to contribute duties that were not mentioned by the 1st group.

- ❑ Ask for a volunteer from another group to report on the roles and responsibilities performed by teachers or other school professionals that differ from those of paraeducators. Record them.

- ❑ Distribute Exercise 1. Use this activity to supplement the previous activity. Divide the participants into new groups. Ask them to review the tasks and determine which activities are: 1) solely the responsibility of teachers, 2) solely the responsibility of paraeducators, or 3) shared responsibilities.

  Again, ask groups to share their responses with the class. Clarify role distinctions that may not be fully understood. For example, point out that while it is the responsibility of teachers or other school professionals to diagnose the educational or related services needs of children, paraeducators may be asked to observe and document information the teacher can use in this process. Stress the fact that although teachers are responsible for developing modifications of instructional strategies and curriculum content to meet the needs of individual students, paraeducators may be asked to contribute ideas to the process and will also carry out the plans.

- ❑ Distribute Exercise 2 and use it to further clarify appropriate roles of paraeducators. Ask the participants to work alone and read each situation and then to circle the letter that most accurately describes their feelings. Be sure participants understand that it is O.K. to be unsure and that their responses may differ from other participants because of their years of experience, the approach to supervision of the teacher they work with, guidelines established by the program and other factors.

- ❑ When all of these activities have been completed, lead a closing discussion that stresses the similarities and distinctions in the roles and responsibilities of teachers, other school professionals and paraeducators. Answer questions and concerns raised by the group and make sure the participants understand district and state policies that impact on their roles and responsibilities.

- ❑ Use Transparency 5 as an outline and deliver the lecture on the ethical and professional responsibilities of paraeducators.

- ❑ Divide the participants into groups of 4 or 5. Assign one of the role plays to each group. Ask the members of the group to discuss the situation and then develop a script that will enable them to role play the scenario. You might want to ask one group to prepare a positive approach to the situation and another group to violate confidentiality or another ethical/professional responsibility.

- ❑ Ask the members of the class to watch the different role plays and think about what they would have done under the circumstances and to be prepared to share their ideas or reactions to the situations.

- ❑ Close with a brief discussion of the contributions paraeducators make to improving the quality and availability of education and related services.

RESOURCES AND WORKS CONSULTED

Before the bell tings: what every paraeducator should know (1995). This video tape and facilitator's guide are available from the Agency for Instructional Technology, Bloomington, Indiana 47402-0120.

Pickett, A.L. & Formanek, J. (1982). *Handbook for special education paraprofessionals* (1982). New York. New York City Public Schools.

Enhancing the skills of paraeducators: a video assisted program (1995). Available from the Department of Special Education & Rehabilitation Services, Utah State University, Logan, Utah 84322.

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Pickett, A.L. Faison, K. & Formanek, J. (1993). *A core curriculum and training program to prepare paraeducators to work with school age students in inclusive classrooms.*

Pickett, A.L. (1989). *Restructuring the schools: the role of paraprofessionals.* Washington, D.C. Center for Policy Research, National Governors' Association.

Pickett, A.L. (1997, 5th edition). *A training program to prepare teachers to supervise and work more effectively with paraprofessional personnel.* New York. National Resource Center for Paraprofessionals in Education and Related Services, Center for Advanced Center in Education, Graduate School and University Center, City University of New York.

PARAEDUCATOR ROLES & RESPONSIBILITIES

In today's schools several factors have converged that have led to even greater reliance on paraeducators in more complex and demanding roles. They include: 1) the changing demographics in our nation's schools, 2) the growing awareness of the value of serving all children and youth in inclusive education programs and classrooms, 3) expanding efforts to increase the availability of individualized (personalized) instructional and support services to all students who can benefit from them, and 4) continuing efforts to redefine and restructure the traditionally recognized roles of teachers.

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE. It has been more than 40 years since teacher aides were introduced into classrooms to enable teachers to spend more time planning and implementing instructional activities. In the 1950s, a post-World War II shortage of teachers forced local school boards to find alternative personnel and methods for providing education services. As a result of a project sponsored by the Ford Foundation in Bay City, Michigan and research efforts at Syracuse University the value of employing teacher aides was demonstrated. Initially the duties assigned to teacher aides were routine and included record keeping, housekeeping tasks, monitoring students on playgrounds and in study halls and lunch rooms, and preparing materials. The introduction of Title I and Head Start programs in the late 1960s and the passage of P.L. 94-142 in the mid 1970s provided momentum for the employment of paraprofessionals. At the same time greater emphasis began to be placed on their roles in providing direct education and support services to children, youth and their parents.

Indeed, the 1997 reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (I.D.E.A.) recognized this increased reliance on paraprofessionals in more complex and demanding roles. State and local education agencies are now required to develop policies and infrastructures that will insure that paraprofessionals are appropriately prepared and supervised in order to carry out their assigned tasks.

The need for skilled, committed personnel at all levels, to provide instructional and other direct services to children and youth who have limited English and their families has led to another surge in paraeducator employment. The number of adults and children in the United States whose primary language is other than English is at an all time high. Children and youth served by our nation's schools speak virtually all of the world's languages and dialects as well as the more than 100 languages that are indigenous to Native Americans. As a result teachers and other school professionals require the assistance of paraeducators who have a knowledge of and understand the heritages of children and youth who came from diverse cultures and who speak many different languages.

DIFFERENCES IN TEACHER AND PARAEDUCATOR RESPONSIBILITIES. The term "classroom teacher" no longer adequately defines the roles and responsibilities of teachers in today's schools. Teachers manage learning environments and programs. They participate in the development of standards for learner performance. They assist with curriculum development to meet these standards. And as members of school based management teams they help to establish program priorities to meet the needs of learners who

have a multitude of learning styles and preferences and education needs. While many tasks performed in learning environments may be shared, there are some functions in the instructional process and the delivery of other direct services that are the responsibility of teachers and other school professionals. Distinctions in the roles of teachers and paraeducators must be clear and must be understood by all team members in order for them to work together as an effective unit. Teachers, no matter whether they work in general, special, bilingual compensatory education or early childhood programs are responsible for diagnosing education and support needs of learners and prescribing the programs to meet these needs. This includes preparing lesson plans for an entire class and modifying strategies and curriculum content to meet the instructional objectives established for individual students. Teacher responsibilities do not end with implementing the plans. They must also evaluate program effectiveness and assess learner performance and mastery of skill and knowledge.

As school districts move to serve all children and youth in inclusive classrooms and programs, the roles of teachers are continuing to evolve. To effectively provide services to students with diverse learning styles, ability levels and other special needs differentiated staffing arrangements are emerging. Teachers in general, special and compensatory education must consult with each other as well as parents and other school professionals representing other disciplines. They must also consult regularly with paraeducators to: 1) share information about the goals and objectives for the class and individual students; 2) discuss how curriculum content, instructional strategies can be appropriately modified to meet the needs of individuals; 3) assign tasks to paraeducators; and 4) provide on-the-job training for paraeducators.

PARAEDUCATOR ROLES. Changes in the roles of teachers and other school professionals have had a profound impact on the nature of paraeducator roles and responsibilities. While they still perform clerical tasks, prepare and duplicate materials, and monitor students in non-academic settings, paraeducators are integral members of education and related services teams.

Under the supervision of teachers or other licensed personnel, paraeducators instruct individual and small groups of students, assist with observation and other functional assessment activities, assist students with independent study and other projects, administer and score standardized tests (teachers analyze and interpret test results), implement behavior management programs and discipline strategies developed by the teacher, and provide opportunities for students to practice and master skills in the community and other learning environments.

Paraeducators who are bilingual, translate between school professionals and students and in some cases their parents. Frequently they serve as mentors for teachers and other school staff to help them more fully understand how traditions, beliefs and value systems may influence the learning styles of children and youth who come from diverse language, cultural and ethnic minorities. There is also a rapidly emerging trend of asking paraeducators assigned to facilitate the inclusion of children and youth with disabilities into general education to participate in meetings to develop individual education plans (IEPs) and individual transition plans (ITPs). While this instructional program does not focus on the growing demands for therapy and other related services to serve children and youth with physical and sensory disabilities and communication disorders it is important for paraeducators to have an understanding of the roles

of speech-language pathologists and physical and occupational therapists and nurses. The supervisory relationship between paraeducators and related services personnel is similar to that of teacher-paraeducator teams.

SPEECH-LANGUAGE PATHOLOGISTS (SLPs). Changes in education service delivery systems, increasing numbers of children and youth who need services for various communication disorders, and technological advances have resulted in an expanding scope of practice for the profession of speech-language pathology. SLPs are integral to the rehabilitation of students with traumatic brain injury and for students developing communication skills through augmentive/ alternative communication systems. They work with students who are deaf or have hearing impairments, students with learning disabilities and language impairment as well as students with articulation problems. Students who receive SLP services are assigned to various programs including elementary, middle and secondary classrooms, special, bilingual and compensatory education, early childhood programs and transition services.

PHYSICAL THERAPISTS (PTs) teach skills in safely lifting and transferring students. They are experts in the use of assistive and supportive devices that improve mobility of students as well as using exercises with and without equipment that improve muscle strength and the range of motion in joints that can assist in walking, sitting, feeding, writing, using a keyboard and other activities of daily living. In many cases, the students they work with are placed in general education classrooms and do not require assistance in academic programs. The work of PTs often precedes that of OTs and SLPs.

OCCUPATIONAL THERAPISTS (OTs) are skilled in using the muscle strength and range of motion developed by physical therapists to adapt and teach activities of daily living. They determine adaptive equipment needs for individual students and identify classroom modifications that will facilitate inclusion of children and youth with physical and sensory disabilities into general education programs. It helps to improve the understanding of the roles of OTs by saying that people of different ages have different occupations. For example, the work of young children is play and the occupation of school age students is learning and acquiring other skills that will enable them to be active participants in the life of their school and community when they make the transition from school to work or post-secondary education (Longhurst, in Gerlock & Pickett, 1997).

NURSES. School nurses provide specialized health/medical procedures that enable children and youth with health condition, and physical and sensory disabilities that enable children and youth who might otherwise be excluded from education programs, to attend and participate in learning activities. Some of the health/medical procedures performed by or supervised by nurses include, but are not limited to, gastronomy and other feeding mechanisms, nebulizer treatments, catherization, administering medications, training agency/school staff to follow universal precautions and more.

PROFESSIONAL/ETHICAL DUTIES OF PARAEDUCATORS. As members of the education team, paraeducators have special relationships with teachers and other colleagues,

students, parents, and members of the community. The effectiveness of these relationships depends not only on the quality of their work performance, but also on the professional and ethical conduct demonstrated on the job. Respecting the human rights of children and youth, their parents and colleagues; maintaining confidentiality about all information connected with students and their families; following district policies and procedures; being dependable and cooperative; and demonstrating a willingness to participate in opportunities for professional development are just a few of the professional responsibilities of paraeducators.

Professional responsibilities do not end at the close of the school day. Paraeducators like all school personnel are representatives of the school district or agency in the community. And as states and communities expand the availability of opportunities for all students to strengthen skills in community based learning environments, growing numbers of paraeducators are in daily contact with broad segments of the public. In urban, suburban and rural areas everywhere, paraeducators usually live in the local community. And, because their roots are there, they serve as valuable resources for sharing personal knowledge and an understanding of cultural heritages, traditions and values of the community with colleagues. Further, they can be effective liaisons between the school and community if they are familiar with the purpose, philosophy and importance of various school programs. This will enable them to promote community involvement and increase understanding by interpreting goals and activities of the school to friends, relatives and neighbors.

MAINTAINING CONFIDENTIALITY. As part of their jobs, paraeducators have access to personal information about children and youth and their families including: 1) the results of formal and informal tests, 2) behavior in classrooms and other education settings, 3) progress in language development and social skills, 4) family relationships, 5) family income or economic status, and much much more. The information may be contained in school records, learned from a student or family members, observed in class or in a student's home, or be related by other school personnel. Both the student and the family have an absolute right to expect that all information will be kept confidential, and made available only to personnel in the school or another agency who require it to ensure that rights, health and physical well being of the child or youth are safe guarded. All state and local education agencies have procedures for protecting privacy. Paraeducators need to know these regulations and be prepared to follow them. In general, paraeducators should share concerns about the well-being and safety of a child or youth with the teacher or another staff member who is designated to play a role in the protection and welfare of the student—and no one else.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF PARAEDUCATORS. In sum, there are several ways paraeducators help to improve the quality of educational programs and instructional activities. Probably the must important contributions they make are tied to meeting the instructional objectives for individual and small groups of students. Paraeducators enhance the quality of education and related services in the following ways: 1) programs become more student oriented; 2) personalized instructional support for individual students can be increased; 3) teachers have more time to: a) study and assess the needs of each student, b) confer with colleagues and parents, c) diagnose problems, d) prepare and plan for individualized instruction, and e) test and assess a broader range of teaching techniques and strategies.

REASONS FOR INCREASED EMPLOYMENT OF PARAEDUCATORS

- ✓ FEDERAL AND STATE LEGISLATIVE MANDATES
- ✓ CHANGING DEMOGRAPHICS NATIONWIDE
- ✓ EXPANDING NEED FOR COMPENSATORY (REMEDIAL) EDUCATION
- ✓ INITIATIVES TO RESTRUCTURE EDUCATION SYSTEMS AND REDEFINE TEACHER ROLES

ROLES OF TEACHERS

THEY ARE RESPONSIBLE FOR:

- ✓ **ASSESSING STUDENT PERFORMANCE LEVELS AND DIAGNOSING THEIR EDUCATION NEEDS**
- ✓ **CONSULTING WITH COLLEAGUES AND PARTICIPATING IN THE PREPARATION OF EDUCATION PLANS**
- ✓ **DEVELOPING INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES AND PREPARING LESSON PLANS**
- ✓ **MODIFYING INSTRUCTIONAL METHODS AND CURRICULUM FOR INDIVIDUAL STUDENTS**
- ✓ **IMPLEMENTING INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMS ALONG WITH PARAEDUCATORS**
- ✓ **EVALUATING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF PROGRAMS AND STUDENT PERFORMANCE**
- ✓ **INVOLVING PARENTS IN ALL ASPECTS OF THEIR CHILD'S EDUCATION**
- ✓ **SUPERVISING THE WORK OF PARAEDUCATORS AND OTHER SUPPORT STAFF**

PARAEDUCATORS ARE SCHOOL EMPLOYEES

1. **WHOSE POSITIONS ARE EITHER INSTRUCTIONAL IN NATURE OR WHO DELIVER OTHER DIRECT SERVICES TO LEARNERS AND/OR THEIR PARENTS;**

AND

2. **WHO WORK UNDER THE SUPERVISION OF TEACHERS OR OTHER PROFESSIONAL STAFF WHO HAVE RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE DESIGN, IMPLEMENTATION, AND EVALUATION OF EDUCATION AND RELATED SERVICES PROGRAMS AND LEARNER PROGRESS.**

WHERE PARAEDUCATORS WORK

- INCLUSIVE GENERAL & SPECIAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS/ CLASSROOMS
- PROGRAMS SERVING CHILDREN AND YOUTH WHO HAVE LIMITED ENGLISH
- TITLE I AND OTHER COMPENSATORY (REMEDIAL) PROGRAMS
- DROPOUT PREVENTION PROGRAMS
- TRANSITIONAL TRAINING, SUPPORTED EMPLOYMENT & OTHER COMMUNITY BASED INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMS
- PHYSICAL, OCCUPATIONAL & SPEECH-LANGUAGE THERAPY PROGRAMS
- HEALTH SERVICES
- LIBRARIES & COMPUTER LABS

PARAEDUCATOR PROFESSIONAL AND ETHICAL RESPONSIBILITIES

- **Respect rights of students and parents/caregivers**
- **Protect health and safety of students**
- **Maintain confidentiality**
- **Demonstrate knowledge in role distinctions of education personnel**
- **Follow directions of supervisory professionals**
- **Demonstrate integrity, respect for diversity and other standards of ethical conduct**
- **Demonstrate willingness to participate in staff development opportunities**

TEACHER/PARAEDUCATOR ROLES*

DIRECTIONS: Review the tasks in the following list with your group. Determine which activities are: 1) the teacher's responsibility, 2) the paraeducator's responsibility, or 3) can be shared by the teacher and paraeducator. Put an X in the appropriate column.

	TASK	TEACHER	PARAEDUCATOR	SHARED
1.	Diagnose educational needs of individual students			
2.	Select instructional techniques			
3.	Plan lessons for entire class			
4.	Modify lessons for individual students			
5.	Develop behavior management programs			
6.	Establish classroom rules			
7.	Select instructional materials			
8.	Prepare materials			
9.	Participate in planning meetings with other members of instructional and related services teams			
10.	Teach new concepts/lessons			
11.	Implement behavior management programs			
12	Administer standardized/objective tests			
13.	Score standardized tests			

* Adapted from Pickett, A.L. & Formanek, J. (1982). *Handbook for Special Education Paraprofessionals*. N.Y., N.Y.: NY Public Schools

	TASK	TEACHER	PARAEDUCATOR	SHARED
14.	Interpret results of standardized or other tests			
15.	Observe and document information about student performance/behaviors			
16.	Translate lessons into primary languages of students			
17.	Monitor and supervise lunchrooms/halls/ playgrounds/study halls			
18.	Escort students to other classrooms and buses			
19.	Instruct students in vocational and other community based learning environments			
20.	Perform clerical duties (copy materials, correct papers, record grades, take attendance)			
21.	Maintain safe healthy learning environments			

ROLES OF THE PARAEDUCATOR*

Below are descriptions of some situations an instructional team might encounter in their day to day work no matter whether they are assigned to work in general, special. ESL/bilingual education or Title I programs. DIRECTIONS: circle A if you think the activity/function is an appropriate duty/role for a paraeducator, I if you think it is inappropriate, or U if you are unsure. Briefly describe why you responded the way you did and be prepared to discuss your reasons with other participants.

A I U The paraeducator has been employed by the district because the number of Korean students enrolled in the school system is increasing. She was selected because she speaks Korean, lives in the community and understands the cultural heritage of the students. She is assigned to several teachers. Two of the teachers have asked her to participate in meetings with parents. The district's job description for paraeducators does not mention the role of paraeducators in working with or communicating with parents.

Reason:

A I U Peggy, a student with physical and developmental disabilities, has been integrated into general math and social studies classes. Her IEP calls for the paraeducator to accompany and stay with her in case she needs assistance. The math teacher asks the paraeducator to run off worksheets for the entire class.

Reason:

A I U It is 1:00 in the afternoon and the teacher has become ill. Both the paraeducator and the principal know she needs to go home immediately. The principal asks the paraeducator to take charge of the class for the rest of the afternoon.

Reason:

*The concept for this activity was originated by Lowell Alexander, an administrator in the Wyandotte County Special Education Cooperative, Kansas.

ROLES OF THE PARAEDUCATOR, cont.

A I U It is the end of the year, the teacher has scored the final exams and completed the annual reviews of student performance. She asks the paraeducator to enter them into the individual student's master files.

Reason:

A I U There are several students in the class who have different learning styles and preferences. The teacher asks the paraeducator to work with them individually and in small groups. He describes the teaching strategies and the instructional materials he wants the paraeducator to use with the individual students. As the paraeducator begins to work with the students, she discovers that the instructional strategies suggested by the teacher are not effective methods for working with some of the students. So she uses some ideas and suggestions she has heard about from other paraeducators. She also brings in books and other resources she has used with her own children.

Reason:

A I U The teacher and paraeducator have worked together for several years. The teacher knows that the paraeducator has extraordinary musical talents. She asks the paraeducator to decide what the class should do for the Spring Music Festival and then to rehearse them.

Reason:

SITUATION 1

The Background

Lurleen Thomas is a paraeducator who works in a middle school. Stanley Parsons, one of the students in the class Lurleen is assigned to, attends the same church she does.

Timothy Smith is the new, young minister at the church who has made counseling youth and their parents an important part of his ministry. This is a new program for the church because the last minister was quite elderly and did not see this as part of his role. One evening after a church dinner, Reverend Smith asks Lurleen if she can provide him with some information about how she thinks Stanley is doing in school—he understands from Stanley's parents that he has not been doing well academically, frequently plays hooky, and has been caught smoking on school grounds on several occasions. Reverend Smith is obviously concerned about assisting Stanley and his family. He is also very charming and persistent. Lurleen has a great deal of respect for him and thinks this is an important service for the church to provide. Role play the situation.

SITUATION 2

The Background

The school board has completed work on this year's budget and it will be voted on at the next election. The state has reduced its contribution to the district and local property taxes are going up. Justine Smith is a paraeducator. Every time she runs into her neighbors, the Formaneks, they start to complain about their increased taxes. They have a long list of what is wrong with the schools. They are particularly upset about the raises that are proposed for all school employees including the superintendent, teachers, paraeducators and other support staff. It is the strongly held view of the Formaneks that no one deserves an increase in pay since the schools are so poorly run, kids can't read nor are they properly prepared to find or hold jobs after they graduate. In addition, they can see no earthly reason to spend their hard earned income on kids who have disabilities. These services are just too expensive. Role play a conversation between Justine and the Formaneks.

SITUATION 3

The Background

Jerome Liu is a new paraeducator who is assigned to a third grade class. Before he started to work he was told by the principal that he was required to maintain confidentiality about the lives and records of the students he works with. He has just walked into the teacher's lounge where he encounters Mrs. Jones, a fourth grade teacher who has been at the school for more than 35 years. She knows most of the families and frequently has something to say about their life styles and the way they raise their children. She also believes that if some students are "trouble makers" their brothers and sisters will be as well. This year she has Oscar Patterson in her class and he is behaving exactly like his brother Billy did two years before. She knows that Rachel, their younger sister, is in Jerome's class. She starts the conversation by reporting on the things Oscar did today to "make her crazy." She pushes Jerome to talk about Rachel. Jerome is very fond of Rachel and thinks she is wonderful. He is taken aback that Mrs. Jones talks so openly about her students, asks him so many personal questions about Rachel and does not seem to believe him when he says Rachel is very bright. He is also acutely aware that Mrs. Jones is admired and respected by the principal and parents. Role play this situation.

SITUATION 4

The Background

Eva Hernandez is a paraeducator assigned to a transitional training program for teenagers. At the present time she is preparing Keith Beeman to work in the housekeeping department of a local hotel. Two of the employees start to ask her questions. At first they are about the program and easy for her to handle. But then they start to ask personal questions about Keith and why he acts the way he does. One of them thinks she even has some information that will help Eva because she lives next door to the Beemans and has a pretty good idea about what is wrong with Keith, and why he behaves the way he does. She is also upset because the Beemans don't control their children, let them "run wild" through the neighborhood, and never mow their yard. Role play the situation.

PARAEDUCATORS: A DEFINITION

Paraeducators are employees:

1) whose positions are either instructional in nature or who deliver other direct services to learners and/or their parents; and

2) who work under the supervision of teachers or other professional staff are responsible for the design, implementation and evaluation of instructional programs and the assessment of learner progress.

Paraeducators provide services in the following programmatic areas:

educational programs
physical therapy
occupational therapy
speech language pathology
early intervention and preschool programs
social work/case management
parent training
transition training
supported employment or other vocational education programs
libraries & computer labs
health services.

ROLES OF TEACHERS

Teachers are responsible for:

✓ Assessing performance levels and diagnosing education needs of students.

✓ Consulting with colleagues and parents participating in the preparation of individualized education plans (IEPs).

✓ Developing instructional objectives and preparing lesson plans.

✓ Modifying instructional strategies and curriculum content for all learners who can benefit from personalized attention and programs.

✓ Implementing instructional programs along with paraeducators and other support staff.

✓ Evaluating the effectiveness of programs and learner performance.

✓ Involving parents in all aspects of their child's education.

✓ Coordinating and supervising the work of paraeducators and other support staff.

DUTIES PERFORMED BY INSTRUCTIONAL PARAEDUCATORS

Paraeducators participate as active team members by:

- ✓ Instructing individual and small groups of learners following programs and lessons developed by teachers.
- ✓ Assisting with supplementary work for learners and supervising independent study.
- ✓ Assisting with the preparation of materials for instructional programs.
- ✓ Performing informal and functional assessment activities, scoring objectives tests and keeping appropriate records.
- ✓ Assisting teachers in collecting and maintaining data about learners behavior and progress.
- ✓ Implementing behavioral management programs developed for individual learners.
- ✓ Assisting teachers with crisis intervention and discipline.
- ✓ Attending IEP/ITP and other staff meetings at the request of a teacher or administrative personnel.
- ✓ Communicating with parents under the supervision of teachers.

In addition paraeducators may be asked to perform non-instructional task including:

1) bus duty;
2) supervising playgrounds, lunchrooms and study halls;
3) assisting children and youth with personal and hygienic care;
4) setting up and maintaining adaptive equipment and learning centers, and
5) operating office or video equipment.

PROFESSIONAL AND ETHICAL RESPONSIBILITIES FOR ALL PARAEDUCATORS

A paraeducator must:

- ✓ Respect the human and legal rights of children, youth and their families.
- ✓ Respect the individuality of all children and youth.
- ✓ Follow district policies for protecting the health, safety and well-being of children and youth.
- ✓ Maintain confidentiality about all personal information and educational records concerning children, youth and their families.
- ✓ Demonstrate an understanding of the distinctions in the roles of various education personnel.
- ✓ Follow the directions of teachers and other supervisors.
- ✓ Maintain a record of regular attendance, arrive and depart at specified times, and notify appropriate personnel when they must be absent.
- ✓ Demonstrate dependability, integrity and other standards of ethical conduct.
- ✓ Follow the chain of command for various administrative procedures.
- ✓ Demonstrate a willingness to participate in opportunities for continuing education provided by the district.

MAINTAINING CONFIDENTIALITY

Why must confidentiality be maintained?

- ✓ Federal laws, state regulations, and local policies require it.

Who may have access to written or oral information about children and youth or their families?

- ✓ Only teachers or other personnel responsible for the design, preparation, and delivery of education and related services; and/or personnel with responsibility for protecting the health, safety and welfare of a student.

Who should not have access to information about the performance level, behavior, program goals and objectives or progress of a student?

- ✓ Teachers, therapists or other personnel, relatives or people in the community not responsible for planning and providing services or maintaining the safety, health and well being of students.

What information do children/youth and their families have the right to expect will be kept confidential?

- ✓ The results of formal and informal assessments
- ✓ Social and behavioral actions
- ✓ Performance levels and progress
- ✓ Program goals and objectives
- ✓ All information about family relationships and other personal matters

UNIT 2

COMMUNICATION AND PROBLEM SOLVING

OVERVIEW

As the roles of paraeducators have expanded and become more complex and challenging, their need for effective communication and problem solving skills has also increased. Their duties as members of the education team bring them into direct contact with a multitude of people with different roles and levels of responsibility for planning, providing and evaluating education services for children and youth and their families.

The activities and content in this unit stress the value and importance of establishing and maintaining open lines of communication and building consensus, mutual trust, and respect between members of instructional teams. Achieving these goals can help reduce misunderstandings when teachers must make decisions that paraeducators may not fully appreciate or agree with.

Paraeducators assist and work alongside their professional colleagues in schools and other agencies delivering education and related human services. They are frontline representatives of the school as they train students in a broad range of community based learning environments. And finally, but of the utmost importance, are the relationships they have with the students they come into contact with daily.

One of the most important keys to being a successful team member is effective communication. The communication skills required by all participants in the education team are the same and are intertwined with social skills, coping skills, helping skills, listening skills and problem solving skills. These skills do not necessarily develop automatically as part of the aging process. They must be learned, practiced and nurtured.

The various activities in this module are designed to provide paraeducators with skills that will enable them to communicate effectively—no matter where they work, what their job is, or who they interact with. They will have an opportunity to assess their own individual strengths in the area of communication and problem solving and to identify areas they want to strengthen. Role plays, brainstorming, small group discussions, and other exercises will enhance their helping, listening, communication and problem solving skills.

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

Paraeducators will:

1) Assess their communication and social skills.

2) Develop skills to communicate more effectively with professional colleagues, students, parents and others they work with.

TIME REQUIRED

The time required to complete this module will depend on the number of activities selected by the trainer. The recommended time is a minimum of three hours.

EQUIPMENT AND MATERIALS REQUIRED

- ❑ Overhead and screen. Or, if you prefer write the content in the transparencies on the flipchart or chalkboard.
- ❑ Flipchart and easel or chalkboard.
- ❑ Copies of the handouts and exercises for all participants.

BEFORE THE TRAINING

- ❑ Review the Background Information, Handouts, Exercises and other suggested activities, as well as other resources you may know about that are designed to enhance communication, social and problem solving skills. The role plays contained in this unit are based on events that happen day in and day out to teachers, paraeducators, and other members of the instructional team. In addition, you may want to develop your own role plays that describe situations unique to your school or agency.
- ❑ Select the activities most appropriate to the needs of the participants.
- ❑ Prepare a series of brief lectures. Stress the value and importance of using positive communication and social skills as one means for participants to: 1) increase their own self-esteem, cope with stress, control emotions and stand up for their human and legal rights; 2) reduce barriers to becoming an effective team member; and 3) assist children and youth to learn and use the same skills in order to avoid isolation in classrooms or in the community when they leave school, build self-esteem, increase self determination.

DURING THE SESSION

- ❑ Begin the session by asking participants to work together in pairs and brainstorm a list of people they interact with on the job. Record the responses on the chalkboard/flipchart. Then ask the same pairs to develop a list of the staff students and their parents interact with. Put check-marks next to the people that appear on both lists. When this part of the activity is completed ask the participants to work together for five minutes in groups of 3 or 4 and make lists of various ways people communicate with each other. Record the responses.

- ❑ Distribute Information **Handouts 1, 2 and 3**; "Basic Strategies for Clear Communication Between Teachers and Paraeducators," "Tips Paraeducators Can Use to Build Effective Relationships With Children and Youth" and "What Paraeducators Need to Know About Teachers."

- ❑ Briefly discuss and elicit responses from participants about barriers to effective communication and interaction among paraeducators, students and teachers. (Use **Transparencies 1, 2 & 3** as a guide for the discussion.)

- ❑ Introduce and distribute **Exercise #1**, "The Social Skills Inventory." Stress that this is not a test and is designed to enable participants to identify social/communication skills they would like to improve. Then ask the participants to work alone and identify which of these skills are most important to the children and youth they work with in order to help them develop effective relationships with their peers and adults and to achieve greater independence. This activity usually generates a great deal of discussion, so allow plenty of time to respond to questions and concerns.

- ❑ Distribute **Information Handouts 4 & 5**. Encourage participants to contribute to the discussion by describing why and how some social and learning skills are more complex and demanding and how this influences the behaviors of students who are in different stages of development. In addition, elicit information about how cultural values may influence the acquisition of social skills.

- ❑ When the exercise is completed, ask participants to review the items and identify the skills that will be most critical for students when they leave school and move into the adult world.

- ❑ Deliver the lecture on the value of practicing active listening and positive/assertive communication skills. (Use **Transparency #4** as a guide for the discussion.)

- ❑ Introduce the importance for each of us, no matter whether we are adults or children, to learn to monitor and maintain control of our emotions, and to be able to share our feelings with others.

- ❑ Divide participants into groups of 4. Ask the individuals in the groups to think about and discuss what happens to them when they try to make decisions or choices when they are feel-

ing strong emotions (fear, anger, excitement, joy, sadness.) You may want to ask participants to think about these issues in terms of the following scenario: How do you feel when you are left out of a social event, or are excluded from a meeting or decision making, at work or somewhere else? How do you feel when you are included? How do you react in these different situations? Then ask the groups to think about the implications of their responses in connection with working with students who experience similar feelings but do not have skills they need to control their emotions or share their feelings. Ask the groups to share their responses.

- ❑ Now, ask the individuals in the same groups to think about and discuss strategies they use to remain calm when they feel strong emotions. After they complete the first part of this activity, ask them to brainstorm a list of ideas they could share with students that might enable them to stay calm, relieve tension, "cool down," "chill-out." Ask them to classify their ideas in terms of age and site appropriateness. (Would you use this strategy with pre-school, elementary, middle or high school children and youth? Would you use this strategy in the classroom, lunchroom, community learning environment, or home?) Ask the groups to share their suggestions with the class. List them on the chalkboard so participants can take notes about idea they may want to discuss with the teacher in their classroom.

- ❑ Briefly describe the value of "I Messages" in helping both children and adults to share their feelings about issues or circumstances that bother them. Be sure that the participants understand the three components of "I Messages." See **Information Handout #6**.

- ❑ Ask the entire class to brainstorm a list of "feeling words," that describe a wide range of emotions.

- ❑ Distribute **Exercise #2**. Ask individual participants to write "I messages" that respond to the scenarios. Stress the need to incorporate the three components: 1) the feeling, 2) the situation, and 3) the reason. Then ask the participants to share examples of their "I messages" and discuss their responses.

- ❑ Divide the class into pairs. Ask them to describe information about a student they work with who has disruptive behaviors. Then ask them to discuss which techniques and skills discussed during the lesson could help the student control their emotions, or become more confident or self-reliant.

- ❑ Distribute **Information Handout #8**, "Interpersonal Problem Solving." Briefly discuss the approach to problem solving.

- ❑ Divide the participants into groups of 4 or 5. Distribute **Exercise 3** and the **Worksheet** to each group. Assign one of the role plays to each group. Ask the groups to use the five step method for problem solving to identify problems and develop solutions. When they have completed the first part of the activity ask them to prepare a script that incorporates the problems and solutions and be prepared to role play it for the class. (The Worksheet will serve as a guide for identifying the problems confronting the people in the situation and preparing a script.) Suggest that participants who play the different characters use passive, aggressive or

assertive methods of communication, depending on how they think the character would react in this situation.

- ❑ After each group has presented its role play, lead a discussion with all participants about their reactions to the communication methods used by the participants and the solutions.

- ❑ Close the session by responding to concerns and issues shared by the participants with regard to specific problems.

REFERENCES & RESOURCES

Hartwig, L. & Meredith, G. (1994). *Seven steps for teaching students to get on top of their problems.* Longmont, CO: Sapris West.

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COMMUNICATION AND PROBLEM SOLVING

INTRODUCTION. The purpose of this unit is to strengthen communication and problem solving skills that will enhance the ability of paraeducators to effectively work with other team members, children and youth and their parents/caregivers.

REMOVING BARRIERS TO DEVELOPING EFFECTIVE TEACHER AND PARA-EDUCATOR PARTNERSHIPS. All too often administrators, practitioners, parents and other stakeholders assume that all schools, classrooms or other education settings are pretty much alike. Nothing is further from the truth. The management and environment of individual schools and classrooms reflect the styles and philosophies of principals and faculties, the education needs of the students, community values and cultural heritages. To begin the process of developing effective teams, it is important for principals to provide an orientation to paraeducators about the education philosophy and goals of the programs offered by the school and professional and ethical practices that all staff are expected to follow no matter who they are and their relationship to students and their families.

Of more direct consequence for the instructional team is the need for teachers to clarify for paraeducators the structure, the methods, and techniques they prefer to use in all phases of the instructional process and classroom management. In today's schools, paraeducators frequently work with more than one teacher and may be expected to perform different tasks with different degrees of responsibility in similar programs. All teachers have different approaches to integrating paraeducators into the instructional process and other classroom activities. One teacher may prefer to be solely responsible for determining instructional goals for the entire class and then modifying them to meet the needs of individual students; and then to provide specific directions to the paraeducator about what is to be done, how it will be done, and how the paraeducator will be monitored. Another teacher may ask the paraeducator to share ideas and participate in the decision making/planning process. Still a third teacher may tend to be non-directive and prefer the paraeducator to observe and ask questions about what the teacher does and then to model the strategies. Without mutual awareness and understanding of individual teacher's idiosyncrasies it is very possible that the effectiveness of the team will be limited. Content in the following sections along with the Information Handouts contain information about communication skills and a problem solving process paraeducators can build on to become more effective team members.

COMMUNICATION SKILLS.* Each of us has our own unique style of communicating and interacting with others. We convey ideas and information, demonstrate competence and provide support orally, in writing and through sign language. We communicate respect or lack of it through body language and facial expressions. Effective communication is an integral part of the social skills we require to make and keep friends, cope with stress, share feelings and maintain control over our environment.

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*Some of the material in this section has been adapted from: *A core curriculum and a training program to prepare paraeducators to work with school age students with disabilities*, (1993). NRC for Paraprofessionals, CASE/CUNY.

To effectively convey the messages we want others to receive and act on requires different types of interactive skills. Interactive skills are the skills that enable us to be comfortable with other people, to let other people know that we are interested in them, respect their ideas, and care about them. In short, these skills ensure that we can avoid living in isolation.

A review of the literature indicates that perhaps the most important element for developing effective interactive skills is to become an active listener.

ACTIVE LISTENING. For most of us active listening is an under-recognized and underdeveloped skill. It is the skill that allows us to hear facts and understand the feelings, the needs, and the requests for help from other people. There are many factors that may affect our ability to receive the messages others want to share with us. They include our personal biases/prejudices about the other person(s); preconceived notions about the situation or the circumstances; our individual value systems; our emotional state; environmental factors (uncomfortable seats, extreme temperatures, noise, poor lighting); short attention spans and more.

In order to engage in active listening we need to try to prevent prejudices and strong emotions such as anger or frustration from distorting reception, block out distractions, ask questions to clarify what is being said, become involved by paraphrasing what is being said. (See Information Handout #4 for supplemental material.)

PROVIDING FEEDBACK AND EXPRESSING FEELINGS. Interpersonal skills enable us to share our emotions and ideas honestly and fully with others and to demonstrate respect for the feelings, values and cultural heritages of others. They also allow us to relate effectively and avoid miscommunications that may lead to disagreements with our families, friends, the children and youth we work with, our colleagues and other people we come into contact daily. Typically communications skills used by most people fall into three basic categories including:

NON-ASSERTIVE (PASSIVE) BEHAVIOR. Acting non-assertively is an ineffective way of communicating. Individuals who are generally non-assertive have difficulty expressing opinions, beliefs and feelings. They do not stand up for their legitimate rights and may feel as though they are being taken advantage of by others. People who do not share their insights, feelings and thoughts frequently withhold valuable information from others, thus preventing change and hindering the growth of relationships.

AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOR. Acting aggressively is another ineffective way of communicating. People who respond aggressively violate the rights of others. Moreover they do not respect the feelings and contributions of others. They frequently try to "score points" by yelling, being sarcastic, using the put down and humiliating others. People who demonstrate aggressive behaviors also try to impose their attitudes and values on others and in many cases criticize a person rather than actions. Many people confuse assertion and aggression. It is important to recognize the differences and learn to be assertive rather than aggressive.

POSITIVE/ASSERTIVE COMMUNICATION. Assertive behavior allows individuals to stand up for their legitimate rights. It involves the ability to express thoughts and feelings in an honest, straight-forward fashion that shows respect for others. Being assertive does not mean using the same style all the time. At times assertive individuals may use "I messages," e.g., I believe, I feel, I think. At other times assertive people may use humor, or sometimes they may use special knowledge and serve as an expert. People who have assertive skills are able to monitor and choose the behaviors they will be able to use comfortably in a particular situation. (See Information Handout #6 for a description of "I Messages.")

Before moving on to a discussion of how paraeducators can support teachers in their efforts to strengthen the communication, social and problem solving skills of children and youth, there are two other points that need to be made about strategies for eliminating communication problems that impact on a team's performance. They are:

ELIMINATING JARGON. A major problem that may impede the development of a strong team effort is a lack of a common base of reference and understanding. Education professionals tend to know and use the same jargon in connection with student performance, assessment techniques, program planning and educational methods. Frequently the jargon becomes a form of shorthand and "educationalese" that allows professionals to communicate comfortably with each other while excluding others from participating in the educational process (e.g. parents, students, paraeducators).

DEVELOPING NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS. In addition to the need for instructional team members to develop and strengthen verbal communication skills, they also need to develop a set of non-verbal cues that will enable them to reduce disruptions in all phases of the daily routine. By systematically using silent cues that do not require oral directions and responses to problems in the midst of instructional activities, the team will be able to increase productivity, operate more efficiently in a crisis-situation, and establish a positive approach to communication. They may be preplanned, or as the team becomes better acquainted and more sensitive to each others mode of operation and student behaviors they may become spontaneous.

PROBLEM SOLVING AND DECISION MAKING. The following sections address problem solving and decision making from two perspectives. The first looks at skills that influence the ability of teacher-paraeducator teams to work together. The second will provide paraeducators with skills and information they can use to help children and youth learn how to monitor and control their behaviors and emotions.

STRENGTHENING TEACHER AND PARAEDUCATOR TEAMS. Many times, because of the pressures of other duties education teams may ignore or postpone dealing with a problem that involves disagreements or conflicts with the other adults with whom they work. In many cases this may accentuate differences among individuals involved in planning and implementing education and related services. It is necessary for the people involved to decide on a course of action. Finding mutually acceptable solutions is not always easy, and the responsibility for developing effective procedures for alleviating problems are likely to be left to the teachers and paraeducators with little outside assistance or support.

A PROBLEM SOLVING TECHNIQUE. The following are a series of steps that can be used by teachers and paraeducators to improve their ability to work together. While this approach to problem solving is based on people working together to achieve consensus, there are in fact times when it is necessary for teachers and other supervisors to make decisions that paraeducators may not always fully appreciate, or agree with. However, by maintaining open lines of communication and mutual trust these problems should be few and far between.

STEP ONE: IDENTIFYING AND DESCRIBING THE PROBLEM. A situation must be clearly understood. If concerns and issues cannot be stated clearly, it is impossible to choose a course of action that will lead to a satisfactory solution. Everyone involved in a situation should describe the problem in their own words and from their own point of view. This may be done by asking and answering these questions: "What is the problem?" "Who is involved?" "Who is affected?" "How are they affected?"

STEP TWO: DEFINING AND DETERMINING THE CAUSES OF THE PROBLEM. It is not enough to identify the problem. It is essential to determine what has created the problem and causes it to persist. For example, the problem may be caused by "outside conditions" (contractual agreements, a lack of financial resources) that an instructional team may have little ability to change, or it may have its roots in a lack of understanding of the distinction between the roles and duties of teachers, other professional personnel and paraeducators. Other factors that may influence how a problem is defined may include differences in values and attitudes, age, work experience and education, cultural heritage or religious beliefs. Still other concerns may be connected with the move to restructure education systems and procedures, efforts to provide education services in community based and learning environments, and the need to involve parents and other caregivers in all aspects of their child's education. It is important that the real problem be separated from surface events and that areas of agreement and disagreement be identified.

STEP THREE: DECIDING ON A GOAL AND IDENTIFYING ALTERNATIVE SOLUTIONS. Once the problem has been identified, then strategies can be developed. The primary question that needs to be asked and answered is, "What do we want to achieve and how can we go about achieving it?" By working together and brainstorming a list of alternative solutions to the problem the team members will have several options that will enable them to choose a course of action with which they all can live. It will also enable them to determine what additional information, physical or human resources, skills or knowledge they will need to carry out the solution and whether or not these resources are essential to achieving the goal.

STEP FOUR: SELECTING AND IMPLEMENTING A COURSE OF ACTION. To make a decision about which course of action will be tried, the participants should decide which solution is most likely to get the desired results. Agreeing on a solution is not enough. The participants must try it out and test it to see if it will work. They must also give it enough time to see if the solution will work since behaviors and new skills cannot be changed over night.

STEP FIVE: EVALUATING THE RESULTS. Has the problem been resolved? Is there progress? If not, why not? Should we try another one of the alternatives? Should we ask for assistance from other sources? All of these are questions that will need to be addressed in order to assess the effectiveness of the process.

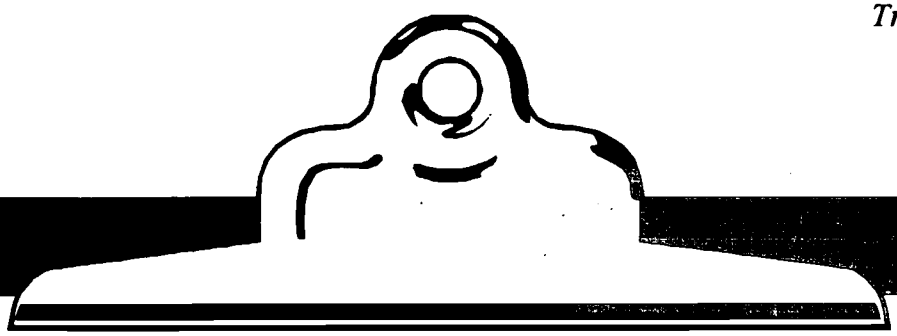
HELPING STUDENTS LEARN COMMUNICATION, SOCIAL, AND PROBLEM SOLVING & DECISION MAKING SKILLS. Over the last decade and a half, researchers and education practitioners have identified social skills and problem solving skills as critical methods for enabling children and youth to succeed while they are in school, and to successfully make the transition from school to work, post-secondary education, and to live independently or with support in the adult world.

Teachers, paraeducators, and other members of the education workforce increasingly are working with children and youth who are labeled as having "challenging," "inappropriate," "disruptive," "aggressive," and "problem" behaviors. While these terms may be used to describe students who are withdrawn (or who do not eagerly participate in classroom activities for other reasons) they are more likely to be used to describe students who are physically aggressive, do not stay on task or actively demand attention in a myriad of other ways.

There are many reasons for helping children and youth learn more effective social skills, communications skills and problem solving skills while they are in school. First, in order for students with challenging behaviors to learn new, more appropriate behaviors, they need to gain an appreciation of how/why specific behaviors lead to specific consequences. Second, they must learn the value of controlling their behaviors/emotional reactions. And third, they must learn to take responsibility for their actions. Moreover, as students become better able to control their challenging behaviors, more time will be available to the instructional team for teaching new, more advanced academic, social and self-help skills.

Achieving these goals for individual students, requires teachers and paraeducators to find different ways to assist students develop self-respect, self-reliance (confidence), and social skills that will help them communicate and interact effectively with parents, peers, school staff, employers and others. These strategies may include helping students learn to define problems, develop systems for making choices, develop coping skills, and develop mechanisms for controlling behaviors.

In addition, team members need to serve as effective role models for students. This includes remaining calm when confronted with challenging behaviors and/or threatening situations. It also means establishing rules of conduct for the classroom and making sure they are followed. They must let students know they believe in them and care about them, and they must demonstrate the power of humor as opposed to sarcasm.

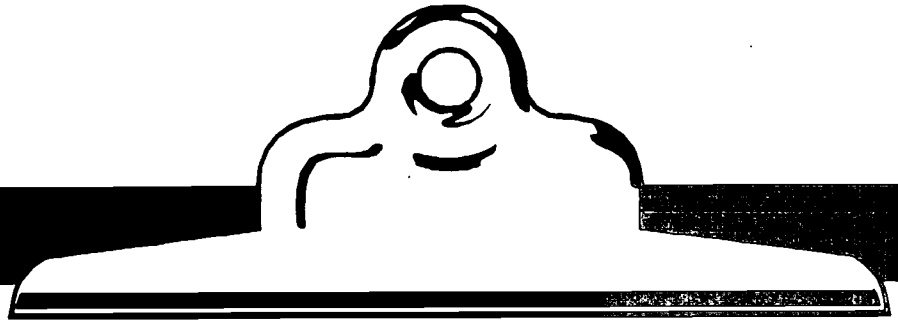


STRATEGIES FOR EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION BETWEEN TEACHERS AND PARAEDUCATORS

- ☑ BE RECEPTIVE TO EACH OTHER'S IDEAS AND CONCERNS
- ☑ ASK FOR CLARIFICATION OF INFORMATION IDEAS AND INSTRUCTIONS, AND ASK FOR ASSISTANCE WHEN NEEDED
- ☑ RESPECT INDIVIDUALITY AND DIFFERENCES IN BACKGROUNDS, VALUES, AND EXPERIENCES
- ☑ DEVELOP A SHARED VOCABULARY AND SYSTEMS OF NON-VERBAL CUES
- ☑ WORK TOGETHER TO CREATE A CLIMATE OF COOPERATION, TRUST, AND LOYALTY

BUILDING EFFECTIVE RELATIONSHIPS WITH CHILDREN AND YOUTH

- **Respect Rights and Individuality of All Children and Youth**
- **Reach Out to Students/Show Them You Care**
- **Use Positive Communication and Listen Carefully**
- **Encourage the Development of Independence**
- **Reinforce the Use of Appropriate Social Skills**
- **Promote the Legal and Human Rights of Students**



TEACHER CHARACTERISTICS AND PREFERENCES PARAEDUCATORS NEED TO KNOW

- ☑ INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNIQUES AND METHODS
- ☑ SUPERVISORY STYLE
- ☑ DISCIPLINE/BEHAVIOR MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES
- ☑ HOW TO USE TEACHING MATERIALS
- ☑ CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION AND RULES

INTERACTIVE SKILLS

- **BEING RECEPTIVE**
- **CONCENTRATION**
- **ASKING QUESTIONS**
- **REMAINING CALM**
- **MAINTAINING EYE CONTACT**

INTER-PERSONAL PROBLEM SOLVING

I. DEFINE:

- The problem as one person/team member sees it
- The problem as the other person/team member sees it
- Develop a common or shared definition

II. ASK:

- Who is involved?
- How are they involved?
- What behaviors/attitudes of the different individuals need to be changed?

III. LIST:

- Areas of mutual agreement concerning the problem
- Areas of disagreement
- The barriers to finding a solution

IV. DEVELOP:

- A desired goal(s)
- A solution(s) by brainstorming various ideas
- A list of resources, information or assistance that will help you achieve the goal

V. IMPLEMENT:

- The solution for a specific time period and evaluate the effectiveness of the solution
- If necessary select and implement another alternative

WHAT PARAEDUCATORS NEED TO KNOW ABOUT TEACHERS*

TEACHING STYLES. Teachers, like everyone else have unique characteristics and ways of doing things. In many cases, these characteristics are rarely given much thought by the teacher because they are such an integral part of the individual's teaching style; but for paraeducators who are in support roles it is imperative that they know as much about these characteristics as possible. This is particularly true in school systems where increasingly paraeducators work with two or more teachers. Without mutual awareness and understanding of how the teacher prefers to teach, the effectiveness of the team can be undermined. Every teacher has a style of his or her own. The style may be flexible, controlling, permissive and/or a combination of all of these and more. Most teachers have an array of teaching strategies they like to use in a specific situation or with a specific student. They may be topic related, skill related or concept related. For other teachers structured behavior management methods may serve as the basic approach for teaching both academic skills and helping students learn to monitor and maintain effective behavior. Some teachers may rely on skill mastery whereas others will rely on incidental types of learning centers or various types of cooperative learning, peer tutoring or individual projects. No matter what method a teacher uses, it is important for paraeducators to know what teaching repertoires the teacher has chosen and the reasons why they are used with a specific group or an individual student.

SUPERVISORY STYLES. Just as teachers have unique teaching styles, they also have distinct supervisory styles. One person may be very structured and provide specific directions based on classroom rules, procedures, program content and instructional strategies developed by the teacher. Another person may ask the paraeducator to share ideas and information and participate in the decision making/planning process. Still a third person may tend to be non-directive and prefer the paraeducator to learn by observing what the teacher does and then to model the behavior.

DISCIPLINE STRATEGIES. Discipline is for most teachers something that they hold very close and very dear to themselves. How they discipline and why they discipline is known many times only to them. It is important for the paraeducator to understand why one student requires one disciplinary strategy and another with similar behaviors does not.

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*Adapted from: "A Training Program to Prepare Teachers to Supervise & Work Effectively With Paraprofessionals" (5th Edition, 1997). New York. The NRC for Paraprofessionals in Education and Related Services.

USE OF TEACHING MATERIALS. Teachers, almost like good mechanics, have their favorite tools. In the selection and use of instructional materials and activities, teachers very often will rely more on one type of material or strategy than on others, even though either one might work in the particular learning situation. Like discipline, it is important for the paraeducator to know why that particular material was selected and is of value in a particular learning situation.

CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION AND RULES. Both structure and rules are integral to the system of discipline and behavior management used in the classroom. For example, an open classroom setting places considerably more responsibility on students to determine the course of their behavior than a very structured classroom setting does. The paraeducator needs to know why a particular structure and rules have been chosen by the teacher, and why and how they complement the instructional delivery and/or processes.

The old adage that rules are made to be broken is not a procedure that is going to produce positive results in a classroom. The difficulty with rules is that some are formalized and written, other are informal and unwritten. It is the unwritten rule or unspoken rule that causes the most difficulty. Often times it is difficult for both paraeducators and students to comprehend fully what these rules are and how they are being applied.

BASIC STRATEGIES FOR CLEAR COMMUNICATION BETWEEN TEACHERS AND PARAEDUCATORS*

There are a number of elements that must be present in any situation to insure clear channels of communication. If the members of the team are not careful and do not pay attention, ordinary day to day occurrences may get in the way of developing positive communication and building mutual trust and respect. For example:

- The attitudes and feelings of both teachers and paraeducators need to be known, respected and understood. They need to deal openly with their attitudes and feelings toward their roles and duties, their attitudes toward the students they work with, their attitudes toward instructional styles and management, and their attitudes toward the value of the other person's contributions. When feelings are not shared and openly communicated the nature of the relationship will not grow and the team will be less effective.

- An understanding of the similarities and differences among the people involved in the team must be recognized and understood, including different points of view about educational strategies, different values, different cultural and religious heritages, different levels of education, experience, and other factors that can affect the working relationship.

- Teachers, paraeducators, and other education personnel should actively seek to develop and share a common vocabulary. (Education jargon that may exclude parents or other caregivers should be avoided.)

- Teachers must make sure that directions and expectations are clearly understood and that paraeducators have the information and skills they require to perform their assigned tasks.

- Paraeducators must be willing to ask for clarification or assistance if the assignment is not understood.

- Teachers should determine what special interests, talents, and training the paraeducators have that will complement and enhance their own skills and improve the delivery of education services to children and youth.

- The team must actively work to create a climate of cooperation, trust, respect and loyalty by meeting regularly to discuss procedures and techniques that will establish and maintain open channels of communication.

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*Adapted from: A core curriculum and training program to prepare paraeducators to work with school age students (1993). New York. The NRC for Paraprofessionals in Education and Related Services.

TIPS PARAEDUCATORS CAN USE TO BUILD EFFECTIVE RELATIONSHIPS WITH CHILDREN AND YOUTH

As members of the education team paraeducators play important roles in the lives of the children and youth they work with. There are many ways they can help students practice effective communication, social, and problem solving skills, learn how to stand up for their own rights, build self-esteem, develop and maintain friendships and cope with peer pressure. A few are presented here. Paraeducators should:

- Respect the human rights and individuality of all children and youth.
- Reach out to students. Learn what they like and dislike, how they prefer to spend free time. Share information about sports, music, recreation activities and special events individual students enjoy. Look for information about the cultural heritages of students from different countries and ethnic backgrounds. Share the information with other students.
- Use positive communication. Listen carefully, ask questions, respond to the ideas, concerns and needs students share with you.
- Treat children and youth in the ways you want them to treat other students and adults. Be fair, kind and polite. Do not yell or use abusive language. Use humor but do not use sarcasm or make fun of others.
- Encourage the development of independence, autonomy and individuality by providing opportunities for students to make choices.
- Encourage children and youth to assist each other when help is needed.
- Reinforce the use of appropriate social skills. Model and teach methods children and youth can use to strengthen their ability to monitor and control their behavior, share emotions/feelings, make and maintain friendships, and cope with peer pressure.
- Promote the legal and human rights of students. Maintain confidentiality, and report signs of abuse to teachers.

*Adapted from: A core curriculum and training program to prepare paraeducators to work with school age students (1993). New York. The NRC for Paraprofessionals in Education and Related Services.

INTERACTIVE SKILLS

The following are suggestions that may help make an individual a more effective communicator:

1. **Be Receptive.** Try to prevent bias, prejudice or anger from distorting what you hear. Be willing to listen to new ideas, to pay attention, to look for the speaker's meaning, and to encourage the speaker by looking at him or her.

2. **Concentrate.** Try to blot out distractions such as noise, temperature or other environmental factors. Follow the thread of ideas, be alert for transitions from one thought to another.

3. **Become Involved.** Listen for personal pronouns, add information to what the speaker says, fill in gaps in his/her message, and maintain a mental running summary of the message.

4. **Ask Questions.** Clarify points by repeating or paraphrasing the speaker's ideas and invite him/her to clarify missed meanings.

HIERARCHY OF SOCIAL SKILLS

Group 1.
BEGINNING SOCIAL SKILLS

listening
saying thank you
asking a question
introducing others
starting a conversation
having a conversation
introducing yourself
giving a compliment

Group 2.
ADVANCED SOCIAL SKILLS

asking for help
giving instructions
apologizing
joining in
following instructions
convincing others

Group 3.
SKILLS FOR DEALING WITH FEELINGS

knowing your feelings
understanding the feeling of others
dealing with someone else's anger
expressing affection
rewarding yourself
expressing your feelings
dealing with fear

Group 4.
SKILL ALTERNATIVES TO AGGRESSION

asking permission
helping others
using self-control
responding to teasing
avoiding trouble from others
sharing something
negotiation
keeping out of fights
standing up for your rights

Group 5.
SKILLS FOR DEALING WITH STRESS

making a complaint
sportsmanship after a game
dealing with embarrassment
dealing with being left out
dealing with contradictory messages
dealing with an accusation
answering a complaint
responding to failure
responding to persuasion
standing up for a friend
dealing with group pressure
getting ready with a difficult conversation

Group 6.
PLANNING SKILLS

deciding what to do
setting a goal
gathering information
making a decision
deciding what caused a problem
deciding on your abilities
arranging problems by importance
concentrating on a task

"I MESSAGES"

"I Messages" are effective tools children, youth and adults can use to express feelings appropriately. They can also be used to discuss controversial issues. Often when we want to let another person know what we are feeling and thinking we let our emotions get in the way and attack the other person. Hartwig and Meredith in *Seven Steps for Teaching Students to Get on Top of Their Problems,* have identified three negative side effects when we start a conversation with "you make me so angry when _____," or "you are not being fair when _____." They are:

1) the speaker is denying responsibility for the feeling;

2) the speaker is giving control of his/her feelings to someone else; and

3) "You make" statements that express negative emotions can elicit anger, resistance or other negative responses from the other person.

"I Messages" promote ownership and control of our emotions/behaviors, they can be used to express all emotions, and, finally in most circumstances they can be used to express our feelings and attitudes without seeming to threaten the other person.

"I Messages" contain three parts:
1) A feeling;
2) A situation, and
3) A reason

An "I Message" is stated like this:

> "I feel (state the feeling - happy, angry, sad, embarrassed) when (what has happened/the situation) because (the reason)."

COMMUNICATION AND PROBLEM SOLVING SKILLS FOR STUDENTS

All members of the instructional team are responsible for assisting students to develop skills and techniques that will help them become more self-reliant, more confident in their ability to relate to and work with others, gain control of their emotions (actions/behaviors), and increase self-respect.

Team members carry out their responsibilities in several ways. First and foremost they must demonstrate respect for the individual cultures and values of their students. Second they must serve as role models for students and demonstrate ways students can increase their abilities to "work and play well with others," follow rules, and take responsibility for their actions. Third they must provide students with strategies/methods they use throughout their lives after they leave school, in social, work and learning environments. Some of the most important coping and communication, problem solving skills we all need are described below.

STAYING CALM. Strong emotions (anger, fear, excitement, tension, joy, loneliness, embarrassment, frustration) can influence how we react to a situation. For the most part, neither adults nor children and youth make good/rational decisions when they react to their emotions rather than calming down and gaining control of their emotions. Students will benefit from learning different methods for remaining calm. Indeed, different approaches are useful for dealing with different problems. Deep breathing is helpful. Other strategies that may help are defined as "self-talk." Relating thoughts and feelings to actions can help reduce anxiety, improve our moods and give us time to make better choices. In addition, there are other methods children and youth can use to reduce tension and in the vernacular of kids "cool down" and "chill out." They include but most certainly are not limited to taking a bike ride, reading a book, or screaming in the bathroom.

EXPRESSING EMOTIONS. Actions/behaviors are usually based on feelings/emotions. Yet most of us (adults and children alike) find it difficult to recognize how our feelings affect our actions/behaviors. And in many situations it is difficult for us to put our feelings into words that will help us and others understand our actions. People also have different reactions to feelings, at different times. For example, we may cry when we are sad or lonely. But sometimes we cry when we are happy. We may yell or scream when we are angry, but we may also yell or scream when we are having fun. Some of us may become withdrawn and quiet when we are sad or lonely, and still others may become aggressive in order to get attention. It is important for students to understand that they may react differently in different situations. It is of equal importance that they understand that some reactions/actions are inappropriate because they may physically hurt others or infringe on the rights of others (e.g., the right to study in quiet, participate in a lesson that is not disrupted).

MAKING CHOICES. Convincing students there is more than one way to act in a situation (they can follow rules, they can do their homework, they can get to school on time) is not always easy. Disruptive behaviors that are used over and over to achieve an objective (to get attention, get even, react to an emotion) become habitual. To change inappropriate behaviors requires patience and hard work on the part of both the instructional team and the student. Consistency, support, positive reinforcement, patience, and humor are all important factors in strengthening the ability of students to make appropriate choices in a specific situation.

Basically all people are consequence seekers. We constantly test to see: "What will happen if I comply? What will happen if I don't?" Kids in particular like to push the limits. Students must learn to accept the fact that whatever they choose to do has a consequence and that others will hold them responsible for their actions. Some consequences are positive: "If I do my homework and turn it in on time, my grade will be higher. If I follow the rules, more kids will want me on their team. If I respect my parents curfew, I will not be grounded." Other consequences can be negative and in many cases create more problems: "If I use drugs, I may have to steal to support my habit. If I skip school, I will not learn the skills I need to find and keep a job. If I am physically abusive, I will lose friends."

INTER-PERSONAL PROBLEM SOLVING

I. DEFINE:

- The problem as one person sees it?
- The problem as the other person sees it?
- Develop a common or shared definition?

II. ASK:

- Who is involved?
- How are they involved?
- What behaviors/attitudes of the different individuals need to be changed?

III. LIST:

- Areas of mutual agreement concerning problems?
- Areas of disagreement?
- The barriers to finding a solution?

IV. DEVELOP:

- A desired goal(s)?
- A solution(s) by brainstorming various ideas?
- A list of resources, information or assistance that will help you achieve the goal?

V. IMPLEMENT:

- The solution for a specific time period and evaluate the effectiveness of the solution?
- If necessary select and implement another alternative?

PARAEDUCATOR COMMUNICATION AND SOCIAL SKILLS INVENTORY*

This is not a test. This is a tool you can use to rate your ability to communicate/interact with co-workers, students, parents, and other people you come into contact with on-the-job. It is designed to help you assess your social skills, your ability to express your feelings, and to help you identify skills you would like to improve. Circle the number to the right of each item which best describes how well you use a specific skill. When you have completed the inventory, review the various skills and think about those you feel are important to the way you perform your job. Choose three that you would like to improve and make a list of ways you can change these behaviors.

	Fair		Average		Excellent
1. Active listening	1	2	3	4	5
2. Starting a conversation	1	2	3	4	5
3. Asking for a favor	1	2	3	4	5
4. Giving a compliment	1	2	3	4	5
5. Accepting a compliment	1	2	3	4	5
6. Accepting criticism	1	2	3	4	5
7. Giving criticism	1	2	3	4	5
8. Apologizing	1	2	3	4	5
9. Giving instructions	1	2	3	4	5
10. Following instructions	1	2	3	4	5
11. Expressing your feelings	1	2	3	4	5

*Adapted from: *"A teacher self-assessment inventory"* developed by Linda Thurston, Associate Professor - Special Education, College of Education, Kansas State University, Manhattan.

(continued)

PARAEDUCATOR COMMUNICATION AND SOCIAL SKILLS INVENTORY cont.

	Fair		Average		Excellent
12. Handling anger	1	2	3	4	5
13. Dealing with conflict	1	2	3	4	5
14. Problem solving	1	2	3	4	5
15. Standing up for your rights	1	2	3	4	5
16. Stating what you want	1	2	3	4	5
17. Stating an unpopular opinion	1	2	3	4	5
18. Saying no	1	2	3	4	5
19. Having a positive attitude	1	2	3	4	5
20. Asking questions	1	2	3	4	5
21. Completing tasks	1	2	3	4	5
22. Dealing with resistance	1	2	3	4	5

USING "I MESSAGES"

INSTRUCTIONS: Read each of the scenarios described below and write an "I Message" you think would be an appropriate way for a student or an adult to react to the situation. Be sure to include 1) the feeling ("I feel..."), 2) the situation ("when...") and 3) the reason ("because...").

1. Joey was punished for talking out loud. He feels strongly that he was unfairly singled out and that the other students who were talking were not punished.

2. Gloria pinches and hurts Leah when the teacher and paraeducator are not aware of it. When Leah responds by hitting Gloria and has to stay after school, she throws a tantrum.

3. To Javier, it seems like Ms. Chavez, the paraeducator, pays more attention to his best friend Jerome than she does to him.

4. Kay has learned that her best friend Juanita talks about her behind her back.

5. Your spouse likes action movies; you like romantic comedies. You go to see "his" movies, but he says yours are silly.

6. Ali knows that Melinda uses a "crib sheet" when they take tests. They nearly always get the same grades.

7. Joe Pat's friend Chan has been asked to a party and he has not.

8. Carrie's parents have grounded her for a month because she did not complete her assigned chores. This means she cannot go to the prom. She feels this is grossly unfair.

9. Claudia refuses to follow directions from the paraeducator.

10. John frequently borrows money from Teresa, but will not loan her money when she needs it.

11. Pico has missed three weeks of school. She is upset because neither the instructional team nor students recognize that she is back or ask where she has been.

12. The teacher never does any of the housekeeping chores in the classroom.

SITUATION 1

Mr. Franklin, the principal of a school where Sally Warren is an instructional paraeducator, believes that he has put together a terrific staff who know each other, are interested in one another, and like one another. To enhance the esprit de corps he uses the loud speaker system to communicate to the staff all the latest news about them: who is going to take another job, who has received a new degree, who has contributed a good idea about improving the school. He begins this process by welcoming and introducing the new professional staff to the school at the beginning of the year so that a feeling of "togetherness" can be initiated and maintained. However, Mr. Franklin never acknowledges anyone other than teachers; not the custodians, not the cafeteria workers and not the instructional paraeducators. Nor are the paraeducators or other support staff asked to participate in the school based management meetings—even though decisions are made that impact on their work. To make matters worse, the paraeducators do not have assigned mail boxes. Therefore they never receive announcements from the district about training or other resources available to paraeducators.

Sally has been at the school for six years. She is discussing Mr. Franklin's concept of communication with Joan Mitchell, the teacher she has been working with for the last three years. Joan is surprised to learn how upset Sally is and that she is thinking about marching into Mr. Franklin's office to let him have it. Role play the situation.

SITUATION 2

Felix is seven years old. He has seizures at least twice every day in the classroom. Gene Wong, the teacher, notices that Arlene Thompson, the paraeducator, seems reluctant to assist Felix when the seizures occur. In fact, Ms. Thompson ignores him most of the time.

Mr. Thompson decides he needs to discuss the situation with Ms. Wong. At the beginning of the meeting, Ms. Wong announces that she likes most of the children but for some reason she just does not like Felix and finds it difficult to work with him. Role play the meeting.

SITUATION 3

Joan Curry has worked as a paraeducator for 22 years. She started out working as a playground and lunchroom monitor and for the last 15 years has worked as an instructional assistant in special education programs. She has seen teachers come and go. She is well liked by the students, teachers and other staff members.

This year she has been assigned to work with Gale Brewer, a new teacher. Things have not gone well between the two of them. The tasks Gale has assigned to Joan include supervising recess, setting up learning centers, and making bulletin boards. Joan feels that she is not appreciated and has started to complain to the rest of the staff about Gale.

This is Gale's first job. While she was in college she was not prepared to supervise or work with another adult in the class, let alone someone who is old enough to be her mother with more than 20 years experience. She really feels that as the teacher she is responsible for and will be held accountable for everything that goes on in the class—the good and the bad. That is why after thinking it over, she has decided that it is important to establish herself as the person who is in charge of the class. It is not always easy because Joan is always making suggestions and telling her how other teachers do things. In fact, Joan can be a little intimidating. Now other teachers have started to tell her how lucky she is to have Joan work with her. Role play a meeting between the two of them.

SITUATION 4

Clara Martinez is a paraeducator in a preschool class that serves young children ages 3-5 with and without disabilities. She has worked in Head Start programs for several years, is the mother of a son who has mental retardation, and speaks Spanish fluently. She was recruited by the principal to work in the class because of her understanding of the needs of children with disabilities and because several Hispanic children with special needs are enrolled in the class. In addition to the teacher there are two other paraeducators assigned to the class.

The teacher, Trudy Baker, has a Master's in Early Childhood Education but has never taught students who have disabilities. Despite Clara's understanding of the needs of students with special needs, Ms. Baker seems to rely on Josie and Caroline and ignore Clara's skills. The three of them have worked as a team for four years and are very close. In fact, it seems they can almost read each other's minds. The two other paraeducators take their lunch breaks together and frequently come back late. Role play a meeting among the team.

SITUATION 5

Georgette Brown is a new paraeducator in a high school industrial arts class. She has been a Girl Scout Leader and been active in the PTA. She and her husband are renovating their house so she has developed some good carpentry skills. When she started her job, the principal told her about the full inclusion program for students with disabilities they were starting in the school. When Georgette expressed concern about her ability to work with students with disabilities, she was told not to worry, that Mr. Dobson, the teacher she would be working with, would explain what he wanted her to do. This has never happened. In fact, most of the communication between them takes place in the class in front of the students, and Georgette feels this is undermining her ability to work with the students and maintain control of the class when Mr. Dobson must leave the room.

Ken Dobson is the teacher. This year for the first time since he started teaching 12 years ago he has been assigned an instructional paraeducator to assist him. This was done because of the district's decision to fully integrate students with disabilities into general education. Ken likes the challenge of working with students with disabilities, but he is not so sure that he likes working with another adult. Indeed, because he is very busy with extra curricular duties and working on a graduate degree, he does not have time to meet with her regularly. He is a loner who has his own ways of doing things, and feels Georgette does not always follow his lead. Things are not going well in the class, and Georgette seems to be having trouble with some of the students with challenging behavior. Role play a meeting between Ken and Georgette.

SITUATION 6

Barbara Sturm, has been working as a paraeducator for three years. For the first two years she worked with the same teacher in a special education class serving students with severe disabilities. This year she has been assigned to facilitate the inclusion of Liza McNees into a general education 4th grade class. She is now working with three teachers: Mildred McNair, the special education teacher she has worked with for the last two years; Jim O'Connor, a physical education teacher; and Virginia Thompson, the fourth grade teacher.

Each of the teachers has a different teaching style and attitude about discipline, behavior management, and classroom management. Things are going fairly well in the P.E. class. Mr. O'Connor has assigned a buddy to assist Liza with warm-up activities and make sure she follows the rules when they are playing games. Barbara is worried because she thinks Mr. O'Connor may be encouraging Liza to do more than she is capable of, especially in gymnastics. Barbara is concerned about it because as she thinks she is responsible for Liza's safety. When she tries to discuss it with Mr. O'Connor, he laughs and tells her she is too serious and not to be a "Nervous Nelly."

Virginia Thompson is very pleasant, but never asks Barbara to share ideas about how best to work with Liza. In addition, she does not always follow Liza's instructional program the way it was designed by Mildred, and seems to resent it if Barbara makes suggestions. She has started to ask Barbara to work with some of the other students, and Barbara is not sure that is proper since Liza's IEP plainly states that Barbara is supposed to tutor her and does not mention any other students.

Mildred has always been very supportive of Barbara. Now when Barbara tries to share her concerns with her about how things are going in the P.E. program and the 4th grade class, she becomes very impatient and says there is nothing she can do since it is up to the other teachers to decide what happens in their class.

Barbara has become very frustrated because no one listens to her. She has asked for a meeting to see if she can clarify things. Role play the meeting.

SITUATION 7

Jonelle Smith has been teaching language arts and literature in a middle school for six years. During that time two things have happened that have caused the school district to employ paraeducators. The first is the increasing numbers of Cambodian immigrants who have moved into the community. The second is related to a decision to include students with disabilities in general education programs. As a result, Leah Pran has been employed to assist Jonelle. Leah is not only fluent in two Cambodian dialects, she is also a leader in the growing Cambodian community. While Leah spends most of her time with Cambodian students who have limited English, she also works with students who have learning disabilities.

Jonelle is pleased that Leah is working in her classroom. Since neither of them has ever worked with students who are diagnosed as having severe learning disabilities, a special education teacher, Dimitri Nureyev, is also part of the team. While he works directly with students from time to time, he is primarily available to consult with Jonelle and Leah.

At the beginning of the year the three team members met together to discuss the goals for the entire class and the objectives for individual students. Both Jonelle and Dimitri encouraged Leah to share information about Cambodian culture and values they could then build on to develop activities and curriculum content for students with limited English. Dimitri provided information about instructional strategies and behavior management techniques they could use to work with the students with learning disabilities. As a team, they also decided that it would be helpful if Jonelle incorporated notes in her lesson plans for Leah to indicate how methods and content could be modified to accommodate needs of individual students. They also agreed that while no time seemed to be available for all three of them to meet regularly, they could find time for informal chats and they would keep a joint log book with specific questions and requests for information

and insight. Jonelle emphasized that she wanted Leah to discuss ideas she had for working with the students.

The team seemed to be off to a good start. They spoke to each other when they could and communicated regularly through the log book.

Lately however, Jonelle has begun to notice that the parents of the Cambodian students seem to feel more comfortable speaking with Leah than with her. And while Jonelle has no problem sharing many activities and tasks with Leah, she believes that communicating with parents is the responsibility of the teacher and no one else.

Jonelle is really concerned about how to deal with her concerns. First, she is aware of Leah's position as a community leader. Second and of even greater importance, she is afraid she will hurt Leah's feelings if she asks her not to speak to the parents about their children or what goes on in the classroom unless she is present. And third, while district policy says that it is the responsibility of the teacher to involve parents in all aspects of their students' education, she is not sure Leah is aware of this.

Leah is also becoming concerned because her relationship with Jonelle seems to be changing. Until now Jonelle has always been warm and friendly and eager to share ideas and information with Leah. Now there are times when she is stand-offish or she snaps at Leah for no good reason.

Leah has mentioned her concerns to Dimitri. He suggests she speak directly to Jonelle. But Leah is afraid that if she says anything she will turn Jonelle off even more. Role play the situation.

SITUATION 8

Betty Smithers works in an inclusive classroom serving students with and without disabilities. Some of the children are not toilet-trained and wear diapers. Betty has been told by the teacher, Susan Lerman, that it is the responsibility of the paraeducators to change the diapers. Betty's friend Ruth works in another classroom where the students have similar needs. However, the teacher in that classroom takes turns with Ruth and other paraeducators in changing diapers. Betty has tried speaking to Ms. Lerman about how she feels about always having to do the "dirty work" and has pointed out how another teacher deals with the problem. Susan's response is, "She has her way of doing things and I have my way." Betty is becoming frustrated and angry and has started to complain to other paraeducators. Susan is also becoming upset because she feels Betty is going behind her back and complaining to other people. The principal has called Betty and Susan to her office to discuss the problem. Role play the situation.

SITUATION 9

Martha Adams is a transition trainer assigned to work with a student placed as a part time employee in a mailroom in a large corporation. Mickey, the student, gets to work on time and performs most of his assignments without assistance. However, he does not stay on task, constantly asks unrelated questions, and has other disruptive behaviors.

Mr. Jones, the supervisor at the work site, feels that unless these behaviors change he will have to let Mickey go. Indeed, he is thinking about ending the participation of his company in the program altogether. Mickey is the third student to work in "his mailroom," and in general he feels it is more trouble than it is worth.

Martha has scheduled a meeting with Ruth Lowe, her supervising teacher, to discuss the problem. Mr. Jones has agreed to attend but he is fairly certain that it will not help. Role play the meeting.

A PROBLEM SOLVING EXERCISE

1. Describe the problem from the paraeducator's point of view.

2. Describe the problem from the teacher's (or the other person's) point of view.

3. What behavior or attitude does the teacher or other person need to change?

4. What behavior or attitude does the paraeducator need to change?

5. Discuss and list ways they can work together to change the situation.

MODULE II

PHILOSOPHY OF DIFFERENCE

OVERVIEW

A public school classroom in the schools of the 90s may well include children or youth from several countries, children and youth of varying colors, cultural heritages, economic backgrounds, and children and youth with or without disabilities. The challenge to instructional personnel is to encourage each individual to enjoy his/her unique difference and to help each person participate fully in all activities. To the busy paraeducator, this may sometimes seem a huge task but the overall educational goal for all children and youth is to achieve their visions, using their own capabilities. Instructional personnel strengthen capabilities through instruction and work toward increasing individuals' self-esteem and autonomy so that individuals may work toward their goals.

Since the first generation of school desegregation during the 1950's we have been involved in a process of creating multicultural curricula and more inclusive learning environments. Race, gender, class bias, and cultural pluralism are important concerns for public education and relevant to curriculum content as we approach the 21st century. The civil rights movement of the 1960's brought about legislation that helped to protect the rights of ethnic people of color so that concepts of cultural pluralism were more than just ideas. Out of these laws came multicultural education in the public schools. In 1975, parents, educators and other advocates also achieved their goal of passing P.L. 94-142, the landmark Education for all Handicapped Children. Reauthorized in 1990, it was retitled the Individuals with the Disabilities Education Act (I.D.E.A).

Schools are required to use curricula that are sensitive to the diversity of students and that socialize children and youth into a culture is racially and ethnically diverse and equitable. The curricula must also provide learner centered, individualized education and related services for students with a multitude of ability levels, learning styles/preferences and other needs.

The Multicultural Education approach is based on two ideals: equal opportunity and cultural pluralism (Grant & Sleeter, 1989). ***Equal opportunity*** means that each student should be given equal opportunity to learn, succeed and become what he or she would like, regardless of race, sex, social-class or disability. For example, a Latina does not have equal opportunity to learn when the role of Mexican-American women in political history is left out of the curriculum. ***Cultural Pluralism*** refers to a shared mainstream American culture in which different ethnic groups maintain their family and cultural identity, customs, and beliefs while fully participating in American society. Grant & Sleeter identify four goals of the multicultural education approach (p.144):

1. To promote an understanding and appreciation of America's cultural diversity.
2. To promote alternative choices for people regardless of race, gender, disability, or

social-class background.

3. To help all children achieve academic success.

4. To promote awareness of social issues involving unequal distribution of power or opportunity.

Cultural pluralism is a process of compromising, mutual appreciation, and respect between ethnic groups. Cultural pluralism affirms that there is no one model American. Instead, society draws its strength from the uniqueness of each of its ethnic groups and individuals. The idea of the "melting pot" in which all cultures are to be melted together to form one, "American" culture that is superior to all others, is not consistent with the ideal of multiculturalism. The "melting pot" view supports assimilation, a process of "fitting in" to the dominant culture by eliminating cultural differences. The concept of the melting pot has never been a reality for ethnic minorities of color such as African, Hispanic, Native and Asian Americans, although many people believe it is true (McAdoo, 1993). Cultural pluralism, is a more realistic way to operate in a ethnically diverse society. Instead of a melting pot, a "stew" or "stir fry" may be more appropriate metaphors for conveying how when different ethnic groups come together, the total group becomes richer, but the integrity of the original groups is maintained. A stained glass window, tapestry or mosaic are other images that illustrate how people with many different customs, languages, and beliefs can live together in a rich and beautiful society. It is true that there are many kinds of us - we are:

- People of Asian descent,
- People of African descent,
- People who are Caucasian,
- People who are Native American,
- People whose primary language is English,
- People whose primary language is Spanish,
- People whose primary language is other than English or Spanish,
- People in one-parent families,
- People in two-parent families,
- People in extended families,
- People who are Jewish,
- People who are Catholic or Protestant,
- People who are Moslem,
- People who are men,
- People who are women,
- People who are young,
- People who are old,
- People with disabilities,
- People who have lived in one house all their lives,
- People who move yearly.

The list goes on and on. Each of us can probably identify with one or more of the categories listed above. If not, we can probably think of other descriptions that fit us more precisely. We are not alike - truly, we are a salad bowl - the mix is what makes our country great and exciting.

We have the opportunity to appreciate one another or to demonstrate our prejudices toward one another. It is important to teach children and youth to appreciate diversity and to be aware of and proud of their own unique identities. To do this each of us must be aware of the personal biases and prejudices we bring to the workplace. Because these attitudes are so deeply ingrained in us, it is very difficult for us to recognize them and to change the behaviors - whether subtle or overt - that are generated by them.

The goal of this module is to help participants to begin to explore their own value systems and attitudes toward people and to try to change the behaviors that may prevent students from appreciating differences in lifestyle, culture and value systems. Through an understanding of the "philosophy of difference" or the multicultural education approach, participants will be prepared to contribute to the creation of a learning environment in which individual differences are valued and the ideals of equity and cultural pluralism are promoted.

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

The paraeducator will be able to:

1) Describe and discuss differences in lifestyle, culture, values and distinctions in the abilities of children and youth in the classroom or program where they work.

2) Describe and discuss ways in which each child or youth makes positive contributions.

3) Develop strategies to increase self-esteem and autonomy in the children and youth they work with.

TIME REQUIRED TO COMPLETE THE TRAINING

This module will require approximately three hours to conduct.

EQUIPMENT AND MATERIALS REQUIRED

- A flipchart and easel, or a chalkboard.

BEFORE THE TRAINING SESSION

- Read the material in the module thoroughly. Compare the information with the other information you have read and with your own life experiences.

- Prepare a short lecture on the material which includes information about the cultural heritage, lifestyles and value systems of the families of the students represented in your community.

- Make copies of the Background Material, Information Handouts, and Exercises.

- Copy the three problems from the Individual Values section on Pages 2 and 3 in the Background

Materials on to a flipchart or chalkboard.

• Invite representatives of different ethnic and religious groups in your community to speak to the class about their rituals and beliefs that may have an impact on how children and youth learn and are educated.

DURING THE SESSION

❑ Begin the session with a brief lecture on differences in attitudes and approaches to assimilating cultures and/or maintaining cultural diversity. Use Transparency 1 - Multicultural Education, as a guide for a discussion that involves all participants. Encourage the participants to share their feelings about cultural pluralism.

❑ After a brief discussion of the distinctions in the "melting pot" and "salad bowl" theories divide the participants into groups of 3 or 4. Distribute Exercise 1 *Melting Pot or Salad Bowl*. Review the instructions and allow about 15 minutes for the groups to complete this activity. As the various groups report their decisions, allow time for questions and concerns that arise as a result of this activity. Use the answer sheet for Exercise 1 as a resource for facilitating discussion and increasing understanding of the need to appreciate and value cultural diversity. Bring this activity to a close by asking: How did this activity make you feel about your knowledge of other cultures?

❑ Distribute Information Handouts #1 & #2, to serve as resources for participants to use during the next activity. Deliver a brief lecture on barriers to cross-cultural communication and strategies for strengthening self-esteem and autonomy among all students. Assign paraeducators to work as teams to: 1) Identify six ways in which children or youth could be recognized for their positive contributions, 2) Identify five ways the classroom environments could be changed to validate cultural diversity, and 3) List ten things paraeducators could learn from children in their classroom about cultural diversity.

❑ Talk with the class about the value and need to understand and appreciate the diversity in the cultural heritage, lifestyle, and value systems of the children, youth and families paraeducators work with. When you reach the values problems, take them one at a time. Read them aloud from the flipchart and encourage trainees to respond to each.

❑ There are four additional exercises included with this module. It is suggested that you use them all but you should decide when, and in what order you want to use them.

❑ Try to help each trainee understand that differences often are what make people interesting. Rather than being ignored, they usually should be highlighted.

❑ Discuss with trainees the strategy of honoring one child per day. By the end of the session, each trainee should have an idea of how children and youth can be reinforced for positive contributions.

❑ If you sense that trainees are resisting and falling into the trap of criticism of children and youth, start a discussion of positive contributions and suggest that there really is no way criticisms and lists of weaknesses are helpful.

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PHILOSOPHY OF DIVERSITY

ETHNIC SENSITIVITY. Becoming ethnically sensitive means that we are aware of the various origins, languages, religions and other aspects of culture that make up the lifestyle of children and their families. Different cultures view relationships between parent and child, husband and wife, brother and sister, and children and grandparent differently based on traditions and values that have been passed down for centuries. Becoming ethnically sensitive does not mean that we view members of a certain group as having uniform, fixed characteristics and treating all members of the group according to that description. Sometimes we can do more harm than good by treating a child as if he or she fits a checklist of cultural traits. This approach ignores individual differences and differences within cultural groups.

Likewise, as educators we may believe that all people are basically alike and it is our job to treat all students equally. How can we pay attention to ethnic differences when we've been trained to recognize the uniqueness of each child? Some of us, particularly those who live and work in parts of the country that are culturally diverse, may feel that we already have developed cultural sensitivity and that it is not necessary to be "trained" in this area. Studying cultural differences may cause discomfort because we are cautious about labeling and stereotyping.

SELF-AWARENESS. There is one prerequisite for learning about and understanding other cultures: know your own! Understanding your own ethnicity is a great way to achieve an appreciation for how culture affects the way we think, feel, value, and interact with others every day. Self-awareness means being willing and able to examine one's own ethnicity, attitudes, and actions. Those who are secure with their own ethnic identities can respond openly to persons who are from ethnic backgrounds different from their own.

Our ethnic identify is emotionally-charged. In some ways, we are proud to be identified with our group; in other ways, we might feel embarrassed or defensive. Those who have experienced prejudice and discrimination, may associate negative feelings with their ethnic identity. Gaining ethnic sensitivity means abandoning the ***ethnocentric*** view that one's own groups' values are more right or true than those of others. When we no longer need to convince others of our values or give in to theirs, we have achieved a ***multi-ethnic*** perspective.

In order to gain this multiethnic perspective, group differences are observed and studied. How do groups differ in their response to conflict, their preference for informal or formal style in dealing with strangers, or expressing feelings? Since we cannot become cultural anthropologists, we are limited to understanding the groups who are represented in our communities and in our classrooms. Even by understanding a few groups, we gain an appreciation for the cultural relativity of all values.

During this training, descriptions of characteristics of different ethnic groups are used solely for the purpose of illustrating that differences exist. Of course, all generalizations are at best only partial truths. As the class looks at ethnic differences it is important to remember the goal--***respecting and***

valuing all groups--and honoring the uniqueness of individuals within groups. By setting aside our fears about appearing to stereotype or to be racists, we free ourselves to become culturally sensitive.

This type of training is markedly different from oppressive forms of discriminatory behavior which use exaggerations about different ethnic groups as put-downs. The key is knowing the differences between becoming aware of honored ethnic traditions and labeling for destructive purposes.

DIVERSITY WITHIN GROUPS. Although people from a certain ethnic group may share similar values and lifestyles, there is certainly diversity within ethnic groups. Individuals from the same background may be quite different depending on how long their family has been in this country, what age they were when they arrived, or if they were born here. Some come from various national or geographical groups that share historical roots but those roots diversified over the course of history. For example, U.S. citizens of Anglo origin and those from Great Britain have very different customs, accents, and values. This is true of Hispanics and Asians from different parts of the world as well.

DIFFERENCES. When Larry's mother and father were divorced, Larry was actually glad because it meant that he wouldn't have to listen to them argue any more. But, when he wanted to join the Boy Scouts, he was embarrassed when he learned that he could not do so unless his father was prepared to carry out activities with him. Since his father had moved to another part of the city, this wasn't possible, and Larry had to miss out on the Scout experience.

Clarence's teacher indicated that she had signed up his entire class to take Cardio-Pulmonary Resuscitation instruction as part of the requirements of their Health Class. Clarence could not find a way to tell her that his family did not believe in providing CPR to people who might be dying. They believe that when it is time to die, it is time, and no one should intervene.

It is nearing the end of the school year, and decisions are being made about which student should receive a scholarship available in the district for the senior who has an outstanding record of achievement in academics, contribution to the school and community, and participation in sports. Two students are almost equal in terms of qualifying for the award, with one exception - Jonathan has a slightly lower grade point average than Lorraine. Several faculty members have decided that even so he should receive the scholarship, because Lorraine is pregnant and may not perform well in college - or may never even make it that far.

Parker overheard a discussion between two teachers. One of them said, "Poor Parker, it's too bad he has to live with his grandmother; she is so much older than the parents of the other children and just doesn't seem to fit in." Parker loves his grandmother and is proud of her, but this remark made him wonder if there was something wrong with him.

None of the above should have happened. Although they may seem to be examples of pure bigotry and prejudice, it may well be that, instead, they are just examples of people who don't think and

who are not sensitive to the culture, the lifestyle and the values of the people around them.

But, still the incidents happen. And they occur because people are not sensitive to the cultural heritage, lifestyles, and value systems of others. This lack of sensitivity results in racism, sexism, handicapism that may stop children and youth who have even less reason than others to want to be a part of the mainstream from achieving full participation in the community.

When incidents like those above occur, they not only take away from the individual child, they take away from the class as a whole. Because one child and his/her unique characteristics are ignored or abused, none of the rest of the children or youth or staff have the opportunity to enjoy them either. And so, the whole group of individuals are the poorer.

INDIVIDUAL VALUES. Think about your values system. What are the characteristics of your family that are important? On which questions are there only one answer? Which points are debatable? For instance:

Your daughter has just had surgery. Both you and your spouse work and are covered by a family insurance plan. Do you 1) submit all bills to both plans for reimbursement; 2) submit the bills to one plan; 3) choose one policy to provide the primary coverage and the other plan to pay expenses not paid by the primary policy?

Your grandfather has just died. Your mother calls you at college to tell you. You are studying for a big exam. You tell your mother, 1) "I'll make arrangements and be right home." or 2) "I'm studying for an exam; I don't think I can make it before the day of the funeral." or 3) "I can't come home right now. There is too much studying to do here."

When your grandfather's will is read, you discover that he has left you $20,000. What do you do? 1) Immediately put the money into investments, thinking that you will need it at a later date for a down payment on a house or some other big purchase? 2) Immediately start planning for the trip of a lifetime? or 3) Settle up your present bills?

Although each of the above incidents may appear to have only one valid response, there are, in fact, the possibilities of at least three choices on each, and members of the class may feel strongly about their choice. Actually, individual responses represent the values that we hold.

Values are developed over the course of a lifetime and they come from a variety of different directions. We may learn them from parents, from religious affiliations, school, friends, reading materials or a host of other sources. However they are learned, they have become a part of us and are important to each of us in our own way.

Recognizing the values of others is an important piece of recognizing the individuality of each person. In order to do so, you must be aware that the values system of another person is uniquely that person's; attempts to ignore it or to make changes will probably meet with failure.

It is necessary for paraeducators to realize that when they prepare lessons, there may be times when a skill that they are teaching is not one that the child feels a need to learn. It is important to anticipate that this might happen, and, in so doing, be ready to alter lessons as needed. For example, a teacher of home economics who plans cooking lessons which prepares all foods from scratch, may find several disinterested students who happen to live in homes where mixes and microwave ovens have made preparation easier and have placed a lower priority on cooking for oneself.

STRATEGIES AND TECHNIQUES. When the United States was viewed as a "melting pot," it seemed easy to work with individual students because the common understanding was that each was (or would become) very like the other. The language was English; a course and teaching strategies could be seen as applying equally to all students. For example, the way to learn the multiplication tables was to stand in front of the class and repeat them until you got them right. Now, most instructional personnel feel it is important to learn multiplication in a functional way. How will it be helpful to an individual person? (Who can always use a calculator to find the "right" answers?)

When we begin to appreciate the diversity of students and strive to help all students appreciate themselves and their contributions a number of teaching strategies may be helpful. Instead of encouraging students to compete against one another (the "old" way - remember "spelling bees"), students should be encouraged to increase their own skills - for the pleasure and reward of doing so. The reward is always increasing capabilities in participating in the community.

One teacher assigned one school day for each person in her class. At the beginning of the day, she asked the specific child to lie down on a large sheet of butcher paper. She traced the outline of the child on the paper and hung it on the wall. She then asked the whole class to provide descriptions for the child: - "Nice," "Smart," "Spanish," "Cute," "Strong," and so on, and so on. Throughout the day, the child was honored by the teacher and other class members.

Other strategies are to assist a child or youth to learn skills using whatever adaptations or accommodations are necessary. For example, a small hand-held calculator assists those who have trouble with numbers; braille books assist those who do not see to read; dictionaries assist those who do not speak English well; widened doorways assist those who use wheelchairs to gain access to every part of a building, or electric switches assist those who cannot manipulate things in their environment very well. Once instructional personnel understand that most people use some sort of accommodations (eye glasses, for example) and adaptations (easy-access cupboards), it becomes easier to develop them in the classroom. It is true that many children and youth with special needs profit enormously from accommodations and adaptations, but it is equally true that most people make them unconsciously - and all of us use them.

Other differences can be ignored - and usually were in the days of the "melting pot." The responsibility of personnel in today's schools is to recognize and appreciate the differences in all of us. There is no "right" or better cultural heritage, no "right" or better religion, no "right" or better ethnic background nor any "right" or better life-style. Often, people are devalued because of one

or more person's beliefs in rightness or betterness. Once an individual ceases to believe in "rightness" and begins to believe that we are all different but equal as human beings, many opportunities emerge to celebrate the differences. As we do so, we assist each child or youth to grow in self-esteem and to increase his/her personal autonomy.

Perhaps two of the most oppressive forms of discriminatory behavior that confront us are stereotyping and labeling people.

STEREOTYPING. That is thinking in cliches and lumping people in groups. It is not true that "all Irishmen are the same" or "blondes have more fun," or "all fat people have a great sense of humor," or "people with mental retardation cannot learn." In fact, any phrase that lumps people together probably is not true.

LABELING. It is probably unnecessary to remind people that labels are not good - but sometimes each of us can fall into labeling. It is important to use "People First Language." The way we say things may create prejudice toward other people. For example by referring to "the retarded," "the disabled," "handicapped access," rather than to people who have disabilities we create situations where people are seen only as members of a group where the color of a person's skin, their lifestyle or a disability is more important than other characteristics that recognize the contributions everyone makes to their family, school and community.

In sum, understanding and appreciating the diversity in the cultures, lifestyles and other characteristics of all people helps the instructional team to shape and refine lessons and instructional methods in ways that will reinforce the value of the children and youth they work with. By avoiding the labeling of individuals the team will encourage the development of self-esteem in all children and youth. And by assisting - not doing for; encouraging - not requiring; demonstrating empathy - not sympathy; respecting - not being paternalistic; the team will foster the development of self-esteem and autonomy.

INCREASING SELF-ESTEEM AND AUTONOMY *

The following guidelines are useful to instructional personnel committed to assisting children and youth to build self-esteem and increase self-reliance and autonomy.

- Every person is unique. There will never be another person exactly like this individual.

- While a difference itself may loom large in the life of an individual, it is not the major factor in the person's life. Much more important are the student's personality, talents, and special interests.

- Every person makes positive contributions to his/her family and to significant others in his/her life. These should be recognized and rewarded on a daily basis.

*Source: *A Core Curriculum and Instructional Program to Prepare Paraeducators to Work in Inclusive Classrooms for School Age Students,* (1993). New York: NRC for Paraprofessionals, CASE/CUNY.

(continued)

INCREASING SELF-ESTEEM AND AUTONOMY

- Good self-esteem is the result of the individual's understanding of his/her positive contributions and capabilities. On days when the person may find it difficult to recognize either, the paraeducator can help by pointing out positive characteristics.

- Autonomy, or the capability of directing one's own life, develops in early childhood and continues through adulthood. It is strengthened when individuals are encouraged to make choices and to act on the strength of their knowledge and convictions.

- The ability to achieve full participation in community life is the result of opportunities to try new things and to succeed or fail with the support of family and educational staff.

INCREASING SELF-ESTEEM AND AUTONOMY

The following guidelines are useful to instructional personnel committed to assisting children and youth to build self-esteem and increase self-reliance and autonomy.

- Every person is unique. There will never be another person exactly like this individual.

- While a disabilty itself may loom large in the life of an individual, it is not the major factor in the person's life. Much more important are the student's personality, talents, special interests.

- Every person makes positive contributions to his/her family and to significant others in his/her life. These should be recognized and rewarded on a daily basis.

- Good self-esteem is the result of the individual's understanding of his/her positive contributions and capabilities. On days when the person may find it difficult to recognize either, the paraeducator can help by pointing out positive characteristics.

- Autonomy, or the capability of directing one's own life, develops in early childhood and continues through adulthood. It is strengthened when individuals are encouraged to make choices and to act on the strength of their knowledge and convictions.

- The ability to achieve full participation in community life is the result of opportunities to try new things and to succeed or fail with the support of family and educational staff.

METHODS FOR ASSISTING CHILDREN AND YOUTH ACHIEVE PERSONAL GOALS

The following strategies will enable instructional personal and family members to assist any child or youth to accomplish the tasks and acquire the skills to achieve his/her goals:

- Allow ample time for tasks to be completed so that the child or youth does not feel rushed and inadequate because time is short.

- Identify places where assistive technology can be used to make a task easier to accomplish. This category includes communication boards, switches, jigs and any other device that will simplify or shortcut the task.

- Recognize the successes of the child or youth in a concrete manner. This may be done verbally or by keeping lists or by encouraging the individual to self-identify when s/he has accomplished a goal.

- Organize the education environment so that it is not just barrier-free, but so that it enhances the capabilities of each child or youth using it. This includes the placement of books and materials so that they are reachable and usable, finding furniture that is sturdy and easily accessible, and providing educational materials appropriate to the individual.

- Encourage the child or youth to set goals and to dream of the future in terms of work opportunities, travel aims, and living expectations.

- Assist the child or youth to find models with whom s/he can identify. For example, Steven Hawking, the world's greatest astronomer, uses a wheelchair and speaks via a communication device; Einstein worked out the theory of relativity; the world's system of numbers was begun by Arabs; Barbara Mikulski and Carol Mosely Braun are United States Senators.

- Let children and youth know that it is not necessary to be outstanding in order to be successful. Achieving full participation in the community while learning, living and playing can be accomplished by each person in his/her own way.

MELTING POT VS. SALAD BOWL*

Read the statements below, study them and discuss each one with the members of your group. If your group decides that the example reflects the melting pot point of view as presented in the video, place "MP" (melting pot) in the space provided. If it reflects the salad bowl point of view, place "SB" (salad bowl) in the space provided. Be prepared to report and discuss your answers with the entire class.

Example:

_____ 1. Giving up one's original culture to adopt one which is dominant and preferred.

_____ 2. Developing an acceptance of one's own ethnicity, while learning to embrace the general mainstream culture.

_____ 3. Recognizing the importance of helping individuals to operate successfully in their own culture, across cultures and in the main stream culture of America.

_____ 4. Insisting that individuals only learn to operate in the main stream culture of America.

_____ 5. Believing that cultural difference is bizarre.

_____ 6. Suppressing the culture and contributions of non-dominant, culturally different groups.

_____ 7. Respecting and valuing ethnic diversity.

_____ 8. Helping Native Americans by ridding them of their "indianness."

_____ 9. Providing instruction and curriculum materials entirely in English to students whose first languages is not English.

_____ 10. Respecting ethnic traditions, customs and holidays, but not choosing to experience them.

Source: Scott, B. (1992). *Multicultural education: an overview for practitioners.* San Antonio: Desegregation Assistance Center, South Central Collaborative.

(continued)

MELTING POT VS. SALAD BOWL

_____ 11. Viewing cultural diversity as a threat to social harmony and national unit.

_____ 12. Opening up every aspect of school life to respond to a range of diversity including race, color, language, gender, economics and culture.

_____ 13. Tolerating the coexistence and separation of students who are racially/culturally different, so long as they are not disruptive.

_____ 14. Structuring opportunities for previously isolated and/or hostile groups to come to know each other under conditions conducive to the development of positive intergroup relations.

_____ 15. Helping to make non-majority students more like their majority counterparts by imparting ways of behaving and value orientations so that non-majority students can take their place in the majority-dominated social structure.

1. Melting Pot – This is an assimilationist's point-of-view. Whether one does this by choice, or one is compelled to by the dominant group, it is a one-way process of giving up one's identity to adopt a new one.

2. Salad Bowl – This is a part of the process of developing cross-culture competence where an individual can operate successfully in at least two cultural/social environments. It is referred to by James Banks as "biethnicity."

3. Salad Bowl – This is cross-cultural competence at its highest level.

4. Melting Pot – It is a melting pot and assimilationist view if no importance is given to the acceptance of "non mainstream" cultures, or the fact that individuals very often operate in non "mainstream" cultural ways in their personal and private lives.

5. Melting Pot – This point of view historically was a driving force behind why it was important to "Americanize" everyone so that people would not stand out or be noticeably different.

6. Melting Pot – This kind of behavior is based upon a perception and belief that whatever is offered by the non-dominant culture is not significant, valuable, or desirable.

7. Salad Bowl – This could be viewed as a brief definition for cultural pluralism.

8. Melting Pot – Trying to rid any ethnically/culturally different group of their distinguishing cultural characteristics is suppression and assimilation in it most negative form.

9. Melting Pot – This practice is far too common. It is a business-as-usual approach that ignores the importance of language in the process of effective learning. It is also insensitive, pedagogically inappropriate and dysfunctional.

10. Salad Bowl – This is the choice an individual makes as he/she learns to embrace cultural pluralism. What is important is that the individual does not prevent those who choose to practice those traditions, customs and holidays from doing so. In fact, the individual respects the right of others to do so.

(continued)

11. Melting Pot – Fearing cultural difference is irrational and illogical. America was created and built by many different people coming together, contributing to the common welfare that support some of the most basic democratic principles.

12. Salad Bowl – When schools truly embrace cultural pluralism and multicultural education, this is exactly what they should do to provide equitable educational opportunity to all of their students.

13. Melting Pot – This notion of co-existence by being more tolerant in schools and society may be very damaging. It suggests that since people are different and probably will not learn to like living and working together, they should try at least to exist without harming one another. It also suggests that if an individual or group can not seem to fit in, or if it is not desirable for an individual or group to fit in, then one should tolerate their presence without interacting with them. All of these notions go against cultural pluralism and pluralistic integration.

14. Salad Bowl – This is the definition of pluralistic integration – a desirable goal in a culturally pluralistic school environment.

15. Melting Pot – This is the basic assimilationist's point-of-view. The goal is to make the "outsiders" more like the "insiders" so that there is no need to change the structures, organizational ways of thinking, acting, behaving and evaluating, or "the-way-we-do-things-here," since no one is different. The underlying implication is that, "Who we are and what we do is okay, and you are not. If you want to be okay, become like us." This type of thinking is in direct opposition to cultural pluralism, although that message is very often given to students who are racially, culturally, linguistically, socially and economically different. Based upon the circumstance, situation and setting, boys and girls also hear the "not okay" message.

EXERCISE #2

VALUES CLARIFICATION

DIRECTIONS: Make a list of values that might include: beliefs, rituals/celebrations, academic/career and other life goals, lifestyles, ethics, relationships to others, civil/human rights, economic/social status that are most important to you. (Do not limit yourself to the areas on this list.)

Complete this activity by answering the following questions about each item:

a) Is this something I truly prize/cherish?

b) Am I willing to publicly affirm/defend my choice, preference, belief?

c) Have I acted on the belief or value? Is it an important part of the way I lead my life?

d) Does it have an impact on the way I view the worth of other people and my ability to work with students who come from totally different backgrounds?

EXERCISE #3

DIRECTIONS: Working with other members of a small group, answer one of the questions below:

1) Identify one aspect of an individual cultural heritage and tell how it could be incorporated into a learning experience for the class or program where you work. Example: Czechoslovakians traditionally celebrate May Day by holding a Maypole Dance. Why would it be effective to develop a teaching sequence around this cultural difference?

2) Identify one aspect of an individual lifestyle and tell how its recognition could make a difference to an individual learner. Example: The reading books which feature Dick, Jane, Mother and Father do not reflect the experiences of children or youth from one-parent families. Nor do typical pictures reflect different ethnic backgrounds. This reduces the incentive to learn to read about them.

3) Identify an aspect of an individual value or belief system and tell how its recognition could make a difference to an individual learner. Example: Because Joe's family do not believe in television, he must leave the room when the teacher plans to use a videotape.

Be prepared to share the findings of your group with the rest of the class.

EXERCISE #4

DIRECTIONS: Working with a partner, suggest at least six ways in which the children or youth in your classroom could be recognized for their positive contributions (thus increasing their self-esteem). For example, what if you gave a child a gold star for a completed assignment?

EXERCISE #5

DIRECTIONS: Working with a partner, suggest five ways you could change the environment to make tasks simpler for children or youth in your classroom. (Remember - Tee Ball is an accommodation for some children.)

EXERCISE #6

DIRECTIONS: Celebrate Diversity. List below 10 things you could learn from children and youth in your classroom. (For example, drive a wheelchair (not easy) or learn Spanish or eat gefilte fish)

MODULE III

HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

OVERVIEW

How children, youth and adults develop and move from one stage of life to others has fascinated humankind since recorded time began. How do infants unable to speak become teenagers who spend most of their waking hours on the phone with their friends? How do babies unable to crawl or walk become adults who jog and run marathons? Myths and folklore exist in all cultures to explain physical, cognitive, social and emotional development, and in most, rituals mark the rites of passage from childhood to adulthood.

Over the years, several theories about development have evolved. Jean Piaget focused on how children develop cognitively. Erik Erikson centered on the stages of social and emotional development in children and adults. Arnold Gesell looked at patterns and phases of physical development in children. Lawrence Kohlburg was concerned with stages of moral development and how children and youth move from one level to another. Leo Vygotsky pursued research that resulted in a theory of language and cognitive development. More recently Howard Gardner has explored a concept of multi-intelligences based on connections between heredity, environment and culture. In this unit, the content and activities focus primarily on the work of Piaget, Gardner and Vygotsky.

The emphasis in this module is to provide paraeducators with an understanding of the flow and patterns of development in infants, toddlers, children, adolescents and adults. It is divided into two units. The first unit provides paraeducators with an overview of human development and typical sequences of development in infants, children and youth. In the second unit trainees learn about risk factors that may cause or impede typical development.

UNIT 1
PRINCIPLES OF HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

Paraeducators will:

1) Explain why typical development in all children and youth follows predictable patterns.

2) Explain what is meant by typical development in terms of: a) cognitive growth, b) physical/sensory growth, c) social/emotional growth, and d) language/communication development.

3) Discuss the typical physical, cognitive, emotional, and social changes which occur at different ages and stages of development.

4) Describe Piaget's theory of intellectual development.

5) Describe Gardner's seven intelligences.

6) Describe Vygotsky's theory of language and cognitive development.

TIME REQUIRED

The time needed to teach the material contained in this entire module will range from a minimum of two hours to six hours depending on the number of training activities you include in the session.

MATERIALS AND EQUIPMENT REQUIRED

- ❑ A flipchart and easel, chalkboard and/or an overhead projector.
- ❑ The Information Handouts and Exercises included after each unit.
- ❑ Items that will enable you to demonstrate Piaget's concept of concrete operations (e.g. bottles/containers of different shapes, blindfolds, candy bars of different sizes).

BEFORE THE TRAINING

- ❑ Review the Background Material and the content in the information handouts, and other resources available to you. The References and Resources section contains information about other resources you may want to consult. Develop a series of brief lectures for the various topics you will cover in this training session(s). Stress the importance of gaining an understanding of the principles and patterns of typical human development before learning about the factors that cause or impede "normal" development. Two of the lectures should focus on Piaget's and Gardner's theories of cognition. Based on your personal experiences and the content in the Background Information, Information Handouts and other resources, develop examples that demonstrate Piaget's stages of intellectual development and Gardner's seven intelligences.
- ❑ Make copies of the Informational Handouts, and Exercises you plan to use during the session.
- ❑ Write the terms "Cognitive Development," "Physical Development," "Social/Emotional Development," and "Language Development" on the flipchart/chalkboard to refer to during the session.

DURING THE TRAINING

- ❑ Begin the session by discussing the major principles of human development. Use Information Handouts 1 & 2, "Principles of Human Development" and "Terms Used in the Study of Human Development," as a guide for the discussion.

- ❑ If there is time during the training program, you may want to make a homework assignment asking participants to use Exercise #1 and: 1) observe two children of the same age between the ages of birth and five years, 2) record their observations on the Observation Form, 3) be prepared to discuss the results during the next class, or 4) prepare a written report for you to review.

- ❑ Divide the participants into small groups. Ask the individual groups to brainstorm (based on their personal experiences) and list typical characteristics of children and youth of different ages. Group 1 should be asked to discuss babies between the ages of 10 days and six months. Assign the following age spans to the remaining groups in the following order: 1) one to two years, 2) three to five years, 3) six to ten years, 4) eleven to twelve years, 5) thirteen to eighteen years, and 6) different phases of adulthood. Allow 15 to 20 minutes for the groups to complete their discussions. Ask for volunteers to read the lists and record the responses on the flipchart or chalkboard. (Participants enjoy this exercise because it enables them to demonstrate their knowledge of human development. Perhaps one of the most striking results of this activity for most participants is how "achieving independence" is the major theme throughout all states of development beginning at birth and continuing throughout our lives.)

- ❑ Refer to these lists throughout the discussions that follow of the various developmental stages. If necessary correct any misconceptions.

- ❑ Distribute Information Handout 3. Use them as a resource for discussing and reinforcing the developmental stages and patterns of behavior at various stages of life from birth through adulthood.

- ❑ Distribute Jean Piaget's theories of intellectual development and Howard Gardner's concept of multiple intelligences and Leo Vygotsky's theory of language and cognitive development. Discuss and use examples to demonstrate Piaget's four stages of intellectual development. Describe Gardner's theories of multiple intelligences. Give examples of instructional activities and curriculum modifications that will build on student strengths and cultural backgrounds.

- ❑ Distribute Exercise #2, "The MI Personal Inventory for Adults." The purpose of this inventory is to provide participants with a better understanding of Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences. It will also help them recognize differences in intelligence among children and youth, and it will help them to assess which of the intelligences they use in their daily lives, and to identify intelligence areas they may want to more fully develop.

DIRECTIONS FOR COMPLETING THE MI PERSONAL INVENTORY: Ask the participants to assign a 3 to any intelligence they use extensively, a 2 for moderate use, a 1 for infrequent use and a 0 if it is never used. The total for each intelligence can range from a high of 6 to a low of 0. Point out that there are 2 columns. The first addresses personal use, and the second column is for professional use.

After they complete the exercise ask the participants to reflect on the impact of their heritage, their culture, their environment, their physical abilities on the development of their intelligences and how were their intelligences were nurtured as a child, as an adult. Ask the participants to share the results with other members of the class.

❑ Divide the class into pairs. Ask some of the pairs to work together to brainstorm instructional strategies and curriculum activities the team might use to meet the needs of children and youth in different stages of Piaget's theory of intellectual development. Ask the remaining groups to develop different activities the team could utilize to strengthen one or more of Gardner's different intelligences.

REFERENCES AND RESOURCES

The material in this module provides an overview of typical child development and factors that may cause or delay development. The items in this section of the bibliography include the references mentioned in the Information Handouts in Unit 1 and other resources trainers can draw on to prepare paraeducators to work with infants and young children, elementary school age children and adolescents.

Anastasiow, N.J. (1986). *Development and disability.* Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes.

Armstrong, T. (1994). *Multiple intelligences in the classroom.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Campbell, L., Campbell, B. & Dickinson, D. (1996*). Learning through multiple intelligences.* Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Gardner H. (1993). *Multiple intelligences: The theory in practice.* New York: Basic Books.

Fewell, R. and Sexton, D. (1990*). Communication in young children with special needs.* Austin: Pro-Ed.

Handbook for the care of infants and toddlers with disabilities and chronic conditions. (1991). Developed by the FIRST START program, University of Colorado Health Sciences Center, School of Nursing. Available from Learner Managed Designs, Inc., Lawrence, Kansas 66041.

Krajicek, M.J., Steinke, G., Hertzert, D.L., Anastasiow, N.J. and Sandall, S. (1997). *First start program: handbook for the care of infants, toddlers, and young children with disabilities and chronic conditions.* Austin: Pro.Ed.

Pickett, A.L., Faison, K. & Formanek, J. (1993). *A core curriculum and instructional program to prepare paraeducators to work with school age students in inclusive classrooms.* New York: National Resource Center for Paraprofessionals, Center for Advanced Study in Education, City University of New York.

Vincent L., Davis, J., Brown, P., Broome, K., Funkhouser, K., Miller, J., and Gruenewald (1986). *Parent inventory of child development in non-school environments.* Developed by the Madison (Wisconsin) Metropolitan School District, Early Childhood Program, and Department of Rehabilitation Psychology and Special Education, University of Wisconsin, Madison.

Vigotsky, L.S. (1962) *Thought and language* (E. Hanfmann & G. Vakar, Trans.) Cambridge, MA: MIT Press

Vigotsky, L.S. (1978*) Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes* (M. Cole, V. John-Steinger, S. Scribner & E. Souberman, Eds. & Trans.) Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

ADVOCACY/RESOURCE ORGANIZATIONS

1. Autism Society of America, 7910 Woodmont Avenue, Suite 650, Bethesda, Maryland 20815.

2. Epilepsy Foundation of America, 4351 Garden City Drive, Landover, Maryland 20785.

3. United Cerebral Palsy Association of Penn Plaza, Suite 804, New York, NY 10001.

PRINCIPLES OF TYPICAL HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

INTRODUCTION. All infants, toddlers, young children, teenagers, and adults are individuals whose traits and characteristics make them unique. The question invariably arises, if children and youth are so distinct how can there be patterns of "normal" development? The answer is that although each of us develop in our own unique ways at our own pace we also pass through certain predictable stages.

STAGES OF DEVELOPMENT. Observations of infants, young children and youth forcefully demonstrate that everyone passes through predictable stages of cognitive, physical/sensory, social/emotional and language development. Because development is regular, patterned and predictable it is referred to as "normal" or typical. When children deviate from these "norms" they may require special services and individualized education programs.

Development is a step by step process. For example, learning to walk may involve as many as fifteen steps, beginning with pulling to a standing position and ending with walking without holding on. Most children progress through each step rather than skipping from Step 1 to Step 15. Because of these sequential patterns, determining a child's or youth's level of development is important so the child or youth can be assisted to reach the next step.

The terms "stages of development" and "characteristics of certain ages" are general. But to say the "average" four year old does certain things does not mean that every four year old acts in that manner. Individual development in physical, cognitive and social/emotional areas does not necessarily proceed evenly. One child (or adult) may be at a different chronological age for each area. It is likely, however, that the child (or youth) who is accelerated in one area will be advanced in other areas. Also the child who is delayed in one area often is delayed in other areas as well. (An obvious exception is a person who has a physical disability who might, therefore, be delayed in acquiring physical skills but is not delayed in social, cognitive or language development.)

A second important concept is that development generally proceeds from the concrete and simple to the abstract and complex. For example in cognitive development children first become aware of people, objects, or events. From there they progress to logical thinking and are able to sort things into categories, classes, order. The next step in the sequence is problem solving and developing rules and guidelines for coping with the environment and society in general.

Finally, the acquisition of language is unique to humans. Language fills important functions for us: it provides us with a means to communicate and socialize; it enables us

to transmit culture from generation to generation and it becomes a vehicle for expressing thought. Babies, regardless of where they are born, are capable of producing every sound used in all languages used on the earth. Infants' babbling encourages older persons to talk to them, thereby teaching infants the sounds used in their home environment. By six months of age, the sounds children make will be only those they hear, and all other sounds are not made or practiced. In this way, all humans learn to speak the language and the dialect that is spoken where they are raised. It is also important to note that children will understand language before they speak it.

MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES. Howard Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences has gained increased attention from educators who work with children and youth who come from multicultural heritages as well as those who have diverse learning styles and/or ability levels. He based his concept of multiple intelligence on his own research and a broad range of other research initiatives including concerned with heredity, cultural and environmental factors that influence development. Gardner believes that our society has defined intelligence too narrowly. Indeed he has broadened the definition of intelligence based on the traditionally recognized IQ scores. Gardner has identified at least seven intelligences. Moreover, he believes that all of us have demonstrated each of these intelligences to one degree or another. They include: logical-mathematical, linguistic, spatial, body/kinesthetic, musical/rhythmic, interpersonal, and intrapersonal.

For additional information see the Information Handouts for this unit that follow. They include: 1) Basic principles of human development, 2) Terms used in the study of human development, 3) Developmental stages and patterns of human development, 4) Piaget's theory of stages of development, and 5) Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences, and 6) Vygotsky's theory of language and cognitive development.

BASIC PRINCIPLES OF HUMAN DEVELOPMENT*

- Development in all people is similar. While every person is unique, development occurs in sequences that are predictable. For example, all babies sit alone before they walk.

- Development is an orderly process with stages (patterns) that can be predicted. Knowing the predictable sequences of behavior helps in recognizing typical ("normal"), delayed or accelerated patterns of behavioral change and growth enables educators to develop individualized programs.

- Development proceeds from the general to the specific. For example infants move their entire arm in a random manner before they can control their hands and fingers to pick up a toy.

- Development proceeds from the upper portions of the body toward the lower portions—from head to toe. This "cephalocaudal" development means that children gain control of their head and neck movements before they are ready to sit alone, or walk.

- Development proceeds from the center of the body to the outer body parts. This "proximaldistal" development means that children can hold a ball before they can tie their shoes.

- Development proceeds at different rates. In a person's developmental sequence, there are periods of accelerated growth and gradual growth. From birth to age five, a child's development is characterized by rapid physical growth; from 5 to 11, physical development slows down; during adolescence, there is rapid physical growth again.

- Development can proceed at different rates within an individual person. For example, a person may have delayed cognitive and language development and typical physical development.

- Physical, cognitive, social and emotional development are interrelated and affected by the interaction of heredity, culture, and environment. For example, a person with mental retardation may develop at different rates depending on whether or not s/he is reared in an institution or at home with access to early family intervention and education services.

*The information in this Handout was adapted from the various sources identified in the references and resources included in the bibliography for this unit.

TERMS USED IN THE STUDY OF HUMAN DEVELOPMENT*

COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT. The process of acquiring knowledge and information as a person interacts with the environment and culture. Cognitive development depends on growth inside the person (such as the development of curiosity and the desire to learn) as well as the impact of the outside environment.

COMMUNICATION. The transmission of messages from one person to another. It may be accomplished in myriad ways including eye contact, posture, facial expressions, gestures, writing, speech, and technological equipment.

DEVELOPMENT. The growth of the person in predictable patterns.

DEVELOPMENTAL DELAY. A term used to describe an observed difference in a person's actual growth and behavior and the typical growth and behavior expected of people of the same age.

EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT. The process in which the person acquires feelings about him/herself.

HUMAN DEVELOPMENT. A term used to refer to the study of a series of patterned and predictable changes that occur as a person grows and learns how to interact with the environment.

LANGUAGE. The organized system of symbols people in various societies use to communicate with one another. Language enables people to communicate and socialize, it enables us to transmit culture from generation to generation, and it is a vehicle for expressing thought and emotions. These symbols may be spoken, written, or signed.

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*The definitions in this list have been assembled from various sources that are identified in the references and resources included in the bibliography for this unit.

LEARNING. The acquisition of knowledge and skills as children and youths interact with their environments, teachers and caregivers. Learning is both receptive and expressive. Receptive learning is under the control of the learners who "take in" or assimilate information about their environments and experiences. Expressive language is strongly tied to reinforcement provided by the learner's environment. For example, a person may know the concept—but not use the word unless his/her environment encourages the use.

MATURATION. The growth of a person from within; the process of acquiring cognitive, social, emotional and language skills that increase with age.

NORMAL/TYPICAL. Averages or standards against which the behavior or development of a person is compared.

PHYSICAL/MOTOR DEVELOPMENT. The sequence or rate at which a person acquires motor skills and learns to control his or her body. It is characterized by changes seen in the external body and by unseen internal changes in the organs, muscles, blood, bones and nervous system.

SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT. The general process by which a person acquires the beliefs, skills, values, behavior patterns and other characteristics considered necessary for interacting with other humans in a particular society/culture.

SPEECH. The organized production of sounds to form words and word groups.

DEVELOPMENTAL STAGES AND PATTERNS OF BEHAVIOR*

The Age of Dependence - Birth to 24 Months*

This is the time of greatest growth in children. They go from being dependent on parents for food, movement and stimulation to being able to control these things themselves. By the end of this age, they can walk and climb alone, tell caregivers what they want, feed themselves, and entertain themselves for short periods of time. This is a time of self-centeredness and increasing independence. Children of this age are not selfish, rather they can only see the world from their own viewpoint and what they can do to manipulate it. The skills developed during this time are the foundation for all later development. The skills learned can be divided into three broad categories: interactions, communication and self-help.

INTERACTIONS. Interactions include all the skills children need in order to know how to act with family, friends and other people. Included are skills related to how to use toys and other objects in the environment. If children learn these skills, they can play appropriately alone as well as with others. Children need to use them at home, in school and in a wide variety of other places, e.g., grandma's house, the playground, the grocery store and the baby-sitter's house. The skills that help determine how children are able to interact are fine motor, gross motor, communication, cognitive and social skills.

COMMUNICATIONS. Communication includes all the skills necessary for children to understand the language used by the people around them as well as the skills necessary for children to use language themselves. Included are skills which are needed for talking and also for signing or using a picture communication system. Other skills involved in the area of communication are cognitive, interaction and motor areas of development. Sometimes a child will talk more in some situations than others. For example, many children will use more language at home than they will when they first start in a classroom. Often children will "clam up" around strangers or when requested to show that they know a word or phrase. Children need to have opportunities to use their language skills in new environments.

*Information in this handout was compiled from several sources, all identified in the references and resources in the bibliography for this module.

SELF-HELP. Self-help includes the skills necessary for children to feed, dress and bathe themselves. They are the skills that decrease a child's dependence on parents and caregivers and decrease the amount of time required for physical care giving. Skills from gross motor, fine motor and cognitive are all involved in performing self-help activities.

Age of Exploring - 24 to 36 Months

This age is one of many changes for a child. Children at the beginning (24 months) are very different when compared to the end of this age (36 months). It is a time for practicing skills that a child has learned earlier and to become more "grown-up." They are now learning when and where to use these skills. Children continue to need help from their family, neighbors and environment to learn how to use these new skills to interact and communicate in more complex ways. They may seem like babies at times and more like independent children at other times. For example, they may want help from others to wash their hands or play a game and twenty minutes later they want no help to do these same tasks. Sometimes this makes understanding what a child wants very difficult for caregivers. By the end of this age, however, the child has mastered many more skills and language, so that s/he becomes a talker and explainer as well as a doer. Children accomplish these skills through interaction, communication and self-help experiences.

INTERACTIONS. Interactions include skills needed for a child to know how to act with other children, family and other familiar and unfamiliar adults. Children also learn how to use objects, materials, and toys in their environment. This includes a child knowing what to do when s/he is alone, so that s/he can play by him/herself. Children learn how to begin interactions and how to respond to others once the interactions begin. There will be times when these interactions are quiet activities such as reading a book, playing with trucks and cars, or drawing a picture with crayons. There will be times when these interactions are very active, like running and screaming, climbing on the furniture and jumping off or riding a bike. Children will spend more time in active play at the beginning of this age (24 months) and more time in quiet play at the end of this age (36 months.)

COMMUNICATIONS. The skills in this area include those involved in talking, signing, using a picture communication system, and understanding what is meant when adults and peers talk with the child. The skills in these systems include the cognitive, interaction and motor areas of development. During the 2 to 3 year age range, children may not be learning a lot of new words, but they are putting together the words they know and making longer and more complicated sentences. They are longer and more complicated from the perspective of what they say, and children understand longer and more complicated sentences said to them. Children of this age are beginning to use their communication system to be as independent as their motor system allows them to be. For example, they will sometimes ask others to get objects for them or to perform specific actions, rather than do them for themselves. This does not always happen, as they sometimes ask for an object while they are getting it for themselves.

SELF-HELP. The skills in this area include feeding, dressing, bathrooming, and bathing. These routines include component skills of gross motor, fine motor, communication, cognition, and interaction. Two to three year old children are learning how to use these skills to finish each routine, but sometimes they want to play during these routines. They want to do them at their own pace and they want to make the choice of when and how to do each routine. Many times they use their skills during these routines to be independent from what others around them want them to do. They want to experiment and try combinations of new skills during these routines, such as drinking their juice by dipping from their glass with a spoon.

Pre-School Children Ages 3-5

PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT. During this period the rate of physical growth begins to slow down. Children begin to play with toys that can be manipulated; for example, they enjoy playing with clay, driving nails and pegs, building towers using small blocks. They can walk on a line and hop on one foot, ride and steer a tricycle.

SOCIAL, EMOTIONAL AND COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT. Children between the ages of 3 and 5 learn by observing adults and their peers. While they are self centered, they also need companionship and to be able to play with children the same age. They begin to learn to take turns and share, and they move from parallel play to cooperative play. They are interested in talking to new people and visiting new places. And they begin to expand skills through the increasing use of imaginative play and the use of other methods for satisfying their curiosity.

In Piagetian terms children in this age range are "preoperational." They always seem to be on the go, exploring and learning about their world. At the same time they are seeking independence, they are also forming strong attachments with caregivers and require a great deal of attention and support from adults. Their attention spans are short and they can be easily diverted.

Early Elementary Children Ages 5-8

PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT. The rate of growth continues to be relatively slow, providing children with an opportunity to develop greater coordination in both gross and fine motor areas. They learn to skip, skate, ride two-wheel bikes, walk balance beams, grasp a pencil in an adult manner, move beyond cutting straight lines to cutting out simple shapes and the predominant hand is established.

SOCIAL, EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT. Children are learning to get along well with their peers, they are also sensitive to being left out, ridicule and criticism. Developing, following and playing by rules becomes very important. They begin to understand the values of their culture/environment. And they like to try out the skills they are learning in many settings. Children in this age group identify strongly with their teachers and other adults: encouragement, recognition, praise and adult support are very important. They also need time to adjust to new experiences and situations.

COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT. In school, children ages 5 to eight are learning basic academic skills—reading, writing and arithmetic. They are interested in learning how and why things move or work. Their attention spans remain short. And they need time to practice what they are learning.

Late Childhood/Pre-Adolescence - Ages 8-11

PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT. This stage of development is sometimes referred to as Pubescence. It is an overlapping period because it includes the closing years of childhood and the beginning years of adolescence. Pubescence is climaxed by puberty when girls begin to menstruate and boys show the presence of live sperm in their urine. It is marked by slow and steady growth. Both girls and boys need opportunities to improve the coordination of their large and small muscles and they require plenty of sleep and well balanced meals.

SOCIAL, EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT. Children in this age range are enthusiastic about almost everything. They are imaginative and like to explore. Peer group approval becomes increasingly important. They are interested in organized games and competitive activities. They are frequently socially insecure, and they value secure, supportive relationships with adults.

COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT

At this stage of their development children enjoy talking and expressing abstract ideas. They like to experiment and solve problems and are eager to acquire new skills. Language usage is influenced by their peers and oriented to shared interests among peers.

Adolescence

PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT. "Adolescence" is derived from the Latin verb that means to grow into maturity. It is the period of change in a person's life that signifies transition from childhood to adulthood. It is characterized by rapid growth and marked changes in body proportions. Changes may begin and end any time between 6 and 19. Primary sex characteristics develop and in girls reproductive organs mature. Secondary sex characteristics including marked changes in the voice, development of underarm, facial and pubic hair begins in early adolescence; chest hair does not appear until late adolescence. Breast development begins in girls and menstruation occurs.

Rapid growth and bodily changes are likely to be accompanied by periods of fatigue; acne may develop, and both girls and boys may experience periodic headaches and back-aches. In addition, girls may experience cramps, swelling of legs and ankles.

EMOTIONAL AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT. There is a definite relationship between physical development and the ways adolescents perceive themselves. It is not uncommon for many adolescents to experience feelings of self-conscious-ness, shyness and insecurity because of the sexual changes taking place. Adolescent emotions are often intense, uncontrolled and seemingly irrational. Throughout adolescence emotional maturity grows as individuals develop more self control over their emotional responses. During this period the peer group influences young people more than any other factor. They become less dependent on their family and try to achieve independence and autonomy. As the dependence on the home lessens security is found among friends who share the same values and attitudes.

COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT. Cognitively, adolescents are able to shift from concrete to abstract thinking. They develop the ability to test tentative hypotheses against available evidence. Moral development matures during adolescence and young people begin to define their own

moral principles rather than adapting those of their parents without question. Adolescents begin to develop specific skills and talents and start to set goals for themselves.

Adulthood and Aging

Physical and mental changes occur throughout a person's life. Following adolescence, a period of tremendous change, the adult years seem to be relatively calm. Aging is a slow process that is often difficult to recognize until certain milestones occur. There is wide variation in the attainment of these milestones. "Old age" has many definitions. Our mores reflect this, as evidenced by the "senior citizens' discounts" available at varying ages. However, retirement usually occurs between ages 62 and 65, the time when Social Security benefits are available.

ASPECTS OF AGING. Some may be considered positive and include:

- decreased family responsibilities
- more free time to pursue hobbies
- freedom from jobs that may have been anxiety producing

Some may be considered challenging and include:

- loss of loved ones or same-aged friends
- medical difficulties
- sensory loss

Each of us know people who are elderly. We also have a lot of ideas about what it means to be "old," many of which are negative. Aging does not have to be sad or bad. The perceptions of others often define it and older adults respond to these social cues. Not all things about the later years of life are disheartening. For many older Americans, it is the first time in their lives that the responsibilities placed upon them by society and family diminish, and they can look forward to enjoying life for themselves. This, of course, may not be true for everyone. There are people who retire "well," and those who don't make it after the first couple of months. A healthy, rewarding retirement is related to the individual's expectations and values as well as to the people and the environment surrounding the person.

This transition from a working, responsible individual to a person whose life is unstructured affects each person differently. If the person has hobbies, friends, plans, and considers him/ herself financially stable, the transition may be smooth. In other cases, the transition may be more difficult.

JEAN PIAGET'S THEORY OF INTELLECTUAL DEVELOPMENT

Piaget's theory is mainly concerned with matters of intelligence, thinking, logic, language and competence or efficiency. His approach views people as naturally active, seeking, adapting beings who learn through continual actions, which they initiate within their environment. According to Piaget, children are born with a set of sensorimotor operations/movements to perform upon their environment in order to "know" it and themselves. As a result of these transactions and physiological maturation, the original sensorimotor operations are: 1) built into increasingly more complex patterns, 2) internalized so they can be carried out mentally, and 3) tied to language symbols. For Piaget, mature behavior is the ability to reason and think critically, in objective, abstract, and hypothetical terms. When youths or adults reach this level, Piaget regards them as being at the peak of a developmental pyramid. Piaget hypothesized that each person progresses through four distinct stages of intellectual development. They are:

SENSORIMOTOR. During the first two years of life, children receive information from their environment primarily through the senses and a multitude of physical motor explorations. The explorations provide information about ways to cope with different situations and the effect of behavior on the environment. For example, an infant learns if s/he cries when s/he's hungry, s/he will be fed; s/he learns if s/he smiles, s/he gets a response from another person. During this time the infant attains a) object permanence: things continue to exist even when they are out of sight, b) invariance despite change: the identities of objects and people remain the same even in different contexts or circumstances, and c) means-end: certain acts result in reliable effects on the environment.

PREOPERATIONAL. From three to seven years of age children begin to expand their ability think. This stage is divided into two sub-stages, a) preconceptual: during the third and fourth years of life, children are constantly investigating their environment. Children in this period usually see themselves as the center of their environment. Children who have learned the label, "dog," may initially label all four-legged animals "dog"; they gradually learn other appropriate labels for the animals, e.g., cat, cow, etc; and b) intuitive: during the ages four to seven, children begin to develop increased interest in their social world and demonstrate an ability to give reasons for their beliefs and actions. Their broader social interactions and their growing ability to use words effectively are important factors in contributing to their growth. For example, it is difficult for children under four years of age to take turns; they need to learn to experience "it's mine" before they can say "I want to share it with you." As children move into the intuitive period, they are able to share and take turns with others. They also learn to play cooperatively with other children; for example, two children, after listening to a story about firemen, may decide to build a fire station in the block corner. During this period of development thought is dominated by what is seen. The child is not able to attend to more than one thing at a time where space, time, volume, shape, and weight are concerned. And language development is very rapid.

CONCRETE OPERATIONS. From the ages of seven to eleven, children become capable of mentally seeing an object or event in a total system of interrelated parts; they understand that a piece of clay contains about the same amount of clay regardless if it's a circle or a rectangle. They are also able to think about what happens to concrete objects without having to experiment with the object. For example, they recognize that water in a tall, thin glass can be the same amount of water in a short, fat glass, even though the containers have different shapes. During this stage of development logic and objectivity progressively characterize thought. The child can reason, but only when using concrete objects.

FORMAL OPERATIONS. By the time children reach the age of twelve, their cognitive development is characterized by thinking and reasoning. They can think about issues and ideas, they can form opinions about abstract concepts like love, right and wrong; they can understand the term "a million dollars," which must be thought of in abstract terms. Mental development is usually complete by the end of this period, around fifteen years of age. During this stage of development young people are able to formulate and execute symbolic plans of action based on hypothetical events, and can consider simultaneously more than one variable in the solution of a problem. And they are able to imagine potential relations among objects or events.

HOWARD GARDNER'S THEORY OF MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES*

The concept of multiple intelligences (MI) has gained increased attention among general and special educators as one way to develop curricular and instructional activities that build on student strengths and expand student learning. Gardner's MI theory stresses a cross-cultural view of intelligence that allows children and youth to solve problems in culturally meaningful ways and create products that reflect their cultural perspectives. According to Gardner the development/ strengthening of a particular intelligence requires three conditions: 1) the individual must have an opportunity to learn, 2) the culture must place a value on the intelligence's development, and 3) the individual must place value on developing the intelligence. A brief description of his seven intelligences follows.

LINGUISTIC INTELLIGENCE. The capacity to use words effectively, whether orally (e.g., as a storyteller, orator, newscaster, politician) or in writing (e.g., as a poet, playwright, editor, journalist). This intelligence includes the ability to manipulate the structure of language, and the practical uses of language. Some of these uses include rhetoric (using language to convince others to take a specific course of action) mnemonics (using language to remember information), explanation (using language to inform), and metalanguage (using language to talk about itself).

LOGICAL-MATHEMATICAL INTELLIGENCE. The capacity to use numbers effectively (e.g., as a mathematician, tax accountant, or statistician) and to reason well (e.g., as a scientist, computer programmer, or logician). This intelligence includes sensitivity to logical patterns and relationships, statements and propositions (if-then, cause-effect), functions, and other related abstractions.

SPATIAL INTELLIGENCE. The ability to perceive the visual-spatial world accurately (e.g., as an interior decorator, architect, artist, or inventor). This intelligence involves sensitivity to color, line, shape, form, space, and the relationships that exist between these elements. It includes the capacity to visualize, to graphically represent visual or spatial ideas, and to orient oneself appropriately in a spatial matrix.

*Adapted from Campbell, L., Campbell, B. & Dickinson, D. (1996). *Teaching and learning through multiple intelligences.* Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

BODILY-KINESTHETIC INTELLIGENCE. Expertise in using one's whole body to express ideas and feelings (e.g., as an actor, a mime, an athlete, or a dancer) and facility in using one's hands to produce or transform things (e.g., as a craftsperson, sculptor, mechanic, or surgeon). This intelligence includes specific physical skills such as coordination, balance, dexterity, strength, flexibility, and speed.

MUSICAL INTELLIGENCE. The capacity to perceive (e.g., as a music lover), discriminate (e.g., as a music critic), transform (e.g., as a composer), and express (e.g., as a performer) musical forms. This intelligence includes sensitivity to the rhythm, pitch or melody, and timbre or tone color of a musical piece. One can have a global, intuitive understanding of music, a technical understanding, or both.

INTERPERSONAL INTELLIGENCE. The ability to perceive and make distinctions in the moods, intentions, motivations, and feelings of other people. This can include sensitivity to facial expressions, voice, and gestures; the capacity for discriminating among many different kinds of interpersonal cues; and the ability to respond effectively to those cues in some pragmatic, appropriate way (e.g., to influence a group of people to follow a certain line of action, help others learn new ideas).

INTRAPERSONAL INTELLIGENCE. Self-knowledge and the ability to act on the basis of that knowledge. This intelligence includes having an accurate picture of oneself (one's strengths and limitations); awareness of inner moods, intentions, motivations, temperaments, and desires; and the capacity for self-discipline, self-understanding, and self-esteem.

Gardner is careful to explain that intelligence should not be limited to the ones he has identified. He believes that the seven, however, provide a far more accurate picture of human capacities than do previous theories. Contrary to the small range of abilities that many standard IQ tests measure, Gardner's theory offers an expanded image of what it means to be human. He also notes that each intelligence contains several sub-intelligences. For example, the domain of music includes playing music, singing, writing musical scores, conducting, critiquing, and appreciating music. Each of the six other intelligences also encompass numerous components.

Another aspect of the Multiple Intelligences is that they may be conceptualized in three broad categories. Three of the seven—spatial, logical-mathematical, and bodily-kinesthetic—may be viewed as "object-related" forms of intelligence. These capacities are controlled and shaped by the objects which individuals encounter in their environments. On the other hand, the "object-free" intelligences, consisting of verbal-linguistic and musical, are not shaped by the physical world but are dependent upon language and musical systems. The third category consists of the "person-related" intelligences with interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences reflecting a powerful set of counterbalances. Beyond the descriptions of the seven intelligences and their theoretical underpinnings, certain points of the Gardner theory are important to be aware of. Intelligences usually work together in complex ways. Gardner points out that each

intelligence as described above is actually a "fiction." That is, no intelligence exists by itself in life (except perhaps in very rare instances in savants and brain-injured individuals). Intelligences are always interacting with each other. To cook a meal, one must read the recipe (linguistic), possibly divide the recipe in half (logical-mathematical), develop a menu that satisfies all members of a family (interpersonal), and placate one's own appetite as well (intrapersonal). Similarly, when a child plays a game of kickball, he needs bodily-kinesthetic intelligence (to run, kick, and catch), spatial intelligence (to orient himself to the playing field and to anticipate the trajectories of flying balls), and linguistic and interpersonal intelligences (to successfully argue a point during a dispute in the game). The intelligences have been taken out of context in MI theory only for the purpose of examining their essential features and learning how to use them effectively. We must always remember to put them back into their specific culturally valued contexts when we are finished with their formal study.

There are many ways to be intelligent within each category. There is no standard set of attributes that one must have to be considered intelligent in a specific area. Consequently, a person may not be able to read, yet be highly linguistic because he can tell a terrific story or has a large verbal vocabulary. Similarly, a person may be quite awkward on the playing field, yet possess superior bodily-kinesthetic intelligence when she weaves a carpet or creates an inlaid chess table. MI theory emphasizes the rich diversity of ways in which people show their gifts within intelligences as well as between intelligences.

Each intelligence appears to have its own developmental sequence, emerging and blossoming at different times in life. Musical intelligence is the earliest form of human giftedness to emerge; it is a mystery as to why this is. Gardner suggests that excelling at music as a child may be conditioned by the fact that this intelligence is not contingent upon accruing life experience. On the other hand, the personal intelligences require extensive interaction with and feedback from others before becoming well-developed.

It is evident that creativity can be expressed through all the intelligences. Gardner notes, however, that most people are creative within a specific domain. For example, although Einstein was gifted mathematically and scientifically he did not exhibit equal genius linguistically, kinesthetically, or interpersonally.

LEV VYGOTSKY'S THEORY OF LANGUAGE AND COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT

A third model of language and cognitive development is based on Lev Vygotsky's notion that language and cognition are interdependent. The work of Vygotsky (1962), a Russian psychologist, promotes the idea that language and cognition develop as separate and interdependent systems. Initially language develops through interaction with others, but eventually language becomes internalized. It is at the point that language and thought merge that allows the child to engage in abstract thought and symbolic reasoning.

Vygotsky's work has educational implications. He refers to the zone of proximal development (1978) as the distance between that which a child can do independently and that which she could do with the assistance of a more capable other person. Thus, a great deal of development is "scaffolded" by a more competent person, taking a child from her present level of understanding to a higher level.

According to this view, language is considered the primary vehicle for intellectual development. Vygotsky conceives of thinking as an activity dependent on speech and thinking is developed and maintained through interpersonal experience, making this theory distinct in the importance given to the social context and expert assistance.

Exercise #1

OBSERVATION ACTIVITY

Directions: Identify 2 children who are the same age (between birth and 5 years of age). Observe them prior to the next class. Write below your observations of their physical, social and language skills. Be prepared to share the results of your efforts with the class during the next session.

Child #1
First Name: _____
Age:_____

Physical Skills:

Child #2
First Name: _____
Age:_____

Physical Skills:

Social Skills:

Social Skills:

Language Skills:

Language Skills:

A PERSONAL MI INVENTORY FOR ADULTS			
INTELLIGENCE	PROFESSIONAL USE	PERSONAL USE	TOTAL
Logical/ Mathematical			
Verbal/ Linguistic			
Visual/ Spatial			
Bodily/ Kinesthetic			
Musical			
Interpersonal			
Intrapersonal			

Source: L. Campbell, B. Campbell, & D. Dickerson (1996). Learning Through Multiple Intelligence. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

UNIT 2

FACTORS THAT MAY IMPEDE TYPICAL HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

The paraeducator will be able to:

1) Discuss various disabilities and their impact on education needs of children and youth.

2) Experience (through simulations) and discuss the effects of several categories of disabilities on the learner.

3) Practice and use basic signing skills.

4) Recognize and use adaptive equipment and devices.

TRAINING TIME

Two or more hours are required to teach this unit depending on the number of activities you select.

MATERIALS AND EQUIPMENT REQUIRED

- ❑ Copies of all handouts.
- ❑ A chalkboard or easel and flip chart.
- ❑ The various equipment, materials, and handouts required to carry out the simulations that are part of this unit.
- ❑ The definitions of disabilities used by your state education agency or school district.
- ❑ Examples of adaptive equipment available to assist children and youth to communicate and achieve independence.

BEFORE THE TRAINING SESSION

- ❑ Review the Background Materials and Information Handouts on disabilities and compare the information with the definitions used by your state/district. Prepare a series of lectures incorporating information from your district stressing the following: 1) the major causes of disabilities, 2) the major categories of disabilities, and 3) an introduction to the simulations.

- ❑ Make copies of the handouts and obtain the other equipment you will need for the simulations—blindfolds, ear plugs, a cassette recorder, mirrors, canes, crutches and wheel-chairs.

- ❑ Invite an interpreter or person with expertise in signing to the class to teach the participants a few emergency or basic signs.

- ❑ Assemble examples of adaptive equipment and devices to demonstrate during the session.

- ❑ Ask an occupational or physical therapist to share information about adaptive equipment and devices available to help children and youth with disabilities become independent, to live and work in the community and to communicate.

DURING THE TRAINING SESSION

- ❑ Describe the purpose of **Exercise #1**, the simulation activities. Encourage trainees to try as many simulations as they can in the allotted time. Ask them to keep track of their feelings and reactions during the simulations. Various activities are described below or you may use others that you are familiar with.

- ❑ Reconvene the group. Ask the participants to share the feelings they experienced and insights they gained during the simulation activities and to describe challenges they encountered during the simulations.

- ❑ Begin the discussion of genetic, environmental and other factors that may cause disabilities. Answer all questions and concerns.

- ❑ Talk with the class about various disabilities. Discuss problems/challenges for the child or youth and the family when typical development does not take place.

- ❑ Introduce the resource people you may have invited to the class.

- ❑ Allow plenty of time for participants to practice using adaptive equipment or signing and to discuss issues.

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FACTORS THAT MAY IMPEDE HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

The previous unit in this module dealt with the stages of human growth that are typical for most people. This unit focuses on causes and categories of disabilities. Since no two states use the same definitions for various types and levels of disabilities, this background information is very general. It should be used to supplement the definitions and regulations connected with service delivery in your state and community, and to develop an outline for the training session.

CAUSES OF DISABILITIES. There are several factors that may lead to a child having developmental and other disabilities. They may be genetic or they may be environmental, and they may occur during the prenatal, natal or postnatal periods.

GENETIC FACTORS. Physical and other characteristics for all people are shaped by our genes. They determine whether we are tall or short, bald or have brown or red hair, the color or our eyes and more. Sometimes disabilities and other conditions are inherited as a result of the genes that exist in our parents. Many times a child's parents do not have the disability; they carry the genes from earlier generations. Genetic factors may cause mild or severe disabilities that may or may not be life threatening. Examples of genetically caused disorders are Down Syndrome, Hemophilia, P.K.U., Rhetts Syndrome, Sickle Cell Anemia and more.

ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS. Sometimes circumstances in a child's environment may cause the child to have a disability. Toxins in the air, water pollution, lead poisoning are other factors that may have an impact on a child's environment and lead to a disability. For example, a child's family may have economical or other disadvantages that make it difficult to provide experiences that stimulate or encourage learning.

PRENATAL. This term means before birth. Many disabilities are the result of something happening to the fetus while it is still in the mother's womb. If the mother has poor nutrition, has hepatitis or measles, uses drugs, alcohol, or smokes, her child may be born with a disability. Other factors that have been linked to these conditions are: medicine taken during pregnancy and food additives.

NATAL. This term means at the time of birth. Some disabilities result from conditions present at the time of birth. Being born prematurely, having a loss of oxygen, long labor, excessive hemorrhaging or loss of blood for the mother, early separation of the placenta (the part of the tissue that is attached to the womb) and direct injury to the head if instruments are used are some events during the birth process that may cause disabilities.

POSTNATAL. This term means after birth. In some cases children or youth become disabled after birth. Injury to the central nervous system may happen in many ways including severe blows to the head as a result of an accident or child abuse, the inability to breathe, poisoning, tumors, and infectious diseases such as meningitis or encephalitis.

CATEGORIES OF DISABILITIES

MENTAL RETARDATION. Children or adolescents with mental retardation tend to learn more slowly than their peers in the areas of social interactions, cognitive growth and motor development. They may also have difficulties learning things other people take for granted, like knowing their age, their address, dressing themselves, and carrying out other activities of daily living.

Gold (1980) developed a definition of mental retardation that avoided reliance on IQ. His approach was much more comprehensive and stressed the strengths rather than the weaknesses of individuals. He suggested that the level of mental retardation is defined by the amount of power necessary for the teacher to use to teach that person. In other words, Gold's definition indicates that the teacher is as important as the learner. If the teacher does not have the skills to assist a person in learning, then that individual is usually considered to be mentally retarded.

Gold's definition is important because all the tools and strategies for teaching people labeled as mentally retarded have not yet been developed. As new and improved techniques and adaptive devices are developed for teaching children or adolescents who have been perceived as difficult to teach, teaching may seem to be easier and produce unexpected results.

Thirty years ago for example, many persons with mental retardation were thought to be unteachable or capable of learning only minimal self-help skills. Today, the same persons are performing academic skills to a greater or lesser degree and are participating in community activities. This is due primarily to the fact that the teaching strategies and tools available to professionals and paraeducators who work with children and youth with mental retardation have become more sophisticated and effective.

PHYSICAL AND SENSORY DISABILITIES. A few of the more common physical and sensory disabilities include: 1) Cerebral palsy, a disability present at or before birth that impairs the motor system. The impact on a child's ability to be independent can be minimal or it may be so severe that the person may have little muscular control and may need assistance with eating and dressing and to use a wheelchair or other adaptive equipment. 2) Epilepsy, a condition where the person has involuntary lapses of consciousness which may last for a few seconds or may result in a major convulsion with motor movements. 3) Spinal cord injuries resulting in paralysis of one or more limbs and the trunk of the body. These injuries may occur at birth as in the case of spina bifida or as the results of an accident.

There are other disabilities that may tend to restrict physical activity such as skeletal deformities or amputations, rheumatoid arthritis, muscular dystrophy, and heart disease. Some children and youth with physical and sensory/motor disabilities may also have mental retardation, learning disabilities, speech limitations or vision and hearing loss. Most do not. The biggest educational challenge for them, their parents and the education workforce is developing meth-

ods and adaptive equipment that will enable them to actively explore their environment and participate in activities in and out of school.

LEARNING DISABILITIES. Students with learning disabilities may have many labels: neurological impairment, minimal brain dysfunction, brain damage, dyslexia, attention deficit disorder. A person who has a learning disability may have difficulty in visual perception but not be blind (may not see a circle as perfectly round) or is unable to see specific parts of a figure or word, difficulty in auditory perception (hearing things as others hear them) but not be deaf, difficulty in motor movements (walking, moving arms and fingers) but not be physically disabled, and difficulty with cognitive learning (classifying things, ordering things and ideas) but not be retarded. Students with learning disabilities may have average or above average intelligence. They may display a wide range of behaviors that may include difficulty in monitoring and maintaining control of their behavior—hyperactivity, distractibility, impulsiveness, and perseveration.

SEVERE EMOTIONAL DISABILITIES. Children and youth with challenging behaviors demonstrate a wide range of ways of dealing with the world, including "withdrawing" from it and "acting out" upon it. Many develop methods for coping with everyday living that are self-defeating and non-productive. The primary difference between children and youth with severe emotional disturbance and their peers is in the degree to which they are able to monitor, control or change their patterns of behavior.

Students who are withdrawn may find security by building walls around themselves. They may have had experiences early in life that cause them to believe that it is not safe to express their real feelings to other people.

Children or adolescents who act out may appear to have more control over their behavior than they actually do. As a result, others interpret their actions as being deliberately vengeful, or deliberately provocative; that is, doing something just to get even or setting up a situation that will lead to conflict. Most people look upon these behaviors as "disturbing." People who act out their emotions, unlike those who are withdrawn, defend themselves by acting out their feelings with impulsive, and often explosive immediate reactions. They may find it difficult to deal with frustration or to postpone immediate gratification of needs: "I want it, and I want it now."

The term severe emotional disability is most often used to describe the behaviors of children and youth who have been diagnosed as having schizophrenia, autism, or other forms of emotional disabilities that interfere with their ability to learn, to interact and maintain friendships with their peers.

SPEECH AND LANGUAGE LIMITATIONS. People who are diagnosed as having speech or language limitations demonstrate a variety of symptoms which represent many causes that may be physiological or environmental. Speech and language skills are automatically acquired by most children. When the ability to communicate is impaired, there is a need to teach a

child these skills. Language may be delayed. Other problems may stem from "misarticulations," where sounds are substituted for others, left out or distorted, the child may stutter or lisp. Language disabilities may also include difficulty in communication because of a lack of vocabulary or improper grammatical structures.

BLINDNESS AND LOW VISION. Students who have a visual disability usually have some degree of useful sight. Only a small percentage are blind. Even many legally blind students (20/200 or worse) have useful vision. Most school districts categorize students who must read and write in Braille as blind. While students who are partially sighted or have low vision are those with enough useful sight to enable them to read either standard or enlarged print. More severe degrees of visual disabilities may result in problems with physical mobility or motor development. Students with various degrees of visual disabilities are able to take care of themselves and live and work independently.

DEAFNESS AND HEARING LOSS. The two dimensions to the sense of hearing are the intensity or loudness of sound (decibels) and the clarity with which sound is received (frequencies). Students with hearing loss may have problems with the loudness of sound or the distortion/clarity of sound or a combination of both.

Language development and communication are the biggest challenges confronting students with hearing impairments. Depending on the degree and type of hearing loss, there are a variety of techniques currently available to assist the students to develop skills in these sound amplification areas. They are: auditory training (listening skills), speech reading (lip reading), finger spelling and sign language, and written and visual presentations. Using a combination of all methods is referred to as "total communication."

MEDICAL AND HEALTH RELATED PROBLEMS. As early intervention/childhood programs and school districts implement programs for all children and youth with disabilities without regard to the nature or severity of the disabilities, they are increasingly providing services to children who are at-risk because they are medically fragile. Many of these students require specialized health care while they attend classes that are addressed more fully in the unit on Emergency, Safety, and Health Procedures.

The level of academic achievement and participation in school and community events can be affected because a student has limited strength, vitality, or alertness caused by a chronic or acute health problem (heart conditions, tuberculosis, rheumatic fever, nephritis, asthma, AIDS, hemophilia, sickle cell anemia, leukemia, diabetes, and arthritis).

See **Information Handout #1** for a more complete description of specific disabilities.

THE SIMULATIONS

Although we can never completely duplicate what it is like to have a disability, through simulations we can provide some understanding of what it might be like. The activities on the following pages are designed to allow the trainees to experience some of the difficulties created by various disabilities and to examine their reactions and emotions as a result of participating in these activities.

LEARNING DISABILITIES

Goal: To enable participants to develop an awareness of reading and visual motor disabilities.

Activity #1 **Reading Exercise.** Distribute **Exercise Handout #1**. When the group has completed this exercise, ask for a volunteer to read the translation. (The answer to this exercise is on **Exercise Handout #1A**.)

Activity #2 **Tracing Exercise.** Provide the participants with **Exercise Handout #2** and stand-up cosmetic mirrors. Ask them to place the mirror on the line on the exercise, look into the mirror, and using their non-dominant hand draw a line inside the double lines.

Activity #3 **Spelling Test.** Ask the participants to use their non-dominant hand when they take the spelling test. Start to read the words that follow whenever you are ready, even though the participants are not settled down and ready to begin. Rapidly repeat each word twice. Do not stop or slow down, even though you are asked to. The words are: Harassed, Beggar, Embarrassed, Peddler or Pedler, Gauging, Symmetry, Vocabulary, Simulations, Development, Participate, and Dominant.

DEAFNESS AND HEARING LOSS

Goal: To acquaint participants with what it is like to have a hearing loss.

Materials: Cassette recorder and ear plugs.

Activity #4. Ask the participants to work in pairs and to carry on a conversation about any subject they choose. (One person should wear the ear plugs.)

Activity #5. Use the cassette recorder to record the following words: wish, three, pill, station, snow, watched, splinters, tick, mice and jump. The first time you record the words: 1) speak into a can or container and muffle your voice with a cloth around the container and 2) re-record the words on a lower volume, muffled

through the cloth. The third time, repeat the words with normal volume and without any distortion. Have participants number a paper to 10 in three columns to be used during each segment of the test. The test can be administered to the entire class or individuals can take the test while others are taking part in the other activities.

BLINDNESS AND LOW VISION

Goal: To enable participants to develop an awareness of what it is like to have different degrees of low vision.

Materials: Blindfolds and/or sleep masks and old glasses smeared thickly with Vaseline to simulate different vision impairments.

Activity #6. 1) Place several easily identifiable objects into a bag, ask the participants to put on a blindfold and to identify them by touch; 2) have the participants try to read small print, and 3) navigate through the halls with a buddy.

PHYSICAL DISABILITIES

Goal: To help participants understand the difficulty of performing tasks without the use of their fingers and hands and to help them understand the impact of restricted mobility.

Materials: Adhesive tape (and other items listed in Activity #7 below), wheelchairs and crutches.

Activity #7. Have participants tape both thumbs to the palm of their hands. Give them tasks to perform such as writing their names, picking up small objects (pennies or paper clips) buttoning a shirt or blouse, using forks, spoons and knives, drinking from a glass.

Activity #8. Have the participants practice using the wheelchair and/or crutches before leaving the room. Encourage them to move about the building, use a water fountain, a pay phone, the restroom, and if practical, to go out of the building to shops.

This is a story to help you understand what it might be like to have a reading/learning disability.

The Friembly Bog*

Once ubom a tmie there was a friembl dobl. His name was jake. Jake belombeb to Bavig and Bhte. Davib and Beth aar tins. They ar nime yeras dol.

On e tome Jak went down to the cellra. H was a ducket of soab. The tins wer doing to wash the car. He liked some soap buddles out fo the ducket. When he darked, dig dubbles ca me out of hi s muth!

Last sum mre Jak founb a frenb. His frien sqw a tac named Freb. They blayde all bay. They nar aroumb and aruombb tye yarb. Jake chased the tac ub te tre. Freb climbed up easily. Jake trieb t and trieb dut ehe slib back bown!

*Source unknown.

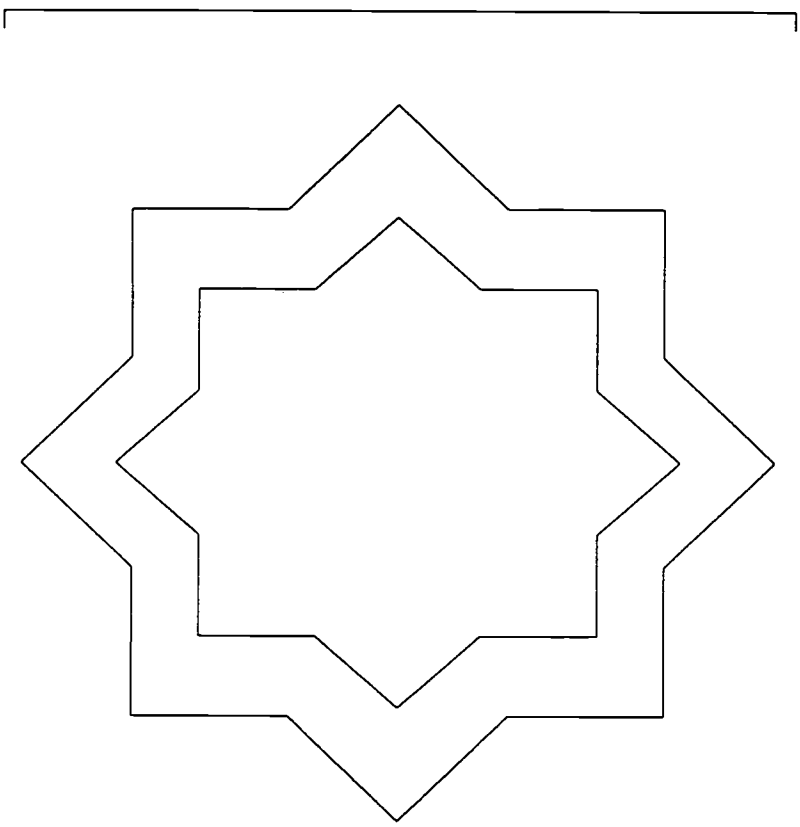
ANSWER SHEET

The Friendly Dog

Once upon a time there was a friendly dog. His name was Jake. Jake belonged to David and Beth. David and Beth are twins. They are nine years old.

One time Jake went down to the cellar. He saw a bucket of soap. The twins were going to wash the car. He licked some soap bubbles out of the bucket. When he barked, big bubbles came out of his mouth.

Last summer Jake found a friend. His friend was a cat named Fred. They played all day. They ran around the yard. Jake chased the cat up the tree. Fred climbed up easily. Jake tried and tried but he slid back down.



*Source: Newstrom, J. W. and Scannel, E. E. (1980. Games trainers play: Experimental learning exercises. New York: McGraw Hill.

MENTAL RETARDATION*

OVERVIEW

Students who have mental retardation learn more slowly than their peers in the areas of social interaction, cognitive growth and motor development. The disability may be present at birth or may take place during the early stages of development.

For educational purposes, mental retardation is usually classified by degree of impairment in intellectual/cognitive functioning. The most frequently used terms to describe levels of mental retardation are: 1) mild, 2) moderate, 3) severe, and 4) profound.

COMMON CHARACTERISTICS:

Children and youth with mental retardation may:

- have lower academic achievement than peers in all academic subjects;
- require more time to learn a task;
- mature more physically, emotionally, and socially slower than their peers.

Students with milder mental retardation will acquire many of the skills as those of the peers who do not have a mental disability.

Students with very significant mental disabilities may require support and supervision in all aspects of functioning, such as feeding, toileting, grooming, moving throughout the environment, being able to live and work independently.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES

- Paraeducators should use curriculum content and instructional activities developed by the teacher to meet the needs of individual students.
- Support and encourage students to develop a social network (e.g., peer buddies, peer tutors, joining school clubs, joining community organizations).

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*Information contained in this handout was adapted from the *Reference handbook for paraeducators* (1997) developed by the Louisiana Department of Education, Bureau of Program Development.

- Provide teachers with information they can use to make modifications and adaptations needed for the student to participate in activities with peers whose development follows more typical developmental patterns.

- Be aware of long term outcomes such as employment (competitive or supported) and adult living (e.g., living in one's own home either independently or with support).

- Encourage students to master skills that will enable them to be as independent as possible.

LEARNING DISABILITIES

Learning disabilities are disorders in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or using language, spoken or written. It may manifest itself in an imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell or do mathematical calculations. Students' poor achievement is in no way attributed to such things as vision, hearing, language, behavior or physical problems. Since a learning disability is often a hidden disability, it cannot be easily seen. Identifying a student's preferred learning style and developing strategies that build on these strengths is important.

COMMON CHARACTERISTICS:

Students who are diagnosed as having learning disabilities are often assumed to be lazy or uncooperative when, actually they learn things in a different way or at a different pace. Related issues may include:

- Poor academics
- Poor self-esteem
- Weak work habits
  a) organizational skills
  b) study skills
  c) problem solving skills
- Language deficits
  a) understanding others and expressing oneself
  b) social interaction skills
- Difficulty understanding and following directions
- Inconsistent performance on day to day activities

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES:

Paraeducators should:

✓ Use multi-sensory teaching techniques developed by the teacher.

- ✓ Provide teachers with information they can use to modify classwork and activities to meet the students learning needs.
- ✓ Assist the student to learn and maintain compensatory skills.
- ✓ Reduce distractions in the learning environment.
- ✓ Use positive reinforcement strategies and reward success regularly.
- ✓ Provide technological devices (tape recorder, computer, calculator, read-along tapes, etc.) if needed.
- ✓ Provide advanced organizers such as outlines, study guides and guided comprehension questions.
- ✓ Allow extra time for the student to complete activities.
- ✓ Provide different opportunities to allow the student to acquire new skills and knowledge.

ATTENTION DEFICIT/HYPERACTIVITY DISORDERS (AD/HD)

Many students who are medically diagnosed as having AD/HD may qualify for special education services under the category of learning disabled or other health impaired. Since these disorders are currently receiving a great deal of attention in the media as well as in the schools, characteristics and classroom suggestions have been included.

COMMON CHARACTERISTICS:

The student may be:

- ➢ Inattentive - makes careless mistakes, doesn't seem to listen, doesn't follow through, has organizational problems, is easily distracted, is forgetful, often loses things, or dislikes activities requiring sustained effort
- ➢ Impulsive - acts before thinking, blurts out answers, has difficulty waiting in lines or waiting turns, or often interrupts others
- ➢ Hyperactive - fidgets, has trouble staying seated or still, or talks excessively

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES:

Paraeducator should:

- ✓ Provide structure and routine for the student.
- ✓ Follow plans developed by the teacher to help the student develop self-control through self-monitoring, self-evaluation, self-rewarding and self-instruction.
- ✓ Keep verbal directions simple.
- ✓ Help the student keep an assignment notebook.
- ✓ Provide frequent feedback on behavior and assignments.
- ✓ Prepare the student for transitions and changes (moving to another room, another activity, another seat, etc.).
- ✓ Use more positive reinforcement.
- ✓ Follow instructions of the Individualized Health Services Plan when medications or procedures are prescribed.

EMOTIONAL/BEHAVIOR DISORDERS

An emotional/behavior disorder is characterized by behavioral or emotional responses so different from appropriate age, cultural, or ethical norms that they adversely affect performance. Performance includes academic, social, vocational or personal skills. This disability implies more than a temporary, expected response to stressful events in the environment. It is consistently exhibited in two different settings and persists despite special intervention. A student may have other disabilities along with the emotional/behavioral disorder.

COMMON CHARACTERISTICS:

Students with Emotional/Behavior Disorders have behavior(s) that interfere(s) with the learning process over a long period of time.

These students may have:

- ➢ Difficulties in building or maintaining relationships with peers, parents and teachers
- ➢ A general mood of unhappiness or depression

- A tendency to develop physical symptoms, pains, fears, or self-injurious behaviors associated with personal or social problems

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES:

Paraeducators should follow an individualized behavioral management plan which has clear expectations and consequences.

- ✓ Assist the student to learn and maintain self-monitoring techniques for his/her own behaviors to improve.
- ✓ Provide information to teachers that will help them modify a students academic plan/academic schedule/classroom arrangement to meet student's needs.
- ✓ Use humor—laugh *with* not *at* the child.
- ✓ *NEVER HOLD A GRUDGE!*
- ✓ Observe the student for changes in self-care which may lead to health problems, i.e., poor oral hygiene, eating too much or too little, lack of sleep and others.
- ✓ Provide medications when instructed by the school nurse.

AUTISM

Autism is a developmental disability which usually appears during the first three years of life. It is the result of a neurological disorder that affects functioning of the brain. Autism is a combination of developmental challenges. The following areas may be affected:

Communication: language develops slowly or not at all; use of words without attaching the usual meaning to them; gestures used instead of words; short attention span.

Social interaction: individual may spend time alone rather than with others; show little interest in making friends; less responsive to social cues such as eye contact or smiles.

Sensory impairment: unusual reactions to physical sensations such as being overly sensitive to touch or under responsive to pain. Sight, hearing, touch, smell, and taste may be affected to a lesser or greater degree.

Play: lack of spontaneous or imaginative play; does not imitate others' actions; does not initiate pretend games.

Behaviors: may be overactive or very passive; may perseverate on a single item, idea, or person; apparent lack of common sense; may show aggressive injurious behavior.

COMMON CHARACTERISTICS:

The characteristics of autism can be exhibited in any combination and any degree from mild to severe. Individuals with autism usually exhibit at least half of the traits listed below. The symptoms may range from mild to severe and vary in intensity from symptom to symptom.

- Difficulty mixing with other children
- Insistence on sameness; resists changes in routine
- Unresponsive to traditional teaching methods
- Sustained odd play
- Apparent insensitivity to pain
- Echolalia (repeating words and phrases in place of normal language)
- Prefers to be alone; aloof manner
- May not want cuddling or act cuddly
- Spins objects
- Inappropriate laughing and giggling
- No real fears of dangers
- Little or no eye contact
- Noticeable physical over-activity or extreme under-activity
- Display extreme distress for no apparent reason
- Not responsive to verbal cues; acts as if deaf
- Inappropriate attachment to objects
- Uneven gross/fine motor skills (may not want to kick ball but can stack blocks)
- Difficulty in expressing needs; uses gestures or pointing instead of words.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES:

Paraeducators should:

- ✓ Follow plans that help the student to develop communication skills. Providing visual supports, prompts, and cues with oral directions (e.g., objects, pictures, written word, sign, gestures, modeling, etc.) usually enhances communication.
- ✓ Provide structured environment with visual cues, e.g., daily schedule.
- ✓ Break activities into smaller steps if necessary.
- ✓ Use repetition, rephrase, restate.

- ✓ Facilitate interactions with other children.

- ✓ Do not take behaviors personally. Become a good detective; figure out the reason for the behavior; and then, teach the student the skills necessary to communicate that need.

- ✓ Make changes in the environment to accommodate the student's sensory needs, e.g., adjust lighting, remove visual distractions, smells, noises.

- ✓ Provide a "calming" place where the student can escape/regroup and calm down when over stimulated.

SPEECH IMPAIRMENTS

A student who has a speech impairment has difficulty with the mechanics of speech production. Speech disorders may be observed in voice, articulation (making sounds), or a language delay which affects a student's educational performance.

COMMON CHARACTERISTICS:

Students may exhibit:

- ➢ Mispronunciation of syllables or whole words;
- ➢ abnormal pitch, loudness or quality;
- ➢ pauses, hesitations or repetitions; and
- ➢ stuttering

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES:

Encourage students to interact verbally with adults and other students.

- ✓ Make sure that verbalization, directions, instructions and conversations are presented at the student's level of understanding.

- ✓ If a student stutters, avoid finishing sentences for him/her. Use non-verbal listening skills such as eye contact and facial expressions and let the student finish talking.

- ✓ Lessen the pressure for the student to perform verbally. This will help reduce the student's anxiety.

SEVERE LANGUAGE DISORDERS

A severe language disorder is the reduced ability, whether developmental or acquired, to comprehend or express ideas through spoken or written language or through the use of gestures. This disability may involve problems in normal language development at any age.

COMMON CHARACTERISTICS:

- May be unable to understand the meanings of symbols, letters and gestures and many are not verbal or only echo the speech they hear.
- May understand what is said but cannot recall the words needed to speak.
- May organize their words into meaningful phrases or sentences, or cannot produce intelligent speech.
- In addition to impaired speaking, reading and writing, the student with a severe language disorder may exhibit impaired social and emotional growth.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES:

- ✓ Be aware that speech and language problems will affect almost all other areas of classroom instruction and student achievement.
- ✓ See that the student is involved within the classroom setting and not excluded from peer interaction within the classroom.

MULTIPLE DISABILITIES

Multiple disabilities refers to combinations of two or more impairments that may include mental retardation and/or social/emotional, physical, sensory or other disabilities. The term usually does not include individuals with deafblindness. Students with multiple disabilities require specific special educational services to meet the needs which result from both/all impairments. They are likely to need substantial and sustained support to help them meet success in their educational program, live independently, and maintain social relationships.

COMMON CHARACTERISTICS:

Since the term multiple disabilities implies the presence of at least two impairments, students with multiple disabilities are actually a diverse group. Perhaps the most likely common characteristic is the need for a wide range of modifications and adaptations to support these students.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES:

Paraeducators should:

- ✓ Be aware of the impact of the multiple impairments on the student's ability to access school, home, community, and work environments, and provide support to accommodate the student's unique needs.

- ✓ Follow the curriculum developed by the teacher to meet the student's individual needs (e.g., academic, self-management, community, social, vocational, recreation/leisure, communication).

- ✓ Encourage and assist the student to develop a social network (e.g., peer buddies, peer tutors, joining school clubs, joining community organizations); pay particular attention to communication and social skills needs of the student.

- ✓ Be aware of long term goals for the student such as competitive or supported employment, and adult living (e.g., living in one's own home, either independently or with support).

- ✓ Encourage the student to be as independent as possible.

- ✓ Assist related service personnel (registered nurse, occupational therapist, physical therapist, speech therapist) to meet the goals and objectives of the Individualized Health Plan, when applicable.

ORTHOPEDIC DISABILITIES

A child may be born with an orthopedic (physical) impairment or the impairment may be acquired later. Some impairments are permanent while others may only be temporary. The most common physical or orthopedic impairments include, but are not limited to: cerebral palsy, muscular dystrophy, spina bifida, amputations or anomalies, and fractures or burns that cause contractures.

COMMON CHARACTERISTICS:

- ➢ Muscular or neuromuscular disabilities that significantly limit the ability to move, sit, or manipulate the materials required for learning **or**

- ➢ Skeletal deformities or abnormalities that affect walking, posture, and body use

- ➢ May require the additional services of an adaptive physical education teacher, physical or occupational therapist, or speech therapist

- ➢ May require extensive assistance in learning self help skills

- ➢ May have associated disabilities (speech deficits, seizures, perceptual disorders)

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES:

Paraeducators should:

- ✓ Provide physical assistance and support.
- ✓ Be aware of long and short term goals (independent toileting, mobility skills, etc.).
- ✓ Monitor safety and health, follow instructions from the RN and other health professionals.
- ✓ Know how to use/operate technology options (computers, communication devices, adapted switches, etc.).
- ✓ Allow extra time for mobility and transitions.
- ✓ Maximize movement opportunities.
- ✓ Eliminate activities where falling is more of a risk.
- ✓ Document performance of activities identified on the Individualized Health Services Plan.

HEALTH IMPAIRMENTS

Health impairments include a variety of disabilities that can adversely affect a student's educational achievement. The student may have limited strength, vitality or alertness because of chronic or acute health problems such as congenital heart problems, juvenile rheumatoid arthritis, asthma, diabetes, epilepsy, cancer, cystic fibrosis, sickle-cell anemia, hemophilia, leukemia or attention deficit disorders.

COMMON CHARACTERISTICS:

- ➢ Intelligence is probably very similar to peers who follow typical development patterns;
- ➢ Reduced efficiency in school work;
- ➢ Limitations in one or more of major life activities (self-help skills, performing manual tasks, walking, seeing, hearing, speaking, breathing, learning, and working);
- ➢ Frequent absences (may require homebound services);
- ➢ Increased fatigue;

- Achievement may fluctuate with severity of condition;
- Coping skills are not always positive.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES:

Paraeducators should:

✓ Provide frequent rest periods.

✓ Learn to recognize medical alerts or signals and report to the teacher and the school nurse.

HEARING IMPAIRMENT

The area of Hearing Impairment covers a wide range of student disabilities. Hearing Impairments impact the ability to hear sounds and to discern clarity, ranging from a slight hearing loss to deafness. Hearing impairments usually result in communication problems in the classroom. Each student who is hearing impaired is unique in his/her needs.

COMMON CHARACTERISTICS:

- The student's language and speech will be affected, depending on the onset and severity of the hearing impairment.
- A student with a hearing impairment may use sign language, cues or rely on speech reading (understanding another person by watching the lips and face) to communicate with others.
- Reading and writing skills may be below expected ability. Individualized intervention might be needed.
- Because of communication difficulties, social interaction with hearing peers may be an area of concern.
- Some students who are hearing impaired talk too loudly or too softly, or make unintentional noises.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES:

Paraeducators should:

✓ Try to reduce background noises.

- ✓ If a hearing aid has been prescribed, make sure the student wears it at all times, unless otherwise instructed.

- ✓ Help the student learn to care for specialized equipment such as hearing aids and auditory trainers (teacher/paraeducator wears a portable microphone which transmits what is said directly to the student's hearing aid). Check the batteries daily.

Provide previews of vocabulary words or concepts that will be presented during class instruction. Ask the teacher to write these key words or ideas on the board during instruction to help cue the student.

VISUAL IMPAIRMENT

An individual is considered to have a visual impairment when, even with correction (glasses, contact lenses, surgery, etc.), the individual's educational performance continues to be adversely affected. The area of visual impairments covers a wide and varied range of conditions, including blindness, legal blindness, partially seeing, and visual conditions (e.g., nystagmus, astigmatism). It is important to remember that individuals who are considered to be blind or visually impaired are not identical and each person has his/her own unique set of needs.

COMMON CHARACTERISTICS:

Individuals with visual impairments may:

- ➢ Rub their eyes, shut or cover one eye when reading, tilt their heads to one side
- ➢ Lose their place while reading
- ➢ Have unusual difficulty reading
- ➢ Hold objects very close to eyes (especially printed material)
- ➢ Complain of pain in eyes or head, or of dizziness or nausea
- ➢ Complain of fuzzy or double vision
- ➢ Reverse/confuse numbers and letters
- ➢ Use poor spacing when writing.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES:

Paraeducator should:

- ✓ Encourage the student to be as independent as possible.

- ✓ Know the purpose of and how to use special aids such as magnifiers, lighting and large type in classroom instruction.

- ✓ Be conscious of contrasts in the environment. Finding a dark blue object on a dark floor may prove more difficult than finding a white or light colored object on the same floor.

- ✓ Be conscious of contrast in printed material. Black letters on a red background may be more difficult to read than black letters on a lighter background (yellow or white).

- ✓ Be careful to eliminate or decrease glare in the class, especially on the blackboards.

- ✓ Provide for preferential seating in the classroom and extra desk/storage space for enlarged materials and special aids.

- ✓ Use concrete materials and tactile aids. Use the "real" object whenever possible (real fruit as opposed to plastic fruit, real coins rather than play money).

- ✓ Be specific and clear when giving directions. Add details such as which desk, which side, etc. Avoid pointing and saying "over there."

- ✓ If assistance with mobility (moving from one location to another) is needed, never lead, push or pull the student. Allow the student to hold your elbow, or in the case of a small child, your wrist. Do not hold hands.

- ✓ Protect the student's hands (and your own) if (s)he rubs the eyes or if the eye tears or has frequent infections.

DEAF/BLIND

Deafblindness is a condition in which combined visual and hearing impairments cause severe communication and learning needs. Individuals with deafblindness have a unique and different view of their environment.

COMMON CHARACTERISTICS:

For the child who is deafblind, the world can be a narrow place. If the person is profoundly deaf and totally blind, the world would extend only as far as his/her fingertips could reach. These children are effectively alone if no one is touching them. Their concepts of their environment and the world depend upon what or whom they have had the opportunity to physically contact. If a child who is deafblind has some usable vision and/or hearing, as many do, their environment will be enlarged. Many students labeled deafblind have enough useable vision to move around in their environment, recognize familiar people, see sign language at close distances, and may be able to read large print. Other students have sufficient hearing to recognize environmental sounds, understand some speech, or develop speech themselves. The range of sensory impairments included in the term "deafblind" is vast.

SUGGESTED STRATEGIES:

Paraeducator should:

- ✓ Use any identified strengths.
- ✓ Follow the developmentally functional program developed by the teacher to meet the individual's needs.
- ✓ Use age-appropriate activities.
- ✓ Respect the individual's communication mode.
- ✓ Communicate to the individual when an activity or event is to begin or end.
- ✓ Never push/pull and individual from place to place. Provide information about a change in activity before it happens.
- ✓ Keep the eyes with tears or any drainage clean; wash hands frequently.

MODULE IV

THE INSTRUCTIONAL PROCESS

OVERVIEW

The aim of instruction is to present each learner with information, skills and knowledge necessary to assist them in reaching their potential as students and individuals later in life. With students who are culturally and linguistically diverse, the teacher and paraeducator work together as an "instructional team" since the teacher is ultimately responsible for instruction yet the paraeducator is frequently the person who can communicate most effectively with the bilingual child. A good working relationship between teacher and paraeducator is very important, especially since regular communication regarding the performance of each child is critical to her/his education. Students learning English often need accommodations to make instruction meaningful and understandable. The instructional team discusses specific accommodations, their implementation and results. All educators—teachers, paraeducators, administrators—must be aware of and sensitive to the complex process of learning a new language, as well as the complexities of learning through a language other than one's native language.

This module describes components of effective instruction for English language learners (ELL), including an understanding of the second language acquisition process, assessment, setting linguistically appropriate goals and objectives, maintaining accurate performance data for each child, developing English language proficiency, and specific instructional strategies. The goal of the module is to equip paraeducators with information and skills that they can use to be members of effective instructional teams in their school site.

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

The paraeducators will be able to:

1) Describe the importance of language development and the stages of the natural approach.

2) Identify levels of language proficiency.

3) Describe factors that affect second language acquisition.

4) Describe the role of native language instruction

5) Describe the importance and use of linguistically appropriate Individual Educational Plans (IEP), Individual Transition Plans (ITP) and the Individual Family Service Plans (IFSP).

6) Describe the importance of on-going assessment of a child's progress toward educational goals.

7) Describe the importance of keeping accurate, relevant, on-going data on the progress of each child.

8) Describe the importance of using appropriate instructional interventions when working with culturally and linguistically diverse children and their families. These will include:

   a) Characteristics and patterns of behavior common to all people;

   b) Techniques of appropriate reinforcement to encourage students to learn and maintain behaviors;

   c) Techniques of modeling appropriate behavior;

   d) Techniques of shaping appropriate behavior;

   e) Techniques of extinction for eliminating behavior that may be counter-productive to the educational goals and objectives;

   f) Techniques of task analysis to break down learning activities into sequenced, small steps so that the child can learn more easily; and

   g) Specific instructional interventions for English language learners.

TIME REQUIRED

Unit 1 Language Development - 1 hour

Unit 2 Second Language Acquisition - 1 hour 30 minutes

Unit 3 The Importance of the Individual Educational Plan (IEP) and Individual Family Services (IFSP) - 1 hour, 15 minutes

Unit 4 The Importance of On-Going Assessment - 1 hour, 30 minutes

Unit 5 The Importance of Observing and Keeping Good Data - 1 hour, 45 minutes

Unit 6 The Importance of Developing Appropriate Goals and Objectives - 2 hours, 45 minutes

Unit 7 Instructional Interventions - 4 hours

RESOURCES AND REFERENCES

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UNIT 1

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

EQUIPMENT AND MATERIAL REQUIRED:

- ❑ A flipchart and easel or chalkboard
- ❑ An overhead projector and screen
- ❑ Copies of the information handouts for trainees
- ❑ Copies of Exercise #1 for all participants

BEFORE THE TRAINING

- ❑ Review the Background Material and Information Handouts in this unit. You may want to review the unit on Second Language Acquisition as well.
- ❑ Develop a series of brief lectures on the importance of language development and the stages of the natural approach.
- ❑ On a chalkboard or flipchart write each of the stages of the natural approach.

DURING THE SESSION

- ❑ Begin the session by discussing the importance of language development and its interrelationship with cognitive and social development.
- ❑ Move on to discuss the fact that second language learners acquire language through a developmental process. The natural approach characterizes each stage and gives a description of each stage.
- ❑ As each stage is discussed, jot down those characteristics on the flipchart or easel.
- ❑ Distribute **Exercise #1** and ask participants to work in pairs and classify each statement as to the stage of the natural approach.

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

Supporting the development of language for academic and social uses is a critical component of instructional programs. In order to be successful in school students need to know and use language in a variety of forms, such as oral and written language, as well as in a variety of contexts such as asking for clarification, making a socially appropriate comment, arguing a position, storytelling and retelling, and writing an analysis or summary.

The language development strategies provided in Information Handout #1 apply to both first and second languages. If the goal is English as a Second Language (ESL), the strategies can be used in English; if the goal is language development, the student's primary language can be used in the same ways.

When one is learning a second language, the process follows a developmental approach much like when one learns his/her first language. Teachers modify their presentation of academic material and assignments to accommodate the student's level of language proficiency. Although a student may be at beginning levels of English language development, complex cognitive ideas can be understood when presented in a way that lessens the linguistic demand. In other words, the lesson content is academically challenging but the presentation is modified. The teacher asks students to express their knowledge in ways that match their current level of proficiency, with the teacher ever aware of moving the students to a higher level of proficiency. The natural approach characterizes second language development as a four-stage process. These stages are:

Preproduction. The first stage is comprehension or preproduction. The focus of this stage is on listening comprehension and students communicate with gestures and actions. Speaking should not be forced since students will speak when they are ready. Lessons should build receptive vocabulary. A technique used at this stage is Total Physical Response (TPR) which uses commands wherein students respond in a physical way rather than verbally. For example, receptive vocabulary in math is developed when the teacher shows pictures of 24 pencils and 4 children and says, "Oscar has 24 pencils and he wants to share them with his 3 friends. Hold up 1 finger if I multiply (teacher points to the multiplication sign) to find the answer and hold up 2 fingers if I divide (teacher points to the division sign)." Students are able to learn math skills and the associated vocabulary without the pressure of having to produce language before they are ready.

Early Production. In this stage speech will be in single words or short phrases and will contain many errors. Forcing students to speak will only increase errors, but lessons are designed to motivate students to produce the vocabulary they already understand. Students at this stage are able to respond to either/or questions and general questions that can be answered with a single word. Again, the teacher uses pictures, words, signs or drawings on the overhead projector, body language or any other strategy that will make the academic content understandable for students in this stage of development. For example, when presenting a history lesson in a comprehensible

way, the teacher may ask a student in this stage to select and write down a word to describe the climate of the Sahara desert: arid, humid or tropical.

Speech Emergence. In this stage speech production will improve to longer phrases and complete sentences. It is important that lessons continue to expand receptive vocabulary, containing sufficient comprehensible input and focus on meaning rather than grammar. For example, when the teacher asks for three causes of the Civil War, and a student at this stage volunteers the answer, "There were slaves" the teacher responds by saying, "That's right. The practice of slavery was one cause of the Civil War. What's another?" The teacher accepts the student's answer and models a more elaborate sentence, focusing on the meaning the student conveyed, not the form. Some ways students may demonstrate their understanding of academic content is through skits, games, group writing projects and other activities that promote higher levels of language use.

Intermediate Fluency. While lessons in this stage continue to expand receptive vocabulary, students are now able to engage in conversation and complete longer writing assignments. Students in this stage are more proficient in their expression of content area knowledge and skills. Teachers are aware that students at this level of proficiency continue to benefit from lessons that are modified to make complex ideas understandable. English language skills are explicitly taught in content areas (social studies, math, science), taking into account the students' need to achieve higher levels of academic proficiency for success in school.

STRATEGIES FOR LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

To help children develop language and communication skills, members of the instructional team should:

- ✓ Let children take the lead. This can be accomplished by watching what children do, listening to what they say and responding to all efforts to communicate.

- ✓ Provide instruction in brief, natural and fun exchanges. Teach language and/or social skills *whenever* and *wherever* it is functional and enables children to succeed or get what they want.

- ✓ Create an environment that encourages children to choose from a variety of activities, materials, and equipment provides time to explore and when children are ready, to encourage them to try more complex/challenging activities.

- ✓ "Go with the flow" of what children are doing. Respond to their actions or questions. Add new information to a child's comments. Ask questions to stimulate thinking/the creation of new ideas.

- ✓ Adapt methods for group instruction to accommodate the developmental levels of individual children by 1) making sure each child has a chance to respond or participate actively, 2) using prompts and cues that are appropriate to the communication level of a child, 3) keeping materials in plain view or holding them for a child, and 4) speaking to an individual child about an event or item that is meaningful.

THE NATURAL APPROACH: STATES OF NATURAL DEVELOPMENT

DIRECTIONS:
Classify the following students according to their Stage of Natural Development.

A. Pre-production
B. Early Production
C. Speech Emergence
D. Intermediate Fluency

_____ 1. Pan is in a 10th grade biology class. The teacher is reviewing the previous day's lesson on the components of a cell. Pan understands the components of a cell because the teacher gave the class copies of a cell that they worked on in groups to label. When the teacher asks Pan a question, he holds up a picture of a cell, points to the center and says "Is this the nucleus or a membrane?" Pon replies "nucleus."

_____ 2. Araceli enjoys math but has difficulty with the English terms for operations. The third grade teacher is introducing word problems to the class. He shows a picture of three girls and says, "Each girl has 23 pieces of candy. What is a fast way to find the total number of candies all three girls have? If you think addition, hold up your hand (teacher demonstrates holding up his hand). If you think multiplication, hold up your pencil (teacher demonstrates holding up a pencil)." Araceli holds up her pencil.

_____ 3. The first grade teacher is reading a story to the class and wants to be sure all the students comprehend. The characters in the story include a farmer, a dentist and a hairdresser. As she reads the story, she pauses after every couple pages to ask comprehension questions. For most students she asks questions that require complete sentence responses. When she checks Pablo's understanding, she alters her questions to meet his English proficiency level. She tells him, "Find the tools the hairdresser uses. Show them to me. Point to the dentist." In this way, the teacher is sure that Pablo can distinguish the characters in the story.

_____ 4. In social studies, the 8th grade class is completing a unit on Africa. Each student is given a card with a question about the geography of Africa and is required to prepare a brief answer. Then each student must go to the large map of Africa in the front of the room and, pointing to the geographic area, tell the class the question and answer. Oscar tells the class about the region near the Nile.

_____ 5. Supakit is very interested in the history of California. He understands quite a bit about the establishment of the missions and the gold rush because his teacher presents information in a contextually rich manner. She shows pictures, has conversations around important topics, provides opportunities for students to work together and adjusts her speech to enhance student comprehension. Some students wrote a 5-page term paper about California history. The project Supakit completed had beautiful illustrations with short paragraphs describing the concepts he had illustrated.

UNIT 2

SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

EQUIPMENT AND MATERIAL REQUIRED:

- ❑ A flipchart and easel or chalkboard
- ❑ An overhead projector and screen
- ❑ Copies of the information handouts for trainees
- ❑ Transparencies for Unit 1

BEFORE THE TRAINING SESSION

- ❑ Review the Background Information on second language acquisition.
- ❑ Make a transparency of the iceberg representation of levels of language proficiency, the dual iceberg model, Cummins' grid and Factors that Affect Second Language acquisition. Also have a blank transparency.
- ❑ Make copies of Student Profiles (Exercise #1), the Role of Native Language Instruction (Exercise #2) and the Word Wheel (Exercise #3).
- ❑ Practice developing a representation of language proficiency (iceberg) using the student profiles in Activity #1.

DURING THE TRAINING SESSION

- ❑ Begin the presentation by discussing the levels of language proficiency using **Transparency #1** as a guide. Point out that one can be a conversational speaker of a language but may not be literate in that language nor able to carry on a high-level discussion around topics such as politics or science in that language. The same is true of students: they may be able to use conversational English but not have academic proficiency in the language.
- ❑ Using **Transparency #2** as a guide, discuss the unique situation of bilingual learners and the dual iceberg model. After completing the discussion, begin **Exercise #1**. Be sure to go over the first profile with the entire class. (Draw Habib's iceberg on a blank transparency as a

model.) Be sure to answer any questions before dividing the participants into pairs. Ask the various teams to share their "icebergs" and clarify any confusion they may have about surface and deeper levels of language proficiency.

- ❑ Using **Transparency #3** as an illustration, discuss the four quadrants and the types of linguistic and cognitive demands they represent. Emphasize that the role of educators is to develop high levels of academic language for school success, not simple conversational language levels.

- ❑ Discuss the role of native language using the descriptions of Juanito and Fernando as the focus. Distribute **Exercise #2**. Ask the participants to read it and then to determine which student has the advantage and why. Encourage a discussion of each position. Then present the rationale given in the background information.

- ❑ Following the discussion of native language support, distribute **Exercise #3**, the Word Wheel. Have participants select a concept and in groups of three, develop a word wheel for their concept.

- ❑ Using **Transparency #4** as a guide, discuss the factors that affect second language acquisition, with participants taking notes as you discuss each factor.

SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

INTRODUCTION. Given the ever-increasing numbers of English language learners in our schools, concern about the academic achievement of these students is of great concern. Several states have experienced a disproportionate influx of immigrant populations, leading to estimates that minority enrollment will constitute the majority of students in the nation's 15 largest school systems. Not only are there large numbers of English language learners in the schools, there is a wide variety of languages spoken as well. Many school classrooms include students from multiple language backgrounds. Further, within the same class English language learners may have a variety of English proficiency levels from quite limited proficiency to intermediate or advanced levels. Adding to the mosaic is the fact that some of these students may have good oral skills in English yet have difficulty with academic tasks; others may be reluctant to speak but can compose a paragraph and seem to have good reading comprehension skills.

How can you provide instruction to such a diverse group of students? A first step might be to understand that there are different cognitive and linguistic demands for different tasks. That is, answering questions about what happened at recess does not require high levels of language and is not cognitively challenging, but summarizing a chapter on recycling has a higher cognitive demand and requires a high level of linguistic ability. So why can some students converse quite well in English yet do poorly on academic tasks?

CONVERSATIONAL AND ACADEMIC LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY. Language proficiency is often thought of as one's ability to speak and understand. In schools, students whose home language is other than English are given a language proficiency designation. The categories typically are limited English proficient (LEP), fluent English proficient (FEP) and English only, or a native speaker of English (EO). Most proficiency assessments rely heavily on oral ability in making a determination, while school tasks actually require a more complex level of language proficiency.

Researcher Jim Cummins has made a distinction between these two types of language proficiency: conversational proficiency needed in everyday situations (originally termed basic interpersonal communication skill or BICS) and academic proficiency, which is the more cognitively demanding language necessary for school success (cognitive/academic language proficiency or CALP).

Conversational proficiency is relatively easy to acquire. In fact, one can learn and understand basic words and phrases in a matter of hours. Cummins suggests that it takes 2-3 years to become proficient at this level of language competence. However, in his conceptualization of bilingual proficiency, conversational proficiency is just the "tip of the iceberg." Below the surface lies the more critical language proficiency required for academic tasks.

Transparency 1 shows how Bloom's Taxonomy applies to Cummins' levels of proficiency. Cognitive processes above the surface include the following:

Knowledge: remembering something previously encountered or learned. For example, "Repeat it to me," "Give me the name of _____."
Comprehension: grasp basic meaning without necessarily relating it to other material. For example, "Explain it in your own words."
Application: applying knowledge in concrete and abstract situations. For example, "Using a formula to measure real objects, relate it to a personal situation."

The cognitive processes that lie below the surface include:

Analysis: breaking down a whole into its parts so each part is clear and stands alone. For example, "What are the parts of a human cell and what are the characteristics of each part?"
Synthesis: putting elements into a coherent whole, generalizing and connecting. For example, "When you add this part, how is the system affected?" "How would these things fit together?"
Evaluation: judging ideas and materials, making decisions based on evidence. For example, "When comparing the two stories we just finished reading, decide which one you think does a better job of creating suspense? Cite three examples from the book you select."

The language of school is more complex and more cognitively demanding than everyday or conversational language. It is the kind of language needed for tasks such as comprehension of text, analysis and synthesis of material. Teachers and paraeducators must maintain high expectations for students as they are acquiring English. Most instructional time should be spent with activities that develop these deeper levels of thinking, since the ability to access and manipulate academic language is key to academic achievement.

Using the iceberg analogy, bilingual students have a dual iceberg: the surface features of their native language and the surface features of English (conversational ability). They also have academic proficiency in their native language and English. For example, a student may be at grade level in conversational ability and at grade level in her native language academically. However, she only speaks limited English and is not yet able to perform academic tasks in English. Another student may speak his native language and English but does poorly on academic tasks in either language. So he has conversational proficiency but has not developed academic proficiency. Often bilingual students who have good conversational proficiency in English are mistakenly thought to be ready for grade-level academic tasks in English, tasks that usually offer few contextual clues such as gestures or visual clues (pictures, models) and include reading text (without visual clues), math concepts, math word problems, written composition, lectures and tests. When the student performs poorly, the cognitive and linguistic demands of the task are seldom examined. Changing the task difficulty to match the student's ability or providing more contextual support is a more worthwhile solution than considering the poor performance to be a result of innate ability or lack of motivation. (See Transparency #2 for a diagram of the dual iceberg model.)

Cummins' idea of levels of language proficiency has been criticized as oversimplifying the reality of how complex and multifaceted language and language competence is. In fact, research indicates that a bilingual student's language competencies are influenced by a number of factors (environment, motivation) and are constantly evolving, interacting—not simple dichotomies which are easily compartmentalized and unchanging. Further, the notion of distinct levels of language proficiency lacks research evidence, and it may be impossible to define and accurately test the distinction.

In spite of its limitations, the notion of conversational language vs. academic language (BICS/ CALP) enjoys wide popularity among practitioners, primarily because of its applicability to students in classroom situations. It provides a general assessment of students' language needs and explicitly states that even if a student appears to have a good command of English, the student may not yet be ready for academic instruction in English without extra support.

The most important lesson in understanding the distinction between conversational proficiency and academic language development is knowing that our goal is to get to deeper levels of language use. We know to teach for understanding by *talking* about meaning. Academic material is presented in a way that students understand, and students demonstrate their understanding of a word, concept or idea before the teacher moves on to the next lesson.

Transparency 3 demonstrates the way that educators can take difficult material and make it more understandable for English language learners, without watering down the concepts. Cummins' diagram shows the four quadrants, which represent different levels of cognitive and linguistic difficulty as well as level of contextual clues (environment, visuals, gestures, tone of voice, etc).

Quadrant A represents tasks that are cognitively easy to understand and have a lot of contextual clues. For example, a student in PE class need only watch a game of volleyball for a few minutes before she can understand what is expected of her as a player. The task has low linguistic and cognitive demand and the visual nature of volleyball creates a context to enhance her understanding.

Quadrant C represents tasks that are easy but have few contextual clues. For example, a note written on a hall pass is relatively easy for an English language learner to decipher because the message is simple. Quadrant D represents the kinds of academic tasks English language learners usually face, those that are cognitively difficult and have few contextual clues. Context reduced language is more difficult for the learner not only because of lack of contextual clues, but also because the learner can't negotiate meaning by letting the teacher know that she doesn't understand.

Quadrant B represents the type of academic tasks that facilitate understanding because of the high level of contextual clues. In social studies, for example, the teacher would read the text aloud, paraphrasing as needed, asking questions to check comprehension, allowing enough wait time for students to process the questions and their answers, and showing visuals of ideas and concepts in

the text. In addition, hands-on activities would reinforce the concepts discussed, providing opportunity for students to use among themselves the academic language that was introduced. In a high context conversation a student would show that she doesn't understand the teacher by body language, a puzzled look, or by interrupting or asking the teacher a question. The teacher would adjust his speech and communicate in a different way in order to help the student understand. This process of checking to make sure he is understood and readjusting as needed continues throughout a lesson. Thus, one of the primary ways educators can make academic language understandable is to give it the features of a conversation (see Echevarria & Graves, 1998 for information on instructional conversations).

THE ROLE OF NATIVE LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION. For students learning English, native language instruction plays an important role in their education. One benefit of native language instruction is that it raises the status of minority languages, contributing to students' feelings that school is a place where they belong and are accepted. Another benefit is that it enhances the cognitive development of these students, expanding their knowledge and understanding of concepts—the academic proficiency so necessary for school success. We have many students in our schools who have literacy levels below their grade level, and for these student in particular, it is difficult to catch up when instruction is in a language they do not yet fully comprehend. Native language instruction provides the support they need. The deeper the conceptual foundation, the higher you can build.

Consider the following cases of two immigrant students to illustrate the importance of a solid foundation in the primary language.

> Fernando was six months old when his family arrived in the U.S. The family was driven to start a life in a strange land by the promise of a better future for their children. The father decided that in order for his child to learn English and have an edge when he entered school, the family would speak English at home. The father learned basic English on the job, and the mother picked up phrases here and there. Although hindered by lack of proficient English, they both were committed to their decision and struggled to use the new language as often as possible with their child.

> Juanito's family also made many sacrifices in order to come to the U.S. seeking a better future. For the first five years of his life, Juanito's father worked long and hard in this new land while his mother, who spoke no English, stayed home. So as not to forget their homeland, Juanito's mother spent many hours telling Juanito and his baby sister stories of their village in Mexico. She taught the children traditional songs and rhymes and Juanito helped his mother prepare his father's favorite meals.

> (These case studies are contained in Exercise #2).

Which child has the advantage when he enters school? Although Fernando's family has the best of intentions, his language will not be as fully developed as that of Juanito. By restricting native language use in the home, Fernando does not have a solid linguistic foundation in either language. He has not had the kinds of preliteracy experiences that Juanito has had.

Through his experiences, Juanito has a foundation in preliteracy (word order and patterns, rhyming, vocabulary and concept development) as well as background knowledge upon which to build. He will not have to relearn acquired concepts when he begins to speak English; the concepts will transfer to the new language. For example, once you learn to read, you do not relearn reading skills (sound/symbol relationship, work attack skills, etc.) to read in another language. The skills transfer to the new language. This has been termed "common underlying proficiency."

A good foundation in the primary language is one of several factors that affect the acquisition of a second language. One way that paraeducators can support the students' primary language is to explore concepts and support the efforts of the school by using deeper levels of thinking and lots of talking about the subject matter. For example, English language learners would benefit from having a conversation about a concept and elaborating word use through drawing of a "word wheel." Activity #3 illustrates a word wheel and how it can be used to develop academic language.

FACTORS THAT AFFECT SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION. Krashen (1982) has made a distinction between language learning and language acquisition. Language learning involves conscious knowledge of the second language, its rules and grammar, and proper usage. Acquiring a language is the process by which one "picks up" language when using it for some communicative purpose. Without being aware of the process, one begins using language more effortlessly than if concentrating on rules of usage. It is the natural process by which one acquires a first language. A combination of formal learning and unconscious acquisition is needed to become proficient in a second language, and the terms "language" and "acquisition" are often used interchangeably.

The factors that affect one's acquisition of a second language include:

MOTIVATION. While there is great variation in motivational levels from learner to learner, the importance of high motivation for second language acquisition is clear. Recognizing the need to learn the second language and being motivated to do so is a key ingredient for second language learning.

AGE. Recent research seems to indicate that younger learners are more efficient at certain aspects of language acquisition related to natural settings. They tend to "pick up" the communicative aspects of language more readily, prompting them to learn further. Young learners are also relatively free from personality issues that can have a negative impact on

language learning such as self-consciousness, mental rigidity, desiring perfect pronunciation, etc. Older learners may respond better to formal instruction in a second language because of their advanced cognitive abilities and they have a greater foundation on which to build further learning.

ACCESS TO THE LANGUAGE. Opportunities for interaction with native speakers enhances second language acquisition and can be encouraged by using heterogeneous grouping and a learning environment that invites student-to-student interaction.

PERSONALITY. Extroverts may enjoy initial success with the language because they tend to prefer the social aspects of relationships—talking to others, playing and working with others—thus providing increased opportunity for interaction and access to native language models. However, there are not likely to be long term language learning differences based on introversion and extroversion.

Risk taking is a personality characteristic that can greatly affect language learning. A willingness to experiment with vocabulary and forms of the language, as well as drawing generalizations from what has been learned will increase proficiency.

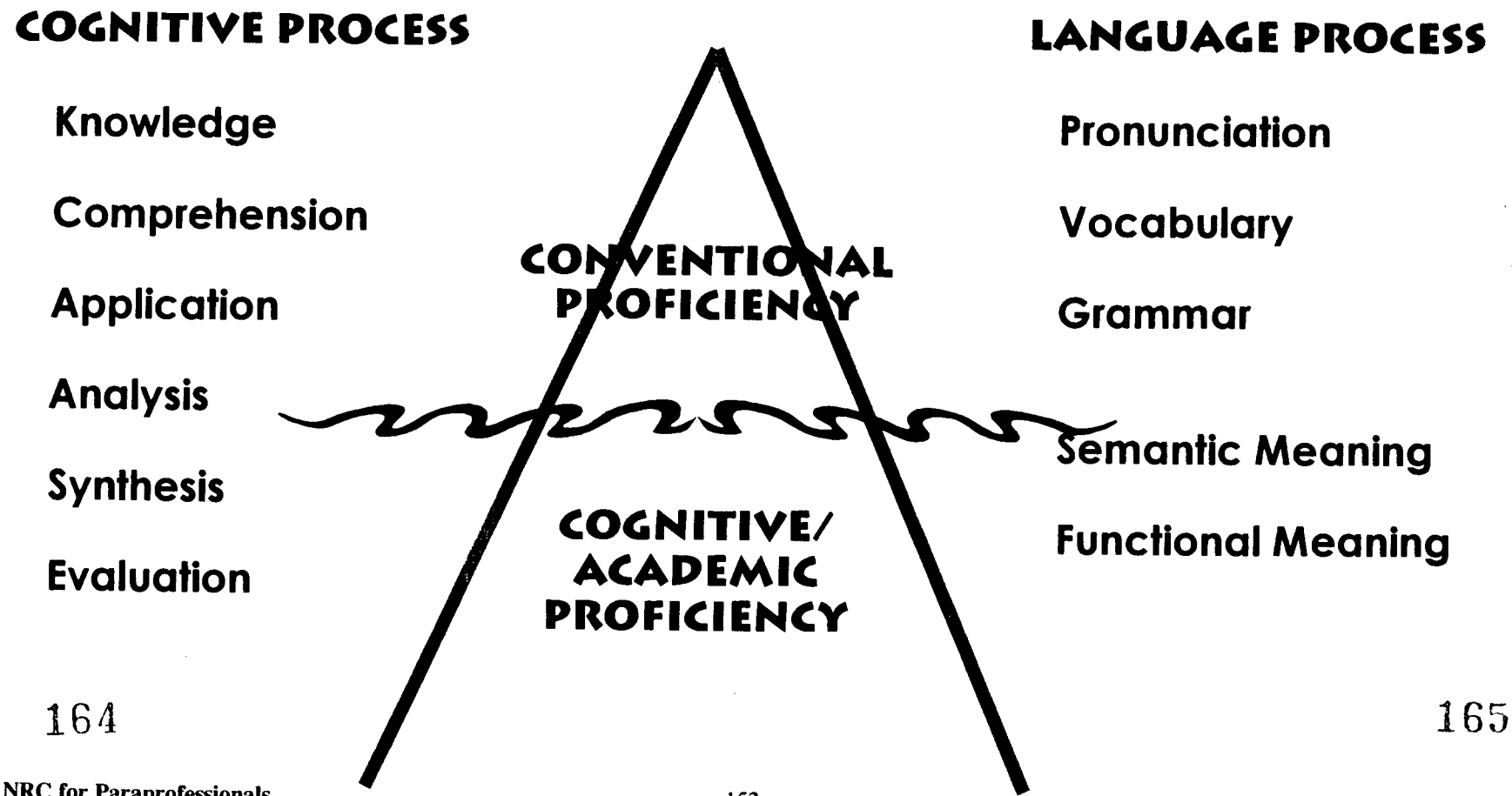
FIRST LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT. Learning one's first language is a complex task, requiring a minimum of 12 years with certain aspects of development such as vocabulary expansion enduring a lifetime. Although a tremendous amount of language is acquired from birth to age 5, children from ages 6-12 continue in the development of more complex forms of semantics, phonology, morphology and syntax, as well as elaboration of speech acts. Researchers suggest that the level of first language development significantly influences second language development.

QUALITY OF INSTRUCTION. Lecture style instruction encourages teacher domination and student passivity and is not effective for second language learners. Effective language learning takes place in classrooms where there is opportunity for interaction with the teacher and peers, providing practice in English. Interactive instruction allows students to use elaborated language, unlike the single utterance answers common in traditional settings.

The factors presented here affect second language acquisition, however it is important to remember that the second language acquisition process is "a very complex process and its success or failure will not be explained by a single factor or theory" (Snow, 1992).

Transparency #1

SURFACE AND DEEPER LEVELS OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY



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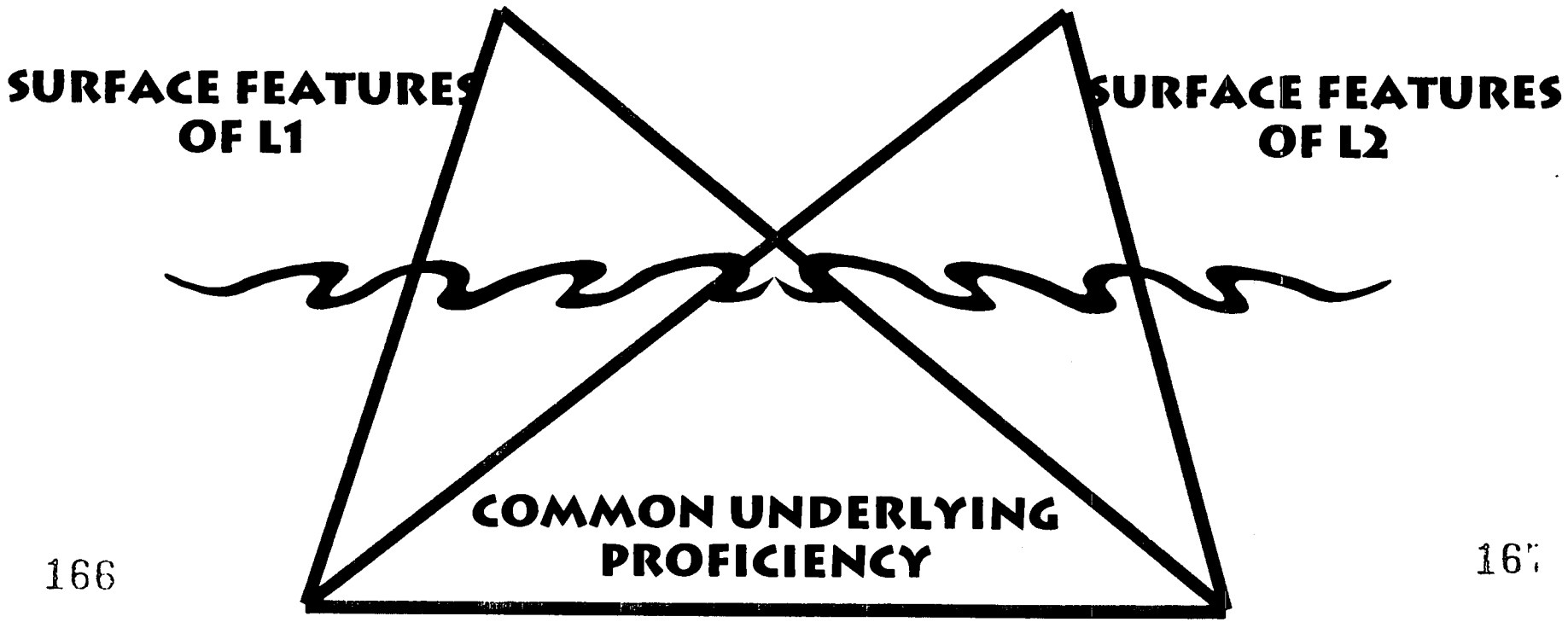
THE "DUAL ICEBERG" REPRESENTATION OF BILINGUAL PROFICIENCY



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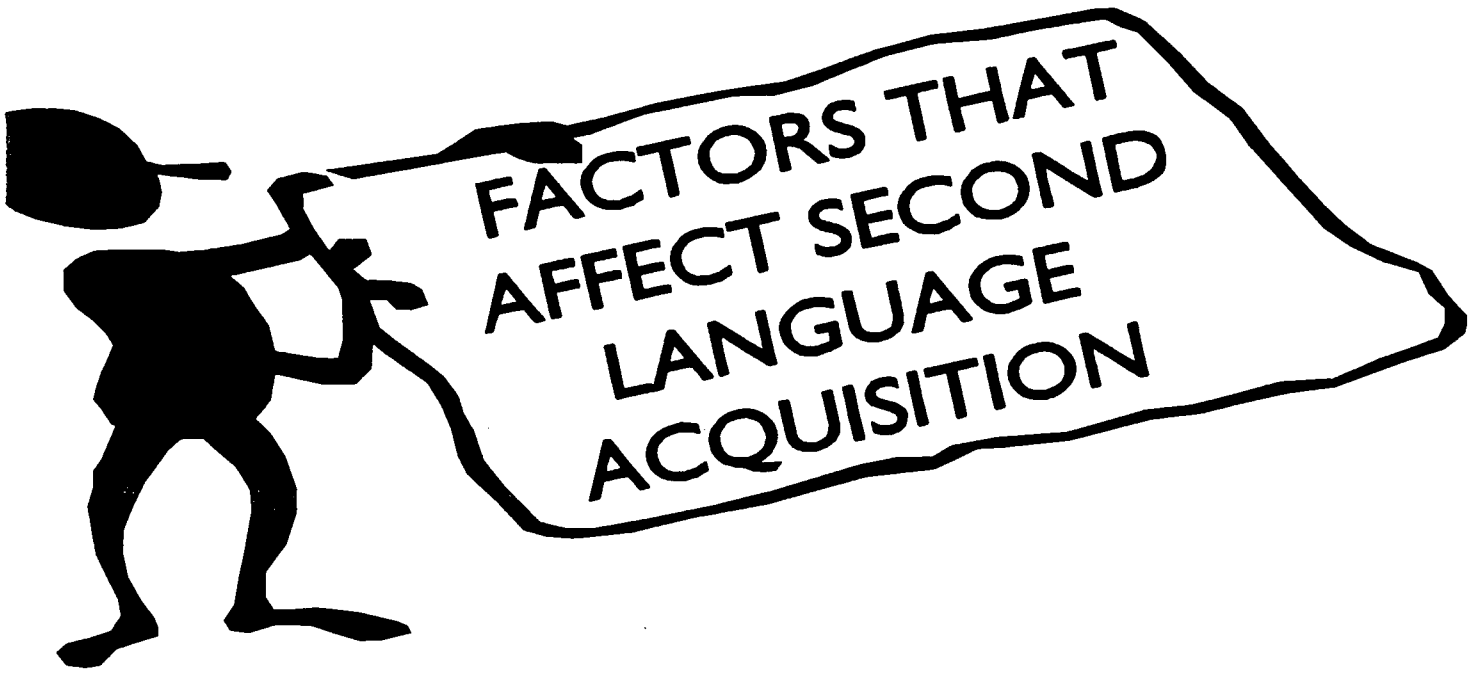


MOTIVATION

AGE

ACCESS TO THE LANGUAGE

PERSONALITY

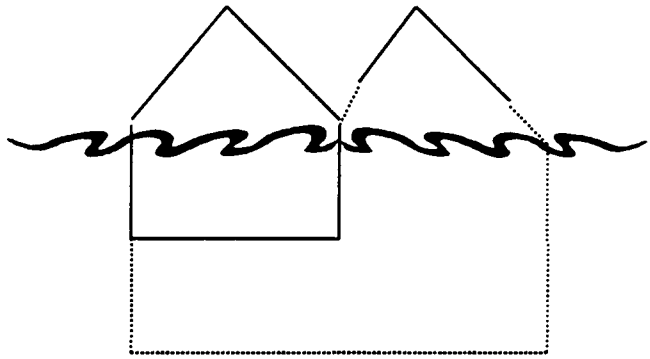
FIRST LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

QUALITY OF INSTRUCTION

LEVELS OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

Habib came to the U.S. from Algeria a year ago at age 9. He worked in the family business in Algeria and only has about one year of formal education. Since entering school he has made little progress academically although his conversational English is quite good. In applying the iceberg analogy, one can get a visual of his linguistic profile: he has complete surface features in his native language and relatively complete surface features in English as well. However, he does not fare as well in terms of the more cognitively demanding underlying proficiency. Since he worked in the family business, he probably has a fairly well developed understanding of numerical concepts but his lack of formal education has hindered literacy.

His "iceberg" would look something like this:



The dotted lines indicate deficit areas. The solid lines represent grade-level proficiency.

Directions. Working with a partner, complete the iceberg representation for each student profile. Be sure to determine if the student is at grade level in each of the four areas (conversational first language and second language; academic first language and second language). The profiles are somewhat general and open to interpretation. Be prepared to defend your reasoning.

1. Rosa was educated in El Salvador until her family fled the war. She reads and writes at grade level in Spanish but has little or no academic skills in English, nor does she speak English. What does her iceberg look like?

2. Farquar came from Iran a year ago at age 15. He worked with his father while in Iran and has only about one year of formal education. Since entering school, he has made little progress academically. What does his iceberg look like?

3. Born in Los Angeles, Pablo speaks a mixture of Spanish and English at home and at school. He can converse quite well in both languages but for some reason does not make academic progress in either language. What does his iceberg look like?

4. Sho-win does fairly well in her bilingual class. She reads and writes almost at grade level in Chinese. She socializes with mostly English-speaking students and is understood by them although she has no English academic skills. What does her iceberg look like?

5. Rona's mother reads to her each night in Russian. At the age of 13, she reads at grade level in Russian and is beginning to read some English books. Since she speaks English, Rona is interested in reading more English books. What does her iceberg look like?

ROLE OF NATIVE LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

Fernando was six months old when his family arrived in the U.S. The family was driven to start a life in a strange land by the promise of a better future for their children. The father decided that in order for his child to learn English and have an edge when he entered school, the family would speak English at home. The father learned basic English on the job, and the mother picked up phrases here and there. Although hindered by lack of proficient English, they both were committed to their decision and struggled to use the new language as often as possible with their child.

Juanito's family also made many sacrifices in order to come to the U.S. seeking a better future. For the first five years of his life, Juanito's father worked long and hard in this new land while his mother, who spoke no English, stayed home. So as not to forget their homeland, Juanito's mother spent many hours telling Juanito and his baby sister stories of their village in Mexico. She taught the children traditional songs and rhymes and Juanito helped his mother prepare his father's favorite meals.

Which child has the advantage when he enters school? Why?

Exercise #3

Word Wheels

Word wheels are used to build comprehension and expand academic vocabulary in English language learners. The steps for completing a word wheel are as follows:

1. Draw a circle on a paper and write the concept in the circle.
2. Talk about the concept with the student (i.e., what is the definition of the word, what are various forms of the word, how is it used to represent different ideas, what are antonyms for the word, organizing her ideas in spokes around the wheel.
3. The student explains each part of the wheel.
4. After the ideas have been discussed thoroughly, the student creates sentences using the words.
5. Finally, the student draws a picture to illustrate the concept.

Using the "deflate" word wheel as a sample, work with your partners in developing a word wheel for a concept such as migrate, revise, authority, cooperate or expire.

UNIT 3

THE IFSP AND THE IEP/ITP PROCESS

EQUIPMENT AND MATERIAL REQUIRED:

- ❑ A flipchart and easel or chalkboard
- ❑ An overhead projector and screen
- ❑ Copies of the information handouts for trainees
- ❑ A transparency of the IFSP/IEP Components
- ❑ Copies of the procedures and instruments used in your district/agency for developing IFSPs/IEPs.

BEFORE THE TRAINING SESSION

- ❑ Review the Background Information and the material from your district/agency regarding the IFSP/IEP/ITP process and develop a brief lecture about the IFSP/IEP procedures used in your district or agency.
- ❑ Make a transparency of the IFSP/IEP/ITP Components, or write them on the flipchart or chalkboard.
- ❑ For each trainee, make copies of 1) the Background Information for this unit and 2) your school district's IFSP/IEP/ITP forms.

DURING THE TRAINING SESSION

- ❑ Begin the session by discussing individual family service plans, education plans and transitional plans with the class. This discussion should be fairly short but it will profit from your personal experiences with IFSP/IEP/ITP planning and any anecdotal material that you feel is appropriate to share with the class. Encourage class discussion by asking: 1) Why is it important for parents or other primary caregivers to be included in planning meetings? 2) Who are the other people who should be involved? 3) What accommodations should be made for students and/or families who do not speak English?

- ❑ Distribute copies of your school district's/agency's IFSP/IEP/ITP forms to each trainee. Use the transparency as a guide and go through the components with the class. Ask them to determine if each item is included in the district form.

- ❑ Discuss your district's/agency's policy regarding the role of paraeducators in the IFSP/IEP/ ITP process, including attendance at the meetings.

THE INDIVIDUAL FAMILY SERVICE PLAN (IFSP) AND THE INDIVIDUAL EDUCATIONAL PLAN (IEP)

INTRODUCTION. More than twenty years ago, Congress passed Public Law 94-142, a law which made sweeping changes in special education in the public schools. The law mandated that a free, appropriate public school education, in the least restrictive environment, should be made available to *all* students. The new title of the law is the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA). Among other major challenges to the schools is the mandate that each student in special education should have an individual educational plan or individual transitional plan for students leaving school (IEP/ITP). The law requires that the plan be written and be developed in a meeting which includes the teaching personnel of the school and the parents. When appropriate, it should also include the student with disabilities. The law further protects the rights of parents to share in all the decisions made about their family member with disabilities and it mandates that there must be a due process procedure that will enable the student or the family to protest if either does not agree with the plan which is developed.

P.L. 99-457, passed in 1985, amended P.L. 94-142 and extended all of the rights guaranteed to school age children and youth with disabilities to young children ages three to five, including the right to an education in the least restrictive environment and an individualized education plan (IEP).

All of these rights are now included in IDEA. IDEA also encourages but does not require states to provide coordinated education, medical and other related services to children from birth to two years of age who have disabilities or who are at risk for other reasons; and to provide services to their families. The education, medical, and related services programs/interventions for the children and their families are developed by an interdisciplinary team and contained in an Individual Family Service Plan (IFSP). In some states the school districts are the lead agency responsible for the early intervention programs. In other states it may be the health department or another agency.

At the same time that legislation was being developed and passed, courts were deciding cases that provide rights to bilingual students, including those in special education. In particular, the 1974 U.S. Supreme Court decision in Lau v. Nichols stated that special language programs were necessary for LEP students if schools were to provide equal educational opportunity. Since that time, the courts' decisions have consistently favored plaintiffs and the right to bilingual special education services have been firmly established. Specific language-related issues need to be addressed in the student's IFSP/IEP/ITP.

THE IFSP. The procedures for developing an IFSP are rooted in the concept that families have the right and ability to decide such issues as the services they want their children to have, the location of these services and the staff who will carry out the activities of the IFSP. The process assumes that district/agency staff will take on various roles that enable the family to participate

actively both in planning and in implementing the objectives. Obviously, the native language of the family must be considered and arrangements for an interpreter must be made for the family to be able to play an active part in the process. The IFSP is reviewed at least annually by the team preparing it, and a report to the parents on the progress of the IFSP is to be prepared every six months. It is important that the report is translated into the family's native language, even for parents who lack literacy skills. In this way, another family or community member can thorough-ly explain the report to the parent. For languages that do not have a written form, an interpreter must explain each aspect of the report to the family. Once an IFSP has been established, one district/agency staff individual is designated to serve as the case manager with responsibility for coordinating the services decided on by parents and other team members. (See Transparency #1 for components of a linguistically appropriate IFSP).

THE IEP/ITP. The intent of the IEP is to ensure that each child with disabilities is able to take part in an educational program that will assist and support him/her as s/he learns to live, work, play, and make friends in the community. An essential part of this plan *must* be to assist the child to participate fully in community settings which the individual and/or their family select. There-fore, *planned activities should take place in the same settings as are used by other children of the same chronological age.* This means that educational activities should occur in the so-called "least restrictive environment," i.e., the regular classroom in which children of the same age are receiving instruction. At the same time, the child with disabilities may need special assistance and modified activities. Therefore, *planned support for educational activities should be provided so that the child may have a successful experience in the integrated setting*. For bilingual children, the language proficiency of the child impacts all instructional decisions and must be considered when developing the IEP/ITP. (See Transparency #2 for the components of a linguistically appropriate IEP/ITP.)

COMPONENTS OF A LINGUISTICALLY APPROPRIATE IFSP

- **General information about the child including name, address, parents or primary caregivers, primary language, level of proficiency**
- **A statement of the child's current level of cognitive, functioning and speech/ language development in the student's dominant language, as well as social and physical development**
- **The child's strengths (what s/he can do)**
- **A statement of the family's strengths and home language**
- **A statement of the outcomes to be achieved with the family and child and the criteria, procedures, and timelines for determining progress**
- **A designation of the language of instruction with clear indications of the extent to which the primary language will be used in service delivery**

COMPONENTS OF A LINGUISTICALLY APPROPRIATE IFSP (cont.)

- **The amount of ESL the child will receive and the person responsible for delivery of ESL instruction**
- **The specific early intervention support services required to meet the unique needs of the child and family including education, health/medical and other human services**
- **The projected dates for starting the services and projected duration**
- **The name of the case manager responsible for implementing the plan**
- **Procedures for transition from home-based or other early intervention programs to pre-school program**

COMPONENTS OF A LINGUISTICALLY APPROPRIATE IET/ITP

- **Pertinent personal information about the student including name, address, names of parents or legal guardians, birth date, and primary language**
- **Standardized test results, conducted in the student's dominant language, and dates of testing**
- **A concise, behaviorally described statement of the present level of the student's educational level in the primary language and English**
- **A list of the student's strengths**
- **Long-term and annual goals including a designation of the language of instruction with clear indications of the extent to which the primary language will be used in service delivery as well as projected achievement date.**
- **Short-term objectives for each long-term goal, including language of instruction and projected achievement date**

COMPONENTS OF A LINGUISTICALLY APPROPRIATE IET/ITP (cont.)

- **The amount of ESL the student will receive and the person responsible for delivery of ESL instruction**
- **Special instructional resources and materials which are required to achieve each goal and objective**
- **Adaptive and other assistive equipment required to achieve the goals**
- **Support services and specialized assistance that will enable the individual to achieve goals and objectives**
- **A list of any supports that are necessary to ensure that all of the individual's school program will take place in fully integrated settings**
- **How, when, and by whom the individual plan will be evaluated**
- **Evidence of parental participation and approval of the IEP/ETP**

UNIT 4

ON-GOING ASSESSMENT

EQUIPMENT AND MATERIAL REQUIRED

- ❑ Flipchart and easel, or chalkboard
- ❑ Copies of the Background Materials, Handouts and the Exercise

BEFORE THE TRAINING SESSION

- ❑ Review the information in the Module III on Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligences and other material and resources that you may have available on assessment. Prepare three brief lectures. The first should address key principles of culturally appropriate assessment. The second should describe different formal and informal assessment techniques used in the district or agency. It should also stress the important contributions paraeducators make in functional assessment. The third should describe the need to identify how best individual children learn.
- ❑ Reproduce the copies of the Transparencies, Background Information and the Exercise for every trainee.

DURING THE TRAINING SESSION

- ❑ Open the session by discussing key principles of culturally effective assessment. (Use **Transparency #1** as a guide.) Ask the class for ways paraeducators can contribute to the development and implementation of culturally appropriate assessment.
- ❑ Move on to the brief lecture on formal and informal assessment techniques. (Use **Transparency #3** as a guide.) The discussion should be fairly short but it will profit from your personal experiences with assessment and anecdotal material that is relevant. Encourage class discussion by asking trainees to give ways in which standardized test results can be helpful. Be sure to describe ways standardized tests can be unfair to children, and culturally and linguistically diverse children in particular. As they respond, list their answers on a chalkboard or flipchart. After the list has been compiled, comment on the responses. Then, ask participants to list ways in which behavioral checklists can be helpful. Again, respond to the list, commenting if you feel some of the responses are not valid.

- ❑ Review functional assessment and describe the ways paraeducators assist in the process. Ask the participants for specific ways they assist the teacher in this process.
- ❑ Distribute **Exercise #1**, "What is your Learning Style?" Ask the participants to complete it. Then lead a discussion of what their answers mean to them about how they prefer to learn and why it is important to identify the learning style(s) of children and youth in order to design effective individualized instructional interventions. The items in Column I are indicative of a visual learning style/preference; Column II identifies an oral learning style/preference; and Column III identifies a preference for learning by doing (known as a Kinesthetic style.)

ON-GOING ASSESSMENT

INTRODUCTION. Assessment is the process of collecting and interpreting information relating to a child with disabilities for the purpose of determining the person's present skills to form a base on which new learning experiences can be planned. Usually, before a child is assigned to a particular program or classroom, a thorough assessment has been carried out. This will have included a comprehensive look at the child's English proficiency and level of primary language development, the child's physical, cognitive, social, and emotional development, and a determination of his/her strengths in each area. Traditionally, teachers and other professional staff have been responsible for conducting some of the assessment activities. Often, paraeducators are asked to help identify the individual's *functional* capabilities in each area, by observing and recording information. The role of the paraeducator becomes even more important with culturally and linguistically diverse children because you may be the only person equipped to understand language and cultural influences on the child's behavior.

Module III, Human Development, discusses the relevance of Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences for working with children and youth who come from diverse cultural heritages, language backgrounds, and have different learning styles and ability levels. Providing more effective instructional and related educational services requires culturally responsive assessment as well. David Lazear has identified several key principles that reflect culturally responsive assessment. Key principles include:

1. Assessment design and execution should include members of education teams who work with students.

2. Assessment requires time and effort; educators should be given appropriate time to create and administer instruments.

3. Assessment should be authentic and central to the education process.

4. Assessment should drive curriculum and instructional strategies.

5. Assessment practices should be designed to benefit students.

6. Assessment should be individualized and developmentally appropriate.

When it is done well, assessment is carried out in relationship to the goals of a particular student. For example, if the goal is for the child to communicate basic needs to an adult, the assessment would include examples of words and gestures that have successfully indicated a particular desire of the individual. In other words, you are looking for the strengths of the child in that area. Once we know that an individual does have a particular skill mastered, we can determine whether the skill is used successfully, at school, at home or work. In other words, does the child transfer

it to other settings. If an assessment is not carried out, the planning team does not have any idea of where to start when they are considering the person's upcoming school year.

METHODS OF ASSESSMENT. Assessment can be done in a variety of ways. There are two that rely on special assessment instruments, standardized testing and the use of behavioral checklists. Each of these is discussed below. In addition, however, observations of the ways in which children *functionally* use specific skills to manage their environment are an important part of the assessment process.

STANDARDIZED TESTING. Standardized tests are, 1) always given in the same way, using the same instructions, and the same material, 2) scored using the same method every time, one which is based on the scoring of tests administered to a broad range of people, and for which an "average" score or a "norm" has been established.

Standardized tests compare how well an individual child performs a given task in comparison to the way in which many other children of the same age have performed the same task. In order for standardized tests to be useful and fair, the group of people to whom the individual is being compared must reflect the cultural and ethnic background of the child or youth being evaluated.

The most common standardized test given is the I.Q. test. Its major advantage is that it gives the examiner (who must be licensed) an opportunity to observe the child for an hour or more in a relatively standardized setting. Experienced examiners are able to provide important input to the planning team because they are trained and able to relate the individual performance to those of many other people. The write-up from a standardized test will usually spell out the strengths of the student in cognitive, social, emotional, motor and language areas and will reveal the areas in which the person needs more assistance.

Standardized tests have long been the subject of intense discussion among educators and other professionals in the field. They can be useful when administered by an experienced examiner in assisting in the determination of appropriate educational and other goals. At other times, they may not reflect accurately the individual skills of the child being evaluated because the standardization group did not reflect the child's cultural heritage or environmental background and the items are, therefore, inappropriate. A classic example of this flaw is an old item in a well-known standardized test. It showed a picture of a teenaged boy delivering a piece of paper to a man standing in the door of a house. The question was, "What is this boy doing?" The intended, "correct" answer was, "Delivering a telegram." When this item was administered to children who lived in rural areas or to people who lived in poor urban areas, they usually did not have any idea of the correct answer. The item was taken out of the test because it was inappropriate for so many children, but not before it had been used for some time.

Because most culturally and linguistically diverse students were *not* included in the norming sample, it is critical that placement decisions *not* be based on a single test score. Observation of

the child in a variety of settings as well as interviews conducted with family members and other school personnel provide a more complete picture of the child. The findings may support or refute the standardized test results.

BEHAVIORAL CHECKLISTS. Behavioral checklists categorize and list specific behaviors, usually in specific developmental areas such as fine motor, cognitive, language, gross motor, etc. Usually, specific behaviors are listed in the sequence in which they occur in a "typical" developmental pattern. The person using the checklist simply checks off whether or not the child or youth is able to perform that specific of behavior. The checklists can be helpful in formally evaluating specific skills in the classroom or other areas. They can also be used informally to indicate strengths and possible areas where assistance is needed.

FUNCTIONAL ASSESSMENT. While both standardized tests and behavioral checklists probably will remain as an integral part of the assessment data that is gathered for each child or youth with disabilities, the most important assessments are usually done informally and relate to the *functional* skills of the individual. Most of us would have a difficult time if it were necessary for us to meet the criterion of a specific test battery in order to get on with our lives. For example, what if scuba diving, glider flying, bowling with an average score of 200 and mountain climbing were set as the criteria for any of us to go to our next life goal? This is a silly question, of course, but it has some relevance when one thinks of all the assessments that may be carried out on children and youth with disabilities.

Assessment should be carried out that is directly useful in planning for the student. That means it should relate directly to the life and educational goals of that individual person. When we know what an individual wants to do, then it is possible to look at the steps leading up to that goal, and to determine whether or not each has been accomplished. One other form of informal assessment is useful to the educational team. People learn in all different kinds of ways. Some learn most easily when they read words, others learn better when they are given information verbally. Still others learn best when they can *do* the task. Information that is gathered on the learning style of the students for whom you are planning will be very useful in all educational planning.

PRINCIPLES OF CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE ASSESSMENT

Assessment Design & Execution Includes Educators Who Work with Students

Assessment Requires Time & Effort

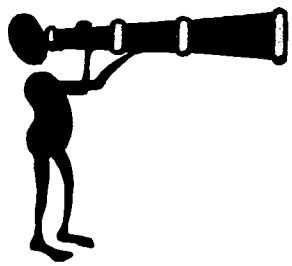
Assessment is Part of the Educational Process

Assessment Should Drive Curriculum

Assessment Should be Designed for Student's Benefit

Assessment Should be Individualized and Developmentally Appropriate

ASSESSMENT METHODS



Standardized Testing

Behavioral Checklists

Functional (Informal)

WHAT IS YOUR LEARNING STYLE?*

I.	II.	III.
_____ I like to keep written records	_____ I prefer to hear instructions	_____ I like to build things
_____ I make lists of things to do	_____ I review for a test by reading notes aloud or by talking with others	_____ I like to take things apart and put them back together to see what makes them work
_____ I typically read billboards while driving	_____ I talk aloud when working a math problem	_____ I can distinguish items by touch when blindfolded
_____ I follow written recipes	_____ I prefer listening to a cassette over reading the same material	_____ I learned the touch system rapidly in typing
_____ I review for a test by writing a summary	_____ I commit a Zip Code to memory by saying it	_____ Gestures are a very important part of my communication style
_____ I can put a bicycle together using only the written directions provided	_____ I call on the telephone to compliment a friend instead of writing a note	_____ I move with music
_____ I commit a Zip Code to memory by writing it	_____ I plan the upcoming week by talking it through with someone	_____ I doodle and draw whenever paper is available
_____ I use visual images to remember names	_____ I like to stop at a service station for oral directions in a strange city	_____ I am an "out-of-doors" person
_____ I am a "bookworm"	_____ I prefer talking/listening games	_____ I like to express myself through dancing
_____ I write a note to compliment a friend	_____ I keep up on news through the radio	_____ I spend a large amount of time on crafts/handwork
_____ I keep up on the news through the paper	_____ I use "free" time for talking with others	_____ I like to feel the texture of furniture/clothes
_____ I prefer written directions		_____ I prefer active sports to games where one sits
_____ I prefer to get a map and find my own way in a strange city		_____ I like to use my "free" time for physical activities
_____ I prefer reading/writing games like "Scrabble"		
_____ I do crossword puzzles and play "Wheel of Fortune"		

*Adapted from "Checklist for Discovering Learning Channels" by Dr. Paul Welter, Original Source unknown.

UNIT 5

OBSERVING AND KEEPING GOOD DATA

EQUIPMENT AND MATERIAL REQUIRED

- ❑ A flipchart and easel, or chalkboard
- ❑ Copies of the Background Materials/Information Handouts and the Exercises

BEFORE THE TRAINING SESSION

- ❑ Review the Background Information and other resources that you may have on observation and data collection. Prepare a brief lecture stressing the role of paraeducators in observing and maintaining effective data.
- ❑ Reproduce the Background/Information Handouts and the four Exercises for the trainees.
- ❑ Write examples of several words or phrases on the Chart or Chalkboard that demonstrate whether a behavior is observable or measurable. You might include: cooperates, pleasure, cry, smile, frustration, holds a crayon/pencil, likes to sing, plays well with others, anger, happy, overwhelmed, feels left out, comprehends.
- ❑ Obtain copies of the forms used in your district or agency for recording and reporting child behavior.

DURING THE TRAINING SESSION

- ❑ Begin the class session by distributing the **Background Information**.
- ❑ Discuss the information with the class. Invite them to follow along and take notes on the handout if they choose. This is difficult material to teach because it often challenges the way the participants speak and describe events. Instead of lecturing, keep the discussion open and allow for questions and comments along the way. The class will profit enormously from your written examples of good and bad reporting and recordkeeping.

- ❑ Review the words or phrases you have listed on the flipchart or chalkboard and ask participants to determine whether they describe a behavior that can be seen, heard, counted, or timed.

- ❑ Distribute **Exercise #1**. Ask trainees to work in pairs and to label the examples "Yes" or "No." They will only require five to ten minutes to complete the activity. When they are finished, go over the examples, one by one, allowing for discussion on each if it is required.

- ❑ Distribute **Exercise #2**. Again, ask the trainees to work in pairs (preferably different pairs this time). Ask them: 1) to circle the observable, measurable words; 2) to underline the descriptors that are not observable or measurable, and 3) to rewrite one of the anecdotes so that it reflects good observations and recording practices.

- ❑ When the class is finished (15 to 25 minutes), ask for volunteers to go through each anecdote and point out the examples of good observation and the poor observation. Then, ask for volunteers to read their rewritten anecdotes. Allow plenty of time for discussion as it is likely that some of the rewritten material will need to be rewritten again.

- ❑ Once again, divide the class into pairs. Ask them to interview each other and to precisely record the information they learn from the other person. The purpose of this activity is to provide participants with an opportunity to practice and strengthen interviewing skills. They should seek information from each other about special interests, dislikes, values. When the exercise is complete ask for volunteers to share the information with the class. Discuss the value of interviewing students to identify information the team can use to individualize (personalize) instructional strategies for each student.

- ❑ Review the forms used by your district or agency to gather and record information about the performance and behaviors of young children. Distribute **Exercise #3**, ask the participants to observe a child they work with using the forms and to bring them to the next class. Collect and review them and make suggestions for how the person could improve his/her efforts.

OBSERVING AND KEEPING GOOD DATA

Acquiring and using objective skills of observation and keeping data are important to all education parapractitioners, no matter whether they work as home visitors, instructional paraeducators, transition trainers or job coaches. Much of the information required to let the team know whether or not children and youth are gaining new skills is acquired by careful observation and good recordkeeping. In addition, observation will keep the team posted on whether or not the individuals are learning and using the functional skills necessary to let them achieve the objectives and long-term goals that are outlined in the IFSP/IEP/ITP. For bilingual paraeducators, the job of recordkeeping is even more critical since they have the language skills to conduct data collection and keep accurate records on English language learners. As mentioned above, reliable observation and recordkeeping contribute greatly to the educational progress of the children.

Written information as to what has been observed is called "data." It serves as a record of what is seen or heard, and, when done well, is an objective account of the individual's activities and skills. It is important to keep written data on all observation activities. If this is not done, there is a risk of reporting inaccurately what has happened.

Carrying out observations and keeping data must be done from an objective point of view. Sometimes, members of the team may allow their biases or prejudices to get in the way. It is very important to guard against these inclinations and to put down precisely *what is seen* and to avoid anything that is stigmatized by personnel perceptions of an individual or a specific behavior.

OBSERVATION IS: Systematically watching what a person does and says and recording the behaviors in order to make instructional decisions. Observation should a) be done for a specific reason; b) provide samples of a child's behavior over a period of time, in a variety of settings; and, c) be objective.

OBJECTIVE OBSERVATION MEANS:

- watching events without being affected by personal biases/prejudices,
- watching what is happening without guessing at the reasons that cause the action,
- watching the activity without judging whether it is good or bad, and
- producing an objective record which states exactly what an observer sees and hears.

Through observation we can learn what the child does, what s/he likes or dislikes, how s/he behaves under various circumstances and how s/he interacts with people around him/her.

OBSERVING OBJECTIVELY: There are two points to remember when making observations:

- You must be able to see or hear the behavior, and
- You must be able to count the behavior.

For example, an observation that says "Frank hit John on the arm twice within five minutes" fulfills both points above. You *saw* Frank hit John, and you *counted* the hits as they happened. An observation that says "Annie was being her usual schizophrenic self this morning" fails both points. "Her usual schizophrenic self" really tells us nothing about Annie. It is, instead, a judgment call made in the eye of the observer and gives no information at all. It doesn't tell us what the observer saw and, since we don't have that information, there is nothing to count and therefore, nothing for teachers or teams to build on when planning personalized instructional interventions.

KEEPING DATA. There are several ways to keep data. These include using a checklist; making anecdotal records; interviewing a child, parent, or other caregiver; watching a specific child and making notes; and keeping frequency and duration records.

Checklists – These may be in the form of standardized checklists which include specific skills and behaviors based on developmental levels, or a list of behaviors compiled by a teacher. When paraeducators work with a checklist, they simply watch the child and record whether or not s/he is doing the behavior described.

Anecdotal Records – These usually consist of a sentence or two written in a notebook that describe what the child is doing at a specific moment. When making an anecdotal record, only behaviors that can be *seen or heard* and behaviors that *can be counted* should be recorded.

Interviewing – This is a specific kind of recordkeeping, one in which the team is trying to determine what the child likes or dislikes, what his/her interests are, or other feelings or beliefs that cannot be observed. When interviewing, it is extremely important to record precisely what the child says. There is no room for editorializing in this kind of record.

Other Data Collection – Paraeducators may be asked by their supervisors to keep a record of specific behaviors or demonstrations of skills for a certain child. It is important for the paraeducator to understand exactly what information the teacher/supervisor wants to know, why it is needed, and how it will be used.

Frequency or Duration Notes - Sometimes, the information that is to be collected refers to how often or for how long a behavior is occurring. For example, the team may want to know how many times a child talked to or communicated with his/her playmates. For this kind of recordkeeping, paraeducators will count the frequency of the behavior occurring to

observe how long some behaviors last. For example, a home visitor or instructional paraeducator might watch to see how long a child plays alone or with other children. In this case the duration is being timed.

THE IMPORTANCE OF OBSERVATION. Being a good observer is a critical skill when working with children in any kind of an educational setting. Learning to divorce personal perceptions or biases from what is seen and recording exactly what is happening takes time. When it is learned, it enables paraeducators to contribute effectively to all the discussion about the instructional program and progress for any specific child or youth.

DIRECTIONS. Read the list of words below. If a word or phrase describes something you can **see**, **hear**, or **count**, write "yes" in front of it. If it does not describe a behavior that is observable or measurable, write "no" in front of it.

_____ 1. Cry

_____ 2. Is anxious

_____ 3. Hit

_____ 4. Push

_____ 5. Is lazy

_____ 6. Loves ice cream

_____ 7. Plays alone

_____ 8. Colors inside lines

_____ 9. Stacks blocks

_____10. Takes two steps

_____11. Is Ida's best friend

_____12. Is a loner

_____13. Shares

_____14. Understands commands

_____15. Rides the tricycle

_____16. Loves elephants

_____17. Hits Art twice

_____18. Kicks grandma

_____19. Is naughty

_____20. Is nice

_____21. Had a good day

_____22. Points to a preferred snack

DIRECTIONS. There are two anecdotes printed below. Read each carefully and circle the words used which describe a behavior that you can **see**, **hear**, or **count**. Underline the words which describe behaviors that are not observable or measurable.

Anecdote #1

Josephina was having a terrible day. She started off in the morning by spitting on Ms. Pickett, the paraeducator who met her at the bus. Then she kicked Thelma in the shins. She wet her pants on the floor and was so embarrassed that she had a tantrum. She was so naughty that none of her friends liked her. Her aggressive behavior was annoying everyone. After her nap in the afternoon, however, she jumped off the cot, talked to Luis, Patricia and Jeff, and then behaved during snack time. When it was time to go home, she waved good-bye to everybody.

Anecdote #2

I sure learned today why they say Pablo is an underachiever. He started the day off daydreaming during the morning calendar/weather routine. When the rest of the class got into their reading groups, Pablo was wandering around. He finally settled in with his group but had to be told several times what page they were on. Before lunch when the class finished their projects, Pablo was only half-way done. He seemed more interested in the gardeners outside than the project. After lunch he simply put his head down during the social studies lesson and wrote one incoherent sentence as a summary of the topic. He only seemed excited when the teacher told everyone to clean up to go home.

Like many anecdotal records, the two above are a combination of good observation and extremely poor observation. Choose one of the two, and rewrite it so that it is a good example of your observational skills.

DIRECTIONS

Take the attached worksheet home with you and be prepared to turn in the results of your work at the next class session. Your assignment is to:

① In cooperation with the teacher you work with, select a student to observe and decide what the objective of the observation will be.

② At three different times, observe the student for ten minutes. Make an honest effort to objectively record the behaviors of the student.

③ Record your observations on the next page. Bring the worksheet to the next class.

OBSERVATION RECORD

First Name of Person Being Observed: _____

Age: _____

Setting (school, playground, worksite, etc.) _____

_____

Observer: _____

Date: _____ Time: From _____ To _____

Use the following space to write a description of the student's behaviors and activities:

UNIT 6

DEVELOPING APPROPRIATE GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

EQUIPMENT AND MATERIAL REQUIRED

- ❑ Flipchart and easel
- ❑ Overhead projector and screen
- ❑ Transparencies
- ❑ Copies of the Background/Information Handouts and Exercises.

BEFORE THE TRAINING SESSION

- ❑ Review the Background material and other resources you may have on the importance of writing good goals and objectives. Prepare a brief lecture that stresses the importance of long range goals and specific instructional objectives. As you prepare for the class session(s) in which you will cover this material, it is a good idea to think through some of your own efforts as you acquired these skills. This material is a critical component of the training and it will take some time to present. Your personal anecdotes will enliven and enhance the discussion.
- ❑ Reproduce copies of the Background Information and the Exercises for all trainees.
- ❑ Make the transparencies or if you prefer, write the information on the flipchart or chalkboard.

DURING THE TRAINING SESSION

- ❑ It may be useful to start the session by reminding the trainees of the discussions they have had on second language acquisition and the rights of students with disabilities. These topics are important and should be emphasized throughout the discussion on the development of appropriate goals for two reasons: 1) the involvement of children in integrated classes and the community may well depend on the goals being spelled out as community goals, and 2) the amount and quality of ESL and bilingual instruction may depend on those areas being specifically addressed in the IFSP/IEP/ITP goals. Emphasize that all people need options and the opportunity to make choices. It is up to the team and the family to ensure that options are

available and that every effort is undertaken to ensure that the child learns to make choices based on personal preferences. (Use **Transparency #1** to guide the discussion.)

- ❑ Distribute **Exercise 1** and ask the group to work in pairs to develop the annual goals (and the five-year goals) requested. Allow about fifteen minutes for the activity. Then, ask one person in each pair to present the goals developed. Allow plenty of time for discussion.

- ❑ Use **Transparency #2** to guide the discussion of the writing of goals and objectives. Spend as much time as you think necessary in ensuring that the trainees are with you every step of the way.

- ❑ Distribute **Exercise #2** to the trainees and ask them to complete it. Allow approximately ten minutes for the activity. Then, going around the room, ask each trainee to take one phrase and defend his/her decision as to whether it is a measurable, observable behavior.

- ❑ Begin the discussion on the criterion. This is always difficult at the beginning *so be prepared with as many examples as you can*. Be leisurely in your approach. This is not the topic to teach when you have little time.

- ❑ Distribute **Exercise #3**. Ask the trainees to follow directions and identify CR-1 and CR-2 in each of the sentences. Allow approximately fifteen minutes for the completion of the task. Again, go around the room with each trainee supplying his/her response. Be prepared to answer and discuss each of the sentences.

- ❑ Begin the discussion on the conditions. This will usually be easier than the criterion discussion, but it is well to be prepared for questions and comments.

- ❑ Distribute **Exercise #4** and ask the trainees to identify the condition in each sentence. This activity should take only about five minutes. As they conclude their writing, ask for volunteers to contribute their responses.

- ❑ Distribute **Exercise #5** which is a review list of the components of an instructional objective. Ask the trainees to work alone on this one and to be prepared to discuss their answers with the rest of the class.

- ❑ Lastly, distribute **Exercise #6**, the last review of writing instructional objectives. Ask the students to complete it in class and tell them you will pick these papers up as well and will go over them after class.

DEVELOPING APPROPRIATE GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

ESTABLISHING APPROPRIATE GOALS AND OBJECTIVES. All of us have long-term goals for which we strive and, with them, a series of short-term objectives which we understand will help us achieve the goals we have set. We may not sit down in a planning session with our families and friends to write everything down on paper, but as we look at our lives, we conceive of our aims and plan toward making them work. For example, young people plan toward attending college, getting married, finding a job, owning a home, traveling, going to Hollywood to be a movie star and hundreds of other dreams. Those who are serious about reaching their goals plan a series of shorter objectives, i.e., saving money for college, finding tuition or other grants-in-aid, finding a place to live in the university town, finding a part-time job to support themselves while taking classes, and so on and on.

For many years, people assumed that children and youth with disabilities did not have goals and objectives. The perception seemed to be that individuals with special needs would be lucky just to go along in place without achieving life goals like other people. That, of course, is hogwash; individuals with disabilities are like everyone else and they, too, have dreams that *can* be met.

As the members of the team meet to discuss and write the individual educational plan, they *must* know the goals and objectives of the child for whom they are planning as well as the language needs of the child. When the IFSP is developed, the child may be too young to participate and the parents will be the primary decision makers. As the children move on to pre and elementary school, they may not have enough information to know what their hopes and dreams for the future are. The answer to questions may be, "I want to go to the circus," or, "I want to play with Molly." These, too, are individual objectives and should be honored as such in the team meeting. The answers to the larger questions of long-term goals may come from parents or other family members and from the experience of the professional members of the team.

Some older students with disabilities may not have the necessary communications skills to state clearly their dreams and objectives. If this is the case, the team needs to be on its toes to learn the communication style of the individual and to pay close attention to what s/he is transmitting. It is important that all youth have options so that they may make choices about preferred activities.

The team may explain the options to an individual who does not communicate in traditional ways and be alert to the responses it receives. Sometimes the responses are very clear, as in the case of Karen, who begins to cry when presented with things she does not want to do, or with Keith who responded positively to suggestions by patting the hand of the person presenting the options. At other times, the signals may be as ephemeral as eye movements, body positioning or slight head-shakes. For English language learners, interpreters must make the team's suggestions clear to the student and the student's response clear to the team. Before initiating the planning process, however, members of the planning team *must* spend enough time with the person for whom they are planning so they feel the team has a good idea of his/her choices.

When answering the questions on long and short-term goals, it is important to remember that children with disabilities and other special needs have the same rights as other people. They have a right to participate fully in the same community settings as children who do not have disabilities. This means attending a preschool that serves children with and without disabilities, going to the circus, playing in public parks, participating in family activities, and generally doing all the things any other young child would do. When they become teenagers, they will have the right to participate in the same activities as their peers. For adolescents and adults this means finding a job in the community, attending social events in integrated settings with other youth who do not have disabilities, living at home with their parents or with friends based on personal preference.

DEVELOPING ANNUAL GOALS AND INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES. When the individual, family and education team develop the IEP for a person with disabilities, there are key questions to ask that will enable the establishment of goals and objectives that will facilitate the person's integration and participation in community settings. The team should be sure that they can answer the questions before the members start planning. The questions include:

- What are the ultimate goals for this child?
- Will the skills to be taught now help this child to achieve the goals of the child and his/her family?
- Are the skills to be taught practical and functional? If the child does not learn this skill, will someone else need to perform the task or provide assistance?
- Will learning the skills enhance the life of the child? Will attainment mean the child can enjoy life more?
- Although we may want to teach many skills, time is a factor. Which of those proposed are of highest priority for the child?

GOALS AND OBJECTIVES. Long range goals are statements that describe desired and valued competencies. They are both observable and measurable and provide the direction for objectives which are short-range. Short range objectives are usually referred to as behavioral or instructional objectives. Both need to be written precisely and clearly as they describe the desired outcomes for the instructional process.

GOALS. Long-range goals need to be stated in a way that anyone who reads them knows exactly what is meant. For example, a long-range goal for an adolescent may be, "Tara will work 20 hours a week at a gardening job in Wyattstown with the assistance of a job coach." The goal is clear and describes precisely where Tara wants to be in the future. A goal for a younger child

might be, "Juana will be enrolled in an integrated first grade when she is six." Again, the outlook is perfectly clear. These goals set the direction for the instructional process.

OBJECTIVES. With each goal, there will be a series of objectives that need to be accomplished. Some of them may include skills that the child or youth needs to learn in order to attain the goal. Some of them may be activities that staff or family need to carry out so that the individual may reach the goal. An example would be arranging transportation so that Juan or Tara can physically get to the desired places.

COMPONENTS OF INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES. Instructional objectives are statements that generally have three components:

1. the behavior or the description of the skill the child will be able to do when the instruction is complete;

2. the criteria, or a description of how the behavior will be evaluated; and

3. the conditions, or a description of how the activity will be taught.

Good instructional objectives cannot be written until the team knows what the child's capabilities are. The assessment and observation discussed earlier in this module will have been completed and the team will have a good idea of the skills of the individual and areas in which the student needs assistance. When this knowledge is in place, it is possible to develop the instructional objectives for the year.

THE BEHAVIOR. Once assessment and observation have been completed and the long-range goals established, it is time to write the instructional objectives. Each objective written should be a step toward attainment of the goal. It should be described precisely; i.e., Lorraine will feed herself mashed potatoes. There is no doubt when reading this objective of what the desired behavior should be. It is *observable*, and there is no doubt in the mind of the person watching just exactly what is desired of the youngster. Often when designing instructional objectives, people may want to use words such as "will understand." This, by itself, is *not* observable. If this happens the team should think through what the child or youth would have to do in order to demonstrate that s/he "understands," then design the instructional objective to reflect that behavior.

THE CRITERION. In addition to being *observable*, instructional objectives must also be *measurable*. In order that this can be accomplished, there are two criteria that must be assigned to the objective:

- the Part I criterion (CR-1) describes and measures one or more of the important characteristics of the behavior such as speed, accuracy, rate, quantity, or duration, and

- the Part 2 criterion (CR-2) tells whether the child does the behavior consistently and reliably. It may also include information about the context or setting where the behavior will occur. Some objectives may not need the CR-2 because they are not expected to occur frequently, i.e., "leaves the building when the fire alarm rings." But, if it is expected that the behavior will happen often, it should be measured over a time period.

In the instructional objective above, "Lorraine will feed herself mashed potatoes," the CR-1 may be, "getting them all in her mouth and swallowing them" (accuracy). You might further wish to add, "within ten minutes" (speed), which also describes how the behavior should be carried out. The CR-1 always tells you how well the behavior should be accomplished and how quickly or at what rate it should be carried out. The CR-1 is always *measurable*, and will help you evaluate whether or not the skill is being accomplished.

The CR-2 for the objective could be "eight out of ten times within a month." This last phrase lets you know how reliable or consistent Lorraine is when eating mashed potatoes. If she is able to eat them successfully eighty percent (8 out of 10) of the time, it is likely that she will continue to feed herself mashed potatoes when they are presented to her. (If she is not tired of mashed potatoes by the time this objective is completed.) When a CR-2 criteria is designed, it is well to remember that most people do not accomplish skills with one hundred percent accuracy. We all give ourselves some leeway in measuring our skills. It is also important to keep in mind that some skills must be performed correctly 100% of the time. For example, waiting for the light to turn green before crossing the street 80% of the time is not good enough.

THE CONDITION. The third component to an instructional objective is the condition. This phrase states the circumstances under which the behavior will be performed. The condition lets the team know what help the student will need to perform the behavior and/or what materials will be needed. The condition for Lorraine's objective might well be, "when presented with a cup of mashed potatoes." This states precisely the circumstances under which the behavior takes place. These statements usually describe what will be provided to the person in order to accomplish the behavior or they may describe a contingency such as, "when asked."

Lorraine's complete objective, including the behavior, the criteria and the conditions might read, "When presented with a cupful of mashed potatoes (condition), Lorraine will eat them, getting all of them in her mouth (CR-1), eight out of ten times in the next month (CR-2)."

All of this may seem a bit complicated at first. Soon, however, it will become second nature and the parapractitioner be able to write instructional objectives that are *observable*, *measurable*, and *describing exactly what behavior is asked of the student.*

ANA MORA

INSTRUCTIONS: Read the following Case Study. Then, working with a partner, write two yearly goals and two long term goals for Ana.

Ana Mora is two years old. She is the fifth child of Juana and Rodolfo Mora. She has two older brothers, Sergio, age 5 and Mario, age 10. Her sisters are Maria, seven years old and Salome, twelve. The Mora family lives in Portsville, Ohio and speak only Spanish at home. Rodolfo is employed as a machinists' mate on one of the boats that work lake Erie, and Juana is a homemaker. They are a loving, warm family who seem to enjoy each day of life as it comes along. Money is not a particular problem to the family, although they do watch pennies to save money to send to Rodolfo's mother in Mexico.

When Ana was born, she seemed like a perfect baby. She quickly learned to respond to being hugged and talked to, and she reached out for objects that were presented to her. She was alert and ready for all events. Her siblings are very fond of her and play with her often. After she was about six months old, Juana noticed that she did not seem to be progressing developmentally in the way that her brothers and sisters had. Although still beautiful and obviously wanting to be loved, she was not sitting alone very well, and she was not trying to crawl or move herself around the room. When Juana first mentioned her concerns to the pediatrician, he pooh-poohed her statements and told her that "Ana will be O.K. Just wait and see."

The next few months were full of anxiety and concern on the part of Rodolfo and Juana, because it became obvious that Ana was really not developing like the other children. When the little girl was fourteen months old, the pediatrician also became alarmed and ordered a series of tests. The next few months were chaotic and heart-rending. Each specialist who saw Ana had a different diagnosis, and the Moras were told, "Just face facts ... she's severely retarded," "She has cerebral palsy," and, "We don't know what is wrong, but there is a serious delay." The family seemed to bounce day to day as each of the diagnoses were delivered and they attempted to respond to them. Finally, the assessment team decided that Ana had Rhett's Syndrome. This was an unfamiliar term to the Moras, so they read whatever they could find on the subject and tried to think through a program of activities that would be helpful to Ana.

Because of her diagnosis, Ana was referred to the Portsville School District. Her history and test results were reviewed by a number of specialists and an individual family service plan (IFSP) was developed for Ana and the family. She was assigned to Portia Allen, an experienced bilingual early childhood teacher whose responsibility it was to design and carry out a program that would assist Ana and her family in every way possible. At this point, Ana was sitting up when pillows were propped around her, she would cuddle when her mother or Portia picked her up, and she looked up when someone said her name. On occasion, she exhibited some behaviors that were distressing to the family. Primarily, on occasion, she would begin to cry and refuse to be com-

forted. During these episodes, she would vomit sporadically. These crying spells might last for four to five hours.

Initially, Portia Allen did several things that were of assistance to the family. She learned the names of several other Spanish-speaking families in the Portsville area who had youngsters with Rhett's Syndrome and she gave those names to Rodolfo and Juana. She talked with all the family and assured them that there was a place in the public school system for Ana and that she would be the lead person working with them. She also told them that a paraeducator would be in the classroom to provide individualized assistance for Ana, and to visit Juana and Rodolfo in the home to provide them with resources and help they can use to achieve their goals for Ana.

The Moras are sure of several things: 1) Ana is part of their family and they do not want her placed anywhere else. 2) They feel that Ana should have the same opportunities as the other children to participate in family activities and in events in the community. 3) They feel strongly that her school activities should be carried out in settings that include young children who do not have disabilities.

It is time to design an individual educational plan for Ana. The family is ready to take part and are extremely anxious that it should be done soon so that Ana can begin to take part in school activities.

THE BEHAVIOR

You have learned that a good instructional objective must be **observable**. As such, it cannot be tainted with biases or judgments. It must also be **measurable**. In other words, you should be able to see and count the behavior as it occurs.

Following are a series of phrases. Put a "B" in front of the ones that describe a behavior that is observable and measurable.

_____ 1. will touch toys

_____ 2. will control her temper

_____ 3. will point to his mother

_____ 4. will roll a ball

_____ 5. will play with another child

_____ 6. will ride the bus alone

_____ 7, will make a sandwich

_____ 8. will behave himself

_____ 9. will share

_____10. will like math

_____11. will respond to her name

_____12. will take turns

_____13. will follow directions

Exercise 2-5 were adapted from: *A Training Program for Paraprofessionals Working in Special Education and Related Services* (2nd edition, 1990). CASE: National Resource Center for Paraprofessionals in Education and Related Services, City University of New York.

THE CRITERION

Remember that the criterion or criteria tell you how the objective will be evaluated. The Part 1 criterion (CR-1) should describe important characteristics such as speed, accuracy, rate, quantity, or duration. The Part 2 criterion (CR-2) should tell you how reliably or consistently the behavior is performed. There are five sample objectives below, with the behavior underlined. In the designated blanks, write the Part 1 criterion and the Part 2 criterion for each objective.

1. When asked, Julio will follow the same two word direction in English in three settings on three different days.

   CR-1 _____

   CR-2 _____

2. Without being reminded, Regina will take off her coat every day for two weeks.

   CR-1 _____

   CR-2 _____

3. Before snack time, Lucille will put the juice glasses on the table five times on five consecutive days.

   CR-1 _____

   CR-2 _____

4. When asked in Korean, Darla will point to her friends Susan and Cindy when they come into the room.

   CR-1 _____

   CR-2 _____

   (Is there a Part 2 Criterion in this objective? If not, write an appropriate one.)

   _____

5. During play time, Kathy will manipulate 1 movable toy five out of six times.

   CR-1 _____

   CR-2 _____

   (Is there a Part I Criterion in this objective? If not, write an appropriate one.)

   _____

THE CONDITION

Below are the five examples you worked with to determine criteria. This time, write the statement of condition. Remember that the condition describes the help a student might need or tells you what materials are needed.

1. When asked, Julio will follow the same two word direction in English in three different settings on three different days.

   Condition: _____

2. Without being reminded, Regina will take off her coat every day for two weeks.

   Condition: _____

3. Before snack time, Lucille will put the juice glasses on the table five times on five consecutive days.

   Condition: _____

4. When asked in Korean, Darla will point to her friends Susan and Cindy when they come into the room.

   Condition: _____

5. During play time, Kathy will manipulate 1 movable toy five out of six times.

   Condition: _____

Please write appropriate conditions for the following instructional objectives:

6. _____,
   Girardo will point to the juice he wants on four consecutive days.

7. _____,
   Maya will use finger paint without assistance on three different days.

RECOGNIZING THE COMPONENTS OF INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

Each of the following phrases could be a component of an instructional objective. In the blank in front of each phrase, write the initials for the proper component: **B = BEHAVIOR, C = CONDITION, CR = CRITERION.**

_____ 1. while sitting at the table

_____ 2. will pick up a spoon

_____ 3. will manipulate a pull toy

_____ 4. spontaneously

_____ 5. on the bus

_____ 6. 3 consecutive days

_____ 7. correctly

_____ 8. will reach for

_____ 9. without assistance

_____10. will connect two words

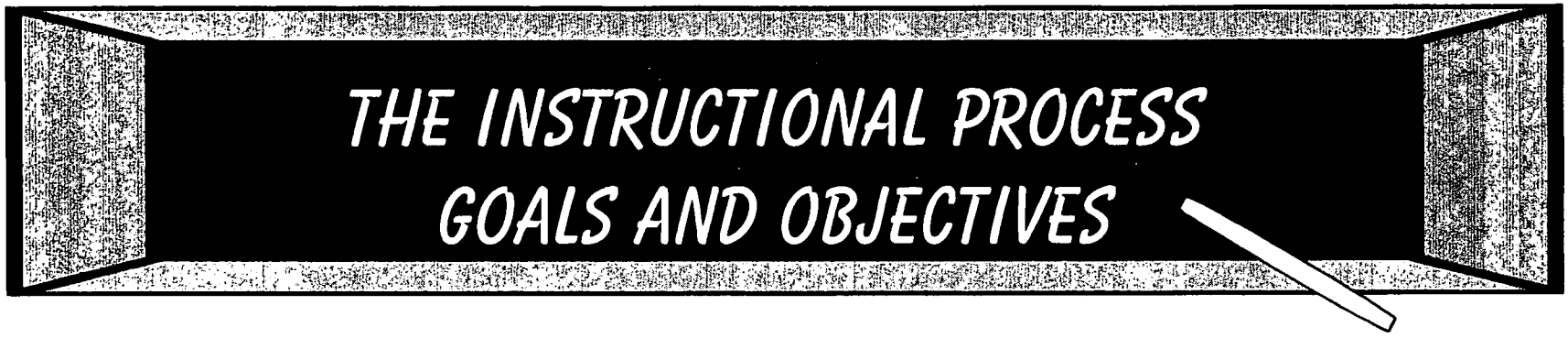
_____11. during music time

_____12. given crayons

_____13. when given a glass of milk

_____14. at home and at the center

_____15. will listen to a story



Developing Long-Term Goals and Instructional Objectives

When the team gathers to work out the individual education plan, there are some key questions that need to be asked and answered to enable them to establish annual goals and prepare instructional objectives for the student. They are:

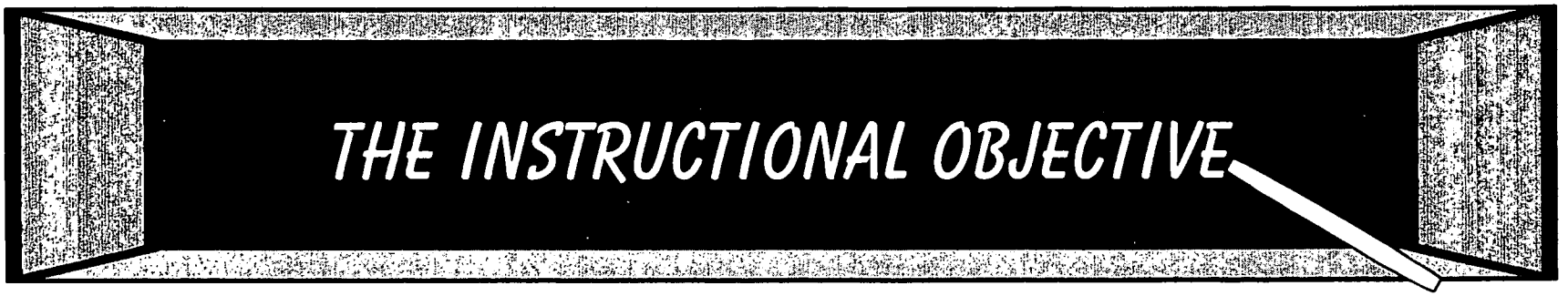
- **What are the ultimate goals for this student?**
- **Will the skills to be taught now help this student to achieve the goals?**

THE INSTRUCTIONAL PROCESS GOALS AND OBJECTIVES (CONT.)

- **Are the skills to be taught practical and functional? If the student does not learn a skill, will someone else need to perform the task or provide assistnace?**

- **Will attainment of the objectives enhance the life of the student? Will attainment mean the child can enjoy life more?**

- **Although we may want to teach many skills, time is a factor. Which of those proposed skills are of highest priority for the student?**



A WRITTEN STATEMENT OF WHAT THE LEARNER WILL BE ABLE TO DO WHEN THE LEARNING EXPERIENCE IS COMPLETED SUCCESSFULLY. IT HAS THREE COMPONENTS:

THE BEHAVIOR	**OR THE DESCRIPTION OF THE SKILL THE STUDENT WILL BE ABLE TO DO WHEN INSTRUCTION IS COMPLETE;**
THE CRITERIA	**OR A DESCRIPTION OF HOW THE BEHAVIOR WILL BE EVALUATED;**
	AND
THE CONDITION(S)	**OR A DESCRIPTION OF HOW THE ACTIVITY WILL BE TAUGHT**

UNIT 7

INSTRUCTIONAL INTERVENTIONS

EQUIPMENT AND MATERIAL NEEDED

- ❑ Flipchart and easel or chalkboard
- ❑ Overhead projector, screen and transparencies
- ❑ Copies of the handouts and exercises for this unit
- ❑ Obtain copies of your school district's/agency's policies for managing challenging behaviors

BEFORE THE TRAINING SESSION

- ❑ Review the Background Material and the content in the transparencies and other resources available to you about instructional techniques and interventions that may be used effectively with young children. Prepare a series of short lectures on the various components of this unit. You may want to review the earlier module on Second Language Acquisition and on Serving Children in Integrated Settings to prepare the lecture on the classroom environment.
- ❑ Make copies of the transparencies or write the information on the flipchart or chalkboard.
- ❑ Make copies of the Background Material and Exercises for the trainees.
- ❑ Gather material/equipment you will need during the Task Analysis Exercise.

DURING THE TRAINING SESSION

- ❑ Begin the class by discussing characteristics of behavior shared by all people no matter what their ethnic background, native language, religion, ages or whether they do or do not have disabilities. Use the transparencies to emphasize the points you make. To stimulate discussion 1) ask the participants to brainstorm a list of activities or events that serve as personal reinforcers for them, and 2) ask them to describe programs they have participated in that supported their efforts to change a behavior (lose weight, stop smoking).
- ❑ Distribute **Exercise 1**. It asks the trainees to look at their own lives and to consider the impact of positive teaching techniques as opposed to punishment on their ability to learn.

- ❑ The introduction to the discussion of Universal Instructional Interventions and Specific Instructional Interventions for ELL is key to the integrity of this entire unit. Indeed, the techniques described in the first part of the unit are effective for students of all ages and are used to varying degrees in most educational programs including regular education, bilingual education and special education.

- ❑ **Exercise 2** asks the trainees to design a teaching sequence and indicate where and how they would use reinforcement. Their efforts at this point will be relatively unskilled but the task should enable them to begin to understand how and when reinforcement is used.

- ❑ The discussion on Shaping should be relatively short. Again in **Exercise 3** trainees are asked to design a teaching plan where shaping is the tool to be used.

- ❑ Extinction is next on the agenda. The explanation of how it is done can be relatively short. This technique is best taught by demonstration. **Exercise 4** indicates that *you*, the trainer—with the assistance of a volunteer—will demonstrate extinction. The exercise describes a role play for you to follow and a second one for two members of the class to enact. This can be a very effective tool for education personnel and parents to use when working with children who have challenging behaviors that interfere with their learning and ability to communicate and participate in classroom activities. So you should allow for adequate time to ensure it is understood.

- ❑ The next activity covers Task Analysis. This too, is a technique better learned by doing rather than listening. Either distribute **Exercise 5** and ask the participants to choose one of the three suggested activities or give them other tasks to choose from. Be sure to have the equipment they will need to carry out the Task Analysis. Divide the class into groups of 3 or 4 to work on the assignment. When it is completed ask for volunteers to teach the lesson to a volunteer from another group.

INSTRUCTIONAL INTERVENTIONS

CHARACTERISTICS OF BEHAVIOR SHARED BY ALL PEOPLE. People are people. Because individuals look different from one another or speak different languages or have disabilities does not mean they do not share many universal characteristics such as the desire for approval and acceptance, wanting to participate in activities, and being successful at what they do. We are alike, and there are characteristics and patterns of behavior common to all of us. Perhaps the most helpful way of thinking about ways to effectively teach children of all types is to ask yourself "How would I respond in this situation?" "Would I like this?" "What do I do when I am angry, frustrated?" "How do I learn best?" When we begin to understand our individual responses to these questions, we are better able to develop and present learning opportunities that meet the needs of all the children we work with.

In educational jargon, children's attempts to communicate and their responses to events are called "behavior." A *behavior* can be seen, heard and identified. It is measurable meaning that can be counted and timed. This word is used to label activities. For example, a behavior would be "talking to Cathy," "hitting the wall," "patting Diego's hand," "playing alone" and "eating unassisted." From this list, and many other examples, it is possible to see that observable, measurable parts of a child's activities or responses can be labeled a behavior.

UNIVERSAL INSTRUCTIONAL INTERVENTIONS FOR ENHANCING LEARNING. There are a good many ways in which to help children, youth and adults learn more easily and effectively. Think for a moment of the best learning situation you have ever been in. Where did you learn the most? What did the teacher do to help you learn? Was the atmosphere in the learning environment a positive or a negative one?

There has been a great deal of research into the ways people learn best. These are considered "universal" because they have been shown to work well with *people*, regardless of their age or background. (In the second part of the unit we will discuss techniques believed to be particularly effective with English language learners). The techniques presented in this section are generally considered to be those which are most effective. You will note that punishment is *not* suggested as a teaching technique. There is a large body of evidence which suggests that people learn more easily and effectively when positive teaching techniques are used. Indeed, the punishment model is in the process of being discarded.

Many individuals new to education may be concerned about "maintaining discipline" in the classroom. They may feel as though they should monitor and punish rule infractions, lest the children "get out of control." Again, the evidence indicates strongly that teachers and para-educators who build environments that reinforce and support children engaged in activities that are meaningful to their lives generally do not have "discipline problems." If a child has some behaviors that are unacceptable in a classroom setting, there are a variety of positive ways to help him/her learn more socially accepted behavior patterns.

The need for paraeducators to understand and effectively implement instructional interventions and behavior management strategies is related to the multitude of differences in learning styles, ability levels, readiness to learn and other factors that influence student performance and behaviors in the classroom. It is of critical importance for paraeducators to be aware that aggressive behaviors are not necessarily the most challenging behaviors that may confront them as a member of the instructional team. A child or youth who "sits quietly and does not make trouble" may also be demonstrating a behavior that requires individualized attention and support.

It is also important for paraeducators to understand that there are no "magical" or "instant" solutions to reducing problem/challenging behaviors. To successfully help students change these behaviors, requires hard work and team work. All team members must understand and consistently follow through on behavior management interventions developed for motivating and supporting the needs of individual students. All team members must understand the goals and objectives for individual students, recognize student growth or lack of growth and be able to share their observations with each other.

REINFORCEMENT. The ultimate goal for teachers and paraeducators who are working with children is to teach, assist and support each individual as s/he learns the information and skills necessary to be successful academically and in their lives in the community. For students with disabilities or other special needs, the goal is to participate in the community either independently or with support. Teachers and paraeducators help students learn to make choices so that they can have the ability to elect how, when and where they will take part. As the objectives on the IEP are developed and taught, the child also learns appropriate social and communication skills for his/her age.

Effective utilization of reinforcement strategies is one of the most important skills required by all members of instructional teams. When used well, reinforcement strategies contribute to classroom environments that motivate learning of academic and curriculum skills. And perhaps of even greater significance, implementation of personalized, meaningful reinforcers for individual students helps to support and recognize positive social skill development.

The importance of reinforcement as a method for 1) supporting and increasing cognitive (academic) growth and 2) motivating students to develop and maintain effective social skills cannot be overstated. Educators are, however, becoming increasingly aware of the value of linking reinforcement techniques to enabling students to recognize the consequence(s) of a specific action or activity. Indeed helping students to accept and learn from the consequences of their behaviors can be an effective method for helping them to learn how to control their emotions and reactions to their environments.

In order to assist each child to learn these skills, teachers and paraeducators *reinforce* appropriate behaviors. When you reinforce a behavior, you let the child know that s/he is doing well. You can reinforce a behavior by patting a student on the back, by saying, "Well done," or, sometimes, by smiling and nodding. Reinforcement is defined as an action or event that is the result

(consequence) of a behavior (action). The goal of the reinforcer is to increase the likelihood that the behavior will occur again.

PRIMARY REINFORCERS. There are many ways to reinforce behavior and no two children respond to the same reinforcers. Some reinforcers are called "primary." These usually include tangible items like food, drink, or toys. While such reinforcers are appropriate for young children, when their learning experiences are new, the primaries are often quite noticeable and may even be demeaning to the individual as they grow old. As soon as the person begins to respond to a primary reinforcer, it is wise to begin considering other, less noticeable, ways to reward a positive behavior.

SECONDARY REINFORCERS. Still other reinforcers are known as secondary. The include a smile, verbal praise, or letting the child participate in an activity that s/he likes. We all remember our grandparents or parents who said, "As soon as you finish doing the dishes, you can go out and play." They were defining what they wanted us to do and then giving us a reward (a *reinforcer*) for carrying out the task.

INTERNAL REINFORCERS. The instructional team does not always have to provide direct reinforcement. To help students grow and become more independent, the team does need to help a student recognize and value the results of an action or behavior that is internally reinforcing (e.g., pride in finishing a book, over-coming fear of participating in class, completing an assignment on time).

NEGATIVE REINFORCERS. Other reinforcers are described as negative. For example, the shrill of an alarm clock early in the morning is hardly pleasant, but it does do the job of getting you out of bed. The glare of the sun when you step outside in the heat of a summer day does make you put on sun glasses to protect your eyes. A traffic ticket will probably cause you to slow down and stay within the speed limit...for a while. These reinforcers may seem negative but they do produce positive behaviors. While they may achieve desired goals for older children and youth, they probably are not as meaningful for young children.

It is important to give the reinforcement *as soon as* the child has started the task or demonstrated the positive behavior you desire. If you delay, the child may think that s/he is being rewarded for something else. For example, Mary was picking up her toys while her Mother was watching. She was doing a good job and her Mother was thinking, "I'll give her an ice cream bar when she finishes. She is doing such a good job!" Just then, Mary pinched her sister. While her mother was surprised and startled, she took Mary to the kitchen where she gave her the ice cream bar and sent her out to play. What did Mary think? She was confused. She didn't know which behavior she was being rewarded for, picking up toys or pinching her sister. What would you think?

Reinforcement is an invaluable tool for teaching. To recognize and reward the attainment of skills and behaviors that will help an individual gain autonomy and learn to make decisions is a powerful assist to the person.

SHAPING. Many educators use another tool, called *shaping*. The definition of shaping is to reward each successive approximation of the behavior desired. Sound pretty complicated? Not really. For example, suppose you are helping LiPo learn to use a spoon. The behavior has been analyzed and broken into short easy steps. The first step is for her to pick up the spoon, the second step is to put it into the cereal bowl, the third to pick up cereal, the fourth to lift it to her mouth, and the fifth to put the food into her mouth. Instead of waiting until the whole behavior of eating has been learned before you reward the individual for her work, you decided to reward her for each successive step as it is learned. You would, then, reward LiPo for picking up the spoon. As this is learned, then you would concentrate on the second step and reward its completion. If LiPo was having a lot of difficulty learning the skill, you might decide to reward even smaller steps within the sequence.

Shaping is a nice tool to use. It allows the teaching staff to recognize and reward a child who is moving toward an objective. It is a tool that many parents use unconsciously; for example, when teaching a child to pick up toys, a parent often will give a hug or a kiss the first time the little one puts any toy in the appropriate place.

MODELING. Another teaching tool is *modeling*. That simply means that you demonstrate by your actions the skill or behavior that you desire of another individual. This tool is often used when helping people learn to deal with their emotions in social situations. Where little children can, and often do, relieve their frustrations by dumping a truck-full of sand on their playmate's head, such coping mechanisms are denied to adults. In order to teach the socially appropriate responses to frustration or anxiety, teachers and parents often model the behaviors desired. When the person responds by doing the same thing him/herself, a reinforcer is given. It is important to remember that children learn from the teaching techniques and behaviors that are modeled. Therefore, children and youth who are taught by people who model positive behavior learn positive ways to work and interact with other people. Children and youth who are taught using punishment as a technique learn how to punish.

EXTINCTION. This, too, is a powerful tool in the arsenal of teaching technology. When we speak of extinguishing a behavior, we mean that this specific behavior will be ignored—completely ignored—and other positive behaviors will be reinforced. It is used in a variety of ways. For example, when a young child, begins to use socially unacceptable words in front of the teacher and other children an almost automatic response is for other children to giggle and for adults to "lecture" the child, and therefore reward the behavior by attending to the child. The more effective way to deal with it often is to simply ignore the swearing when it occurs *and* to positively reinforce the child when s/he expresses him/herself in a more socially acceptable way.

Extinction can also be used in other situations. A student for example may be pulling the hair of the student sitting next to him/her at a reading table. You would disengage the hand from the hair and redirect the student back to reading the assigned lesson. While doing so, you *would not* acknowledge the incident or begin a series of questions. You would simply redirect the behavior. As soon as the student is paying attention, you would let him/her know that s/he is doing a good

job. Remember, though, *no* attention paid to the hair pulling. If necessary, of course, you would comfort the student whose hair was pulled but you would do so with your back to the hair-puller.

It is necessary to practice your reactions when you want to use extinction as a teaching tool. Its effectiveness depends on your ability to ignore and to reward positively. Most people, however, when their actions are completely ignored, seek to find other ways to interact with the environment; ones that will get a reaction from you and others. This may result in continuing the objectionable behavior at a higher rate. This should last only a short while but the child is repeating a behavior that got attention before. As s/he realizes it isn't working, then an effort will be made to find a new behavior that will be rewarded.

TASK ANALYSIS. This teaching tool was developed to its fullest by a man named Marc Gold. He was concerned with helping young people with mental retardation do work that was positively valued. He noted that if a task could be broken down into its component parts, it was much easier to teach than if an individual was asked to learn the whole thing at once. He demonstrated his ideas effectively by taking apart a bicycle brake into its separate parts. He then set up an assembly line where people, in 157 separate steps, could put the brake together. By so doing, he showed the world that people with severe retardation could perform difficult jobs well.

When teaching any task, it is important to ask yourself how it can be broken down. In the illustration above for example, when LiPo was learning to use the spoon, the task was divided into smaller steps. It was pointed out as well that even those steps could be subdivided, if necessary.

Many skills that you want to teach can be broken down into individual steps: teaching young children to line up, teaching subtraction with regrouping, finding the answer in a reading passage. Some students have difficulty when the whole task is presented at once, while other students do better when certain types of tasks are broken into steps. In these cases a task analysis approach is effective. *However, the approach has been criticized when used with English language learners as the only instructional method, maintaining them at low levels. Reading, for example, becomes nothing more than learning the sounds of the letters. Used appropriately, task analysis can made learning more understandable for students.*

As the teacher and paraeducator work together to design instruction they should keep task analysis in mind and use it whenever teaching the whole task seems like too much at once.

SPECIFIC INSTRUCTIONAL INTERVENTIONS FOR ENHANCING LEARNING IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

Many educators and researchers are concerned with finding ways of making instruction more understandable or comprehensible for students learning English in order to increase their success in school. There are a number of specific ways that instruction can be made more comprehensible:

1. **Maintain a warm, supportive affect.** There is evidence that high anxiety has a negative effect on language acquisition. When students feel nervous, frightened, intimidated or defensive, their "affective filter" is said to be high and it becomes a mental block to taking in information. With LEP students, the goal is to provide input which is understandable and do it within a low-anxiety situation, thus increasing student participation and creating an environment which is more relaxed and conducive to language acquisition.

2. **Contextualize presentation by using visuals.** The goal is to provide as many clues as possible for English language learners so that they can orient themselves to the information being delivered. One of the most effective ways is through the visual channel. There are many, many ways that visuals can be used, from commercial materials (pictures, objects, maps, generic sketches) to teacher generated materials (illustrations on an overhead, realia [the actual object], pictures from magazines, teacher-made examples for specific units).

3. **Use body language and expression.** Gestures, facial expressions and body language can help provide a context for the message. A teacher who points and gestures while speaking gives students more clues than a when using a straightforward lecture posture. A lot can be communicated through gestures and this type of communication should be readily accepted when students use it to express themselves.

4. **Speak slowly and clearly.** Natural but slower speech, clearly enunciated, can make the message more understandable. We are often unaware of how fast we speak and slowing speech even slightly helps English language learners understand what is said.

5. **Use more pauses between phrases.** Such a delivery style allows students time to process what was said before the next sentence begins. Although many teachers of ELL students believe they are consciously making an effort to pause between phrases, audio-taping of lessons usual-ly shows surprising results. One way of making sure pauses are long enough for students to process the information is to count off two seconds between utterances. For example: "An equation is a mathematical sentence, a relationship between numbers and/or symbols (1001, 1002). Remember that an equation is like a balance scale, with the equal sign being the fulcrum, or center (1001, 1002)." Naturally, this technique will be more effective when you use other techniques at the same time, such as showing a visual of a balance scale, pointing to the fulcrum when reference is made to it and writing an equation and equal sign on the board.

6. **Use repetition.** Repetition, or natural redundancy, reinforces language. Songs, chants, raps and patterned stories give students an opportunity to practice using the language and can provide reinforcement of vocabulary, language structures, and intonation. During instruction, use a consistent vocabulary as much as is possible. To expand vocabulary, communicate the same idea again using different words. In the example above, the term "mathematical sentence" was elaborated, and the synonym "center" was given for the term "fulcrum." It may be useful to emphasize the original expression by repeating it, giving the students opportunity to hear the same idea expressed in more than one way.

7. **Use shorter sentences with simpler syntax.** Simplified does not imply childlike speech which tends to sound condescending. Instead, a natural but understandable delivery increases com-prehension. Take, for example, the sentence, "To add or subtract numbers with exponents, whether the base numbers are the same or different, you must simplify each number with an exponent first and then perform the indicated operation." A preferable delivery might be, (pointing to examples on the board) "To add or subtract numbers with exponents, you must do two steps: 1) simplify each number with exponents and 2) perform the operation. This is true whether the base numbers are the same or different."

8. **Stress high frequency vocabulary.** Avoid idioms or expressions that are difficult to translate. Focus on using words that are necessary for mastery of the subject matter. The language used with English language learners needs to be coherent (it makes sense) and cohesive (it ties together). Try selecting several key vocabulary words from the lesson and use them repeated-ly. Watch carefully for comprehension and be ready to restate, clarifying your meaning whenever necessary. The goal is understanding and should be achieved through whatever means is necessary—gestures, acting it out, or translation into the native language.

9. **Stress interactive learning.** In order to learn a language, you need to practice using it. Studies have shown that students actually have very little opportunity to speak in more than single words or short phrases. Keep in mind that we learn:

10% of what we read
20% of what we hear
30% of what we see
50% of what we see and hear
70% of what we discuss with others
80% of what we experience personally
95% of what we teach to someone else

10. **To increase student participation, use open-ended questions.** Questions with a single answer invite students to guess what you have in mind as the "correct" answer. Open-ended or prompting questions encourage students to think and express their ideas, using language. Some examples of open-ended questions include:

Look at the page and tell me what you think the chapter will be about.
How are these plants different?
Why would the colonists do that?
Tell me more about that.
On what basis would you group these objects?
What might happen if _____?
Tell me how you arrived at your answer?

11. **Tie the information to their background and experience.** Students participate more in learning that relates to their personal experiences. Ask questions such as:

What have you experienced that is similar to the character?
How do you think the settlers felt?
How would a situation like this be handled in your native country?

12. **More wait time.** After asking a question, wait at least 6-8 seconds for someone to respond. Students become conditioned to waiting for teachers and paraeducators to answer the question themselves (which they often do) when nobody responds immediately or students wait for someone to be called on—hopefully not them! By practicing increased wait time, students are given time to think through their response and will be more encouraged to participate.

SELECTION OF TEACHING STRATEGIES

DIRECTIONS

This exercise is designed to elicit from you examples and illustrations of different learning environments—those in which positive reactions and reinforcements were evident and those in which punishment may have been used. You are being asked to share a part of your life experience. Consider carefully those events that you would like to share with a partner or with the class.

Working with a partner, consider two types of learning situations that you have encountered in your life. They may have occurred at home, at school, or in social situations. Select one learning event in which you remember the instruction being delivered in a positive manner. Select another where punishment or the fear of punishment was the primary incentive for learning. Make notes below on both:

Positive **Punishing**

Compare and contrast the two learning situations. From which do you feel you have derived the most good? Why?

REINFORCEMENT

In order to use reinforcement effectively, it is necessary to design a teaching plan ahead of time that indicates when and under what circumstances reinforcement should be given. For example, if you are teaching a child to tie his shoes, when would you give the reinforcer? At the completion of the entire maneuver? At the completion of each step? And, what kind of reinforcement would you use? That would depend on the child, of course, and what he liked, but you need to plan it ahead of time.

DIRECTIONS

Outline below a possible teaching sequence, designating what the reinforcer would be and when it would be given, for a student in the program where you are working.

SHAPING

DIRECTIONS

Focusing on a student with whom you are now working, outline a teaching sequence using shaping as your technologic tool. Be prepared to discuss it with the rest of the class.

MODELING

DIRECTIONS

Outline a teaching sequence where modeling is the tool used. Focus on a sequence that would be appropriate for a student with whom you are working.

EXTINCTION

DIRECTIONS

Role playing is one way to learn to use extinction appropriately. Your teacher will demonstrate the use of extinction in front of the whole class. Working with a volunteer, s/he will show how to extinguish a behavior when a child is alternately playing with a toy and then whining for an adult's attention.

When the role playing has been completed, feel free to ask as many questions as you have about the technique. Then, four class members will be asked to demonstrate in a role play how to extinguish the behavior exhibited when a child is eating with her family, one elbow on the table, her head resting on her hand, pounding on her food with a fork, saying over and over I hate carrots.

Analyze each role play carefully. Decide why extinction is effective and take notes below on its value.

TASK ANALYSIS

DIRECTIONS

Working with a partner, select one of the five tasks listed below and work out a step by step, of how they could be taught:

- adding two single digit numbers
- putting on and zipping up a jacket
- obeying traffic lights during community based training
- dialing a number on a push button phone
- putting on and lacing a shoe

Use as much time as you need. Try to make each step a separate task that could be taught individually and then merged with the rest. Use the back of this paper if you need more room.

After you have completed your task analysis, your teacher will ask three volunteers to demonstrate their analyses, using other trainees as learners.

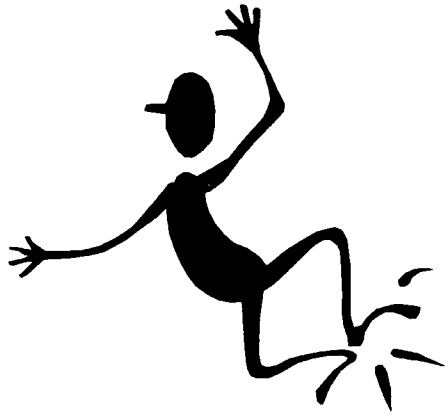
CREATING A COMPREHENSIBLE LESSON

DIRECTIONS

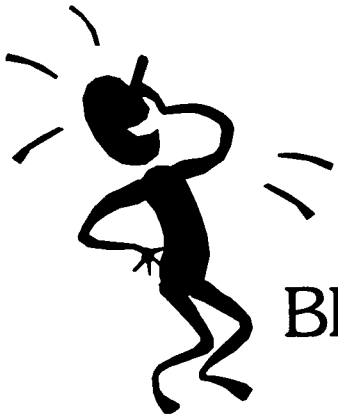
Based on the specific strategies for English language learners, develop a short lesson based on scenario below. Be sure to include open ended questions and other activities that promote active participation and comprehensive input.

Five fourth-grade students are in your group. Skill levels range from second to fourth grade. Two students are Filipino and classified as having LEP. They have a basic conversational understanding of English. The other three are Cambodian and are intermediate English speakers. Develop a math lesson in which students practice making change.

CHARACTERISTICS OF BEHAVIOR



ALL BEHAVIOR HAS MEANING



BEHAVIOR IS LEARNED

BEHAVIOR CAN BE CHANGED

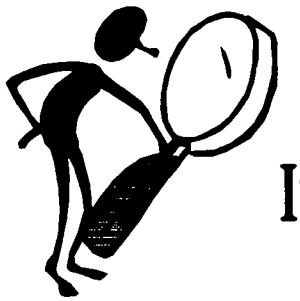
When a behavior has been a part of an individual's repertoire for a long time, it may be difficult to change

Some behaviors that are perceived as "difficult" or "challenging" may be used to communicate needs or to gain the attentions of others

Each person learns in a different way and responds to different types of teaching strategies

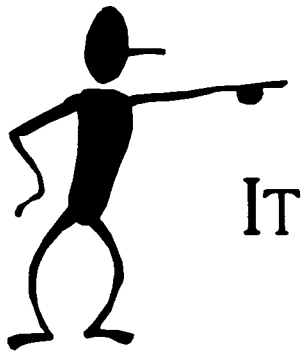
Encouragement and positive reinforcement are stronger teaching techniques than disapproval and punishment

BEHAVIOR MUST BE OBSERVABLE



IT CAN BE SEEN

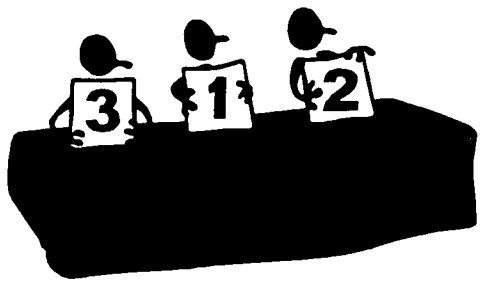
IT CAN BE HEARD

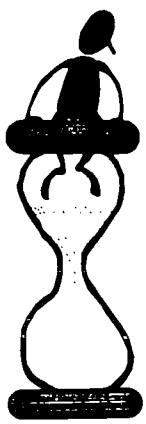


IT CAN BE IDENTIFIED

BEHAVIOR MUST BE MEASURABLE

IT CAN BE COUNTED





IT CAN BE TIMED

REINFORCEMENT STRATEGIES

PRIMARY REINFORCERS

SECONDARY REINFORCERS

INTERNAL REINFORCEMENT

EXTINCTION (PLANNED IGNORING)

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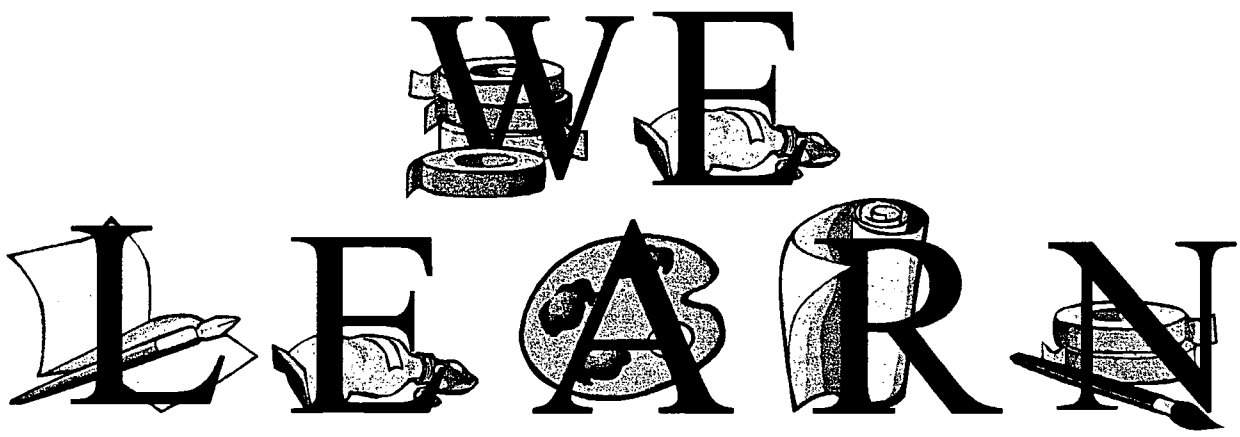
EFFECTIVE REINFORCEMENT STRATEGIES . . .

HAVE MEANING FOR AN INDIVIDUAL STUDENT

PROVIDE NATURAL CONSEQUENCES FOR A SPECIFIC ACTION OR ACTIVITY

SUPPORT AND MOTIVATE ACADEMIC GROWTH

FACILITATE DEVELOPMENT AND IMPROVEMENT OF SOCIAL SKILLS



10% OF WHAT WE READ

20% OF WHAT WE HEAR

30% OF WHAT WE SEE

50% OF WHAT WE SEE AND HEAR

70% OF WHAT WE DISCUSS WITH OTHERS

80% OF WHAT WE EXPERIENCE PERSONALLY

95% OF WHAT WE TEACH TO SOMEONE ELSE

UNIT 8

STRATEGIES FOR ONE TO ONE INSTRUCTION AND REINFORCING LESSONS

EQUIPMENT AND MATERIALS REQUIRED

- ❑ Flipchart and easel or chalkboard
- ❑ Copies of the handouts and exercise/worksheets for this unit
- ❑ Copies of lesson plans for teaching reading, math or language arts skills
- ❑ Samples of forms used in your district to record information about student performance during or after one to one tutoring sessions

BEFORE THE SESSION BEGINS

- ❑ Review the Background Materials, Handouts and Exercises that are part of this unit, as well as other resources you have about effective one to one instructional methods. Develop a brief lecture stressing: 1) the contribution paraeducators make to increasing the availability of individualized instruction; 2) methods paraeducators can use to become more effective instructors including: a) preparing written plans for teaching individual or small groups of students, b) methods for establishing and maintaining attending behaviors, c) asking questions, and d) recording data about student performance.
- ❑ Develop your own or ask teachers to share lesson plans they have used to teach students with different learning styles and ability levels.
- ❑ Obtain copies of the forms for recording student performance used in special education, Title 1 or bilingual, dual language, ESL, or other compensatory education programs administered by your district.
- ❑ Review Exercise #1 in Unit 2, "On-going Assessment: What is Your Learning Style?" or obtain copies of other instruments that assess student learning styles.
- ❑ On the flipchart or chalkboard write the questions about preparing for instructional sessions. (The questions are listed on the following page.)

DURING THE TRAINING SESSION

- ❑ Deliver the brief lecture on the role of paraeducators in the instructional process. Outline methods they can use to improve student performance.

- ❑ Distribute **Information Handout #1**. Ask the participants to follow along and respond as you discuss their roles.

- ❑ Use the following questions paraeducators need to be able to ask and answer to successfully carry out an instructional session as a guide for the discussion:

  1) Do I understand the purpose of this lesson? (Is the objective to review reading or math skills, provide an opportunity for a student to increase and maintain on task behavior, reduce time required to complete a lesson, assist a student to prepare a class assignment, or master information in a content area, review/practice concept with a group of students.)

  2) Can I teach this on my own? (Do I need more information from the teacher about the objective(s), the topic, the methods, the materials?)

  3) What is my role in presenting this lesson? (Is it to listen to students read aloud and then ask questions to determine comprehension, assist a student to study for a test, make up work, gather information on progress, assist with a class project?)

  4) What is the most important thing for me to do during this session? (Assist a student to complete an assignment, plan a project, practice staying on task?)

  5) Are there any time constraints for the student(s)? (When is the assignment due? Tomorrow, next week?)

  6) Am I prepared to reinforce correct responses, on task behavior? (What reinforcement will I use? When/how will I use it?)

  7) What cues, prompts, and questioning techniques will I use? (Will the cues/prompts be visual, oral, tactile/physical? Are the questions I plan to use open ended? Will they require more than a yes-no response? Will they encourage the student to move from literal/concrete responses to more generalized applications?)

  8) Do I have the materials/equipment I need to teach the lesson? Is the space arranged to limit distractions?

  9) How will I gather and record information about student performance?

- ❑ Distribute and discuss **Information Handouts 2 and 3**. Stress the importance of using effective questioning strategies.

- ❑ Distribute and review the sample lesson plans. Note the different approaches used by the individual teachers. Discuss the various components, the objectives, the sequence of steps for presenting the content, the activities/methods for teaching the lesson on the materials.

- ❑ Divide the participants into groups of three or four. Distribute **Exercise #1**, "The Worksheet for Individualizing a Lesson." Develop and provide each group with a brief description of an individual student's identified learning needs. It should contain enough information about the student that a group will be able to individualize the lesson, e.g., preferred learning styles, strengths—this could be one of Gardner's 7 intelligences. Ask the groups to describe the materials they will need, the instructional strategy reinforcer, and questioning technique they will use. Assign each group one of the lesson plans and ask them to work together to develop an individualized one-to-one teaching session. You should also describe the purpose of the lesson. For example, the purpose of the lesson might be to review and help the student strengthen/master a skill or content, assist the student to prepare a homework assignment based on the lesson, or review for a test. Ask the groups to develop a scenario for presenting the lesson. This will include asking one person to play the role of instructor and one person to role play a student.

- ❑ Reconvene the groups and have them present (role play) the lesson. Then ask different members to discuss why they selected the instructional strategy(s).

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STRATEGIES FOR ONE-TO-ONE INSTRUCTION AND REINFORCING LESSONS*

INTRODUCTION. Extending the time students spend actively participating and responding during instruction corresponds to improved student achievement.** Paraeducators make significant contributions to increasing the availability of more opportunities for students to master both academic and non-academic skills. They do this by conducting group activities, or providing one-to-one instruction that has been developed by a teacher to meet the specific education needs of a student.

APPROACHES TO TEACHING. When teachers plan lessons and modify instructional strategies, they take into account many factors including the requirements of the curriculum, the age, learning styles, interests of students, and the ability levels of individual students. They select instructional strategies for 1) increasing skills that will enable students to learn more effectively (e.g., enhancing visual/perceptual, listening, and communication skills, extending time spent on task); 2) establishing instructional objectives with clearly defined steps for teaching new skills; 3) developing mechanisms for mastering/strengthening skills through repetition and practice; 4) identifying and determining how reinforcement techniques will be used; and 5) assessing the results of the instruction.

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES. In addition to the methods presented in Unit VI, there are other skills that will enhance the ability of the paraeducator to carry out successful one to one or small group sessions. They include 1) following a lesson plan and implementing instructional activities, 2) knowing the students, 3) preparing the environment/space to eliminate distractions, 4) preparing materials, 5) establishing and maintaining attention, 6) presenting information effectively and eliciting responses from students, and 7) recording information about student performance.

FOLLOWING THE LESSON PLAN. Lesson plans are written descriptions for day to day activities that serve as a guide for the instructional team. They help the team stay on course in the instructional process and insure that teachers and paraeducators are working toward the same goal. The format of lesson plans vary from teacher to teacher and school to school. In general, however, they include: 1) long range goal(s) and objectives for lesson(s), 2) an outline of activities and specific instructional procedures to be used with the entire group or individual

*Some of the content in this unit has been adapted from 1) *A core curriculum and training program for paraeducators working in inclusive general and special education programs serving school age students* (1993). National Resource Center for Paraprofessionals, Center for Advanced Study in Education, City University of New York, and 2) *Tutoring in the classroom: guidelines for educators* (1989). Lincoln: Project PARA, University of Nebraska.

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students, 3) materials and equipment required, and 4) procedures for evaluating student performance and record keeping.

KNOWING THE STUDENT(S). For paraeducators to work effectively with individual or groups of students they must have an understanding of their characteristics and interests. There are many factors that influence how people learn. All students including those who have disabilities or limited English or other special needs learn through a variety of modalities. Some need to have detailed lessons planned and presented in small sequential steps. Others thrive on setting their own learning goals and helping to plan their own instructional program. Some students will start a task and stay with it until it is completed. Others are easily distracted and need to be constantly motivated to return to a lesson or to move onto another activity. All students require feedback to know whether their responses are correct or incorrect. Some require immediate external rewards, others are motivated to learn by achieving the goals they have set for themselves. Some students learn more easily by reading about a topic. Some may prefer watching a skill being demonstrated. Some like to listen to the information or hear directions presented one step at a time. Still others prefer a more active approach to learning that may include working on individual assignments or class projects.

PREPARING THE ENVIRONMENT. The setting where a lesson takes place plays an important part in how well the session will go. A quiet area away from distractions is most appropriate. There should be enough space to accommodate material or equipment required for the lesson. Materials should be assembled before the training begins and organized in the order they will be used.

ESTABLISHING AND MAINTAINING ATTENDING BEHAVIOR. Before teaching can take place, it is necessary for the student to be able to participate actively. An environment that is free of competing stimuli is a beginning; developing a lesson based on the learning styles and attention spans of students is another. Using auditory cues (saying the student's name), visual cues (using eye contact, pointing to an item), tactile cues (touching a student's hand, face) are among the mechanisms that may help to (re)direct attention.

PRESENTING INFORMATION AND ELICITING RESPONSES. When lessons are initiated, it is essential for students to understand what tasks they will be expected to perform. (Is the purpose of the lesson to practice oral/silent reading and then to report what they have read? Is it to practice and master a multiplication table? Is it to review for a test or to plan a project?) Directions should be clear and precise.

Since most lessons in general education are planned for an entire class, the key for successful inclusion of students with special needs is to modify the instructional strategies to meet the needs of individuals. In many cases, teaching one concept at a time, in short sequential steps is an effective approach. (See the section on Task Analysis in Unit 6). If the objective is to teach a child to count to ten, the student should not be asked to identify objects by name, or to describe colors.

In some cases, it may be necessary to provide different degrees of guidance to students as they practice the skills. This is referred to as prompting and there are several methods that can be used including:

- verbal prompts (giving directions, making a request, asking a question)
- visual prompts (pointing)
- demonstrating/modeling (showing how an activity should be performed)
- physical prompts (grasping a student's hand to assist with holding a pencil and making a figure).

Other important tools for eliciting responses from students include using various questioning techniques and vocabulary that is appropriate for the student and providing appropriate assistance when a student requests it.

Methods for determining whether a student has mastered a concept may include oral and written evaluations. Knowing how to ask different types of questions to elicit information from students is important. Paraeducators need to be able to: 1) ask open ended questions that require more than yes or no answers, 2) order questions to guide students to a conclusion, and 3) vary the level of questions to allow literal and inference responses. (See Information Handout #3 for different approaches to asking effective questions to achieve the goals of a lesson.)

Responding to a request for help from students when it is appropriate, can reduce frustration, keep the student on task, and enable the student to master a concept. It is critical that paraeducators understand the distinctions between providing students with answers and enabling them to use a process for determining a solution on their own; or the differences in assisting a student to identify an idea for a project, the activities required to do the project, and the materials s/he needs to complete it, versus doing the project for the student.

REINFORCING CORRECT RESPONSES AND ATTENDING BEHAVIOR. In Unit 6 the paraeducators learned several methods for increasing appropriate behavior, including reinforcement. When they conduct one to one instruction, there are several things paraeducators must keep in mind about reinforcement. The first is that a powerful tool that may unintentionally be used to reinforce challenging or ineffective behaviors, therefore, the reinforcer should be used following a correct response, or immediately after an appropriate behavior. Reinforcers that are used with an individual student should be age and culturally appropriate and a reinforcer should have meaning or value for the student.

RECORDING INFORMATION ABOUT STUDENT PERFORMANCE. Evaluation activities that focus on the student involve gathering information about progress, teaching methods that are effective and what rewards are the most reinforcing. On-going evaluation is important to keep

track of what is happening to the student and discover what needs to be changed for more successful learning. Evaluations prepared by the teacher for the cumulative records, for the IEP and reports to parents use the data gathered during one-to-one sessions and other instructional activities. When evaluating student, these are some of the questions that might be asked:

- What distractions most frequently interfere with the student's learning?
- Which reinforcers work best for this student?
- What progress has the student made?
- Is the student working more independently?
- Is the student using his/her learning in other settings and situations?
- Does the student work well with others?
- Does the student express feelings and opinions?

QUESTIONS PARAEDUCATORS NEED TO BE ABLE TO ANSWER IN ORDER TO SUCCESSFULLY CARRY OUT AN INSTRUCTIONAL SESSION

1) Do I understand the purpose of this lesson? (Is the objective to review reading or math skills, provide an opportunity for a student to increase and maintain on task behavior, practice a self-help skill, assist a student to prepare a class assignment, master information in a content area, review/practice a concept with a group of students?)

2) Can I teach this on my own? (Do I need more information from the teacher about the objectives, the activity, the topic, the methods, the material?)

3) What is my role in presenting the lesson? (Is it to listen to the student(s) read aloud and then ask questions to determine comprehension, assist a student to study for a test, make up work, measure progress, and/or assist with a class project?)

4) What is the most important thing for me to do during this session? (Is it to assist a student to compete an assignment, plan a project, and/or practice staying on task?)

5) Are there any time constraints for the student(s)? (When is the assignment due, tomorrow, next week?)

6) Am I prepared to reinforce correct responses, on-task behavior? (What reinforcement will I use? When/how will I use it?)

7) What cues, prompts, questioning techniques will I use? (Will the cues/prompts be visual, oral, tactile/physical? Are the questions I plan to use open ended? Will they require more than a yes-no response? Will they encourage the student to move from literal/concrete responses to more generalized applications?)

8) Do I have the materials/equipment I need to teach the lesson? Is the space arranged to limit distractions?

9) How will I gather and record information about student performance?

STRATEGIES FOR HELPING STUDENTS MAINTAIN ATTENTION AND STAY ON TASK

- Assemble all material and equipment before starting the lesson.
- Limit competing distractions.
- Plan activities before stating the lesson.
- Use age appropriate positive reinforcer(s).
- Plan the prompts and cues you will use to assist the student to stay on task (personalize them for individual students).
- Use the student's name frequently.
- Make eye contact with the student and encourage the student to maintain eye contact with you.
- Outline for the student the goals for this lesson before you start.
- Use instructional strategies that recognize the student's learning style (demonstrating reading silently or aloud, repetition).
- Use different types and levels of questions to elicit information from students.
- Break lesson into small sequential steps.
- Teach one fact/idea at a time.
- Respond to requests for assistance.

STRATEGIES FOR EFFECTIVELY RECORDING INFORMATION ABOUT STUDENT PERFORMANCE

- Identify the distractions that most frequently interfere with the student's ability to stay on task.
- Identify the reinforcers that work best for the student.
- Does the student use the knowledge/skill in other settings?
- Is the student working more independently?
- Does the student work well with others?
- Does the student express feelings and opinions?

EFFECTIVE QUESTIONING*

QUESTIONING STRATEGIES FOR IMPROVING QUALITY THINKING

RECALLING.
Who, what, where, how _____?

COMPARING.
How is _____ similar to/different from _____?

IDENTIFYING ATTRIBUTES AND COMPONENTS
What are the characteristics/parts of _____?

CLASSIFYING
How might we organize _____ into categories?

ORDERING
Arrange _____ into sequence according to _____.

IDENTIFYING RELATIONSHIPS AND PATTERNS
Develop an outline/diagram/web of _____.

REPRESENTING
In what other ways might we show/ illustrate ____?

IDENTIFYING MAIN IDEAS
What is the key concept/issue in _____?
Retell the main idea of _____ in your own words.

IDENTIFYING ERRORS
What is wrong with _____?

INFERRING
What might we infer from _____?
What conclusions might be drawn from _____?

PREDICTING
What might happen if _____?

ELABORATING
What ideas/details can you add to _____?
Give an example of _____.

SUMMARIZING
Can you summarize _____?

ESTABLISHING CRITERIA
What criteria would you use to judge/evaluate____?

VERIFYING
What evidence supports _____?
How might we prove/confirm _____?

QUESTIONING STRATEGIES TO EXTEND THINKING

REMEMBER "WAIT TIME I AND II"
Provide at least five seconds of thinking time after a question and after a response.

ASK "FOLLOW-UPS"
e.g., "Why? How do you know? Do you agree? Will you give an example? Can you tell me more?

CUE RESPONSES TO "OPEN ENDED" QUESTIONS
e.g., "There is not just one correct answer to this question. I want you to consider alternatives."

USE "THINK-PAIR-SHARE"
Allow individual thinking time and discussion with a partner, and follow with whole-group discussion.

CALL ON STUDENTS RANDOMLY
If you are working with a small group, avoid the pattern of only calling on those students with raised hands.

ASK STUDENTS TO "UNPACK THEIR THINKING"
e.g., "Describe how you arrived at your answer."

ASK FOR SUMMARY TO PROMOTE ACTIVE LISTENING
e.g., "Could you please summarize our discussion thus far?"

PLAY DEVIL'S ADVOCATE
Require students to defend their reasoning against different points of view.

ENCOURAGE STUDENT QUESTIONING
Provide opportunities for students to generate their own questions.

*Adapted from "Strategies for Effective Questioning": Jay McTigue, Maryland State Department of Education

WORKSHEET FOR INDIVIDUALIZING A LESSON

1. What is the purpose of this session? _____

2. What are the Instructional Objectives? What will you teach during this lesson?

   a. _____

   b. _____

3. What sub-steps will you follow to teach the behavior/skill? List them in the order you will teach them.

   a. _____

   b. _____

   c. _____

4. What specific reinforcer will you use? Will it be immediate or delayed?

   a. _____

   _____

5. What teaching methods will you use? Describe the directions you will give to the student—will they be verbal, will you demonstrate them, or will you use a combination? Describe how you will establish and maintain the attention of the student—what prompts or cues will you use? Describe the questions you will ask to elicit information.

   a. _____

   b. _____

   c. _____

   d. _____

   e. _____

6. What materials/equipment will you need to teach the lesson?

   a. _____

   b. _____

   c. _____

7. How will you keep a record of the student's performance?

   a. _____

   b. _____

MODULE V

WORKING WITH CULTURALLY DIVERSE CHILDREN & YOUTH AND THEIR FAMILIES

OVERVIEW

Children and youth in our classrooms may speak little or no English, may speak several other languages, or may not be proficient even in their native language. Certainly language is an important vehicle for learning and language barriers can be frustrating for educators and children. But children are whole people; language is only part of who they are. Their family life and cultural heritage, which are hard to separate, form the basis of their identity. Educators are more effective when they understand the different cultures of their students, because culture affects the way a student will interact with others and process information--the way a student will learn. Since educators are not anthropologists and cannot possibly become familiar with the customs, values, and family lifestyles of every culture represented in American schools, it is tempting to "throw in the towel" and ignore this overwhelming responsibility. There are two ways that educators can help to create positive learning environments for ethnically diverse children. First, the development of cultural sensitivity will create an attitude and approach to instruction and interacting with students that values individual and cultural differences. Second, acquiring a general knowledge of those cultures represented in a particular school community is within reach. Before either of these steps can be achieved, it is important to develop self-awareness; understanding our own cultural background and how it affects our values, lifestyles, and behaviors is extremely helpful in understanding and appreciating diversity.

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

The paraeducator will be able to:

1) Describe the different ways "family" is defined by various cultural groups.

2) Name three elements of surface culture.

3) Name three elements of deep culture.

4) Describe the stages of "cultural adjustment" that families go through when moving to a new country.

5) Name three ways to work more effectively with families of the children with whom they work.

6) Describe three instructional strategies or activities that validate a child's cultural background and affirm their learning.

TIME REQUIRED TO COMPLETE THE TRAINING

The module will require approximately two hours to teach.

EQUIPMENT AND MATERIALS

- Overhead projector or flipchart and easel, or a chalkboard.
- Copies of transparencies.
- Copies of all the materials for each participant.
- Clipboards or writing surfaces for participants to write on.

BEFORE THE TRAINING SESSION

- Review the background material and develop a series of brief lectures that: 1) discuss the definitions of "family" across different ethnic and cultural groups; 2) describe stages of cultural adjustment, 3) differences between surface culture and deep culture, and 4) provide examples of strategies for working with children, youth and their families who come from ethnically, culturally and language diverse background.

- Review the exercises and activities to determine which ones will most appropriately meet the needs of the paraeducators participating in this training.

- Make copies of the information handouts, exercises and transparencies.

DURING THE SESSION

- ❑ To set the stage for the discussions and activities that follow, introduce the need for each of us to be aware of and understand how our own cultural heritage influences our beliefs and value systems as they relate to: the role of the family throughout our lives, life styles, education, careers and more.

- ❑ To elicit information from participants about their knowledge of the contributions individuals from various cultures and ethnic heritages have made to our country, use Exercise 1 - *Multicultural Bingo*. The directions are: 1) for participants to write their name in the center square; 2) the objective of this activity is to fill all squares on your bingo card with the signature of other participants; 3) a participant may only sign two squares on any one sheet; 4) participants may sign their name in a square(s) that represent a factual statement for them; 5) you will have 8-10 minutes to obtain signatures from other participants; and 6) participants will identify the individuals who signed his/her square and ask the signer what/who influenced the formation of these values/ beliefs (family, school, life experience).

- ❑ Begin the discussion as factors that influence one's own self-awareness, by asking participants to think about and make notes about their ethnic identity. What characteristics in their cultural/ethnic heritage have had the most significant impact on their lives? How was their sense of ethnicity established? Which characteristics of their ethnic group do they value the

most? Why are these characteristics important to them? To encourage participants to share information about themselves, you might want to open the discussion by providing personal examples to illustrate possible responses. Before completing this activity, you might want to ask individuals from the same ethnic or cultural background to compare differences in their responses and to identify factors that contribute to differences.

- ❑ Begin the next part of the lesson by discussing the role of the family. Ask class members for personal definitions/understanding of the meaning of family. Use the examples to point out the distinctions in the meaning of "a family" among individuals who come from the same or different ethnic and cultural heritages. Stress the fact that many cultures recognize the role/value of extended family members to support nuclear families.

- ❑ Distribute Exercise #2. Ask participants to diagram or draw a map of their family. Remind them that they need not limit themselves to blood relatives. Ask them to identify the role of each family member (provider, counselor, nurturer, historian, decision maker, story teller, entertainer). Urge them not to limit themselves to the examples on the list. Then ask them to indicate their relationship to the individual family members.

- ❑ Once the drawings are complete ask participants to explain their drawings to another member of the group and to discuss how their cultural heritage influenced their individual roles and the roles of other "family members."

- ❑ The following activities are designed to: 1) increase the awareness and understanding of factors that impact on the performance and learning styles of the children and youth with whom they work; and 2) enhance the ability of paraeducators to support and work effectively with students from different heritages. To initiate these activities, deliver the lecture and use Transparency #1 to introduce Elements of Surface Culture.

- ❑ After you complete the lecture, ask participants to work alone, and record examples of surface culture then ask them to share these examples with the person next to them and to be prepared to discuss similarities and differences in surface culture.

- ❑ Use Transparency #2 as a guide to discuss Elements of Deep Culture. Ask participants to think about and identify examples of the deep cultural characteristics that have influenced them the most. Ask for volunteers to share the results of their efforts with the class.

- ❑ To continue this series of activities, ask participants to think about an occasion or event when a student's behavior might have been misinterpreted because his/her cultural characteristics were different from what they or another member of the instructional team considered to be appropriate or "normal" in their cultural/ethnic context. How did they or the other team member react? How did they or the other person learn about their misinterpretation? How would they have reacted differently, if they had been more culturally aware?

- ❑ The following activities are designed to strengthen the ability of paraeducators to work with children and youth who come from ethnically diverse and language minority backgrounds. Ask participants to observe a student in their classroom who has limited English for several days and take notes. The results of this activity may be used as a long-term case study project that

participants can use to develop, under the direction of their supervising teacher, strategies for working with children and youth from diverse background. Use cultural knowledge of the child's cultural group as background information for forming a *hypothesis*. For example: A child who is asking her classmate for help on a project may not be "taking the easy way out" but instead believes that it is desirable and commendable to work cooperatively. In her culture, individual accomplishment is not valued as highly as group success. *Check the hypothesis* by systematically observing the child, (does she consistently ask for help from classmates, is she capable of working independently?) interviewing the child, parents, and others from the same ethnic group, or further researching the problem. *Find a culturally validating approach* that fosters learning and growth for the child. For example: explain to the child that both methods of learning are important and create opportunities for both.

- ❑ Distribute Exercise #3. Assign partners to review the responses of "Hispanic Parents in Their Own Words" to a series of interviews. Assign families A, B, C, D, E, or F to an individual team that focuses each pair on one family. Ask the team to get to know its family and answer the following questions. 1) What do these responses tell you about the family's values? 2) How might these values, beliefs, experiences, or attitudes affect their involvement in their child's education? 3) What are the strengths of this family? 4) Are there any possible obstacles evident from these responses that might keep the parents or family members from communicating with the school? And 5) How do these responses help teachers and paraeducators in approaching a family about their child's performance in school?

- ❑ Distribute Exercise #4 - Neighborhood Maps.

  Observing Your Community.

  Discuss the concept of neighborhood. Does the neighborhood in which your school is located have a name? Do all students live in the same neighborhood? Talk about the neighborhood. What are the most significant spots to students? (Church, park, ice cream store, etc.)

  Describe the neighborhood you live in. What do you like or dislike about it? Is public transportation available? Do people live near the stores where they shop or far away? What kinds of community services do people depend on? What kinds of businesses exist in the community? Industries?

  How is your neighborhood like or unlike the neighborhood(s) in which your student's live? Discuss problems and issues that are important in your (and your school's) community.

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FAMILY ETHNICITY

It is difficult to learn about ethnicity without focusing on the family. The two are intertwined concepts. Culture is maintained through family interaction and structure and a child's identity is formed largely as he or she experiences life within the family. Definitions of family differ from group to group and from generation to generation. For a long time, the definition of family as conceived by the dominant culture (White Anglo Saxon Protestants) was intact and nuclear. Actually, the family seen on TV during the 1950's (e. g. "The Ozzie and Harriet Show", "Leave it to Beaver", "Father Knows Best") that portrayed the typical American family as one where the father was the breadwinner and the mother was a housewife, was historically a fluke. Throughout most of our country's history and for many non-white Americans, this family never existed. Today, single-parent households and blended families are more common as divorce has become more commonplace. Rarely, does only one adult in the family provide income for the family; the "family wage" is no longer a reality. Although women are participating in the workforce in equal numbers as men, domestic work roles have not changed much. Women still assume the majority of household responsibilities, including childcare. Conflicts about gender roles are part of the transformation of the family.

Different groups share a common understanding of what constitutes a family (McGoldrick, Pierce, & Giordano, 1982). Black Americans have always considered a wide network of kin to be "family." For Italians, there is no such thing as the nuclear family; instead family means a tightly-knit group spanning three or four generations including god-parents and close friends. The Chinese go beyond this and include all their ancestors and descendants in their definition of family. As the American economy becomes less stable, all families are relying more heavily on extended kinship systems for economic and emotional support. These "families" may include people who are and who are not biologically related.

There are many shared characteristics that influence ethnicity. How, why and when a family migrated to this country, and socioeconomic class are two important ones. Families can experience the stresses of migration even several generations later. Even when these stresses are buried they may subtly influence a family's outlook. Migration often forces families to abandon much of their ethnic heritage. If the family came to this country alone, they may feel cut off from the past and the pressure to adapt is great. When a family of educated immigrants come to this country for professional jobs, often they find themselves in situations (work or community) in which there is no one with whom they can share customs or speak their native language.

STAGES OF CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT*. Every family goes through life cycles. The process of adjusting to the new country is influenced by the life cycle of the family during the transition period. For example, young adults have the greatest potential for adapting to the new culture in terms of career and marital choice. Yet they are also vulnerable to cutting off their heritage, which may lead to a sense of disconnection later in life. When a family migrates with

*This material was adapted from the Long Beach Unified School District (1992) Language Development Specialist Training Manual where it was reproduced with permission from the Florida Atlantic University.

small children, it is likely that the parents will acculturate more slowly. Sometimes there is a power reversal in the family where the children take on the task of interpreting the new culture for the parents. When this happens, the parental leadership becomes threatened and the children are left without effective adult leadership which they desperately need to cope with the adjustment process. Teenagers who migrate experience multiple life transitions at once.

When working with students who have recently migrated, it is helpful to understand that they are often in the throes of cultural transition. The adjustment process is a time of conflict--challenging the validity of their language, religion, education, and lifestyle. Without sufficient support systems, this can be overwhelming. Family life is experienced in isolation. The family may draw in for protection in a seemingly hostile environment, or splinter as some family members take on the values and lifestyles of the mainstream society.

During the process of readjustment, the family learns that the rules that worked in their native culture are no longer valid in the new setting. They must learn which behaviors are appropriate in social interaction and communication. Since there are no lists, no courses, no books for these culture rules, learning takes place at a subconscious level of awareness. The process of figuring out the new rules is extremely stressful. We are all familiar with the discomfort of learning how to fit in a new job, school, or new region of the country. It may be helpful to understand the stages of cultural adjustment that a family goes through when they come to the U.S. and how a child's behavior in school is affected by the adjustment process. Gregory Trifonovitch identified several stages which characterize the adjustment process reflected in changes in attitudes and behavior. It is important to remember though, that some may skip stages, or stay in one stage for a prolonged period. Others may never get past a certain stage.

Honeymoon stage: Because the move is often viewed as a desirable change, the realization of a dream for the family, there is often an initial phase of joy and fascination. There is enthusiasm and an eagerness to learn and to please the cultural hosts. Students in this stage are cooperative and a pleasure to work with. Problems arise when such a student nods or smiles when in realty they don't understand. Over time, these misunderstandings accumulate and the unpredictability of other's behavior and reactions begins to become unmanageable. At this stress threshold, the person enters the second stage.

Hostility stage: At this point, the stress level becomes intolerable. Frustration, anger, anxiety, and feelings of insecurity and depression are common. A person at this stage often displays hostility toward and criticisms of the new environment and social community. There is an excessive fear in new situations and a mistrust of people, fits of anger over minor frustrations, and eventually a lack of interest and motivation and withdrawal. For students in this painful period, this is a time of academic problems.

Students in the hostility stage may be difficult to work with and resist your efforts. However, this is when they most need your tolerance, patience and assistance with learning the new cultural rules.

Humor stage: If and when a person moves on from the hostility stage, perceptions gradually become more in line with peers and the surrounding community. Frustrations and insecurity diminish and the newcomer begins to relax. A conscious awareness that one is operating by a new set of rules develops and this facilitates further learning. The individual becomes more tolerant of their own mistakes and is able to laugh at these. Some newcomers stay in this stage permanently--particularly adults. Others move on to the final stage.

Home stage: In this final stage assimilation of the new cultural rules occurs. By now the rules have become mastered and are automatic. The individual begins to think and feel in the same way as peers and social groups. Some lose a portion of their original culture. Many leave most of the old rules and ways of thinking behind. Others can retain old cultural norms and assimilate the new. The truly lucky ones can move from one culture to the other in ways that are appropriate for each setting.

Developing Cultural Awareness: Surface Culture and Deep Culture*

Culture is expressed through language. Visible or tangible items of culture are considered surface culture elements. The non-tangible items which deal with feelings, attitudes and rules for interaction are considered deep cultural elements. Deep cultural elements are learned by being members of particular cultural groups. True appreciation of a culture does not occur until one functions in a group of people and experiences the feelings and attitudes that make the group unique.

ELEMENTS OF SURFACE CULTURE. Elements of surface culture include the tangible things related to a group of people. When we speak of a group of people as a whole, the possibility exists of stereotyping everyone within the group. This often leads to over generalizations about a particular ethnic group and ultimately provides erroneous information rather than clarifying the situation. Every cultural group has undergone, and is undergoing, processes of acculturation and assimilation. Acculturation is the process an individual goes through to adjust to a new culture. The primary culture is modified as the new culture is learned and accepted. Assimilation, as described earlier, is a similar process of adopting the new culture; however, through assimilation, the primary culture is lost and replaced by the new culture. In reality, assimilation never happens. Every cultural group maintains certain customs that are unique to that group. These customs and practices become associated with the group until it is difficult to think of one without the other. The following elements of surface culture are examples of how an ethnic group expresses its uniqueness:

1. **Foods.** Every group has unique foods and eating patterns which are sometimes determined by availability. Tradition (culture) may determine how and when food is prepared and served. The same food prepared by different cultures may look and taste very different. Different types of diets of each group meet the universal nutrition requirements through various food combinations.

*This material was adapted from Gonzales, 1991, pp.7-15 and 17-24 with permission from the IDRA.

2. **Holidays.** Holidays may be patriotic, religious, or personal.

3. **Arts.** Every group contributes to the arts: music, visual arts and crafts, theater, and dance. Geographical regions often create unique art forms.

4. **Folklore.** Every culture is resplendent in folklore. There are several kinds of folklore. These include myths, fables, legends, fairy tales, folk songs and proverbs.

5. **History.** This is man's (or woman's) story: Each historian tells from his or her own perspective, that of his/her own cultural group. History and contributions of ethnic minority groups in the United States have seldom been presented. Only during the last half of the 20th century have text books begun to include a multicultural view -- perspectives and writings of minority groups.

6. **Personalities.** Each group has well-known personalities. However, historical personalities from minority groups typically have been omitted from history books. Usually they are only known within their ethnic or language group. The best resources for ethnic personalities are often local individuals.

ELEMENTS OF DEEP CULTURE. Elements of deep culture deal with the feelings and attitudes that we learn by being members of particular groups. These are not as obvious as surface culture elements, but they are real. Each culture behaves according to certain unspoken rules that are to be followed in particular situations and shares particular attitudes that influence their lifestyles. The following examples not meant to reinforce any stereotype that might exist about any cultural group. Instead they are provided to emphasize the diversity of the multicultural student population served by most schools.

1. **Ceremony.** This is what a person is to say and do on particular occasions. For example, in some cultures children shake hands to greet someone. Asians, however, do not practice body contact as a greeting, but bow their heads slightly. Eye contact which is expected in the dominant culture between the teacher and the student is considered disrespectful in many cultures for whom the teacher is a revered authority. When a teacher tells a Vietnamese student they are good at something, the student reacts in a humble way, saying they are not really that good. This is not false modesty, but only an example of the Confucian concept of "le', reacting with modesty to praise," practiced for two millennia.

2. **Courtship and marriage.** This area includes attitudes toward dating, marriage and raising a family. Today people in most cultures have a choice in choosing their mates; however, within some Arab and East Indian Cultures, marriages are still arranged through mutual consent of both families.

Among some Asian cultures, wives assume a subordinate role to their husbands in all areas after marriage. They have no legal or marital rights and must obey their husbands. If the husband dies, obedience is transferred to eldest son. Community property laws, where women are entitled to half of men's wealth after marriage, come from Spanish law. Not all 50 states have it; the majority that do are found in the Southwest.

Aesthetics. This refers to the beautiful things of culture and how they are enjoyed; art, music, dance, literature, architecture. What is considered attractive in one culture, may be considered unattractive in another. For example, some cultures like the subdued and miniatures, while others prefer large things. An example of the Asian value of the miniature is bonsai, or the cultivation of dwarfed plants. There are some Native American tribes which have seven words for the color blue. Some cultures value handmade items rather than machine made; a handmade gift is considered a sign of extreme admiration.

4. **Ethics.** How a person learns and practices honesty, fair play, principles, and moral thought, comprise a code of ethics. What some educators consider cheating may be though of as helping in some culture. For the Vietnamese, the concepts of good and evil are part of the mainstream of life. Living consists of successfully existing or surviving as best as one can. Authority is recognized more readily when it has a human face. Law is understood better when it is represented by a person, allegiance to a human being not a principle or ideal. In the Lao culture, to be an adult is to be totally independent, self-sufficient, and self reliant.

5. **Family Ties.** This area extends beyond the immediate family to how a person feels towards friends, classmates, roommates, and others. Bonding is different among different cultures. In some cultures, for example, Hawaiian and Mexican migrant workers, older children regardless of gender are typically expected to care for younger children. In some cultures three, four or five generations may live as one family unit in one house. Extended family relationships exist in many cultures. First and second generation relatives may be considered as important as siblings. For example, the family nucleus is the center of Haitian life, this includes all relatives. The family deals with all aspects of a person's life, and everything is considered within their domain. Handling crises, counseling, health care, marriage, travel, and educational decision-making are all included. Religion is primarily family-oriented in that all interactions and worship patterns are conducted as a family, not as individual endeavors.

6. **Health and Medicine.** This area includes attitudes and beliefs about sickness, death, soundness of mind and body, and medicine. Natural medicines are used by many cultures. Teas from roots, bark and leaves of plants have been used for centuries. Scientists are continually discovering the chemical bases for the effectiveness of these natural medicines. For example, *Curanderismo*, the practice of using folk healers, is practiced among some Hispanics. *Curanderos* or *curanderas* practice the gift of healing through natural remedies, superstition and religion.

7. **Folk myths.** Many cultural attitudes, beliefs, and values are reflected in traditional stories, legendary characters, and superstitions. Every culture has folk myth practices. For example, some Hispanic groups cured hiccups by making a small ball of red thread, moistening it with saliva and placing it on the forehead of the child. In the U.S. many groups believe a sudden fright will cure hiccups. Asians cure colds by rubbing the skin with a coin until bruises appear. Every culture has its distinctive omens. For some U.S. groups, dropping an eating utensil foretells the arrival of someone who is hungry, or walking under a ladder means bad luck. The owl means bad luck for Hispanics, for Asians and Middle Easterners, bad luck, evil, or stupidity. In some Vietnamese homes, the first visitor to one's home on New Year's Day is an omen of how the coming year will be.

Regional differences exist across cultures. In the Southern U.S., eating black-eyed peas on New Year's Day brings good luck for the year. In the Midwest the same food is considered livestock feed.

8. Gestures and Kinesics. Different cultures use non-verbal communication or reinforced speech using hands, eyes, body to mean different things. For example, direction in the U.S. generally are indicated by pointing with the index finger. In other cultures this same gesture has crude or unacceptable connotations. The hand signal indicating 'come here' by Americans, (wiggling the index finger toward the body), is insulting to some Asians where it is used only with dogs or cats.

9. Grooming & Presence. Culture differences in personal behavior and appearances, such as laughter, smile, voice quality, gait, poise, hair style, cosmetics, dress, etc. are deep culture elements. The manner in which one dresses is culturally determined but may also be affected by socioeconomic factors. Some immigrants in the U.S. use their traditional dress at times and American dress at others. Often the use of the traditional dress is due to the costliness of replacing one's native wardrobe with American clothes. Cultural presence is also evident in the way people appear, the way they walk or "carry" themselves. For example, a women who walks rapidly may be considered extremely unladylike in some cultures. On American television, this implies a sign of valued vibrancy. Adornment of the ears are marks of beauty in some cultures; they may pierce females' ears in infancy. Also, some groups pierce the nostrils for adornment.

10. Ownership. Attitudes toward ownership of property, individual rights, loyalties, beliefs differ among cultural groups. All cultures teach a sense of ownership but to varying degrees. For Native Americans, land was not to be owned or abused, but only to be used for one's immediate needs. Some cultural groups believe it is rude to accept an offer immediately. Offers are politely refused several times before accepting.

11. Precedence. This aspect of deep culture refers to manners toward older persons, peers and younger persons. For example, within some Hispanic families siblings have specific roles. The older boy, *el hijo majoy*, is accorded with certain responsibilities. He becomes an authority figure for his mother and siblings.

Many languages have specific language forms for addressing older people that serve to denote respect. In some cultures, age is respected. Hispanics use the titles *don* and *dona* with the given name to show respect. Asians also revere the elderly and equate age with wisdom. Among Native American families, grandparents assume the role of teachers. To have contact with one's grandparents during childhood is considered fortunate. Cultural (and linguistic) influences that break the bond are detrimental. A Vietnamese person greets the head of the family or an older person first, then the younger family members.

In Haitian society, elderly persons are highly respected. They are revered within the family as persons of authority and great wisdom. Middle aged people do not tell parents to mind their own business. The elderly are expected to monitor family life. They mitigate the discipline of the mother and father.

12. Reward and Privileges. Attitudes toward motivation, merits, achievement, services, and social position, are part of the deep culture which are earned through social interaction within the environment. The prevailing attitudes toward different ethnic groups and socio-economic status may impose limitations on, or create temporary detours in the development of a person's self-worth.

13. Rights and Duties. Attitudes toward personal obligations such as voting, taxes, military service, and legal rights differ from culture to culture. In most cultures, noble actions occur without fanfare, one unpublicized fact is that a higher percentage of Hispanics have received commendations for bravery in defending the U.S. since World War II than any other ethnic group.

Children in some Asian cultures, such as Vietnam, are taught to work independently. Self-sufficiency is considered to be a virtue. In other cultures, like Hispanic and many Native American cultures, children are taught to help their peers and work cooperatively. They often work better in groups or team.

14. Religion. Attitudes toward the divine and the supernatural and how they affect a person's thought and actions are part of deep culture. Every cultural group has beliefs concerning the divine and the supernatural. Large cultural groups tend to be diversified in their religious practices. For example, not all Cubans are Roman Catholic; many are Protestant and Evangelical. Some Vietnamese follow *Tam Giao*, "the Three Teachings", which combine the humanistic philosophies of Taoism, Confucianism, and Buddhism. Taoism seeks to define the role of human beings in relation to the universe. Confucianism suggests an ethical code of conduct in relation to society. Buddhism suggests an avenue to sagehood. The Vietnamese may hold more than one religious belief--unlike Roman Catholics--they may also worship his or her ancestor (i.e. in a crisis, they pray to both God and ancestors.)

15. Sex Roles. Different cultures view, understand, and relate to members of the opposite sex differently and allow and expect certain deviations. Within most cultural groups women have one role while men have another. The Navajo culture is matriarchal. Women make the decisions concerning the family and control the money, yet males always walk a few paces ahead of them. Within traditional homes in many cultures, men provide and women serve. In today's non-traditional homes, where both husband and wife provide, conflict often occur when the man expects the woman to continue the serving role and the provider role simultaneously. In Haitian society, the man is considered the primary income provider for the family. Daily decision-making, rules and governing are considered his domain. Social political and economic life center on the man. Daily enculturation of children is the woman's domain. Men are called to solve only unusual problems. The father is primarily a distant authority figure, rather than a prominent figure in the education or daily life of the children.

16. Space and Proxemics. Attitudes toward the self and land and the accepted distances between individuals within a culture are deep culture characteristics. The distance between individuals is called proxemics. Within the Anglo American culture, the expected distance between individuals

when communicating is within 18 to 48 inches of each other. Among Mediterranean cultures, the appropriate communicative distance between individuals may be as close as 12 inches. In others, physical contact such as standing so close that arms touch may be necessary to signal attentiveness. What is considered acceptable proxemics for one culture is interpreted as invasion of personal space by another.

17. Subsistence. The attitudes about providing for and protecting oneself, the young and the old are different among various cultures. Generally speaking, North Americans are youth oriented. Emphasis is place on looking, dressing, and acting young. In other parts of the world, age is venerated. Age is associated with maturity, experience, and wisdom and this is recognized and accepted by the young. In Vietnamese households on the first day of Tet (lunar New Year) the whole household gathers to pay respect to the eldest person in the house by wishing him/her a prosperous New Year.

18. Taboos. Each culture considers some attitudes and beliefs about doing things to be unacceptable. For instance, dancing with a partner is forbidden in some religious groups and some Native American cultures. For others, undressing or bathing with a group is taboo (such as during physical education classes). Placing a hand on a person's head is taboo in Laos culture. This is considered an insult because Laotians believe that the king of souls resides in a person's head and the head is sacred and should not be touched. Body contact in public is also taboo in many cultures. Boys and girls do not hold hands or kiss in public. In some cultures, a woman may not touch a man in any way (even to tap them on the arm) during a conversation.

19. Time concept. Being on time is valued differently by different cultures. Time concepts are distinguished by the language of a culture. In English the clock "runs." In Spanish the clock "walks" (*elrelojanda*). In Vietnamese, time also "walks." Where time walks a person may arrive an hour early for a function and not become upset because of the wait. Likewise, the same person may be an hour late for a function and not feel obligated to apologize as life is less hurried. The concept of time among Native Americans is also distinctive. Solar and lunar positions dictate when certain things will occur. Tribe members may wait patiently for days in order for a particular ceremony to take place. Indian signs have been used by American farmers for centuries. Potatoes are planted in the dark of the moon when the astrological signs are below the waist line. However, corn is planted in the full of the moon when the signs are in the head.

20. Values. Strongly held attitudes and beliefs toward freedom, education, cleanliness, and cruelty are some of the values that are common to ethnic groups. Attitudes toward honor and dishonor are evident in all cultures. The Vietnamese have a high regard for morality, and adhere to the five Confucian virtues of humanity, righteousness, prosperity, wisdom and faithfulness as guides for their daily conduct. Within many Asian cultures, the best way for a child to honor his or her parents is to succeed academically. *Tan Hieu Hoc*, literally translated as "love for learning" frequently is mentioned as a cultural characteristic of the Vietnamese people. This is not like the scholarship of those who devote their entire lives to the pursuit of knowledge and investigation of various phenomena. What the Vietnamese call love of learning is actually, a traditional, deep and almost sub-conscious respect for the learned and learning.

This value is illustrated in the Vietnamese story of the illiterate old farm women who took a sheet of rice paper from her grandson and reverently burned it. Because it had calligraphic writing on it, she would rather destroy it than let the little boy desecrate it by making it into a kite for his own entertainment.

STRATEGIES FOR WORKING WITH ETHNICALLY DIVERSE STUDENTS.

Learning and instruction are affected by both the *processes* of instruction and the *content* of instruction. When both the processes and content of instruction validate a student's cultural background, learning, motivation, and self-esteem are enhanced*.

Processes. There is more to effective instruction than materials, lesson plans, and specific instructional techniques. The way teachers and paraeducator interact with children and youth is a critical factor in determining whether individual students will want to learn. The phrase, "I don't care what you know until I know that you care" aptly describes the importance of developing a relationship of trust and respect with students. Non-verbal communication and facial expressions can say more to a student than words. When a paraeducator backs away from a student to put more distance between them during a conversation, the student may misinterpret this gesture and feel rejected. The classroom management style achieved by the teacher/paraeducator team can be structured, orderly, lively, or chaotic. Ideally, the classroom environment provides a safe, stimulating place for students to fully develop their talents. The process of schooling goes beyond what occurs in the classroom. The nature of home-school communication about school policies and regulations can enhance or detract from the learning process. For example, the use of reading groups may contradict the way some children learn at home.

Content. The content of instruction validates the student's cultural background when it is an integral part of the curriculum. Examples from many cultural backgrounds can be used throughout the curriculum, including projects, books, and examples used in lessons. Sometimes, in an effort to make a child belong, the educator may focus on differences in surface culture and teach these to the children from the dominant culture. This approach may perpetuate stereotypes. When multicultural education is infused into the curriculum, examples from other cultures are brought in when they are relevant, in a natural way. For example, when covering a lesson on nutrition, the paraeducator can provide examples of how the various cultural groups represented by the children in the class, meet nutritional needs by preparing different foods.

Language-minority students are those students from homes in which English is not the predominant language of communication between parents and children. Limited-English-proficient (LEP) students are those who have difficulty speaking, understanding, reading, or writing the English language. In addition to addressing the language learning needs of LEP or language minority students, the way educators interact with these children can have a positive impact on their educational experience.

When students are perceived as low achievers, they may be treated differently by teachers and paraeducators. Providing them with general, insincere praise, and less feedback, demanding less effort, frequently interrupting them, waiting less time for responses, and smiling less often are ways that educators may unknowingly send the message that they think the child is not capable of

learning. Children internalize this message and may react by distancing themselves (seating themselves farther away from the teacher), being less attentive, and answering questions less often. These behaviors can be misinterpreted as lack of motivation and enthusiasm or incomprehension. It is easy to see how the cycle of low expectation and poor performance is perpetuated.

There are many reasons why an educator may have low expectations for a student. A student's achievement record, initial performance, the inappropriate placement of language minority children in special education are possible reasons for low expectations. Researchers have found that other more subtle influences related to a child's attractiveness, gender, speaking a nonstandard dialect, being poor, or simply being of a race or ethnicity other than Anglo, may be the basis for low expectation.

Awareness of a tendency to have low expectations for a child will improve the situation. Using specific behaviors to communicate high expectation is even more effective. Using wait time (allowing 30 to 35 seconds) for the student to formulate a response after asking a question) discussing wrong answers, giving appropriate rewards, praising, giving unambiguous feedback, giving more attention, providing role models, calling on students from minority heritages in a variety of ways, changing seating arrangements, providing challenges, varying types of questions, encouraging independence, and establishing rules are some of the methods researchers have found to be particularly effective for language minority students.

In addition to these instructional strategies, expectations can be communicated through other means. The quality and content of the curriculum, and teacher and school responses to groups of students are important as well. Districts need to inform school personnel that racial slurs, demeaning or degrading remarks against ethnic groups or groups of students will not be tolerated. For example, the use of the term "recent immigrant" in a negative way within a district may quickly spread throughout the school and make this transition even more difficult for students and their families.

Although assessing the curriculum for the entire district is not part of the role of the paraeducator, as a team member, the paraeducator can review classroom materials and provide feedback to the teacher about their cultural appropriateness. Attention to the identification of stereotypes, issues of inclusion, and discrimination on the basis of ethnicity, language, and gender roles are part of this review process.

By establishing standards for evaluating materials used in the classroom and in the library, educators can ensure that materials treat ethnic groups honestly, realistically and sensitively. In the case of school libraries, it is important to make sure that books and other resource materials about the histories and contributions of different ethnic groups and women are represented adequately.

APPROACHES FOR WORKING WITH CULTURALLY DIVERSE FAMILIES. A key to working with culturally diverse families is to know what languages are spoken in the home. In some ways, the language of the country of origin serves to preserve culture. Family members will vary in the rate at which they learn English. It is important to learn what languages were spoken while the children in the family were growing up and how language patterns have changed.

Communication between children and parents may break down as children learn English and lose their original language, and parents do not. This may be particularly true for mothers who are culturally confined to the home and who don't feel the need to learn English. The communication breakdown can develop into emotional isolation for the child which may result in problems in school (Montecel, Gallagher, Montemayor, Villarreal, Adame-Reyna & Supik, 1993; McGoldrick, Pierce, & Giodano, 1982).

Understanding the cultural background and history of the family's life in this country will help communication and encourage parent-school collaboration efforts. Understanding differences that exist within groups that may look alike, is critical. Sometimes, we assume a certain cultural background based on appearances. When uncertain, a paraeducator should ask the family about their cultural background in a sensitive way. For example, West Indian people and Black Americans may look alike but have very different histories and cultural backgrounds. The same is true for Argentinean Jews and other Latinos. Such mistakes in identifying cultural background can be avoided if assumptions are not solely based on physical appearances.

Understanding the community life of diverse ethnic families can help educators be more sensitive to the adjustment process of recently immigrated children and their families. Families who live in ethnic neighborhoods may experience a more comfortable transition into American life because they have friends and family members living close by who share their lifestyle, values, and customs. On the other hand, individuals from these communities may be isolated from the mainstream culture and have more difficulty in situations where they must behave according to rules and traditions which are foreign to them. Paraeducators should be informed about the ethnic networks that exist in the community, and if they are lacking, encourage the rebuilding of connections, through family visits or letters or creating new networks.

Families differ not only in their cultural background but also in their level of education and socioeconomic status. These differences also influence the level of stress a family experiences when relocating to a new country. Family members who are upwardly mobile are often disconnected from their ethnic roots and feel that they must make a choice between moving ahead and loyalty to their ethnic group. Discussing income and other financial matters is a sensitive area for many people, and a lot of information can be gathered in less probing ways. Visiting a family at home and inquiring about parents' employment may provide important information about the level of education and standard of living of a family. Families living in poverty face daily challenges to their survival--threats to the ability to provide food, health care, and safety for themselves and their family make it difficult to attend consistently to the educational or social needs of their children. However, it is dangerous to assume that families living in poverty are neglectful of their children. Also, many immigrant families are highly educated and come to the U.S. to pursue higher education or professional advancement. Again, it cannot be assumed that ethnic families are alike.

When working with families it is important to understand their values orientation. The degree to which they interact with school personnel may have more to do with their values than with their interest in their children's education or respect for educators. By exploring the aspects of deep culture described earlier, paraeducators and teachers can assess and discuss possible interpretations of a parent's interaction with school personnel that is culturally sensitive. For example, some

African Americans may not talk to school personnel because they represent a traditional white institution which they have never had reason to trust. Norwegians might withhold information out of respect and politeness not to state openly less-than-positive feelings they have about other family members.

Puerto Rican women are taught to lower their eyes and avoid eye contact during conversation. For Americans this is a sign of an inability to relate to others. When a Jewish parent inquires about the educator's credentials, this is not meant to be a challenge, but reflects a need for reassurance. Irish parents may not praise their child to avoid giving them a "swelled head;" not because they don't recognize their child's talents. Sometimes emotional distance of parents during conferences with school personnel may not mean a failure to establish rapport; instead it could signal embarrassment about their child's behavior. Physical punishment, which is common in some African American, Greek, Iranian and Puerto Rican families may be misread as child abuse by American educators unfamiliar with the norms of these groups.

The point is that it is better not to be too quick to judge the meaning of a behavior. An interpretation that takes into account the cultural value orientation of the family will be more accurate. Such a skill requires practice in examining one's own subjectivity. Of course, culture is only one of many important contextual factors to be considered in assessing problems and behavior. Social class, gender, and regional identities are also very important. Although educators cannot become experts in the cultural interpretations of every groups' behaviors, any effort made to consider cultural differences will improve communications which ultimately will benefit the child. Consistent and sincere appreciation for cultural diversity will build these skills for educators so that over time, such expertise will develop.

In an effort to be ethnically sensitive, school administrators or teachers may make decisions about assigning an ethnic paraeducator to parents and students who are of similar ethnic heritage. Often neither the paraeducator or the student is consulted on his or her preference. This policy may have advantages, but may also insult the non-ethnic paraeducator or prevent all educators from making a commitment to ethnic sensitivity in practice.

All parents want the best for their children. Lack of parental involvement in school may be interpreted by school personnel as a lack of caring about their children or valuing education. Research has shed new light on this misunderstanding (Montecel et al, 1993). Interviews with hundreds of Latino parents, led to the conclusion that Latino parents tend to hold teachers, and other school personnel in high regard. A common belief was that if they were uneducated, they could not contribute to educational decisions about their children.

A lack of understanding about how to get involved was a common theme in the research findings. Also, it was revealed that the Mexican American families who were interviewed did generally not respond to printed notices about school meetings sent home with the children. They were more likely to attend school meetings and events when contacted face-to-face, by telephone or through encouragement by neighbors. This research showed how lack of parent involvement was not a matter of interest but of expectations and techniques used.

Working with ethnically diverse families will be effective if we work from an *enrichment* model instead of a *deficit* model. When we approach families with the belief that parents want to help their children but don't know how or where to start, we are more likely to be successful. We must recognize that first or second generation Mexican-American families in the U.S., for example, may not know that schools expect involvement. Also it is important to realize that school completion rates may differ by country of origin. In Mexico or Central America, those completing 8th grade are considered to be finished with their education if they are not going on to college.

Other barriers to involvement of parents in their children's education may be related to a lack of time among working parents, intense financial pressures, or even badly lit campus (a critical concern in communities with high crime levels). Childcare may also be an obstacle to parent participation. Many successful parent involvement programs have included services such as translation, baby-sitting, transportation, and social services referrals to facilitate the attendance of parents at school functions and activities.

On the other hand, language minority families and extended families can make rich contributions to the school. In the valuing model, every student can be taught, none is expendable and each is a potential resource. Communities, families, and children are valued. This approach accepts families as they are and works with their strengths and consistently approaches families from the position of: "*There's a lot you can do.*" Because barriers to valuing families have a long history it will take efforts to break them down. When prior contact with the school has been negative, it is difficult to create trusting relationships with family members. Many have gotten the negative message from schools that they and their children are "un-American" or uneducable. For this reason, outreach is necessary. Steps toward building effective family-school relations include*:

1. Forming teams of representations from school, family, and community to improve relations.

2. Involving paraeducators and teacher teams in the assessment of family needs in the community.

3. Using the team approach to equip parents to see that they are teachers of their children, and an important resources to educators.

4. Setting up processes through which parents can participate in decision making and act as effective advocates for their children.

5. Using parents who are actively involved in the collaborative process as trainers of other parents. Because language is such a pressing concern, telephone contacts and home visits are especially important. Core groups of parents can assist with calls and visits to disseminate information in the family's native language.

6. Involving the larger community, neighborhood and religious leaders, social service workers, recreating or community center counselors. Parents can provide important connections to these potential sources of help.

7. Asking parents to help educators or translators to be sensitive in the use of language. (Spanish speaking people know their culture is rich, and enjoy hearing the language spoken well., Class distinctions are sharp in societies and parents will be aware if a speaker or translator depreciates them (for being poor, or for speaking less-educated Spanish.) Written messages sent home to parents should be in clear, simple English and Spanish and use a friendly tone when read aloud.

*Adapted from Montecel et al, 1993, p. 27-29.

IDENTITY AND CULTURE

"MEN AND WOMEN ARE NOT ONLY THEMSELVES;

THEY ARE ALSO THE REGION IN WHICH THEY WERE BORN,

THE CITY APARTMENT OR FARM IN WHICH THEY LEARNED TO WALK,

THE GAMES THEY PLAYED AS CHILDREN,

THE OLD WIVES' TALES THEY OVERHEARD,

THE FOOD THEY ATE,

THE SCHOOLS THEY ATTENDED,

THE SPORTS THEY FOLLOWED,

THE POEMS THEY READ,

AND THE GOD THEY BELIEVED IN."

W. Somerset Maugham

TRANSPARENCY #2

ELEMENTS OF SURFACE CULTURE

1. **FOOD** (food and culinary contributions)

2. **HOLIDAYS** (patriotic holidays, religious observances, and personal rites and celebrations)

3. **ARTS** (traditional and contemporary music, visual and performing arts and drama)

4. **FOLKLORE** (folk tales, legends, and oral history)

5. **HISTORY** (historical and humanitarian contributions, and social and political movements)

6. **PERSONALITIES** (historical, contemporary, and local figures)

TRANSPARENCY #3

ELEMENTS OF DEEP CULTURE

CEREMONY

COURTSHIP & MARRIAGE

ESTHETICS

ETHICS

FAMILY TIES

HEALTH & MEDICINE

FOLK MYTHS

GESTURES & KINESICS

GROOMING & PRESENCE

OWNERSHIP

PRECEDENCE

REWARDS & PRIVILEGES

RIGHTS & DUTIES

RELIGION

SEX ROLES

SPACE & PROXEMICS

SUBSISTENCE

TABOOS

CONCEPTS OF TIME

VALUES

TRANSPARENCY #4

CULTURALLY SENSITIVE COMMUNICATION DO'S AND DON'TS

DO: consider the family member who presents himself/herself (or themselves) in place of the parent as a valid representative of the family.

DON'T: dismiss a grandparent or uncle, or even a godparent, with rigid requirements for a legal parent/guardian to be present.

DO: shake hands, show personal interest, inquire after other family members' well-being, and listen attentively to responses, before introducing your subject or asking the question you need answered.

DON'T: assume that efficiency is more important than civility. In many Hispanic homes, cold and impersonal interviews are perceived as insulting.

DO: connect to the family's inherent concern for the education of the child, assume the positive, and speak as if the concern is shared.

DON'T: reflect negative value judgments with your actions, body language, or facial expressions. Focus on the positive.

Source: Montecel, M. et al. (1993). Hispanic families as valued partners: An educator's guide. Intercultural Development Research Association, Houston, TX.

MULTICULTURAL BINGO

I can name 10 indigenous tribes of North America.	I have collected art from 2 or more cultures.	I know what Feliz Navidad means.	I know someone who's heritage includes two or more cultures.	I know what Hanukkah represents.
I have attended a Green Corn ceremony.	I have attended a Tet Trungthu celobration.	I can prepare 3 different ethnic dishes.	I know what the acronym N.A.A.C.P. stands for.	I can name recording artists from 3 different ethnic groups.
I know on what continent the Egyptian pyramids are found.	I know the culture that gave us fireworks.	PUT YOUR NAME HERE	I know why black-eyed peas are eaten on New Year's Day.	I can name dances from 5 different cultures.
I know what a Juneteenth celebration represents.	I have attended a St. Patrick's Day celebration.	I have eaten fry bread.	I can use chop sticks.	I am bilingual.
I have a handmade quilt, quilted by someone I know.	I can name a female currently active in our state government.	I have lived in another country.	I know why the Cinco de Mayo is celebrated.	I can name 5 current heads of state (world leaders).

Developed by Donkor Khalid, Oklohoma State Department of Education, 1991.
Intercultural Development Research Association

MULTICULTURAL BINGO

I can name 10 indigenous tribes of North America. (Example) 1. Creek 6. Delaware 2. Seminole 7. Comanche 3. Cherokee 8. Apache 4. Chicksola 9. Arapaho 5. Choctaw 10. Navajo	I have collected art from 2 or more cultures.	I know what Feliz Navidad means. Merry Christmas in Spanish.	I know someone who's heritage includes two or more cultures.	I know what Hanukkah represents. A winter feast of dedication for Jewish people.
I have attended a Green Corn ceremony. A festive occasion for the Creek, Cherokee, and Seminole Indians held in early summer.	I have attended a Tet Trungthu celebration. A mid-autumn festival celebrated by the Vietnamese.	I can prepare 3 different ethnic dishes.	I know what the acronym N.A.A.C.P. stands for. National Association for the Advancement of Colored People.	I can name recording artists from 3 different ethnic groups.
I know on what continent the Egyptian pyramids are found. Africa.	I know the culture that gave us fireworks. Chinese.	**PUT YOUR NAME HERE**	I know why black-eyed peas are eaten on New Year's Day. Good luck.	I can name dances from 5 different cultures. 1. Limbo 2. Square dance 3. Stomp dance 4. Twist 5. Hula
I know what a Juneteenth celebration represents. African-Americans in Texas celebrate the news of the Emancipation Proclamation January 1, 1863.	I have attended a St. Patrick's Day celebration.	I have eaten fry bread.	I can use chop sticks.	I am bilingual.
I have a handmade quilt, quilted by someone I know.	I can name a female currently active in our state government.	I have lived in another country.	I know why the Cinco de Mayo is celebrated. Mexico defeated the French on May 5, 1862.	I can name 5 current heads of state (world leaders).

Developed by Donkor Khalid, Oklohoma State Department of Education, 1991.
Intercultural Development Research Association

Exercise #2

DIRECTIONS: Draw enough circles, in any pattern you choose, in the space below that will enable you to describe the members of your family. Label the circles with the names of family members. Be sure to include all the people that were or are an integral part of your family unit. They may include but are not limited to: mother, father, brothers, sisters, children, grandparents and other significant individuals.

After you have labeled the circles, do the following:

- **Draw a line that looks like this _____ to connect the circles where active communication takes or took place on a regular basis.**

- **Draw a line that looks like this - - - - - - - - - to connect the circles where love or affection was or is strong.**

After you have completed your drawing, use it to describe your family to another class member.

****NOTE: This is not a sensitivity exercise. If you prefer to describe another family that you know instead of your own, that is perfectly alright.**

EFFECTIVE EXPRESSIONS OF PRAISE FOR LANGUAGE MINORITY STUDENTS

DIRECTIONS: Refer to Information/Handout #2 EFFECTIVE EXPRESSIONS OF PRAISE FOR LANGUAGE MINORITY STUDENTS. Working with a partner, translate these terms into Spanish or another language spoken by children and youth in your classroom or program.

Write the translations on the space below.

HISPANIC PARENTS IN THEIR OWN WORDS*

FAMILY

What do you remember about your parents? Your grandparents?

Parent A My maternal grandfather was a trapeze artist, and my mother was born in a circus that used to travel from Bolivia to Ecuador and Peru. She was also a trapeze artist, but actually it was my father who had the Bohemian spirit. He was a musician, and always made his living by his music. He was the type, if he made some money, he would take us all on vacation for three months! My mother was a saver and artist of the possible who could make a four-course meal out of a potato. So if you looked under the pillow of my father, you would find sheet music, and if you looked under the pillow of my mother, you would find money to last the week, or the month. One thing I remember distinctly about my paternal grandfather (who was a carpenter and violinist), was that he had the most beautiful handwriting, and a passion for spelling. He was obsessive about spending time with each grandchild, helping us write and spell.

Parent B What I will always remember about my mother is that she was very devout. Because she was Baptist, and my father Catholic, they saw each other for ten years before he could get permission from his parents to marry her. They settled the religious question by my mother's raising the two daughters Baptist and my father raising the two sons Catholic. I don't know what would have happened if they hadn't had an even number of children!

Parent C My father was born in a small town in Texas and my mother was born in Baton Rouge, Louisiana. When she was young, her mother took in washing, and she used to help prepare the giant vats of starch and hot water. While her mother was gone during the day, she helped her grandmother take care of her younger brothers and sisters. After my mother and father married, they had a fruit stand and then a taco stand. We were very close, and I think that's why I have such a close relationship with my daughter. I could talk with my mother about anything, and I'll never forget her marvelous sense of humor.

Parent D I was born in Puerto Rico. My father was a farmer for 20 years, and he loved to ride horses. He could ride beautifully, too. My oldest brother was a jockey in Puerto Rico. My mother was always sick-she suffers from high blood pressure and heart disease-so I also had a second set of parents, my

*Adapted from: Monterel, M.R., Gallagher, A., Montemayo, A. & Villaroul, A. (1993). Hispanic Families as Valued Partners: An Educators Guide. San Antonio: Intercultural Development Research Association.

mother's godmother and her husband. They were wonderful to me, and provided for me very well, and spent time teaching me games. When we moved over here, it was to a county in New York State where they still have farms and also big estates, and it was weird, because it was similar to our life in the country in Puerto Rico, but it was a completely American, English-speaking world.

Parent E All of us, my wife and I and our brothers and sisters, and all our family, were born and grew up in the small towns on the border, and around here in South Texas-Del Rio, Castroville, Hondo, Von Orme, Lytle...In my wife's family, she has three sisters and four brothers, and in my family, I have seven sisters and six brothers. What I remember about my father was that he went to work every morning. Every morning.

Parent F My father worked in another town in Nicaragua, and came home on the weekends. We looked forward to his coming, because he brought us little things, even though sometimes he was irritable. We'd be wondering, my two sisters and I, "How will he be?" At that time, we didn't know it was because of his blood-sugar--that it was part of his illness. One time we made a trip, I remember, renting a car with the whole neighborhood inside, and leaving early--4:00 or 5:00 in the morning. We took a drive through the countryside to a big estate. I think sometimes we don't give our children these times, when they need them most, within the family.

What have you learned from your parents or grandparents that you want to teach your children?

Parent C Because of the closeness we had as a family, I think I learned not to be afraid. And that's something I want to pass on to my daughter: to be herself. To be independent. Not to be afraid of taking the next step.

Parent F One thing I understood from my mother, and that her father taught her, and before that, was the importance of what is taught in the home. Especially for them, because it was common then in our home countries to have little school, and everything was taught at home. I have the idea, though, even here, that when my daughter goes to school, she takes something from home with her, that she already knows how to behave herself in class and at the table, and so on.

Parent E My wife has taught our children to cook, and I've taught them car mechanics, as my father taught me. How to take things apart and put them back together. It's good to know these things! My father was a good mechanic, and I find this very satisfying, like solving a puzzle.

Parent B My father always saw a definite connection between school and success. I am trying to pass on to my children the importance of going all the way through college. My kids have grown up around the arts and artists, because of my work as an arts administrator, and they're both very interested in the arts. Although he had never mentioned it, my father when he was young was a talented cartoonist, and someone recruited him once to work at Walt Disney Studios. His parents didn't believe a serious living could be made that way. This is something that I'm trying not to pass on to my children, although I know I have the same fears as any other parent that artists mostly starve!

Parent D My grandfather never believed in credit or borrowing. When we reached a certain age, he would give each of us a quarter a week, and he taught us, "Never overspend your limit. Whatever you have, you spend now and you save for later." When he died, he died owing nobody nothing. He was 108 years old. I teach my children the same way, with a dollar a week. I teach them always to respect their elders. And younger people too, because they learn from you.

Parent A What I learned from my mother that I want to pass on to my children is consistency and self-discipline. She had that! What you start, you finish. From my father, that there is a world without limits, that every day, you can live in the same house and yet open the windows on a different landscape.

Hispanic Parents on Education

Parent F For me, school is like a church. I think they need to do more to impress the significance of school on children. There, you learn not to waste your time. I tell my children, "Look at me! I left school because I thought at the time that I needed to work to help my mother, but I didn't realize in leaving school that I was losing capacity to work. Now I have no preparation. I only went to the sixth grade in Nicaragua, and my first husband went as far as the second. I've been widowed twice. My second husband was Puerto Rican, from here. He studied and then took training as a chef. I used to marvel at how he could calculate in his head without paper. He said he had always been good in mathematics, but lazy in English, and his brother the reverse, so they helped each other.

Parent C I had a teacher in second grade who was very patient and understanding, and even though we had large classes, she always made time for individual help, and she would go over and over something until you understood it. When I passed to the third grade, she cried. In high school, I had a special chemistry teacher, and he helped me memorize symbols and other things I

had trouble remembering. Now I'm in a pharmacy technician training course. He was someone you could talk to, and sometimes a group of us would eat our lunch with him because he helped us understand our personal problems and just life itself.

Parent D — I graduated from high school here in New York City. When we came here, I was so happy many people spoke Spanish, and it was like being home in Puerto Rico. When we were living in upstate New York out of 1400 students, there were six minorities, me and my three brother, and a Black brother and sister. But our fellow students helped us and tutored us. They wanted us to learn. Now I work as a school aide, with students from kindergarten to 6th grade. When I was in the third grade, in Puerto Rico, I had a teacher who used to tell me, "You will be someone," and she made me work harder than the others. When I go to the island, I always stop by to see her.

Parent E — We have suffered enough, and we don't have to see our children suffer. Without school, they will suffer. They need school. They need an education. We're very proud of our oldest daughter, who says that with God's help, she's going to be a teacher. I would like to see the others in professions, too.

Parent B — There was never any doubt when we were growing up that my brothers and sisters and I would go to college, even though my father had only gone to the 6th grade. After coming here from Mexico, he went to trade school and became an expert meat-cutter. There was a counselor at the high school who was a wonderful influence on my whole family. She wanted to send me to a private high school in San Antonio, but finances didn't permit it, and the idea of boarding school seemed very strange to us because we hadn't known anything like it. We had a grocery store, and when three of us were in college at the same time, my father took a full-time job as well and mother ran the store. He worked very hard to pay our way through college, and I always knew he had such aspirations for me. And now my daughter has received a five-year scholarship to the University of Texas.

Parent A — My mother always emphasized the value of education, and no matter how scarce money was in our house, she tried to find us good schools. From the 1st grade to the 6th grade, I want to a private school for the Chinese community. Besides classes in English and Spanish, we had classes in Chinese twice a week, and every morning, we sang the Ecuadorian national anthem, facing that flag, then the Chinese national anthem, facing that flag (it was the nationalist one, of course, not the Communist one). Of 500 students, about 30 or 40 were not Chinese. I remember the teachers were so disciplined, and their attention was so trained and concentrated on us

students, that it seemed personal. There were twenty categories of grades on the report card, and if you received a "red number", then your father had to come to school with you the following Monday and appear before the director. When my father had to go to the school one time, I realized that the school wasn't just calling me on the carpet, but us.

Of course, when I got to high school, and went to a public school, I learned many more things because it was the Sixties, and we were demonstrating in the streets. The police were beating the students and firing on them, and the economic situation was bad and worsening, so I came to the United States when I was 17. And when I reached New York, I saw the police beating students. But I continued in school, and I think it must have been because of the influence of my mother. Now I'm an architect, and I've passed through the first phase, in which I arrived at this profession by a logical process concluding, "people will always have to live somewhere," and through the second, in which I thought I needed buildings with which to identify, and now, I can enjoy the interplay of discipline and precision, and creative problem-solving, and real free-wheeling, and art...when all this comes together, you can produce something beautiful, something that will last.

So I'll tell my sons, it's not just a high school education that you need, but a college education, and it's not just something nice to have, but a life saver.

NEIGHBORHOOD MAP

DIRECTIONS. Draw a map of either 1) your neighborhood, 2) the neighborhood in which your school is located, or 3) a neighborhood in which most of your students live. Don't worry about being true to scale or perfectly accurate regarding street names, etc. Include important community sites and businesses (churches, schools, banks, grocery stores, day care centers, youth centers, library) as well as major streets, public transportation stops, and other aspects of the neighborhood that you think are important. You can also mark areas that are unsafe or perhaps sites of controversy.

Use the map to discuss with a small group what life is like in this community. If you don't have much to include, discuss why it is that you are unaware of what is in the neighborhood.

Discuss how you could use this activity with your students and how it might help improve your understanding of their families, their culture, their life style.

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