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A DESCRIPTION AND EVALUATION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION FOR
BACKWARD PUPILS AT PRIMARY AND INTERMEDIATE SCHOOLS IN
NEW ZEALAND

A thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements
for the degree of Master of Arts in Applied Psychology
at Massey University

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ABSTRACT

The thesis begins with a brief account of why and how special classes for backward children were instituted in New Zealand schools. There follows an outline of how special classes are currently organized: policies and procedures for the admission of pupils to special classes: goals of special education for backward children: the recruitment and training of special class teachers: the special class curriculum: specialist services , available to special class teachers and children.

The literature survey focuses initially on early studies comparing academic achievement and social/emotional adjustment in mildly mentally retarded children assigned to special classes and those retained in regular classes, studies which, because of inadequate and inappropriate assessment methods and a variety of uncontrolled variables, show conflicting results. The writer then reviews more recent studies which have been concerned with two main issues: societal and educational inequalities which influence the selection of pupils for special class placement and the extent to which special education merits the description "special".

These two themes underlie the series of questions compiled by the writer for distribution to a 20% random sample of special class teachers at primary and intermediate schools throughout New Zealand as described in the third

segment of the thesis. The questionnaire is concerned with demographic data on special class teachers and pupils and a variety of data on curricula, parent/school relations and specialist services available to special class teachers and pupils. 96% of the teachers surveyed returned completed questionnaires.

Analysis of the data thus collected leads the writer to the following conclusions: disproportionate numbers of special class children are male, Maori and/or of low socio-economic status: for the majority of pupils special class placement is permanent: the average special class teacher is a woman, under 36, trained and experienced in regular class teaching but with little training and relatively brief experience in teaching backward children: since there is no curriculum designed specifically for backward children at primary and intermediate schools, teachers must rely primarily on their own resources in adapting regular curricula to the special needs of their pupils with limited assistance from organisers of special classes and educational psychologists and virtually none from the advisory service: the integration of special and regular class children, as endorsed by the Department of Education, occurs primarily in the non-academic areas of the curriculum: special class teachers succeed in meeting most of their pupils' parents for the purpose of discussing the progress of individual pupils but opportunities for parental participation in school life

are apparently limited: organisers of special classes constitute the major source of professional assistance for special class teachers however the demands made of them appear to be excessive in view of their limited training and numbers.

In the final segment of the thesis the writer returns to the two issues which motivated her survey and concludes that, for many New Zealand children, special class placement represents confirmation of their inferior status within the larger society and that special education for backward children at primary and intermediate levels in New Zealand schools does not appear to merit the description "special".

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CHAPTER 1

SPECIAL EDUCATION FOR BACKWARD CHILDREN IN NEW ZEALAND

- Who is the "backward" child?

The term "backward" is apparently unique to New Zealand and is synonymous with the terms "educable mentally retarded" and "educationally subnormal" used commonly in North America and the United Kingdom respectively. All three terms correspond to the old "moron" category of mental retardation traditionally delimited by I.Q.s 50 and 75 (Robinson and Robinson, 1965; Clausen, 1967). Included in this category is the largest group of exceptional children for whom full-time special provisions have been made within the public school systems of developed countries (Sparks and Blackman, 1965), the group which is at the very focus of the current controversy in the field of special education (Dunn, 1968; Lilly, 1971).

- The development of special classes for backward children

The development of special classes for backward children has been documented comprehensively elsewhere (Winterbourn, 1944; Ewing, 1970; Milne, 1972) and will be traced only briefly here. A perusal of the above sources indicates that these classes were instituted for a variety of reasons, the main one perhaps being a widely-held belief in "a child's right to receive an education suited to his abilities" (Ross, 1972). It is

also likely, however, that these classes resulted partly from what has been termed a "relief" philosophy (Blackman, 1967), that is to relieve regular class teachers and children of the presence of pupils who were unwilling and/or unable to compete in the race for promotion which dominated the educational process at that time. Ewing (1970) vividly describes life for the backward child and his harassed teacher in New Zealand schools at the end of the nineteenth century when he says: "a heavy part of the teacher's task was to drive on "the dullards" in a forlorn attempt to get them "up to standard". When this treatment was reinforced by corporal punishment, slow children had a miserable time at school" (p. 130).

There was considerable pressure toward the establishment of special classes for backward children before the event. This came from a variety of sources including the New Zealand Educational Institute (the professional organization of New Zealand's primary school teachers) (Winterbourn, 1944) and school medical officers (Milne, 1972). The final impetus for the campaign came from the recommendations of George Hogben (inspector-general of education from 1899 to 1914) who had observed such classes in operation in the U.S.A., and ultimately Section 56 of the 1914 Education Act cleared the way for the establishment of the first class in 1917 at Auckland Normal School. Figure 1 illustrates the growth in numbers of special classes at primary and intermediate schools to

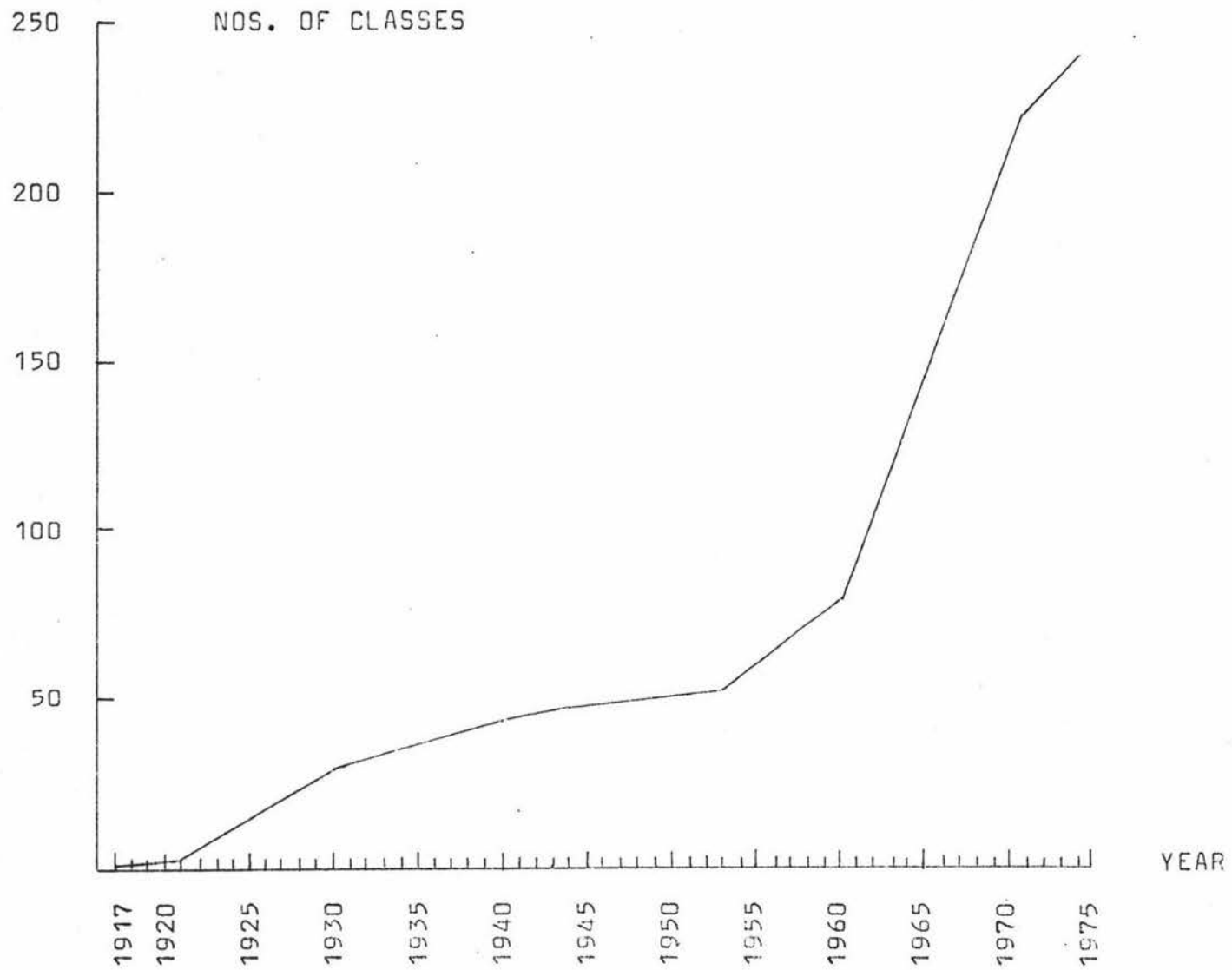


FIGURE 1: The growth in numbers of special classes at primary and intermediate schools between 1917 and 1974

the present time.

- Organisation of special classes for backward children

Currently special classes for backward children are administered by ten regional education boards under the aegis of the Department of Education, Wellington, through the director of primary education. Minimum and maximum sizes of special classes at primary contributing schools (primer 1 to standard 4), full primary schools (primer 1 to form 2) and intermediate schools (forms 1 and 2) and age ranges of pupils in those classes, as established by the Department of Education, are shown in table I.

Most backward children under the age of seven remain in regular infant programmes although there is one preparatory special class at Grafton School, Auckland, for children aged from five to seven, and some children who are considered too immature for regular class placement and thus are potential special class candidates are to be found in the assessment class at Palmerston North (Milne, 1972).

- Policies and procedures for the admission of backward children to special classes

In New Zealand, as elsewhere, the majority of school-aged children within I.Q. range 50-75 are in regular classes (Department of Education, 1960: Havill, 1976). Estimates of prevalence of mild mental retardation in other countries are varied and in recent years have

TYPE OF SCHOOL	SINGLE CLASS			DOUBLE CLASS			
	MINIMUM NUMBERS	MAXIMUM NUMBERS	CHRONOLOGICAL AGES OF PUPILS	MINIMUM NUMBERS	MAXIMUM NUMBERS	CHRONOLOGICAL AGES OF PUPILS	
PRIMARY CONTRIBUTING SCHOOL	12	18	7-12	24	34	JUN. CL. 7-9	SEN. CL. 9-12
FULL PRIMARY SCHOOL	12	16	7-14	22	34	7-11	11-14
INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL	14	20	12-14	26	38	12-13	13-14

TABLE I: Minimum and maximum sizes of special classes at primary contributing schools, full primary schools and intermediate schools and age ranges of pupils in those classes

ranged from 2.0 per cent (Lapp, 1957) through 2.05 per cent (Rutter et al., 1970) to 2.3 per cent (Griffiths, 1975). The most conservative of these estimates yields a figure for New Zealand of approximately 14,843 mildly mentally retarded children of school age (based on 1973 roll numbers taken from the New Zealand Official Yearbook, 1975). At July 1st, 1973, 3,781 children (that is about 25 per cent of the estimated total number of mildly mentally retarded children in New Zealand) were receiving education in special classes for backward children at primary, intermediate and secondary school levels. An unknown number of backward children attend regular classes because they live in rural communities too small to support a special class (Department of Education, 1960), but by far the greatest number are there because they do not meet the criteria for admission to a special class.

What are these criteria? The backward child who is most likely to be selected for special class placement in New Zealand is the one who is also "severely scholastically retarded" or who has "severe learning disabilities". Similarly backward children who evidence social and/or emotional difficulties at school are more likely to be placed in special classes than those who are considered to be well-adjusted (Organisers, Wanganui Education Board, no date). These criteria are

similar to those which pertain in Britain (Chazan, 1967-1968) and in North America (Stanton and Cassidy, 1964; Simches, 1970).

The initial referral of a pupil for possible placement in a special class is made by the child's class teacher to the area organiser of special classes through the school principal. The child is usually assessed at school by an organiser of special classes in a one-to-one situation during a period of one to two hours. Test materials are chosen by the organiser but usually include a Stanford-Binet (L-M) or a Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children together with a test of reading ability such as the Burt (Rearranged) Word Reading Test. Consideration is also given to educational and personality data arising from the child's school career to that time. If the organiser considers that the child would be appropriately placed in a special class, he refers him for a medical examination by the school medical officer. Following this the organiser meets with the child's parents to discuss his needs and to obtain their consent for placement. He then forwards his report and recommendations through the area organiser of special classes to the district senior inspector of schools who is empowered, on behalf of the director-general of education, to approve the child's admittance to a special class. Those who must be informed of the final decision include the principal

of the school which the child will attend, the school medical officer, the secretary-manager of the education board concerned, the area organiser of special classes and the officer for special education at the Department of Education (Department of Education Circular, B/58/4, 17th January, 1958).

In recognition of the possibility of changes in a child's intellectual, social and/or emotional functioning arising from the special class placement itself or from other circumstances, the Department of Education recommends that all backward children assigned to special classes be reassessed within two years (Organisers, Wanganui Education Board, no date) and acknowledges that some will require reassessment as often as once every six months (Milne, 1975). Moreover backward pupils "may be transferred to any ordinary class at any time if this is considered in their best interests" (Appendix to the Journals of the House of Representatives of New Zealand, 1971, Volume II).

- Goals of special education for backward children

The goals of education for mildly mentally retarded children assigned to special classes overseas are, by general consensus, the achievement of personal, social and vocational adequacy (Johnson, 1962: Simches and Bohn, 1963: Baroff, 1974). The same general goals are pursued in New Zealand's special classes which aim

to educate the backward pupil "... to get on with his fellow man, to hold down a regular job, to be emotionally secure, to know how to retain good health, to have a minimum grasp of reading, writing and maths at the 9-10 year level, to have some wholesome leisure-time activities and to be equipped to become a member of a family and a community" (Nightingale, 1975, p.35).

- Special class teachers

The educational goals outlined above are implemented by certificated teachers recruited mainly from the ranks of regular class teachers. In addition, since 1974 Christchurch Teachers' College has offered a one year full-time specialist course in the education of handicapped children for approximately 20 teachers, some of whom become teachers of special classes for backward children (Havill, 1975: the Education Gazette, Volume 55, Number 12, 1976).

For the teacher who has no pre-service training in the education of backward children, various in-service training opportunities are available. It is the stated policy of the Department of Education to grant the beginning special class teacher "up to one month's observation, study and training in other approved classes or schools" (the Education Gazette, Volume 55, Number 8, 1976) although in practice, if appointed, she is encouraged to undertake this one week at a time when

she "has had enough experience in the Class to be aware of the relevant problems" (Organisers, Wanganui Education Board, no date).

In all the ten New Zealand school districts local in-service courses organized by inspectors supervising special education and organisers of special classes are available for special class teachers and these are supplemented in some districts by newsletters (for example S.C.A.N., the Special Classes Auckland Newsletter) and the work of teacher organizations such as ATSPED (the Association of Teachers in Special Education in the Manawatu).

In addition to local in-service training courses there is a national residential course of five to six weeks' duration offered annually for up to twenty special class teachers selected by the inspector supervising special education and under the direction of the national organiser for backward pupils. There is one district organiser of special classes in residence for each week of the course and lectures are given by members of the psychological service and visiting speakers. Examples of course topics include the development of normal children, language and communication, causes of mental retardation, behaviour modification techniques, mathematics in the special class (Department of Education, 1975). These courses also provide opportunities for discussion, observation of successful practitioners

and practical work.

The recruitment and retention of good special class teachers has traditionally presented problems in New Zealand (Milne, 1972: Nightingale, 1975), thus the Department of Education has attempted to make service as a special class teacher an attractive proposition for career teachers by offering the following incentives: increased numbers of positions of responsibility: allowing two years of service in special education to equate with country service*: the introduction of a salary step after five to eight years of service (depending on the applicant's academic qualifications).

- Curriculum, methods and materials

There is no curriculum designed specifically for special class pupils, instead the teacher must adapt to her requirements the primary and intermediate level curricula as set out in the Syllabuses of Instruction. Assistance in this process is provided by organisers of special classes (see page 21) one of whose many roles is to work with special class teachers both individually, through visits to the classroom, and collectively, through in-service training programmes (see page 16). In addition, since the mandate of the advisory service includes assisting teachers to provide for "special needs and a wider range of individual differences" (Everts, 1972), assistance in curriculum

*New Zealand teachers must teach for two years in a rural school in order to pass beyond a certain salary level

adaptation is, theoretically, available to special class teachers from this source.

The most detailed written guidance generally available to special class teachers is provided by the Department of Education's Handbook of Suggestions for Special Class Teachers, published in 1958, which offers guidance in curriculum adaptation, teaching methodology and the selection of appropriate materials as well as discussion of the social-emotional needs of backward children assigned to special classes.

The special class teacher is generally encouraged to pursue what might be termed a diagnostic-prescriptive approach to teaching as illustrated by these words from a Guide for Special Class teachers (Organisers, Wanganui Education Board, no date): "we must show evidence that we know the levels and needs of each pupil; that the organization of our programme takes these needs into account and caters directly for their satisfaction; and that regular evaluation of progress and consequent changes in needs is taking place" (page 32). The psychological reports provided by the organiser of special classes or the educational psychologist on each child admitted to a special class are intended to provide a base line for the teacher in initiating individualised programmes (Department of Education, 1958 and 1960).

- Training for social and personal growth

As indicated previously (see page 13), many

backward children are assigned to special classes because of personal and/or social inadequacies. In recognition of this fact special class teachers are urged to create for their pupils "a warm, secure environment": to build "security and self-confidence" (Organisers, Wanganui Education Board, no date): to be sensitive to their pupils' needs for "love, security, esteem": to establish "good social attitudes" (Department of Education, 1958). Moreover, in recognition of the fact that special class placement can alienate pupils from their regular class peers, special class teachers are encouraged to organize opportunities for integrated activities for their pupils (Appendix to the Journals of the House of Representatives of New Zealand, Volume II, 1971: New Zealand Official Yearbook, 1975).

- Specialist services available to special class teachers and pupils

There is an array of specialist personnel whose function, in whole or in part, is to assist the special class teacher and child. Who are these specialists, what training do they have and what services do they offer?

In each of the ten New Zealand education board districts there are inspectors responsible for the supervision of special education. The 1974 Appendix to the Journals of the House of Representatives describes the functions of the inspectorate thus: "The inspectorate

has a key role in all developments in the curriculum, teaching methods, school and class organization, and in in-service training. It provides the main channel for the evaluation of education in New Zealand.... It is the main agency by which the department, and through the department, the Government, is able to implement new educational policies in the schools, including the stimulation of more efficient practices, the encouragement and evaluation of innovations in the schools and advice and support for teachers" (page 18). Inspectors who fulfill this crucial role in the field of special education are appointed from the ranks of the general inspectorate which in turn is staffed by general educators with proven ability in teaching and administration (the Education Gazette, Volume 55, Number 9, 1976).

In practice the main source of advice and support for special class teachers and children is provided by the psychological service, principally through organisers of special classes. Ms. W.A. Valentine (a New Zealand teacher who studied the education of retarded children overseas) was appointed in 1928 to be the first organiser of special classes and until 1944 there was only one such position. By 1970, however, there were twenty organisers of special classes throughout the country (Sutch, 1972) and by 1975, twenty-nine (Department of Education, 1975). Havill (1971) refers to the "herculean" task of organisers and a listing of their

duties bears witness to the aptness of his description. It is the role of organisers of special classes to assess and, where appropriate, place pupils in special classes at primary and secondary schools and in special schools for the intellectually handicapped; to recommend pupils for promotion or withdrawal; to supervise work experience schemes at secondary school level; to give guidance and training, both individually and collectively through local and national in-service training courses, to special class teachers; to perform diagnostic and guidance work with children who are experiencing social and/or scholastic difficulties; to counsel parents; to provide "professional support for teachers and organizations interested in the education of backward or slow learning children" (Milne, 1972, page 138); to act as professional advisers to the education boards and school principals; to conduct surveys and recommend the establishment of new classes where appropriate. What qualifications are pre-requisite for organisers of special classes? The following advertisement for a grade II organiser appeared in the Education Gazette of May 14th, 1976: "Applicants should be temperamentally suited for work with slow-learning and intellectually handicapped children.... They should be graduates, preferably in education or psychology, and have a good teaching record. Experience in a special class for backward children or special school or low ability

group would be an advantage...."

Although organisers have prime responsibility for special classes, educational psychologists also work in this area. All educational psychologists are trained, experienced teachers who have or are working toward a degree in psychology or education at the masterate level, however some enter the psychological service as assistant psychologists and complete two years of training within the service while others undertake a two year course of full-time study plus in-service training leading to a Diploma of Educational Psychology. Currently the trend is toward a phasing out of the former training procedure in favour of the latter. The role of the educational psychologist in New Zealand is similar to that of the organiser of special classes except that he works primarily with children in the mainstream of the education system. It is interesting that although historically the roles of educational psychologist and organiser of special classes developed virtually over the same period of time, at least since 1960, when the first Diploma of Educational Psychology course was established, the training requirements of educational psychologists have been of a higher standard. Does this fact reflect perhaps a difference in status (as perceived by educational policy makers) between the recipients of the services offered by the two professional groups?

The importance of close liaison between school,

home and other agencies in helping children with special needs is universally acknowledged by contemporary educationists (Wakefield, 1964: Chazan, 1967-1968: Clarke and Clarke, 1973) and this is the function in New Zealand principally of the visiting teacher. The visiting teacher service started in 1943 and currently there are forty-nine visiting teachers throughout New Zealand. The visiting teacher's role, as viewed by the Department of Education, is "to assist headteachers by investigating cases where it appears likely that home circumstances are adversely affecting the child's education" (Department of Education, 1964, quoted in Davis, 1972, page 448). Candidates for visiting teacher positions are assessed on their teaching records, their understanding of school learning problems and their ability to relate successfully to children, parents, school personnel and members of other social agencies (Davis, 1972). They receive a six to eight week training course at the Tirimoana Social Work Centre, Porirua Hospital, Wellington.

It is generally recognized that disproportionate numbers of backward children in special classes have speech problems (Chazan, 1964: Baroff, 1974) and New Zealand special class teachers are assured that they "can expect the help of speech therapists both through individual clinical treatment and in the classroom" (Department of Education, 1958, page 39). The speech therapy service, with 138 therapists at 138 clinics

throughout the country (December, 1975), is the largest of the specialist educational services (Department of Education, 1975) and speech therapists receive a training specially designed for their needs, undertaken during a one year period following regular teacher training.

CHAPTER 2

ISSUES AND TRENDS IN THE FIELD OF SPECIAL EDUCATION FOR
THE MILDLY MENTALLY RETARDED: A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

During the first half of this century, in North America especially, there was a steady accumulation of research studies concerned with the evaluation of special education for mildly mentally retarded children. The 1960s saw a rapid increase in the number and range of these studies whose predominantly negative conclusions fostered a growing lack of faith among many educationists in both the practices of special education and their underlying philosophy. Paradoxically this same period of time also saw a phenomenal increase in the numbers of students assigned to special classes throughout the western world.

Early studies were concerned primarily with comparisons between mildly mentally retarded students assigned to special classes and those retained in regular classes in the two broad areas of academic achievement and personal/social adjustment.

The many studies which compare academic achievement levels of mildly mentally retarded pupils in a variety of settings appear to offer conflicting results. While some studies purport to show that pupils enrolled in regular classes are academically more successful than their peers in special classes (Bennett,

1932: Pertsch, 1936: Elenbogen, 1957: Cassidy and Stanton, 1959: Thurstone, 1959: Hoeltke, 1967), others seem to indicate that there are no significant differences academically between the two groups (Blatt, 1958: Bacher, 1964: Goldstein et al., 1965: Carroll, 1967). The writer was unable, however, to find any study which showed superior academic achievement in any area for mildly mentally retarded children attending special classes.

Since many children are assigned to special classes because of personal and social inadequacies (see page 13), many research studies have been concerned with evaluating the extent to which special education contributes to personal and social growth. Here again results are conflicting. Many studies indicate that mildly mentally retarded children attending special classes are better adjusted socially than those attending regular classes (Elenbogen, 1957: Blatt, 1958: Cassidy and Stanton, 1959: Johnson, 1961: Bacher, 1964) and also personally (Jordan, 1959: Hoeltke, 1967: Schurr et al., 1970). However other studies seem to show no significant differences between the social and personal adjustment of the two groups (Blatt, 1958: Mullen and Itkin, 1961: Goldstein et al., 1965) or else that mildly mentally retarded children who are segregated into special classes are more inclined to self denigration than those who remain in the educational mainstream (Meyerowitz, 1962:

Carroll, 1967).

During the 1960s especially the value of comparative studies like those listed above was increasingly questioned for reasons which can be grouped into two main categories: firstly, the inadequacy of assessment techniques in terms of: validity and reliability (Kirk, 1964: Stevens and Heber, 1964: Lawrence and Winschel, 1973): their suitability for use with mentally retarded children (Gardner, 1966: Lawrence and Winschel, 1973): the middle class orientation of many test items (Gardner, 1966): teacher bias when teacher ratings are used (Kern and Pfaeffle, 1962: Guskin and Spicker, 1968): secondly, the problem of uncontrolled variables arising from differences among teachers (Carroll, 1967: Fine, 1967: Engel, 1969: Baroff, 1974): differences among programmes (Stevens and Heber, 1964: Tilley, 1970: Baroff, 1974): differences between mildly mentally retarded children selected for special class placement and those who remain in regular classes (Johnson, 1962: Sparks and Blackman, 1965: Mayer, 1966: Ellis, 1968).

In recent years evaluative research has focused on issues which are more clearly definable. The one which has aroused perhaps the greatest controversy concerns which children find themselves placed in special classes. It now appears, from numerous research studies, that children who are male, from socially and economically disadvantaged

sectors of the community and/or from minority racial groups are more likely firstly to be assessed as functioning at the mildly mentally retarded level and secondly to be assigned to special classes on the basis of this evaluation. Why is this so?

In what might be termed the "developed" countries, children are not designated mentally retarded and thus eligible for special class placement unless they score within a certain range on standardized intelligence tests (most commonly the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children or the Stanford-Binet), however it is now recognized that the content of these tests is culturally biased (McCandless, 1964: Jensen, 1967: Linden and Linden, 1968: Marjoribanks, 1974). In Britain the issue of misclassification because of cultural bias in assessment procedures was taken up by the Race Relations Board when it was found that about 44,000 of 250,000 immigrant children relegated to special schools for the educationally subnormal primarily needed special tuition in English (Segal, 1974) and in America this same issue resulted in a landmark court case, Diana versus the State of California (1970), as a result of which the court ruled that: the complainant must be tested in her native language: assessment should include a non-verbal test of intelligence: the state must develop ethnic norms for intelligence tests: testing programmes must be revised: the state must present an explanation

for ethnic disproportions in special classes (MacMillan, 1973).

An I.Q. score between 50 and 75 is not generally viewed as a sufficient criterion for special class placement and consideration is also given to social and personal factors. However standardized tests of social and personal adjustment have the same deficiencies as tests of intellectual functioning and subjective evaluations are made by professional personnel functioning within a particular frame of reference and most often in the school context. Consequently children who are different from the majority in terms of social class are statistically more likely than others to be labelled socially and personally deviant and thus assigned to special classes (Brown, 1968: Franks, 1971: Neer et al., 1973: Newham, 1973) as are those who belong to minority racial groups (Segal, 1974: Burke, 1975: Prillaman, 1975: Wedell, 1975). For example, the phenomenon of the "six hour retarded child" has been widely documented in America, that is the child of low socio-economic status who functions adequately in the community but who, through the use of inappropriate assessment methods, is identified as mentally retarded within the school system and assigned to a special class (MacMillan, 1973: Smith and Greenberg, 1975). Another phenomenon documented by researchers studying how pupils are selected for special class placement concerns the

seemingly excessive numbers of boys so placed (Stanton and Cassidy, 1964; Prillaman, 1975). Gillespie and Fink (1974) attribute this primarily to differences in behavioural expectations between boys and girls in society at large which, in turn, mean that "typical" male behaviour patterns are more likely to be at odds with the expectations of teachers who, especially at primary and intermediate levels, are predominantly female. A further explanation for this imbalance may lie in the discrepancy between the skills fostered by the school system and those viewed as desirable by males of low socio-economic status.

In response to the problems inherent in traditional methods of selecting pupils for special class placement a variety of attempts has been made to develop new assessment techniques, however Mittler (1973), having reviewed these, concludes that they have not yet reached the point of providing viable alternatives to traditional techniques

- How special?

Contemporary researchers are also concerned with the question of whether special education is indeed special in the sense of "out of the ordinary" or "unique" (Funk and Wagnall's New Standard Dictionary of the English Language, 1959 edition).

- Special class teachers

In an article entitled "Why special education

isn't special" (1974) Milofsky claims that "over the past quarter century, special education teachers have been largely untrained and ill-equipped to handle the educational problems set them" (page 448). A shortage of teachers especially trained to teach exceptional children has meant, he maintains, that regular class teachers have been hired who, because of the difficulties associated with special class teaching, are often those unable to find other jobs rather than experienced, successful teachers. These statements are endorsed by Brown (1968) who refers to a 1967 survey of special class teachers in Iowa by Carr and Meyen which showed that only 43 per cent had completed the minimal training (20 hours) required for an endorsement to teach mentally retarded children. Milofsky and Brown have also explored the reasons for the high rate of turnover which occurs among special class teachers. Two main factors appear to be involved here: firstly a sense of professional isolation (see also Johnson, 1974) resulting from a general lack of emotional and practical support from both peers and administrative personnel, especially for new teachers: secondly the inferior status of special class teaching among teachers in general, partly because few teachers in the field have special training and partly as a reflection of entrenched prejudices against exceptional children.

- The special class curriculum

Curricula for mildly mentally retarded children

have traditionally been watered-down versions of regular curricula (Ellis, 1968: Love, 1972) and there is an imposing array of educationists who maintain that today's curricula are not essentially different (Dunn, 1968: Reger et al., 1968: Cruickshank et al., 1969: Keogh et al., 1975) a view expressed succinctly by Simches and Bohn (1963) in the following words: "Over and over again, our research has shown that different curricula just do not exist for the educable mentally handicapped. What does exist is the rephrasing and reemphasizing of available courses of study used for normal children that do not even have the benefit of the form, structure, and sequence connected with standard curriculum development" (page 115).

The desirability of careful diagnosis of individual needs as a basis for developing individualized programmes for mildly mentally retarded children is stressed repeatedly in contemporary literature (Blackman, 1967: Reger et al., 1968: Simches, 1970). There are currently two major theoretical models for diagnostic-prescriptive teaching: the first (see Bateman, 1964) uses such tests as the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities and the Marianne Frostig Developmental Test of Visual Perception to identify the child's strengths and weaknesses in specific intellectual processes as a basis for remediating the processes themselves: the second model (see Blackman, 1967) seeks to compare the

psycho-educational characteristics of learners and of school tasks in order to devise methods for teaching the skills in which the child is deficient (Ysseldyke and Salvia, 1974). The first of these models in particular has aroused considerable controversy (Mann and Phillips, 1971) and both are still very much in the early stages of development, nevertheless they represent exciting new developments in the special education field.

- Parent/school relations

It has long been acknowledged that special education programmes for mildly mentally retarded children will be most effective when they also encourage parental participation, particularly when there are marked social and cultural differences between helping agency and parents (Perkins, 1976). How to achieve contact with parents is a complex issue, however, since traditional methods are often ineffective in this context. Wakefield (1964) concludes his investigation of the family backgrounds of mildly mentally retarded children in special classes by saying: "Avenues of school-parent contact should be examined in the light of what is known about the parents of mentally retarded children. Written notices must be edited for simplicity, school home contacts should be personal whenever possible, ways should be found to raise parental aspirations for their children. Parents who are hostile must feel that the school accepts them". Once contact is established, the

question then arises of the kinds of parental involvement which should be fostered by the schools. Meaningful participation requires that parents be allowed to move beyond their traditional roles as providers of transport and supervisors of school outings into the planning and implementation of programmes. Time Magazine (November 8th, 1976) reported on two inner-city American schools which have been very successful in eliciting parental involvement in academic areas of the curriculum. In one junior school where children were reading at an average of two years below grade level, parents were asked to enter contracts with the school to encourage their children to read to them and to provide quiet areas for study. In addition parents and teachers worked together to plan and carry out other activities designed to promote interest in reading. About a third of parents became intensively involved and during that year their children made reading gains above the national average. Concomitantly school discipline improved and vandalism and absenteeism decreased. At the second school almost all parents attend monthly curriculum conferences and report-card meetings and twenty-five parents from a school population of 325 are paid to assist as teachers' aides for ten hours a week. The results here have been as gratifying as those described above.

- Specialist support services

The traditional roles of specialist personnel in the field of special education are currently being reviewed by contemporary educationists who emphasize that input from other disciplines must be educationally relevant (Keogh et al., 1975) and also that co-operation is the keynote to successful interdisciplinary functioning (Morrow, 1975; Perkins, 1975).

The educational psychologist has traditionally had a large role to play in this field, one which has, however, often been viewed as peripheral by teachers to whom he is an outsider administering and interpreting test materials (Reger et al., 1968; Mittler, 1973; Keogh et al., 1975) and writing reports which are often educationally irrelevant (Weiner, 1967; Reger et al., 1968). Currently this role appears to be changing to incorporate concepts of the psychologist as designer of individualized educational programmes and intervention strategies (MacMillan, 1973; Morrow, 1975) and resource person (Sutch, 1972).

Since disproportionate numbers of retarded children in special classes have been shown to have speech problems (Chazan, 1964; Baroff, 1974), the role of the speech therapist is in theory a major one in the special education of these children (Hughes, 1973; Baroff, 1974) although one in which she has traditionally been hampered by inadequate staffing

ratios (Dunn, 1968). A shift in emphasis is currently evident among some speech therapists who, in an effort to achieve optimum utilization of their skills, are moving from a traditional casework approach, except with children who are severely deficient, to a resource function whereby they focus on researching and developing programmes for implementation by teachers and/or para-professional personnel (Dunn, 1968).

- Summary

Early evaluative studies failed to show clear advantages for mildly mentally retarded children in special class placement. More recent studies have indicated that traditional selection processes for special class placement are discriminatory, primarily because of inequalities in the larger educational and social systems within which they are implemented. Moreover it seems clear that the term special is inappropriate as a description of the education traditionally offered to children assigned to special classes. Finally, while there is a manifest willingness to change the status quo at least in some areas of special education, such change is slow, often because of a lack of well-researched alternatives to long established practices.

CHAPTER 3

A SURVEY OF SPECIAL CLASSES FOR BACKWARD CHILDREN AT
PRIMARY AND INTERMEDIATE SCHOOLS THROUGHOUT NEW ZEALAND

- The rationale for studying special education for
backward children in New Zealand

New Zealand has been very much on the periphery of the controversy surrounding special education for mildly mentally retarded children in other countries. Perhaps the main reason for this is that a rather complacent attitude toward special education in general has long prevailed here, as exemplified in the conclusions of the Currie Commission on New Zealand education (1962) where one reads that: "Special education in New Zealand has a long history and, as far as the Commission can judge, this country compares favourably with advanced countries overseas in this respect. If progress has been slow in any fields of special education, it has been due to the fact that the knowledge of how to assist has been lacking rather than the good will to furnish that assistance; and this is so, even though for many of these children the economic return to the community can never be high" (page 15 of the Report). This complacency is reflected, moreover, in the fact that for decades Ralph Winterbourn, with his study of special classes for backward children published in 1944, was virtually alone among New Zealand educationists in his interest in the

field. Recently, however, educationists such as Havill (1971, 1972), Mitchell (1972), Codd (1975) and Nightingale (1975) have begun to explore and question what is happening in New Zealand special education and in 1970 the New Zealand Education Institute (see page 9) called for a public inquiry into special education (National Education, 1971) which did not, however, eventuate, partly because of lack of co-operation from the Department of Education (Havill, 1971, page 464).

- Origins of the study

An extensive perusal of research material primarily from Britain and the U.S.A. led the writer to identify two main questions underlying the current controversy in the field of special education for mildly mentally retarded children: firstly, who is selected for special class placement: secondly, how "special" is special education. The writer decided to explore these issues within the New Zealand context by means of a sample survey of teachers at primary and intermediate schools throughout the country. No attempt was made to include special classes at the secondary school level since these classes are organized around work experience schemes and thus are somewhat different in orientation from primary and intermediate special classes.

The writer prepared a series of questions aimed at providing demographic data on special class pupils and teachers and various data on curricula, home-school liaison

and specialist support services available to the special class teacher and child.

Assistance in identifying ambiguities and inadequate items was provided by a number of people in the community with professional experience in the field of special education for backward children, as recommended in the literature on survey research (for example, Wiersma, 1975). A preliminary version of the questionnaire was submitted for approval to the national organiser of backward pupils acting on behalf of the Department of Education, and an amended version comprising 38 questions (see appendix II) was approved in April, 1976.

Using a table of random numbers (Freund, 1967, page 393) the writer selected a sample of 20% of the 240 special classes at primary and intermediate schools listed in the 1975 Directory of Special Education and Guidance Services in New Zealand. The 48 classes thus selected included 37 primary school classes (from a total of 186) and 11 intermediate school classes (from a total of 54). The questionnaires were distributed, during the second week of June, 1976, to the teachers of the selected classes through the appropriate district organisers of special classes in the expectation that this more personalized procedure would induce a high response rate. Each questionnaire was accompanied by a covering letter addressed to the teacher (see appendix I) and explaining briefly the nature and purpose of the questionnaire. In addition each

recipient teacher was provided with a stamped, addressed envelope so that the completed questionnaire could be returned directly to the writer.

Within four weeks of receiving the questionnaire teachers who had not returned completed questionnaires received a post card reminder to do so.

By the end of August, 1976, completed questionnaires had been received from 44 teachers (96%) in the sample, a figure well above the 75% rate of return considered to be the minimum from which valid inferences about a population may be made (Wiersma, 1975). However not all teachers completed each question and some questions were answered incorrectly so that this very high response rate to the questionnaire itself is not maintained for every question therein. Numbers of teachers completing each question will be included in the description of the survey results (see chapter 4).

CHAPTER 4

SURVEY RESULTS

- Special class pupils

Of the 44 classes for which data were received, 30, or slightly more than 68%, had fewer than the minimum recommended number of pupils (see page 12) and only 1 class had more than the recommended maximum number. The mean number of pupils in the 35 primary special classes sampled was 10.4 (± 2.56)* and in the 9 intermediate classes, 12.4 (± 4.28). The total number of pupils in the 44 classes was 487 of whom 305 were male and 182 female, a ratio of 1.6:1.

Using the 6 ethnic groupings used in the gathering of census data the writer investigated the ethnic origins of the special class pupils in the sample and found the distribution shown in figure 2 which illustrates both the percentage representation of the 6 ethnic groups in the sample and the percentage representation of the same 6 groups in the New Zealand population as a whole, as determined by 1971 census figures. The numbers of Pacific Islanders, Chinese, Indians and Others were, in percentage terms, so low that, for the sake of convenience and clarity, they were grouped together in this figure. The ratio of Europeans to all other ethnic groups in the sample was found to be 1:1.4 as compared with a ratio of 1:1.1 in the population at

* throughout the text means are shown plus or minus one standard deviation

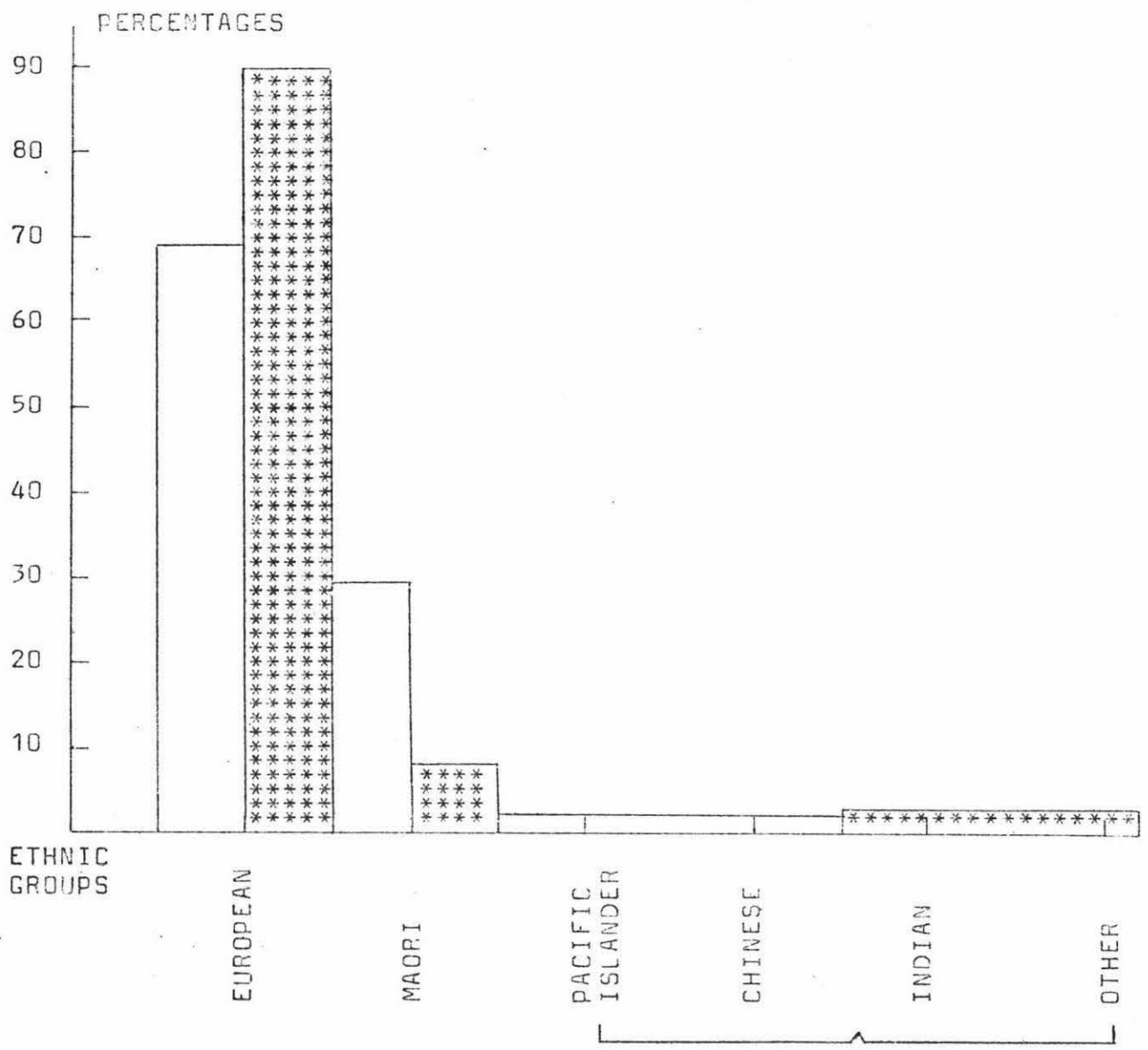


FIGURE 2 : The percentage representation of six ethnic groups in special classes for backward children at primary and intermediate schools and in the New Zealand population as a whole

large, or .7 of the expected level. The ratio of Maoris to all other ethnic groups in the sample was found to be 1:3.4 as compared with a ratio of 1:12.5 in the population at large, or 3.6 times the expected level. The ratio of Pacific Islanders, Chinese, Indians and Others to the other two ethnic groups was slightly less than the expected level at 1:44 compared with 1:38 in the general population.

The writer used the Redmond and Davies Occupational Scale (1940, updated in 1968) to gauge the socio-economic backgrounds of the pupils surveyed and found the distribution shown in figure 3 . It is readily apparent that the majority of these pupils are from homes within the lowest socio-economic strata since 70.2% of the total sample were classified within groups V, VI, and VII.

Question 13 (see appendixII) concerned the family size of children in special classes for backward pupils and showed that, from a total of 454 children, 102 (22.4%) were from families with 2 children or fewer: 185 (40.7%) from families with 3 or 4 children: 95 (20.9%) from families with 5 or 6 children: 47 (10.3%) from families with 7 or 8 children: 25 (5.5%) from families with 9 or more children.

Further data on the family backgrounds of special class pupils were sought in question 14 (see appendix II) which concerned the numbers of pupils with one or more

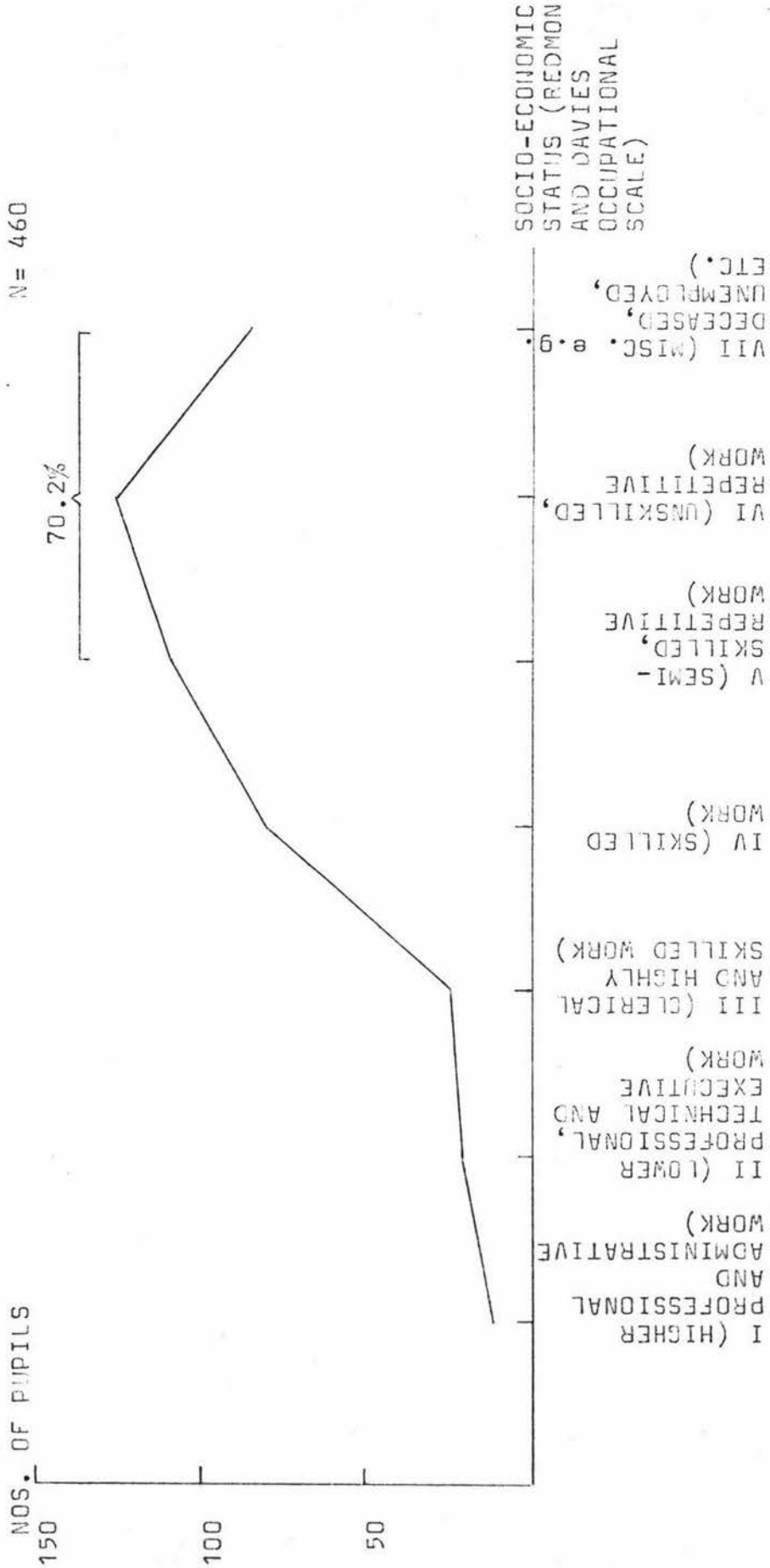


FIGURE 3: The distribution of socio-economic status of pupils in special classes for backward children at primary and intermediate schools in New Zealand

siblings who had also attended or was, at the time of the survey, attending a special class. From a total of 450 children in 41 classes, 68 (15.1%) had 1 sibling, 27 (6%) had 2 siblings, 9 (2%) had 3 siblings and 5 (1.1%) had 4 or more siblings with special class experience.

40 teachers completed question 11 (see appendix II) concerning pupil I.Q. ratings. The I.Q. distribution of the 428 pupils for whom these data were available is illustrated in figure 4 which shows that 394 (92%) of the pupils scored within the 50-79 I.Q. range while 14 (3.2%) scored below I.Q. 50 and 20 (4.6%) scored above I.Q. 79.

Figure 5 shows the number of years of attendance in special classes of the 331 children in 32 primary classes for whom this information was available and figure 6 shows the same data for 92 children in 7 intermediate classes. In interpreting these figures it must be remembered that the age range of special class pupils at primary school level is 7 to 12 or 14, and at intermediate school 12 to 14 (see page 12).

Question 16 of the writer's questionnaire (see appendix II) explored further the issue of length of pupil attendance in special classes, asking respondents who had been teaching in a special class in the previous academic year to state how many of their pupils returned to full-time placement in a regular class during or at the

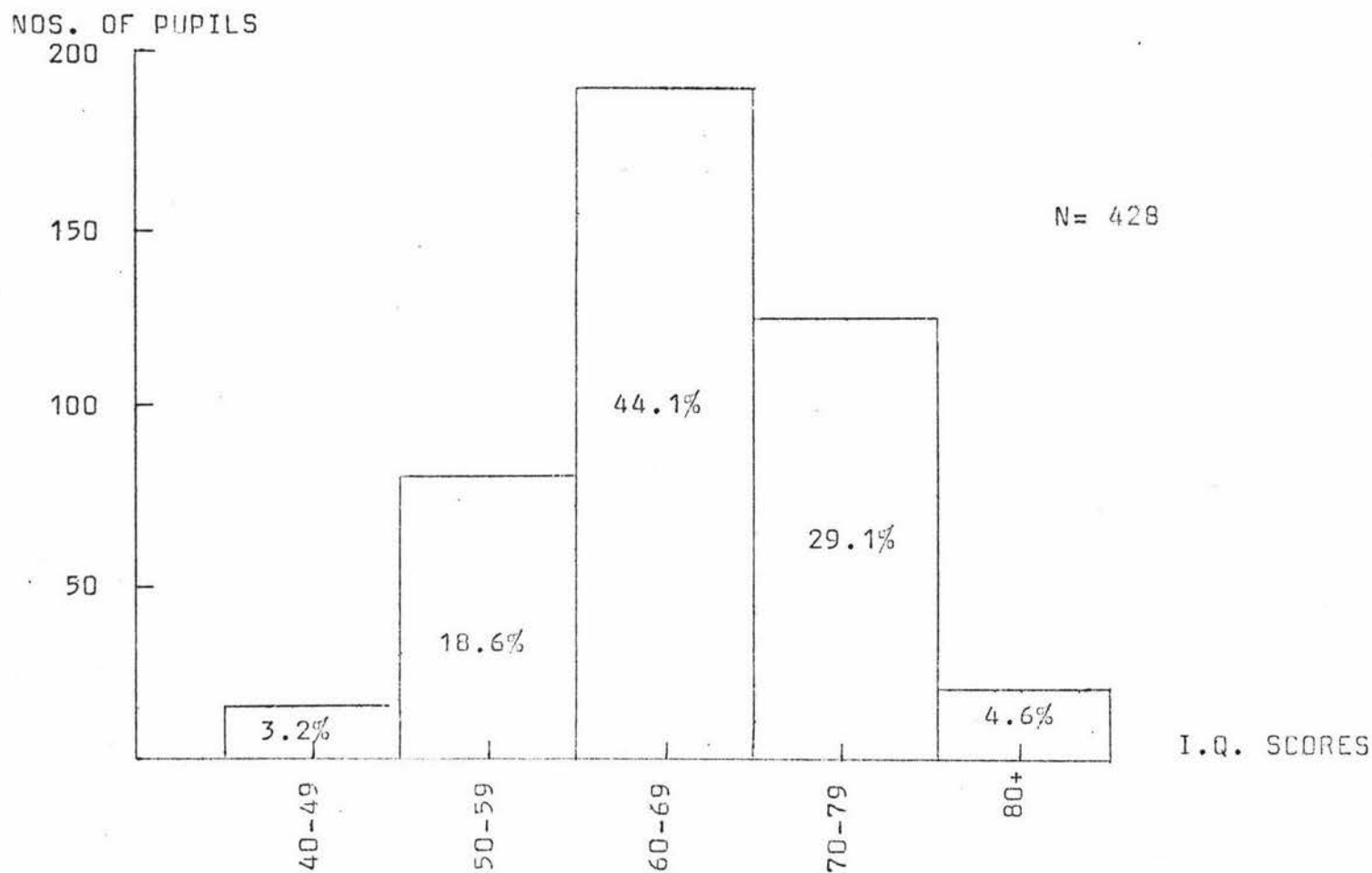


FIGURE 4: The I.Q. distribution of pupils in special classes for backward children at primary and intermediate schools in New Zealand

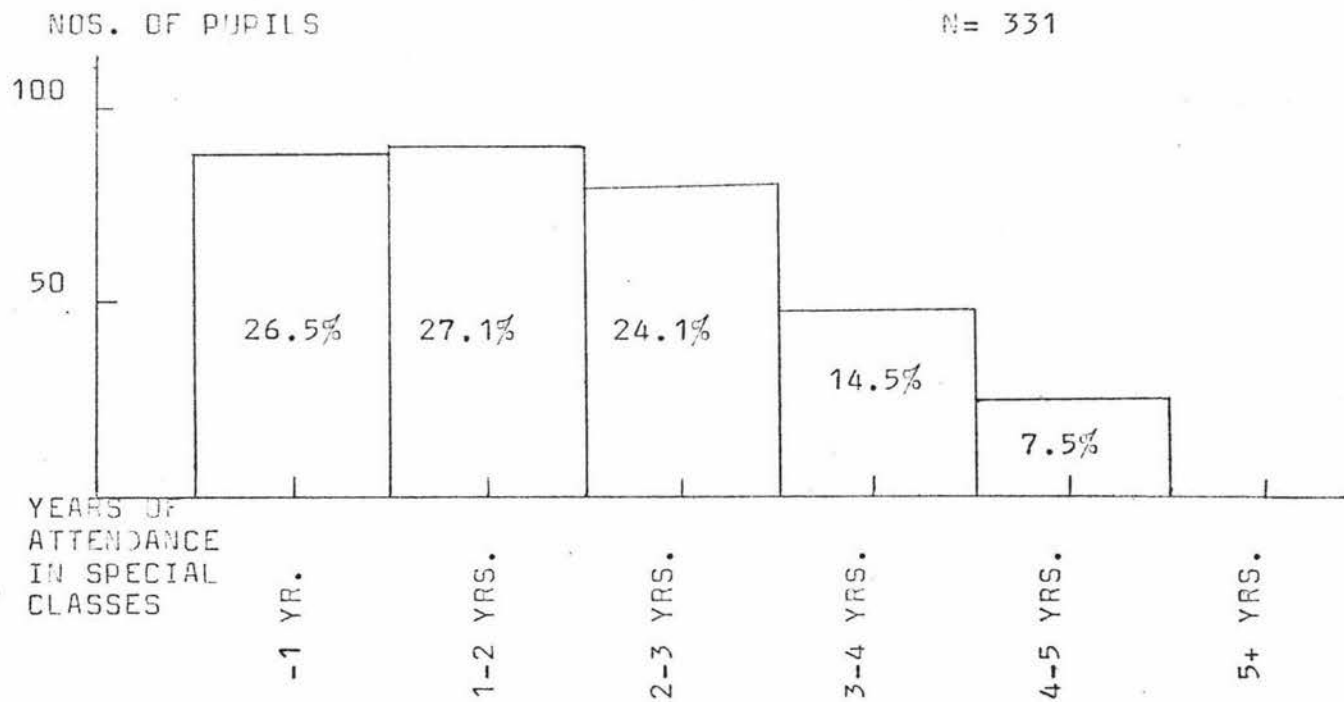


FIGURE 5: Length of attendance of pupils in special classes
for backward children at primary schools

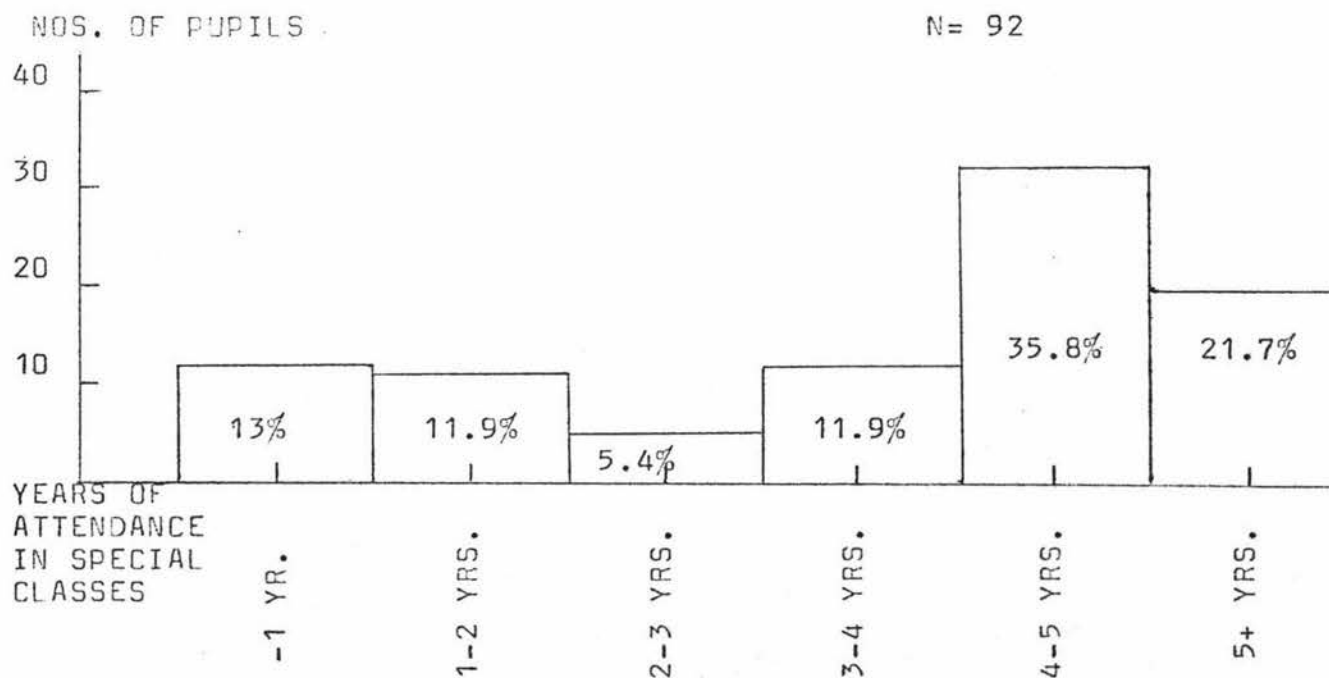


FIGURE 6: Length of attendance of pupils in special classes
for backward children at intermediate schools

end of that year. 35 teachers replied that of the 417 pupils taught by them during 1975, 29 (6.8%) returned to regular classes. Of these 29, 2 primary school pupils were returned because there was no special class available in their district at the intermediate school level and 3 had never been officially assigned to special classes in the first place.

- Special class teachers

The writer's survey of special class teachers revealed that the ratio of female to male teachers was 3.8 times the expected value at 6.1:1 compared with a ratio of 1.6:1 among all teachers at primary and intermediate schools (based on figures from the New Zealand Official Yearbook, 1975). Figure 7 illustrates the age distribution of the 42 teachers who answered question 2 of the writer's questionnaire (see appendix II) and shows that almost 50% are less than 36 years of age.

2 (4%) of the 44 teachers surveyed had Bachelor's Degrees, both with majors in geography and one with a second major in professional education. 2 of the 44 had undergraduate Diplomas in Education, a qualification which was no longer obtainable after 1970 and signifying credits in 5 education papers. All the teachers surveyed were certificated teachers and 3 had Diplomas in Teaching (that is 12 papers toward a degree or 4 papers toward a degree and 8 Diploma in Teaching papers taken through the Department of Education's Correspondence Division). 4 (9%)

of the teachers surveyed were trained specifically to teach backward children having taken the one year full-time course in the education of handicapped children offered at Christchurch Teachers' College. 2 teachers were trained teachers of the deaf, 1 was a trained speech therapist, and 1 a remedial reading specialist. Figure 8 illustrates the number of years of teacher training of the 44 teachers and shows equal numbers with 2 years of training and less and with 3 years of training or more.

The mean number of years of teaching experience of the teachers surveyed was 10.6 (\pm 5.88) but the mean number of years of special class teaching experience of the 44 teachers was 3.4 years (\pm 3.25). Furthermore the mean number of years spent in their current special class teaching positions was 2.3 years (\pm 2.54).

28 (80%) of the 36 teachers surveyed who were teaching in a special class in 1975 had attended local in-service training courses (see page 16) the mean length of which was 4.75 days (\pm 2.34). 13 (36%) of the 36 had attended a national training course (see page 17), 10 (27%) since 1970.

In an attempt to explore areas of dissatisfaction to the New Zealand special class teacher, the writer asked the recipients of her questionnaire to rank 5 issues found by other researchers to be of concern to special class teachers (see question 37, appendix II). The 43 teachers

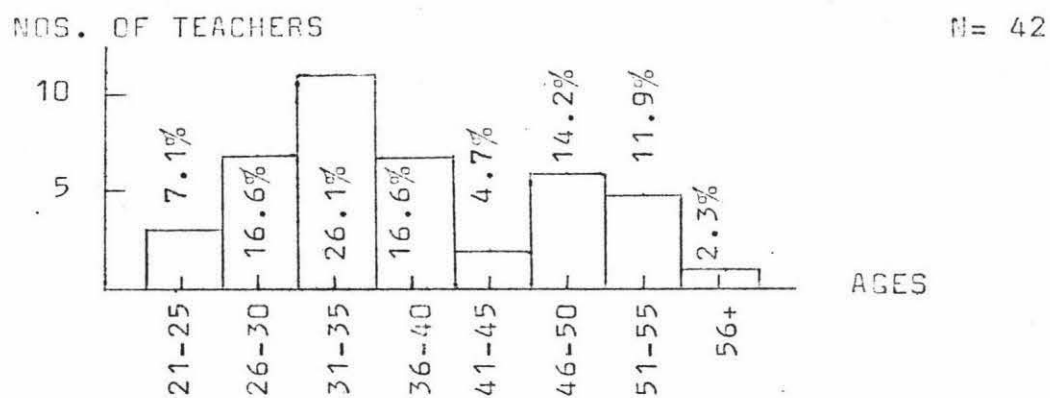


FIGURE 7: The age distribution of teachers of special classes for backward children at primary and intermediate schools in New Zealand

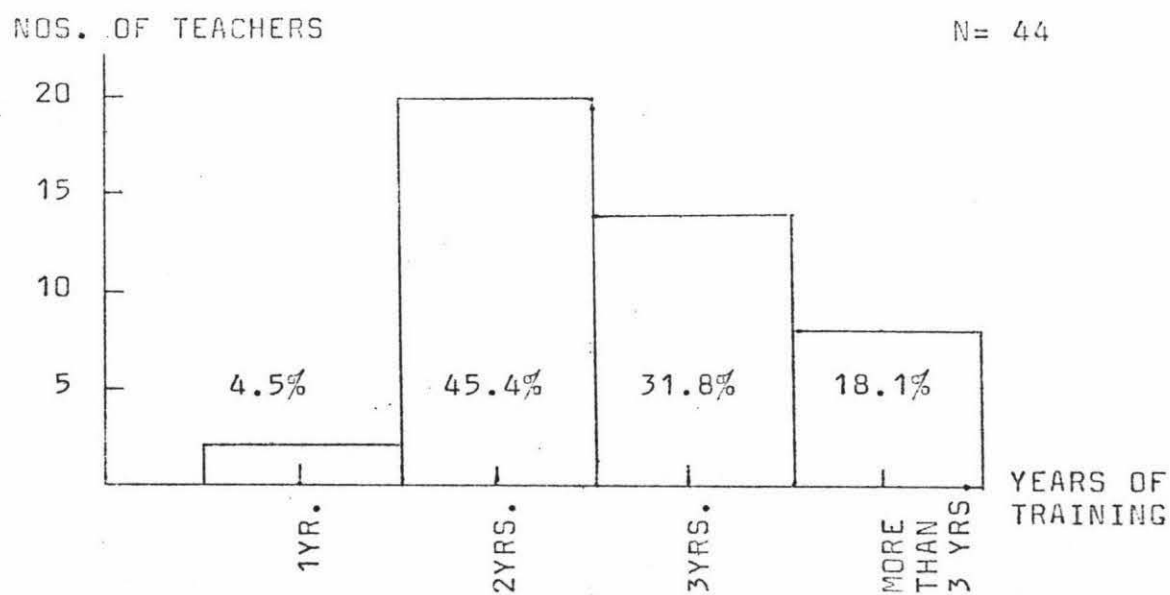


FIGURE 8: The number of years of teacher training of teachers of special classes for backward children at primary and intermediate schools in New Zealand

who answered this question rated the need for improved attitudes toward the special class concept among regular class teachers equal first with the need for more contact with specialist resource services. In addition 7 teachers (16%) commented that they would like opportunities for discussion with other special class teachers.

- Curriculum

Although there is no curriculum designed specifically for special class pupils in New Zealand (see page 18), the Department of Education (New Zealand Official Yearbook, 1975, page 11) claims that: "... the teachers have been given a very great deal of detailed guidance on methods of teaching and programmes of work" and continues with a reference to the Handbook of Suggestions for Special Class Teachers (see page 19).

The special class teachers surveyed by the writer were asked to rank 7 sources of curriculum ideas in terms of their usefulness (see question 22, appendix II), rank 1 denoting most useful etc., in an attempt to explore the extent to which teachers actually utilize the Handbook in adapting the regular curricula to the special needs of their pupils. Of the 40 teachers who answered this question, 6 (15%) did not have/had never seen a copy of the Handbook, 1 rated it as useless and 10 (25%) omitted it from their ranking as a source which they did not use. The mean ranks of the 7 alternatives listed in this question were as follows: first ranked was previous

experience teaching in a regular class, mean rank 2.4 (\pm 1.62): second, previous experience teaching in a special class, mean rank 3.2 (\pm 2.09): third, in-service training, mean rank 3.6 (\pm 1.43): fourth, the Handbook referred to above, mean rank 4.2 (\pm 1.74): fifth, books and journals, mean rank 4.3 (\pm 1.31): sixth, previous training, mean rank 4.9 (\pm 1.66): and lastly factors grouped under "other", mean rank 5.36 (\pm 1.63).

Since the New Zealand special class teacher is urged to take what might be termed a diagnostic-prescriptive approach to teaching (see page 19), the writer attempted in her questionnaire to explore two areas relating to individualized programming in language arts and number skills: firstly how teachers establish a base line from which to develop programmes for children who are new to their classes: secondly the extent of assistance in programming received by teachers from external sources. Replies received by the writer suggest that, in assessing the educational needs of their pupils, teachers rely principally on self-designed tests and use virtually none of the many standardized materials which are available (for a comprehensive list of these see Sampson, 1975). Teachers were asked to rank four sources of information (reports from the child's previous teacher, psychological service reports, self-devised tests of language/number skills and standardized tests of language/number skills) in

order of usefulness for the planning of language and number skills programmes for new pupils. Responses showed that teachers most frequently utilize self-made tests in planning language programmes (mean rank 2.0, \pm 1.01) followed by psychological service reports (2.2, \pm 0.90), reports from previous teachers (2.3, \pm 1.05) and lastly standardized tests of language skills (3.4, \pm 0.74). Under this last heading 6 teachers stated that they used the Burt (Rearranged) Word Reading Test, 2 the 9 basic Dolch Lists of Sight Words, and 1 each the Holdaway Informal Prose Inventory, the Progressive Aptitude Tests and the Spelling Level Tests. In planning programmes in number skills for new pupils teachers again most frequently used self-made tests (mean rank 1.4, \pm .86) followed by psychological service reports (2.4, \pm .77), reports from previous teachers (2.5, \pm .87) and lastly standardized tests (3.5, \pm .63).

Responsibility for the guidance of teachers in the area of programming rests primarily with organisers of special classes and, to a lesser degree, with educational psychologists (see page 21). Responses to question 24 of the writer's questionnaire (see appendixII) suggest a considerable variation from teacher to teacher in the amount of assistance received from these two sources. 16 (43%) of the 37 teachers who answered question 24 (see appendixII) saw their organiser of special classes either not at all or only rarely for assistance with

programming. Of these 16, 2 were new to special class teaching with 7 months' and 10 months' experience respectively during which time neither had received a visit from an organiser. 4 teachers saw an organiser approximately twice a month: 1 teacher approximately once a month: 4 teachers approximately once every two months: 1 teacher approximately once every 6 months. 5 teachers saw an organiser as often as necessary: 3 whenever he could spare the time. 3 teachers commented that they had received frequent visits from an organiser in their first year of special class teaching. Only 6 (16%) of the 37 teachers received assistance in programming from an educational psychologist and only 1 of these with any degree of frequency (about once every two months).

Regular class teachers have considerable assistance from specialist teachers in a wide variety of curriculum areas but there appears to be little contact between the advisory service and special class teachers. The writer's survey showed that, of 42 teachers, 2 (4.7%) saw a reading adviser once a month, 6 (14.2%) once a year, the rest (80.9%) not at all: 1 saw a maths adviser three times a year and 1 once a year: 1 teacher saw a music adviser three times a year.

Since it is established that many children who are assigned to special education programmes have fine and gross muscle co-ordination problems (Hughes, 1973: Reger et al., 1968) and there are some educationists who argue cogently the need to build adequate psycho-motor

skills as a pre-requisite to learning (Dunn, 1968), question 23 (see appendix II) was concerned with the number of teachers of those surveyed who organized programmes of training based on the individual psychomotor needs of pupils and distinct from physical education programmes. 20 of the 44 respondents (45%) replied affirmatively.

- Integration of special class and regular class pupils

Question 26 of the writer's questionnaire (see appendix II) was designed to explore the extent to which the policy of integration of special class and regular class children advocated by the Department of Education (see page 22) is implemented within primary and intermediate schools. Out of a total of 44 classes 2 classes (2.5%) did not participate with regular classes in any area of the curriculum and 7 classes (15.9%) participated in only one area (6 in sports and 1 in club activities). Figure 9 indicates the extent of participation in the areas named in the questionnaire on a class basis and figure 10 illustrates the extent of participation in terms of numbers of children involved. The areas of contact most frequently mentioned under the heading "other" were cultural clubs followed by religious instruction, assembly, physical education and home room and finally films and science. It is readily apparent from a perusal of figures 9 and 10 that a policy of integration is pursued both more extensively and intensively in the "non-academic" areas

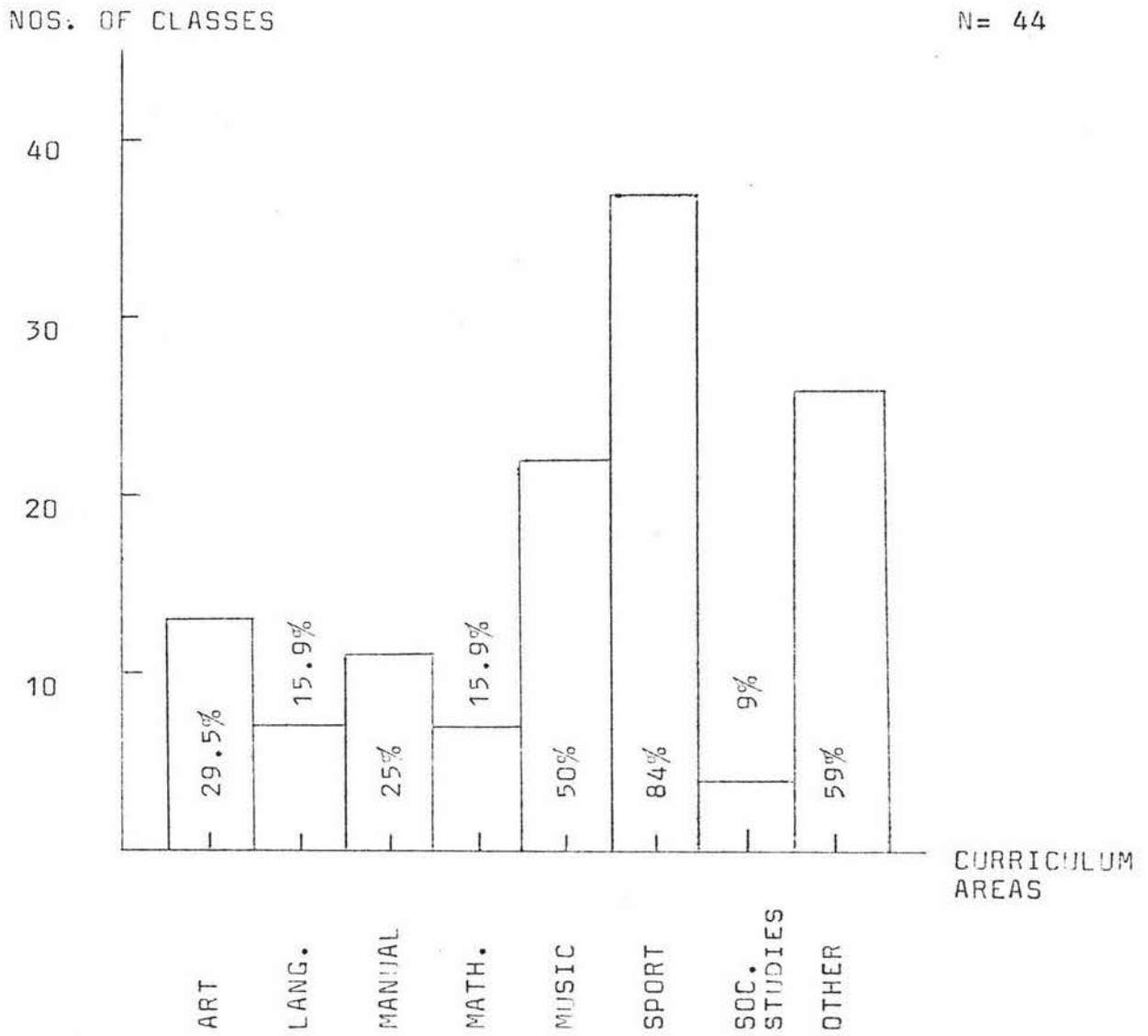


FIGURE 9 : Numbers of special classes for backward children engaging in integrated activities with regular classes in various areas of the curriculum

PERCENTAGE PARTICIPATION

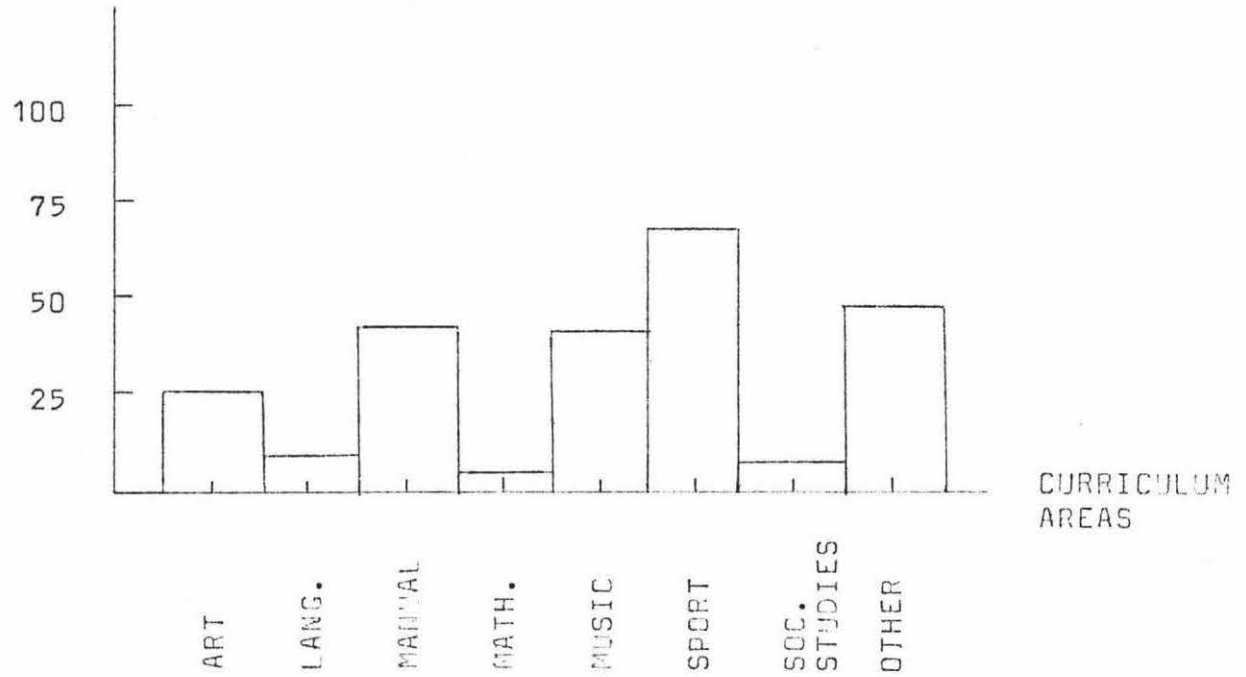


FIGURE 10: Numbers of special class children engaging in integrated activities with regular class children in various areas of the curriculum

of the curriculum subsumed under the headings art, music, sport and "other".

- Parent/school contacts

What is the extent of contact between parents and teachers of special class children in New Zealand and what opportunities exist for parental participation in school programmes?

41 teachers of 437 children said that they had been unable to make contact with the parents of only 38 (8.6%) of those children. 3 teachers out of 44 (6%) arranged no formal meetings with parents for discussing the progress of pupils but preferred to rely on telephone conversations, letters and home visits. One of these teachers commented that her pupils tended to live at some distance from the school (see page 76) and that parents had virtually no access to private or public transport. 13 teachers (29%) arranged parent-teacher meetings once a year and 13 teachers twice a year. 15 teachers (34%) organized formal parent-teacher meetings more than twice a year. 36 out of 43 teachers (83%) said that they themselves initiated contact with parents who failed to attend pre-arranged meetings and the rest did so as the need arose. It seems, therefore, that most parents have some contact with their children's teachers and that approximately one third of teachers pre-arrange frequent meetings.

Question 29 (see appendix II) was concerned with

the nature of parental participation. 9 teachers (24%) from a total of 37 said that parents were encouraged to participate in sporting activities by helping with transport (3 teachers), attending school sports' days and helping with swimming (2 teachers each), coaching netball and assisting at gymnastics (1 teacher each). 5 teachers (13%) sought parental assistance in hearing reading assignments and assisting generally with homework. 1 teacher had enlisted a parent to coach pupils in mathematics. 25 teachers (64%) sought parental involvement in social activities, mostly in the form of providing transport and supervision for class outings (15 teachers). 3 teachers referred to parental participation in the teaching of dancing, floral arranging, crafts and charm classes. Parental attendance at Christmas parties, gala days, class teas and end of term functions was listed by 8 teachers. Under the heading "other" teachers included help with transport (7 teachers), planning and supervision of camping (3 teachers), teaching crafts (2 teachers).

Some of the problems encountered by teachers were referred to in additional comments. 2 teachers said that they had outlined methods by which parents might improve their children's social skills but 1 doubted that they were being applied with more than two children and the other was appreciative of the difficulty parents experienced in changing their child-rearing practices although they were often "desperately seeking help".

1 teacher rarely asked for parental help because she found that this disturbed her pupils. 1 teacher referred to the fact that many children came from some distance away and thus it was difficult to enlist parental participation. 1 said that the one Pakeha parent associated with her class was also the only one who had a car for transporting children. 1 referred to parental reluctance (because of shyness) to attend functions such as P.T.A. meetings.

- Specialist services

Categories of personnel principally responsible for offering specialist services to the special class teacher and child have been listed elsewhere (see page 20). In her questionnaire the writer was concerned with assessing the extent to which these services are available.

- Organisers of special classes and educational psychologists

Organisers of special classes have a variety of roles to fulfill (see page 22). One of the most important of these within the current system of special education in New Zealand involves the psychological assessment of children nominated for special class placement, their re-assessment within time limits established by the Department of Education and the writing of psychological reports based on the findings of the assessments. The writer attempted to assess the extent to which organisers are able to meet this commitment and found that, of 455 pupils for whom data were available, 105 (23%) were last

assessed in 1976, 139 (30%) in 1975, 90 (19%) in 1974 and 106 (23%) before 1974. Almost one quarter, therefore, of the pupils surveyed had spent over two years in special classes without re-assessment to confirm the suitability of their placement.

Psychological reports are intended to outline the reasons for admitting a pupil to or retaining him in a special class and also to recommend appropriate teaching programmes (Department of Education, 1960 and 1967). Question 35 of the writer's questionnaire (see appendix II) aimed to discover for which purposes teachers found these reports helpful. 41 teachers answered this question and, of these, 24 (58%) found psychological reports most helpful for understanding the social and emotional needs of pupils: 17 (41%) for understanding the intellectual strengths and weaknesses of pupils: 6 (14%) for formulating individualized programmes for pupils. Conversely 25 teachers (60%) found psychological reports least helpful in terms of formulating individualized programmes: 7 (17%) for understanding the social and emotional needs of pupils: 3 (7%) for understanding pupils' intellectual strengths and weaknesses. Under the heading "other" 4 teachers (9%) said that they found psychological reports most helpful in providing information on pupils' home backgrounds: 1 for seeing what psychologists do! 3 teachers commented that they acquired few new insights from psychological reports.

The writer explored the extent of contact between organisers and teachers for the purpose of discussing the needs of individual pupils and found that, out of 40 teachers, 21 (52%) saw an organiser once every two months or more often, 6 (15%) approximately once every six months, 4 (10%) once a year, 2 (5%) not at all and 5 (12%) on a flexible basis. 10 teachers (25%) said that they would like more frequent contact with their organiser.

As acknowledged previously (see page 23), there is some degree of overlap between the roles of organisers of special classes and educational psychologists in New Zealand. What is the extent of contact between the latter and special class teachers? 24 (60%) of 40 teachers surveyed received visits from an educational psychologist, 8 (20%) approximately once every two months, 9 (22%) once every six months, 3 (7%) once a year and the rest on an un-scheduled basis. 6 teachers said that they would like more frequent contacts with an educational psychologist.

- Speech therapists

Questions 19 and 20 of the writer's questionnaire concerned the extent and nature of services provided by New Zealand's speech therapists to special class children (see appendix II). Out of a total population of 460 special class children for whom data were given, only 39 (8%) were receiving regular speech therapy. 4 teachers of the 42 who answered question 19 concerning the availability of

speech therapy commented that it was extremely difficult to obtain therapy for children with low measured I.Q.s. 5 more teachers added that they consistently referred children who were subsequently assessed but then received no further help. One teacher appended to her questionnaire the following comment which sums up well the apparent predicament of the special class teacher in this context: "There is a real gap here. As teachers we need help and faults etc. need expert advice. Because we have small classes the feeling is we can manage ..." 12 teachers said that they were required to give supplementary instruction in the classroom to children receiving speech therapy and 18 teachers were not required to do so.

- Visiting teachers

The visiting teacher has an important social work role to perform within the school system (see page 24) however there appears to be relatively little contact between visiting teachers and special class teachers and pupils even though it is readily acknowledged in the relevant literature that the latter are likely to be suffering from a "wide range of social pathologies and difficulties over and above low intelligence or learning difficulties" (Mittler, 1973, page 6). Of the 40 teachers who answered question 32 of the writer's questionnaire (see appendix I) 15 (37%) have no contact with a visiting teacher, 4 (10%) see a visiting teacher as often as necessary, 9 (22%) once every two months or more often, 4 (10%) once every six

months, and 2 (5%) once a year.

Question 36 of the questionnaire (see appendix II) was concerned with the extent to which a team approach is implemented in the provision of special services to backward children. Teachers were asked whether group meetings were held with all school staff and specialists who had contacts with special class pupils. 40 teachers replied of whom 9 (22%) said that group discussions were held about every special class pupil: 4 teachers (10%) said that these occurred in the case of "difficult" pupils: 27 (67%) stated that there were no such discussions in their schools.

An indication of the importance which special class teachers attach to the services of specialists is provided by the answers given to question 37 of the questionnaire (see appendix II) which asked respondents to rank six alternative choices in order of importance. The alternative defined as "more contact with specialist resource services" was ranked equal first with "improved attitudes toward the special class concept among regular class teachers" (see page 52).

- Teacher attitudes to the special class concept

Question 38 was added to the questionnaire to explore teacher attitudes to various educational arrangements for backward children. 43 teachers responded to this question of whom the majority, 21 (48%), were in favour of full-time attendance in special classes with

6 of these adding that special class children should have opportunities to participate with regular class pupils in cultural and social activities. 17 teachers (39%) favoured part-time special class/regular class attendance: 5 (11%) favoured full-time regular class attendance with support from specialist personnel: 2 teachers (4%) favoured special schools for some backward children*. However 21 teachers (48%) qualified their choices with comments suggesting that no one option can fit the needs of all backward children and that a variety of arrangements is necessary to cater for the wide variety of needs exhibited by these pupils.

*2 teachers gave two preferred choices thus the total number of responses is 45 rather than 43

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF SURVEY FINDINGS

- Special class pupils - ethnic origins

The results of this survey suggest that Maoris are more numerous among the ranks of special class pupils than would be anticipated from their numbers in the general population (see page 44). It is difficult, however, to assess the extent to which they are over-represented because of two complicating factors. Firstly the Maori birth rate, estimated at 4% per annum during the 1960s (Watson, 1967), is approximately twice that of the rest of the New Zealand population (Vetge, 1973), thus the number of Maoris of school age is also proportionately greater. On the other hand, it is estimated that 50% of Maoris still live in small rural communities where there is often no special class available (Department of Education, 1973) which means that the number of Maori children who are potential candidates for special class placement is reduced.

Possible reasons for the disproportionate numbers of Maoris in special classes for backward children are similar to those which have been documented in relation to special class pupils of minority ethnic status in other countries (see page 29). The Maori child is usually different from his Pakeha peers in terms of culture, language and socio-economic status (Watson, 1967: Vellekoop,

1973). Since the New Zealand public school system is shaped by the needs, values and aspirations of the dominant cultural group (Watson, 1967; Bates, 1973; Harker, 1973; Nightingale, 1973), it is not surprising to find that Maori children achieve poorly within that system (Department of Education, 1973), particularly in the area of language arts (N.Z.C.E.R., 1961; Watson, 1967). One must suppose, therefore, that the proportion of Maori children who are candidates for special class placement is greater than would be expected from their numbers within the school system. Furthermore the evaluation process through which pupils are selected for special class placement (see page 14) is also disadvantageous to Maori children in that it involves personal contact in an unfamiliar context with a previously unknown professional person administering tests of intellectual and personality functioning which are highly verbal in content and based on the school and life experiences of Pakehas (see page 29).

- Special class pupils - socio-economic status

Harker (1973) begins his study of social class factors in the New Zealand school system with the following comment: "It is part of the mythology of New Zealand society and of the New Zealand educational system that it is classless" (page 299). Only in recent years has an awareness developed among New Zealand educationists of the nature and extent of disadvantage

among New Zealand school children through studies such as that reported in the journal of the New Zealand Post Primary Teachers' Association (1972) of disadvantaged and deprived children in the Waikato, King Country and Thames Valley areas. Mitchell (1970) estimated that approximately 2-2,500 children were in special classes because they were from homes which failed to transmit "the cultural patterns, experiences, values and verbal skills conducive to optimal development and necessary for competence in the types of learning characteristic of middle-class oriented schools and the larger society" (page 185).

The results of the writer's survey showed that 70.2% of the special class pupils sampled were from families belonging to the three lowest socio-economic groupings of the Redmond and Davies' Occupational Scale, that approximately one third were from families with five children and more and that approximately one quarter had one or more siblings with special class experience. One consequence noted by the writer of this preponderance of pupils of low socio-economic status in special classes has been the appearance of a marked class bias in materials currently being developed for use with special class pupils (as an example see those produced by members of the 1974 national in-service training course for use with work experience classes), a trend which could, in turn, ensure a continuation of the status quo in the

selection of pupils for special class placement.

- Male-female ratios in special classes

The ratio of boys to girls in New Zealand special classes found by the writer (see page 42) is virtually the same as that observed in New Zealand by Winterbourn in 1944 and also mirrors ratios found in other countries. The reasons listed by researchers to account for this situation in other countries (see page 31) appear to the writer to be valid also for New Zealand.

A disturbing dimension is added to the facts outlined here by data from the writer's survey which relate to the length of time pupils remain in special classes once assigned there. In spite of statements to the contrary by members of the Department of Education (see page 15), it seems that placement in a special class represents a final step for the majority of pupils since a mere 6.8% of the total number of pupils taught by respondent teachers in 1975 were returned to full-time placement in a regular class. Moreover approximately one third of all the special class pupils surveyed had spent more than three years in the special class system and almost one quarter of the total number had not been reassessed by a member of the psychological service within the previous two years. These facts imply that special classes fulfill what is essentially a holding function rather than a therapeutic one and that they represent for backward pupils what might be termed an educational "point of no return".

- Special class teachers

The composite picture of the special class teacher which emerges from the writer's survey data is of a woman, under 36, trained for and experienced in regular class teaching but with virtually no pre-service training in the teaching of backward children and relatively brief practical experience in special class teaching. What factors have helped create this situation?

In spite of repeated requests for the establishment of full-time training courses for teachers of backward children from various sources through the years (Winterbourn, 1944: the N.Z.E.I., 1970: Havill, 1971: Sutch, 1972: Boyd and Panckhurst, 1974), it was not until 1974 that the one year course for primary and secondary school teachers referred to earlier (see page 16) was established at Christchurch Teachers' College. It seems, in fact, that there has been a traditional reluctance in New Zealand to establish specialist courses for teachers (Watson, 1967) based on the premise that: "the best possible foundation for work with handicapped children is laid in the ordinary teachers' training course" (New Zealand Official Yearbook, 1975, page 12). It is difficult to see how this claim can be justified when Havill (1975, page 20) could conclude, after surveying courses offered at primary and secondary teachers' colleges throughout New Zealand, that "while there is probably a commitment to

catering for individual differences, which results in a positive attitude, most colleges do little to fit their students to cope with the immediate demands of educationally handicapped children". The implications of this conclusion are disquieting when considered in the context of data gathered by the writer on in-service training for special class teachers. These data show clearly that the majority of teachers have access only to very brief in-service training which can in no way be considered an adequate substitute for full-time pre-service training. Furthermore, while the training provided in national in-service courses is indisputably of high quality, it is necessarily difficult to control the quality of the local in-service training courses which provide the only regular training for the majority of special class teachers.

The marked preponderance of women among the special class teachers surveyed (see page 49) reflects, most likely, the degree of difficulty traditionally experienced in recruiting and retaining career teachers in the field of special education in New Zealand. The reasons for this are numerous and varied. For example, the long-standing lack of adequate pre-service training programmes (see pages 16 and 71) must mean that criteria for selecting special class teachers are somewhat intangible, as illustrated by the vague terminology used in advertisements for special class teachers: for

example:" Applicants will need to have a sympathetic interest in backward children" (the Education Gazette, Volume 55, Number 8, 1976). Moreover, although various incentives are available to special class teachers (see page 18), there are currently few opportunities for advancement in the field. There seems, in fact, to be a certain ambivalence toward this concept among educational planners in New Zealand as illustrated by the fact that the Currie Commission on Education (1962) could acknowledge on the one hand that lack of sufficient promotional prospects seems to lead to difficulty in staffing special schools and classes and yet conclude that:" The Commission does not wish, however, to build a career structure for any great number of teachers in these services since movement between classes of normal and handicapped children can be good for a teacher" (page 465 of the report). The tenability of this position seems doubtful during a decade which saw the numbers of special class teachers increase from 101 (in 1961) to 277 (in 1970), an increase of 174% (Panckhurst, 1972).

A further source of frustration to special class teachers is suggested by answers received to question 37 of the writer's questionnaire (see page 50) which imply that they experience a sense of professional isolation in relation both to regular class teachers and to the specialist resource services upon which they are reliant, partly because of their own lack of training

and partly because of the problems endemic to this kind of teaching.

- Curriculum

It is apparent from these survey findings that the Handbook of Suggestions for Special Class Teachers which, as recently as 1975 (see page 52), was quoted by the Department of Education as a source of "detailed guidance on programmes of work" is not so viewed by teachers. An examination of its contents indicates why. Although the need to cater for individual differences is acknowledged in the Handbook, curriculum adaptation is equated essentially with simplification and concretization. Moreover the Handbook is replete with comments which serve to reinforce a stereotyped view of the backward pupil. For example, we read that ".... special classes must be content to try to establish good social attitudes and must leave more detailed understanding of such matters (the duties of citizens) until they arise in later life" (page 14): "most special class children do not show much desire to use these media (chalk, crayon, thick powder paint) and should not be pressed to do so" (page 19): "we know little about the fantasy life of special class children, but it seems unlikely that their fantasy is particularly rich" (page 24): "it is not thought advisable that special class children should attempt to learn music notation and time names" (page 30). If Handbooks are to provide the "interpretative and practical guidance"

visualized by members of the Currie Commission on Education in New Zealand (1962, page 273), then it is essential that they be frequently revised so as to reflect contemporary educational principles and practices.

A perusal of the mean ranks assigned to the seven sources of curriculum ideas listed in question 22 of the questionnaire (see page 52) suggests that special class teachers derive their ideas of what to teach and how mainly from practical experience gained in regular classrooms. It is interesting to note also, in the light of earlier discussion of training opportunities for special class teachers (see page 71), that, apart from the miscellaneous factors grouped under "other", previous training is ranked last as a useful source of curriculum ideas.

The data presented in this thesis which relate to methods by which the programming needs of pupils are assessed (see page 53), while only providing a glimpse of what is actually occurring in the classroom, do serve to underline the fact that teachers rely primarily on self-devised tests, which must, in turn, mean a considerable variation in assessment practices from classroom to classroom. Few teachers were found to use any standardized materials as a basis for assessing the individual needs of pupils, probably because they mainly lack the requisite training for the administration and interpretation of such materials.

Although, in theory, special class teachers receive assistance from a variety of sources in catering for the individual needs of their pupils, in practice this is available mainly from organisers of special classes (see page 54) and only infrequently for the majority of teachers.

- Training for social and personal growth

The following disadvantages for pupils of special class placement are acknowledged in the relevant New Zealand literature: the stigma attached to the label "backward" (Organisers, Wanganui Education Board, no date): problems attendant on being grouped with others who are also socially and/or emotionally deviant (Smart and Wilton, 1975): the isolation from neighbourhood peers which occurs when special class placement entails travelling some distance to school, as often happens in New Zealand (Ross, 1972): problems involved in having to adjust, ultimately, to life outside the sheltered environment of the special class (Thompson, 1968). It is readily apparent that all these factors have the potential to add to whatever social and/or emotional problems the special class pupil may already have. Thus one would expect to find, from a study of special class programmes, incontestable evidence that they are designed to promote the social and emotional growth of pupils to a degree which will amply compensate for the disadvantages outlined above. A perusal of material available for the

guidance of teachers shows, however, that there are virtually no practical suggestions for helping pupils in these areas, it being apparently assumed that the fact of being in a small class (see page 42) with one teacher for several successive years is therapeutic in itself. There are surprisingly few references, for example, to behaviour modification techniques which have proven both practical and successful in the classroom in eliminating certain kinds of undesirable behaviour patterns and/or establishing desirable ones. Archer (1974) has suggested that there is considerable prejudice in New Zealand against the use of behaviour modification techniques, prejudice which could be eroded, at least in part, by official sanction for them in pre and in-service courses and teacher guides.

Data relating to the integration of special class and regular class pupils show clearly that this is pursued primarily in the "non-academic" areas of the curriculum (see page 56), presumably on the assumption that backward children function more closely to the norm in these areas. However this assumption would seem untenable for those children who are placed in special classes because of what is viewed in the school context as social and personal maladjustment. Moreover research findings indicate that mean scores of educable mentally retarded children in special classes in various tests of motor proficiency are significantly lower than those of children who score within the normal range on tests of intelligence

Francis and Parick, 1959). Thus if the meeting of individual needs through the curriculum is indeed the lodestar of special education, one would expect to see a much more even profile of integration than is apparent in figure 10 (see page 58).

A second important issue and one which is seldom mentioned in the literature concerns the quality of the contacts which occur between children from special and regular classes. "The nub of the matter seems to be that contact must reach below the surface in order to be effective in altering prejudice. Only the type of contact that leads people to do things together is likely to result in changed attitudes" (Strauch, 1970). Thus if integration is to constitute a positive learning experience for children and teachers alike, it requires careful planning and frequent consultation among those involved in its implementation.

- Parent/school contacts

Answers given by teachers to questions concerned with contacts between themselves and the parents of their pupils indicate that almost all make provision for discussing the progress of pupils and that, when parents do not attend pre-arranged meetings, teachers contact them by other means.

Responses to questions on the extent and nature of parental participation in school activities suggest that a large number of teachers seek parental involvement

in social activities, some in sporting activities and a few in the academic areas of the curriculum (see page 60). Usually, however, parents are invited to be providers of supervision and transport, and while the writer does not wish to minimize the very real problems which arise in this context, some of which were made clear in the comments which teachers appended to their questionnaires, it seems that the most important issue which arises from the above conclusion is whether such avenues for participation are appropriate for parents who are statistically more likely to belong to the lowest socio-economic groups and to be alienated from the goals of the school system. A New Zealand example of a system adapting to the needs of those whom it is designed to assist is seen in the mobile pre-schools which evolved as a partial answer to the needs of the one out of three children aged three to five who do not attend kindergarten or playcentre (see the Dominion newspaper of 1:7:1976). The mobile pre-schools aim to reach mainly the many new immigrants to New Zealand who, for various reasons, do not avail themselves of existing pre-school opportunities for their children. Surely the very criteria which require that certain children be taught in special classes also require that innovative practices be instituted in the area of school-parent relationships.

- Specialist services
- Organisers of special classes

The list of duties required of organisers of special classes (see page 22) is a formidable one and defines a role which is obviously crucial to the successful functioning of special classes. It is thus somewhat disquieting to find that most organisers have no special training and/or experience to prepare them for this role. It seems unrealistic, moreover, to expect 29 organisers to fulfill such diverse responsibilities for a total of approximately 5,260 children (an average of about 181 children to every organiser) and 477 teachers (18 for every organiser).

The degree of difficulty which organisers experience in meeting their professional commitments is illustrated by the fact that almost one quarter of the pupils surveyed had spent more than two years in special classes without reassessment. Indeed the writer wishes to question whether the assessment process as it is currently constituted represents the most productive use of the organisers' time. This query derives from the following observations: the child is assessed in a one-to-one situation, implying that educational problems have their origins in some atypicality peculiar to the child experiencing them rather than in the interaction between the child and one or many of a large number of variables: traditional assessment materials are used which are now acknowledged to be deficient in evaluating children who are different from their peers in terms of

ethnic background and/or socio-economic status (see page 29): aetiology, diagnosis and classification appear to provide the foci of the assessment process rather than the child's educational needs, resulting in what Reger et al. (1968) have termed "after the fact labelling as a sanction for administrative action" (page 16). In evaluating the usefulness of the psychological reports which are the product of the assessment process, the majority of teachers said that they found them most useful for understanding the social/emotional needs of pupils and least helpful for formulating individualized programmes for pupils (see page 62). One might ask whether organisers of special classes, whose contacts with each child are necessarily limited, can indeed provide greater insight into a child's level of social and emotional functioning than those who work with him daily.

Data gathered by the writer relating to the extent of personal contacts between organisers and teachers indicate that 32% of teachers meet with an organiser once every six months or less often. While these figures cannot, of course, reflect the quality of such contacts, they would seem to be disturbing in view of the important in-service training function assigned to organisers (see page 22).

It is the writer's opinion that, since the organisers' role is crucial to the adequate functioning of special classes for backward children as they are

currently organized, there is an urgent need to re-evaluate and possibly re-order the priorities of that role and also to formulate an appropriate training programme. This would appear to be an opportune time to do so since a re-organization of the psychological service is imminent (personal communication, J. Codd, February, 1977).

- Speech therapists

Data relating to speech therapy services show clearly that few special class children receive on-going professional assistance from this source in spite of the efforts of their teachers to obtain it for them. It is likely that special class teachers are expected to provide some kind of therapy themselves since class sizes are small, however it is difficult to comprehend the possible basis for such an expectation since the majority of special class teachers have no training in this area.

- Visiting teachers

Contrary to what might be expected from an outline of the role of the visiting teacher (see page 24), almost 50% of special class teachers have no contact with the service (see page 64). This is partly explicable by the fact that there are only 49 visiting teachers to service the entire school population. Davis (1972) claims that there is, in practice, a general misunderstanding of the role of the visiting teacher who is often viewed as an attendance and welfare officer and that this fact,

together with limited career prospects and lack of specific training, has discouraged teachers from entering the field. It was recommended to the Educational Development Conference (Boyd and Panckhurst, 1974) that there be a re-assessment of the role and training requirements of visiting teachers. Should this eventuate, the very real needs of the backward child in this area would, hopefully, be taken into account.

- Conclusions

The data accumulated in this thesis indicate that classes for backward children in New Zealand's primary and intermediate schools cannot truly be termed "special". Few special class teachers are trained specifically for their roles: there is little evidence that the special class curriculum is indeed special in any way: while home/school contacts do occur, they are not essentially different in character from what might be observed within the regular school system: many specialist personnel are inadequately trained and/or too few in numbers to perform the services required of them. Moreover special classes have served for many children as additional evidence of their inferior status within New Zealand society.

If special classes are to be retained as the preferred method of educating those backward children who are deemed in need of special educational treatment, then integrity demands that changes be made to remedy the many deficiencies noted in the preceding pages, changes

which will ensure that special classes function as something more than holding areas for children excluded from placement in the educational mainstream. Many useful recommendations for change have already been made by New Zealand educationists such as Havill (1971 and 1975): Milne (1972): Panckhurst (1972): Sutch (1972): Boyd and Panckhurst (1974).

Currently, however, there is a realization in other countries, and increasingly in New Zealand, that there is no clear demarcation between children with special educational needs and those without and that the prevailing system of segregating certain children for special education means that the special needs of others remain unmet (Kauppi, 1969: N.Z.E.I., 1970: Havill, 1971: Codd, 1975: Yule, 1975). One possible solution to this problem would see the phasing out of special classes for all but the most severely handicapped children and the establishment in their place of resource centres staffed by a variety of specialists and open to any child with special needs not readily met in the regular classroom (Dunn, 1968: Codd, 1975: Lance, 1975: Reynolds, 1975). There is as yet, however, no general consensus on the optimum method for implementing the resource room concept and as yet little evidence from research studies to prove the practical superiority of such a system over others.

Whichever of these paths is ultimately pursued

within New Zealand schools- the upgrading of the traditional system or the selection and implementation of another- it must surely be acknowledged by all who are involved in any way in the change process that there is an equally pressing need to remedy whatever educational and social injustices are shown to contribute to the retardation of intellectual growth in New Zealand's children.

APPENDIX I

Dear Special Class Teacher,

I am currently engaged in researching some aspects of the education of backward children at primary and intermediate schools throughout New Zealand and need to obtain certain information to which you, as a special class teacher, most readily have access. I am thus asking you to complete the attached questionnaire which is concerned with the following data:

- 1) demographic data on special class teachers
- 2) demographic data on special class pupils
- 3) data on the special class curriculum
- 4) data on home-school contact
- 5) data on specialist services and the special class teacher.

The information you provide will, of course, be treated as confidential and will be analysed with a view to obtaining an overall picture of this area in which there has been little research done since that of R. Winterbourn during the 1940s.

I trust that my findings will be of interest to both administrators and practitioners in the field and, with this end in view, shall be presenting a report, as requested, to Mr. K.A. Milne and his associates at the Department of Education, Wellington.

As soon as you have completed the questionnaire, would you please return it to me forthwith in the attached stamped and addressed envelope,

Appreciatively yours,

M. Glass.

If you have any comments which you wish to make, please feel free to append them to the questionnaire.

APPENDIX II

Page 1

NUMBER:

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS OF SPECIAL CLASSES FOR
BACKWARD CHILDREN IN PRIMARY AND INTERMEDIATE SCHOOLS

Please place a tick in the brackets beside the answer of your choice or write your answer in the space provided. Where you are required to rank alternatives, use number 1 to denote your preferred choice, number 2 your second, etc.

1. Sex: () Male () Female

2. Age: () Under 20 () 41-45

() 21-25 () 46-50

() 26-30 () 51-55

() 31-35 () 56+

() 36-40

3. Teacher qualification:

() Trained Teacher's Certificate

() Diploma in Teaching

() Advanced Diploma in Teaching

() Other (please specify)

4. Number of years of teacher training:

() Nil

() 1 year

() 2 years

() 3 years

() More than 3 years

5. Academic qualifications (if you have a degree, please state your major/majors in the space provided):

() Undergraduate Diploma in Education

() Bachelor's Degree _____

() Honours Bachelor's Degree (4 years) _____

() Master's Degree _____

(list continued on the following page)

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() Postgraduate Diploma in Education

() Other (please specify)

6. Number of years of teaching experience prior to the current school year: _____

7. Number of years teaching special classes for backward children prior to the current school year: _____

8. For how long have you held your current teaching position? _____

9. In-service training:

() National 5 week training course
(please state year of attendance)

() Local in-service training course
(please state how many of these you attended last year and estimate the total number of days involved during that year)

10. Number, sex and ethnic origins of pupils in your class:

ETHNIC GROUP	NO. OF BOYS	NO. OF GIRLS
European		
Maori		
Pacific Islander		
Chinese		
Indian		
Other		

11. Distribution of pupil I.Q.s

I.Q. RANGE	NUMBER OF PUPILS
40-49	
50-59	
60-69	
70-79	
80+	

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- 12 Grouping of pupils according to the occupation of the principal parental wage earner:

<u>PARENT'S OCCUPATION</u>	<u>NUMBER OF PUPILS</u>
Higher professional and administrative work	
Lower professional, technical and executive work	
Clerical and highly skilled work	
Skilled work	
Semi-skilled, repetitive work	
Unskilled, repetitive work	
Miscellaneous (e.g. deceased, unemployed etc.)	

(from Redmond and Davies' Socio-Economic classification)

13. How many of your pupils are from families with:

	<u>NUMBER OF PUPILS</u>
2 children or fewer	
3 or 4 children	
5 or 6 children	
7 or 8 children	
9 or more children	

14. How many of your pupils have brothers and/or sisters who are currently attending or have attended special classes for backward children?

	<u>NUMBER OF PUPILS</u>
1 sibling	
2 siblings	
3 siblings	
4 or more siblings	

15. Total length of pupil attendance in special classes for backward children:

<u>LENGTH OF ATTENDANCE</u>	<u>NUMBER OF PUPILS</u>
Less than 1 year	
1-2 years	
2-3 years	
3-4 years	
4-5 years	

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16. If you were teaching in a special class for backward children in the 1975 school year, please state how many of your pupils were returned to full-time placement in a regular class during or at the end of that year _____ and also the total number of pupils in that class _____ .

17. Rank the following in the order of their usefulness to you in planning a LANGUAGE programme for new pupils. Omit any categories which you do not use:

- () Reports from the child's previous teacher
- () Psychological Service reports
- () Tests of language skills which you have devised yourself
- () Standardised tests of language skills (please give the title of each one)

18. How many of your pupils receive individual reading instruction from you or another teacher and approximately how often?

	<u>NUMBER OF PUPILS</u>
5 times a week or more	
4 times a week	
3 times a week	
2 times a week	
Once a week	

19. How many of your pupils are seen by a speech therapist and how often?

	<u>NUMBER OF PUPILS</u>
Once a week	
Once a month	
Other (please specify)	

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20. Does the speech therapist require you to give supplementary instruction in the classroom to children who are receiving therapy?

() Yes () No

() Other (please state)

21. Rank the following in the order of their usefulness to you in planning a programme in NUMBER SKILLS for new pupils. Omit any categories which you do not use:

() Reports from the child's previous teacher

() Psychological Service reports

() Tests of number skills which you have devised yourself

() Standardised tests of number skills (please give the title of each one)

() Other (please specify)

22. Rank the following sources of curriculum ideas in the order of their usefulness to you. Omit any categories which you do not use:

() Previous teaching experience in regular classes

() Previous teaching experience in special classes

() The "Handbook of Suggestions for Special Class Teachers"

() Books and journals

() In-service courses

() Previous training

() Other (please specify)

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23. Do you have a programme of training in motor skills based on the individual needs of pupils and distinct from the physical education programme?
 Yes No
24. Approximately how often do you call on the services of the following members of the Psychological Service for assistance with programming?
 Educational psychologist _____
 Organiser of Special Classes _____
25. What is the total length of the school day (excluding the lunch break)? _____
26. Approximately how many hours per week do your pupils spend WITH REGULAR CLASS PUPILS in the following activities:
- | ACTIVITY | NO. OF YOUR PUPILS INVOLVED | NO. OF HOURS PER WEEK |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------|
| Art work | | |
| Language arts | | |
| Manual work | | |
| Mathematics | | |
| Music | | |
| Organised sports | | |
| Social studies | | |
| Other (please specify) | | |
27. Compared with pupils of the same age in regular classes do your pupils have:
- Many more school outings
 More school outings
 About as many school outings
 Fewer school outings

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28. Indicate the number of times per year that you organise the opportunity for formal contact between yourself and parents to discuss the progress of individual pupils:

() Not at all
 () Once a year
 () Twice a year
 () More than twice a year (please
 state approximately how often)

29. In which of the following areas do you obtain the participation of parents? Please outline briefly the nature of this participation:

ASPECT OF PROGRAMME	NATURE OF PARTICIPATION
Sporting	_____
Academic	_____
Social	_____
Other (please specify)	_____

30. Do you initiate contact with parents who do not attend pre-arranged parent-teacher meetings?

() Yes () No
 () Other (please specify)

31. How many children are there in your class with whose parents you have never been able to make contact? _____

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32. With which of the following do you meet for the purpose of discussing the needs of individual pupils and approximately how often?

	ONCE A MONTH	ONCE EVERY 6 MONTHS	ONCE A YEAR	NEVER
Speech therapist				
Reading adviser				
Organiser of special classes				
Psychologist				
Visiting teacher				
Other (please specify)				

33. Which of the above would you like to see more often?
-

34. How many of your pupils were last assessed by a member of the Psychological Service:

NUMBER OF PUPILS

This year	
In 1975	
In 1974	
In 1973	
Before 1973	

35. For which ONE of the following purposes have you found psychological reports MOST helpful (please tick) and LEAST helpful (please cross thus x):
- () Understanding the intellectual strengths and weaknesses of pupils
- () Understanding the social and emotional needs of pupils
- () Formulating individualised programmes for pupils
- () Other (please specify) _____
-

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36. Do you have group meetings with all school staff and specialists who have contact with the pupils in your class?
- () Not at all
- () In the case of "difficult" pupils
- () In the case of most pupils
- () In the case of all pupils
37. Rank the following in the order of their importance for you as a special class teacher:
- () Improved attitudes toward the special class concept among regular class teachers
- () More assistance with individual programming
- () More resource materials
- () More contact with specialist resource services
- () Increased training opportunities (please specify) _____
-
- () Other (please specify) _____
-
38. Which ONE of the following approaches to the education of backward children do you favour?
- () Full-time regular class attendance
- () Full-time regular class attendance with support from specialist personnel
- () Part-time special class/regular class attendance
- () Full-time special class attendance
- () Special schools
- () Other (please state) _____
-

APPENDIX III

1. Male: 6
Female: 37
No answer: 1
2.

-20	21-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50	51-55	56+	N.A.
0	3	7	11	7	2	6	5	1	2
3. Trained teacher's certificate: 41
Diploma in teaching: 3
Advanced diploma in teaching: 0
Other: 11
(Listed under "other" were qualifications in the following fields: education of the deaf, 2: speech therapy, 1: music, speech and drama, 1: the teaching of the handicapped, 4: kindergarten teaching, 1: advanced first aid certificate and Rotary youth leadership award, 1: remedial reading, 1)
4. Nil: 0
1 year: 2
2 years: 20
3 years: 14
3+ years: 8
5. Undergraduate diploma in education: 2
Bachelor's degree: 2 (majors- professional education/ geography and geography)
Honours bachelor's degree: 0
Master's degree: 0
Postgraduate diploma in education: 0
Other: 2 (L.T.C.L. speech and drama: units for N.Z.A.H. per.)
6. 3 years: 1
4 years: 4
5 years: 4
6 years: 4

7 years: 2
 8 years: 6
 9 years: 1
 10 years: 3
 11 years: 2
 12 years: 3
 13 years: 4
 14 years: 1
 15 years: 1
 16 years: 2
 18 years: 1
 20 years: 2
 23 years: 1
 26 years: 1
 27 years: 1

7. -1YR. 1YR. 2YRS. 3YRS. 4 YRS. 5YRS. 6YRS. 10YRS. 12YRS.
6 8 7 6 5 5 2 3 1
13YRS.
1

8. -1YR. 1YR. 2YRS. 3YRS. 4YRS. 5YRS. 6YRS. 10YRS. 13YRS. N.A.
5 15 11 4 3 1 2 1 1 1

9. National in-service training:
1964 1967 1968 1971 1973 1975 1976
1 1 1 1 2 5 2

Local in-service training:
1DAY 3DAYS 4DAYS 5DAYS 6DAYS 7DAYS 8DAYS 9DAYS 13DAYS
1 8 3 11 1 1 1 1 1

10. Boys: 305
 Girls: 182
 European: 336
 Maori: 140
 Pacific Islander: 7
 Chinese: 2
 Indian: 0
 Other: 2

11.	<u>40-49</u>	<u>50-59</u>	<u>60-69</u>	<u>70-79</u>	<u>80+</u>
	14	80	189	125	20
12.	Higher professional and administrative work: 11				
	Lower professional, technical and executive work: 21				
	Clerical and highly skilled work: 24				
	Skilled work: 81				
	Semi-skilled, repetitive work: 110				
	Unskilled, repetitive work: 127				
	Miscellaneous (deceased, unemployed etc.): 86				
13.	2 children or fewer: 102				
	3 or 4 children: 165				
	5 or 6 children: 95				
	7 or 8 children: 47				
	9 or more children: 25				
14.	1 sibling: 68				
	2 siblings: 27				
	3 siblings: 9				
	4 or more siblings: 5				
15.	Less than 1 year: 100				
	1-2 years: 101				
	2-3 years: 85				
	3-4 years: 59				
	4-5 years: 58				
	5-6 years: 20				
16.	29/417				
17.	REPORTS FROM PREVIOUS TEACHER	PSYCH. REPORTS	SELF-DEvised TESTS	STANDARDISED TESTS	
	1	0	0	2	
	1	2	0	3	
	2	3	1	4	
	1	2	3	0	
	2	1	0	3	
	1	2	0	0	
	0	3	1	2	
	1	3	2	0	
	2	2	1	0	
	2	1	3	0	
	3	1	2	0	

17cont.	2	1	4	3
	2	3	1	0
	1	2	0	0
	0	2	1	0
	4	2	1	3
	0	1	2	0
	1	2	0	0
	2	1	3	0
	3	1	2	4
	1	4	2	3
	2	1	3	4
	2	3	1	0
	2	0	1	3
	2	0	1	0
	3	2	1	0
	4	2	1	3
	2	3	1	0
	4	3	1	2
	2	2	1	2
	4	2	1	3
	4	2	3	1
	0	2	1	0
	2	0	1	0
	2	3	1	0
	2	3	1	0
	0	1	2	0
	3	2	1	0
	1	2	3	0

18. 5 times a week or more: 197

4 times a week: 79

3 times a week: 89

2 times a week: 25

Once a week: 5

19. Once a week: 25

Once a month: 1

Other: 13 (3 times a week, 1

2 times a week, 5

once every two weeks, 1

once a year, 6)

20. Yes: 12

No: 18

Other: lesson plans covering weak points,
speech therapist works in with teacher's interests,
exercise booklet with reports on the specific
deficiencies of each child

21.

REPORTS FROM PREVIOUS TEACHER	PSYCH. REPORTS	SELF-DEvised TESTS	STANDARDISED TESTS
-------------------------------------	-------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

3	2	1	0
1	2	3	0
2	3	1	4
1	2	3	0
2	1	0	0
1	2	0	0
0	2	1	0
2	3	1	0
2	3	1	0
2	3	1	0
3	1	2	0
2	3	1	4
3	4	1	2
1	2	0	0
0	2	1	0
0	2	1	0
2	3	1	0
2	1	3	0
3	2	1	4
4	3	1	2
2	3	1	0
2	1	3	0
0	0	1	0
2	0	1	0
3	2	1	0
3	2	1	0
2	3	1	0
4	3	1	2
4	2	1	3
4	3	1	2
4	2	1	0
3	2	1	0
0	2	1	0
2	0	1	0
2	3	1	0
2	3	1	0
0	1	2	0
2	3	1	0
0	0	1	0
2	3	1	0
0	0	1	0

22.

TEACH. IN REG. CLASS	TEACH. IN SP. CLASS	HAND- BOOK	BOOKS ETC.	IN-SERV. TRAIN.	PREV. TRAIN.	OTHER
1	3	4	0	2	0	0
2	1	0	3	0	0	0
1	0	3	4	2	0	0
4	0	1	5	6	3	2
3	1	2	0	4	5	0
0	0	4	2	3	0	1
1	0	5	3	2	0	4
3	0	1	4	2	0	0
3	1	0	5	4	2	0
3	1	0	4	2	6	5
2	0	0	0	1	0	0
1	2	5	6	4	3	0
1	2	0	3	0	0	0
1	0	2	3	0	0	0
1	0	3	0	0	2	0
1	2	0	5	3	4	0
1	0	2	0	3	0	0
1	0	2	3	4	0	0
3	1	2	4	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	3	2	5	4	0	6
5	1	2	4	3	0	0
0	3	0	4	2	0	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	1
1	2	0	0	3	0	0
5	2	1	3	4	0	0
0	1	0	3	2	0	0
2	1	4	5	3	6	0
2.5	1	4	5	2.5	6	0
3	2	6	1	5	4	0
2	1	0	0	3	0	0
2	1	0	4	3	0	0
1	2	5	5	5	3	0
3	4	0	5	1.5	1.5	0
1	0	4	5	2	0	3
3	2	4	6	5	1	0
1	2	4	0	0	3	0
1	0	0	2	0	0	0
2	1	0	4	3	0	0
0	0	0	2	3	1	0

Other: a programme for intermediate special classes written by Auckland organisers of special classes, close contacts with the junior department, Special Classes Auckland Newsletter, play centre training, talking to other special class teachers, programmes and suggested sequences from "Maths in the Special Class", the needs of the child, having one's own family

23. Yes: 20

No: 24

24. Educational psychologist

Once every two months: 1

Once a year: 1

As necessary: 2

Whenever possible: 2

Rarely/not at all: 31

No answer: 7

Organiser of special classes

Twice a month: 4

Once a month: 1

Once every two months: 4

Once every six months: 1

As necessary: 5

Whenever possible: 3

Often during the first year of teaching: 3

Rarely/not at all: 16

No answer: 7

25. 5 hours

26. ART	LANGUAGE ARTS	MANUAL WORK	MATH.	MUSIC	ORGANISED SPORTS	SOCIAL STUDIES	OTHER
				10/10 10mins.	10/10 1hour		10/10 assembly
					6/9 1hour		
		4/12 4½hours		12/12 1hour	5/12 1hour		12/12phys.ed 1hour 5/12cult.clubs 1hour 5/12bible study ½hour 1/12developmental 5hours 4-6children from junior room join special class chil. for develop. work 4hours
2/17 2½hours 7/17 1½hours	7/17 1½hours	17/17 3½hours	3/17 3hours	2/17 1hour	17/17 1hour		17/17cultural prog. 1½hours
				10/10 ½hour	8/10 1hour		

26. ART cont	LANGUAGE ARTS	MANUAL WORK	MATH.	MUSIC	ORGANISED SPORTS	SOCIAL STUDIES	OTHER
			1/10 2hours		10/10 ½hour		10/10home rooms 1½hours
	1/11 4hours			3/11 1hour 2/11 1½hours	8/11 1hour		11/11relig. instr. ½hour
					5/9 45mins.		2/9bible study ½hour
10/10 1hour	10/10 hour			10/10 1hour	10/10 1hour	10/10 1hour	5/10clubs 1hour
		12/12 1½hours		12/12 40mins.		12/12 1hour	12/12phys.ed. 2hours
6/12 1hour				12/12 ½hour		6/12 1hour	12/12films 45mins.
7/7 1hour		7/7 1hour		7/7 1hour	6/7 1hour		7/7assembly 1hour
11/11 1½hours		11/11 1½hours		11/11 1hour	11/11 1½hours		11/11 1½hours

26. cont	ART	LANGUAGE ARTS	MANUAL WORK	MATH.	MUSIC	ORGANISED SPORTS	SOCIAL STUDIES	OTHER
						5/12 ½hour		12/12developmental 6hours
	nil	nil	nil	nil	nil	nil	nil	nil
	10/10 1½hours					9/10 1hour	10/10	
			2/9 2½hours			9/9 1hour		9/9home rooms 5hours
						4/10 1hour		
						6/10 ½hour		
						9/10 1hour		10/10bible study ½hour
	6/6 3hours		6/6 2hours		6/6 1hour	6/6 1hour		1/6spends after- noons in reg.cl.
	nil	nil	nil	nil	nil	nil	ni;	nil
		5/5 1hour			5/5 1hour			

26. cont	ART	LANGUAGE ARTS	MANUAL WORK	MATH.	MUSIC	ORGANISED SPORTS	SOCIAL STUDIES	OTHER
						12/12 2hours		
			7/10 1 $\frac{3}{4}$ hours		2/10 40mins.	10/10 1hour		10/10assembly 40mins. 10/10bible study $\frac{1}{2}$ hour 10/10clubs 1hour
	10/10 $\frac{1}{2}$ hour				10/10 $\frac{1}{2}$ hour	10/10 1hour		
						6/12 1hour		6/12clubs 1hour 6/12to junior rooms 2hours
								10/10clubs 1hour
						4/14 1hour		
	18/18 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ hours		18/18 2 $\frac{1}{4}$ hours		18/18 1hour20 mins.	18/18 1hour		18/18science 1hour20mins. 18/18phys.ed. 1hour20mins.

26. cont	ART	LANGUAGE ARTS	MANUAL WORK	MATH.	MUSIC	ORGANISED SPORTS	SOCIAL STUDIES	OTHER
					6/12 1½hours	6/12 1hour		
	8/8 1½hours				8/8 1½hours	8/8 1¼hours		
						12/13 1hour		
	5/18 1½hours			5/18 5hours	18/18 ½hour	18/18 2hours		1/18 1½hours
				2/10 5hours	10/10 ½hour	10/10 1hour		
						9/9 1hour		
					9/9 ½hour	9/9 1hour		9/9phys.ed. 1hour
						12/12 1hour		

2/10

fully

integrated-this class frequently joins another class for music and language arts

26. cont	ART	LANGUAGE ARTS	MANUAL WORK	MATH.	MUSIC	ORGANISED SPORTS	SOCIAL STUDIES	OTHER
						2/5 1hour		5/5films 1hour
				1/13 5hours		11/13 ½hour		
		15/15 1½hours 2/15 10hours		4/15 5hours		2/15 1½hours		
	10/18 1hour		2/18 1hour		3/18 1hour	11/18 1hour	1/18 1hour	5/18phys.ed. 1hour 1/18science 1hour 7/18maoritanga 1hour 18/18clubs ½hour 18/18assembly ½hour
	6/9 2hours 40mins.		6/9 2hours 40mins.					6/9clubs 4hours
		1/8 5hours			8/8 1hour			

27. Many more school outings: 15
 More school outings: 22
 About as many school outings: 7
 Fewer school outings: 0

28. Not at all: 3
 Once a year: 13
 Twice a year: 13
 Other: 15 (once a term: 5
 more than once a term: 9
 as necessary: 1)

29.	SPORTING	ACADEMIC	SOCIAL	OTHER
	-	-	-	school functions in general
	-	-	-	-
	-	-	floral arranging, dancing	transport, visits
	-	-	dancing, charm classes	hangis, knitting, weaving etc.
	transport	-	-	-
	-	-	-	transport on visits
	attending sporting activities	help with reading and written homework	parents' days, class teas, concerts	plan three day camp twice a year- send food and help with transport
	-	-	transport	-
	attending sports' days	-	gala day	-
	-	-	Christmas party	-
	this teacher had only been with his class for four weeks			
	-	-	end-of-year functions	-
	-	help with reading	transport and supervision	-

29. cont	SPORTING	ACADEMIC	SOCIAL	OTHER
-	-	-	transport, end-of-year functions	-
-	-	-	-	-
-	-	-	raising funds, supervision on trips	-
netball	-	-	transport	-
-	-	-	camping	transport
-	-	-	help with visits and end-of-year functions	-
rarely asks parents as children become disturbed				
-	-	-	attendance at teas and P.T.A. functions	-
-	-	-	-	transport
-	some help with individual study programmes	-	-	sending materials for crafts
swimming (one parent)	-	-	school social	help with camps, transport crafts club (one parent)
-	-	-	-	help on outing
-	reading and spelling at home, coaching math. (one parent)	-	-	transport
transport	-	-	outdoor ed. and day trips	-
-	-	-	outing	-
-	-	-	-	help with camps (transport cooking, supervision)

	<u>SPORTING</u>	<u>ACADEMIC</u>	<u>SOCIAL</u>	<u>OTHER</u>
29. cont	-	-	-	trips, raising money
	-	-	-	trips
	-	-	transport (one parent)	-
	-	-	-	-
	transport	-	transport and supervision	-
	-	-	morning tea	trips
	-	hearing reading	trips	-
	-	-	-	-
	help with gymnastics	-	transport	help with clubs, sewing, cooking
	this teacher was new to the job			
	-	-	trips	class meals
	coaching swimming	-	crafts	-
30.	Yes: 36			
	No: 0			
	Other: 7 (as necessary)			
	No answer: 1			
31.	38			
	No answer: 3			

32.	ONCE A MONTH OR MORE OFTEN	ONCE EVERY 2 MONTHS	ONCE EVERY 3 MONTHS	ONCE EVERY 6 MONTHS	ONCE A YEAR	AS NECESSARY	AS POSSIBLE	NEVER
Speech therapist	8	0	0	5	10	4	0	8
Reading adviser	2	0	0	0	6	0	0	29
Organiser of special classes	14	7	0	6	4	3	2	2
Educational psychologist	4	4	0	9	3	2	2	12
Visiting teacher	7	2	0	4	2	4	0	15
Public health nurse	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Social welfare officer	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	
Maths. adviser	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	
Music adviser	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	
District nurse	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Medical officer of health	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	
School nurse	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	

33. Organiser of special classes: 10
 Reading adviser: 4
 Educational psychologist: 6
 Speech therapist: 3
 Visiting teacher: 3
 Medical officer of health: 1
 School nurse: 1
 Maths. adviser: 2
 Curriculum committee: 1

34. This year: 105
 1975: 139
 1974: 90
 1973: 64
 Before 1973: 42

Number of teachers answering: 41

35.	Understanding the intellectual strengths and weaknesses of pupils		Understanding the social and emotional needs of pupils		Formulating individualized programmes for pupils	
	/	x	/	x	/	x
	17	3	24	7	6	25

Other: 5 (helpful for providing information on home backgrounds: 4

helpful for seeing what psychologists do: 1)

36. Not at all: 27
 In the case of "difficult" pupils: 4
 In the case of most pupils: 0
 In the case of all pupils: 9
 No answer: 4

37.

IMPROVED ATTITS.	MORE ASS. WITH PROG.	MORE RES. MAS.	SPEC. SERVICES	TRAINING OPPS.
4	4	3	3	2
3	1	2	4	5
2	1	4	3	5
3	1	5	4	2
5	3	4	2	1
1	4	3	2	5
5	3	4	1	2
5	1	4	2	3
0	0	0	1	0
3	5	1	2	4
1	4	2	3	5
5	3	1	2	4
5	1	4	2	3
1	4	5	2	3
0	1	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	0
5	1	3	2	4
1	4	2	3	5
5	1	3	2	4
0	1	0	0	0
1	3	2	4	5
5	1	4	2	3
1	4	5	2	3
1	3	2	0	0
3	0	1	2	0
1	5	2	3	4
1	4	5	2	3
1	5	3	4	2
1	3	5	2	4
1	3	4	2	5
1	4	2	3	4
4	2	1	3	5
3	1	5	4	2
5	4	2	1	2
3	1	2	5	4
1	3	2	0	0
1	0	2	0	0
3	5	1	4	2
3	5	2	1	4
1	0	0	0	0
1	5	2	3	4
5	4	2	3	1
2	5	4	1	3

38. Full-time regular class attendance: 0
Full-time regular class attendance with support from
specialist personnel: 5
Part-time special class/regular class attendance: 17
Full-time special class attendance: 21
Special schools: 2
Number of teachers answering: 43 (two teachers gave
two preferred choices thus the total number of
responses is 45 rather than 43)

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