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 2025 East River Parkway
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Editor's Message

It is a pleasure to share with you the 22nd issue of *Journal of the International Association of Special Education* (JIASE). Thank you to all of you who submitted manuscripts, conducted timely reviews, and assisted with managing the issue.

In the context of the past year, the issue opens with a concept article titled, "Children with disabilities in Ukraine: History, the present, and war," highlighting the extra layers of hardship children with disabilities and their families experience in crisis situations.

The second article draws attention to, "The effect of a touch-typing program on keyboarding skills for the visually impaired in first and second grades," in the context of Turkey.

The important topic of post-secondary education options for students with intellectual and developmental disabilities is discussed in, "Reflections on over a decade of experience with Campus Life," in Canada.

The issue of social inclusion in Czech schools, specifically of Roma students, is featured from the perspective of the testimonies of female educators in the Czech Republic.

A timely praxis article addresses the topic of, "Using literacy-based behavior interventions with young adults with intellectual and developmental disabilities," in the U.S.

The diversity of topics and contexts featured in JIASE articles brings a world perspective on the education and development of children and youth with disabilities.

If you would like to share your research or practices, JIASE is a wonderful international outlet for others to learn about and implement your work.

At JIASE, we are committed to working with first-time authors and contributors who may have not published in a peer-reviewed journal before. We also welcome contributions from seasoned and returning authors. The JIASE management and review teams are well-prepared to work with you to develop a publication you will be proud of.

We are always seeking members who would like to serve as consulting editors for JIASE. If interested, please contact me directly for more information. Also, please consider submitting your work for publication in future JIASE issues. Publication submission guidelines are located on the IASE website at <https://iase.org/journal> as well as at the end of this journal issue.

Thank you for being a member of IASE and do not forget to check new updates on the IASE website (<https://iase.org/>), including information about the upcoming 18th Biennial Conference that will be held at the University of West Bohemia, Pilsen, Czech Republic, in 2024.

With warm regards,
Renáta Tichá, PhD
Editor of JIASE

Children with Disabilities in Ukraine Before and During War: Fear, Fleeing, and Fundamental Needs

Safia Dockter

University of Minnesota, USA

Abstract

For centuries, Ukraine has been fighting for freedom from government corruption, genocide, famine, and war. This unending struggle for national survival has prevented Ukraine from helping children with disabilities live in a progressive environment where they can thrive and be supported. And now Russia's war has worsened conditions for children with disabilities. Constant bombings and torture by the Russian military prevent Ukrainians from leaving their homes for medication, food, and water. This hurts those with disabilities greatly because they cannot receive the care they need. Ukraine has not been able to focus on making changes for children with disabilities and this war has made it almost impossible to meet their needs. The author recommends creating a program where advocates help those still in Ukraine and assist refugees who are now coming to the United States.

Keywords: *Ukraine, war, fundamental needs, fleeing, fear*

INTRODUCTION

For centuries, Ukraine has been taken piece by piece by neighboring states and then left to rebuild its independent self over and over again. Whenever Ukraine gained independence, a neighboring state would feel threatened and then plot to weaken Ukraine again, typically through war. Russia's current invasion of independent, democratic Ukraine is just the latest chapter in this unending cycle. This constant threat has led Ukraine to prioritize national survival over the needs of people with disabilities.

The current war in Ukraine has put the lives of an estimated 2.7 million people with disabilities at risk (Kottasová & Kesaieva, 2022). It is important to note that many Ukrainians with disabilities are not registered as having a disability. This is especially true for those who do not live in major cities, such as Kyiv, Kharkiv, and Lviv. Therefore, those numbers only portray the absolute minimum. Among the estimated 2.7 million Ukrainians with disabilities are at least 200,000 children, most of whom live in institutions that struggled to obtain daily resources even before the current war. Many others live in post-Soviet apartment buildings that are being bombed daily, trapping those with limited mobility in their homes. Some need medication to survive. The Russian military prevents humanitarian corridors from entering occupied territory, resulting in the inability to receive medication, water, food, and other essential aid. Leaving is not always an option due to limited transportation, road blockage, shelling, and being physically trapped in bomb shelters or under debris from shelled residential buildings. For

families who can escape, the journey to leave the war zone is long, even for those without disability challenges.

The purpose of this paper is to bring awareness to what it means to be a child with disabilities in Ukraine, before and during the war. I would like to note that there has been a war in eastern Ukraine since 2014, but for the purpose of this document, when referring to "the war," I will be focusing on the full-scale war that broke out on February 24, 2022 when the Russian federation invaded Ukraine and began to commit genocide against the Ukrainian people.

It is important to remember that many Ukrainians with disabilities are not diagnosed until later in life, which is why most Ukrainian data about disabilities pertains mainly to adults. This paper gives an overview of how history influenced how society treated children with disabilities in pre-war Ukraine, how the lack of government funding affects the care that children with disabilities receive, why children with disabilities are now at risk, the benefits of going abroad for children with disabilities, and how we can help them during the war as well as post-war.

Children with Disabilities Before the War: Fear

In many countries around the world, people with disabilities have been neglected. Unfortunately, Ukraine was one of those countries. Not because the people of Ukraine lacked empathy or kindness, but because of the hard reality that prioritizing those with disabilities was not the primary issue of the country due to many people experiencing poverty and decades of pain because of governmental corruption, war, genocide, and famine.

In 1941, during World War II, Ukraine was part of the Soviet Union when Hitler launched his attack to expand Germany eastward and create a “master race” by torturing and murdering anyone who did not fit Nazi requirements. Nazis believed that people with disabilities were useless to society, a threat to Aryan genetic purity, and unworthy of life. This led the Nazis to commit genocide against children with disabilities and other groups of people. World War II ended with the defeat of Nazi Germany in 1945, but attitudes toward people with disabilities did not improve much in the Soviet Union. Like the Nazis before them, Soviet leaders and most of the public believed that people with disabilities were useless to society. People with disabilities were labeled as invalids and frowned upon. Because of these harsh views and public fear towards those with disabilities, parents were encouraged to commit their children with disabilities to orphanages or institutional care. Of those who were sent to orphanages, many were never adopted and lived out their lives in adult institutions. Children in institutions were exposed to physical and sexual violence and lived in danger of being trafficked for sex, labor, and pornography (Leonard & Lukatsky, 2015). Parents who kept their children were eventually forced to send them to institutions because strict legal regulations excluded children with disabilities from schools. Ukrainians overwhelmingly voted for independence from the Soviet Union in 1991, but unfortunately, Soviet contempt for people with disabilities continued into independent Ukraine and remained the norm for many years.

Children with Disabilities Before the War: Fundamental Needs

Many Ukrainians experienced poverty and children with disabilities suffered greatly. In the Soviet Union, adults with disabilities received government benefits and pensions. However, for many years, the government did not believe children should receive such benefits, so children could not be labeled as having a disability. That finally changed in 1967 when children could be labeled as “child-invalids,” which entitled them to government benefits (Philips, 2009). But many agreed that these benefits did not outweigh the stigma of being labeled a child invalid, especially in school, where there were no programs to help children with disabilities. Years passed, but not much changed. Many Ukrainian children were still not able to receive the resources they needed. The reasons included limited grant assistance for families who had a child with a disability, the lack of rehabilitation facilities, a shortage of

psychological support, and social exclusion of children with disabilities at school and in public. Physical social exclusion still exists because many apartment elevators are too small to accommodate a wheelchair, making it difficult to leave home. Other physical obstacles include very ridged sidewalks that make it difficult for those with physical disabilities to walk anywhere; religious rules that discourage suitable seating in churches; and a lack of elevators or escalators in the main transportation method: the underground metro system.

Disability grants were—and still are—provided in Ukraine, but they were never enough to afford rehabilitation centers, doctors’ visits, medication, and psychological support. For example, in the year 2012, a typical person with a disability received about 1,000 hryvnias per month, which was approximately US\$124 (Sinepolskaya, 2012). To put that in perspective, the average rehabilitation course for people with physical disabilities cost around 20,000 hryvnias, which was approximately US\$2,486 (Sinepolskaya, 2012), meaning they would need to save all their disability grants for roughly a year and a half to afford a basic course for their disability needs. Disability grants have improved gradually over the years and some families now receive free medication and can afford rehabilitation centers because of a small increase in monthly pensions. Unfortunately, due to the war that Russia began in Ukraine, the pace of inclusivity for people with disabilities is moving at a slower pace than is preferable.

Children with Disabilities During the War: Fleeing

The war in Ukraine has taken a heavy toll on children with disabilities, leaving many stuck in the country without access to water, food, medication, and doctors. For those who can flee the country, medical professionals and volunteers can assist them in other countries. Every day in Ukraine, war threatens people’s lives, safety, and health. For about 200,000 Ukrainian children with disabilities, war puts them in a much worse situation because fleeing is not always possible. For those who can leave home, the journey is long, tiring, and unpredictable. For some families, what awaits them in another country brings uncertainty and fear, but staying home is simply not an option anymore.

As the war progresses, life for children with disabilities becomes more and more difficult. Children with disabilities are at greater risk of being internally displaced, trapped in institutions, and abandoned. Resources are limited, but parents wait in long lines to get essential supplies for their children. Children’s health is declining each day because they do not have their

medication, regular doctor visits, food, water, and daily routines. Many are trapped in their homes with no way of leaving. Evacuation plans are typically not designed for those with disabilities, which makes it impossible to reach metro stations and bomb shelters, especially for people with limited mobility. It is also very difficult to navigate all the information about emergency evacuations, especially for those with sensory impairments such as people who are blind or deaf. Some organizations assist children with disabilities in the war zone, but the best help is to evacuate those children using buses and 24-hour programs that are accessible to them and their families.

Ways We Can Help

Too often—and in too many countries—children with disabilities have been neglected and abandoned. Many nations have not provided children with disabilities the support they deserve to make their lives safe, healthy, and comfortable. But merely blaming countries misses an important point.

The point is that it is very difficult to improve life for children with disabilities without peace and stability—and many countries lack these benign conditions. Ukraine is an obvious example.

Throughout Ukraine's turbulent history, children with disabilities have been neglected because the country has been forced repeatedly to fight for national survival. Whenever Ukraine became stable and prosperous enough to gradually improve conditions for children with disabilities, the country would get thrown into yet another existential crisis, often instigated by neighboring countries. These crises have repeatedly undermined social progress in Ukraine, and the current war is just the latest example of this chronic cycle. Ukrainian civilians are being attacked every day and children with disabilities are among the most vulnerable.

Donating, advocating, and volunteering all help the children of Ukraine, but it is time to do something more specific. The author proposes creating a team of advocates who reach out to American companies that provide disability services and ask for extended help for Ukrainian children with disabilities. This could include companies providing resources, online learning opportunities, and volunteers to assist refugee children now in the United States and those who are still in the war zone. Advocates could create a manual for children with disabilities who are caught in a national crisis such as war. Individuals with disabilities need support and care that is different from the needs of people without disabilities; this is especially true during a crisis. Having

an online manual that could be translated and reached by any individual in need would provide useful information for people in Ukraine and around the world.

Children with disabilities in Ukraine have inherited the Soviet Union's past mistakes—and Russia's current mistake—of being treated as less than human. The immediacy of war is challenging us to break this toxic pattern and improve life for children with disabilities, especially during crises. When behavior is practiced often enough, it becomes habit. We can start this habit because that is what all children deserve. They are not invalid. They are not less than. They are our future.

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The Effect of a Touch-Typing Program on Keyboarding Skills for the Visually Impaired in First and Second Grades

Mehmet Salih Küçüközyiğit
Hakkari University, Turkey

Salih Çakmak
Gazi University, Turkey

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the effects of the Phonetic-based Typing Tutorial Application on the acquisition and maintenance of typing skills for four visually impaired first- and second-grade students. Changing criteria design was used in the study. Teaching sessions were held three or four times a week, one session per day, and each session was less than 20 minutes. There were nine modules for nine criteria for typing fluency. Results indicated that the training was effective in increasing independent typing skills of students with visual impairments with a standard keyboard. All participants learned how to type, gain fluency in typing, and maintain typing after eight weeks of follow-up sessions without practice. Application reliability and interobserver reliability calculations show that the application is performed at a high level of reliability. Social validity information was collected from students, teachers, and parents of students.

Keywords: writing, typing, visually impaired, computer-based instruction, assistive technology

INTRODUCTION

Literacy among students with visual impairments consists of similar components as among their typically developing peers (Erickson & Hatton, 2007). The development of Braille literacy and Latin letters literacy occurs in approximately the same way. The main difference is that students with visual impairments perceive the world and written text in a tactile way. The letter-sound match that takes place in learning the Latin alphabet happens with the Braille letters similarly (Argyropoulos & Martos, 2019). Students with visual impairments vocalize by matching the Braille letters with sounds. Sounds make up syllables, syllables make up words, and so reading takes place. In writing, the student decodes the words they want to write into syllables and the syllables into their sounds and records the symbols representing sounds by embossing them on paper.

However, Braille reading is quite slow since it is tactile and done with fingertips. There are some abbreviations in the Braille writing system to eliminate this slowness. Learning all of these abbreviations and knowing their meaning, which varies depending on the situation in which they are located, is cognitively challenging. Learning these abbreviations and being able to use them fluently is a time-consuming process for students with visual impairments. In addition, because Braille

reading is a tactile process, it is slow even when abbreviations are used (Küçüközyiğit & Çakmak, 2018). Furthermore, devices used for Braille writing are often expensive, and working in coordination with the computer requires additional effort. With the development of technology, the use of paper is gradually declining and most texts are being prepared and read digitally. Today, being able to use a computer has become a necessity, not only for literacy but also for business life.

Many assistive tools, including mobile and computer software, have been developed to create digital text for individuals with visual impairment. For individuals with visual impairment, the computer is used as a tool to meet the need for knowledge with tactile inputs (keyboard) and auditory feedback with the help of different programs (Bouck & Meyer, 2012; Hink & Suarez, 2010; Mannheimer et al., 2009; Vener & Glinert, 1988). Students with visual impairments can use computers as reading and writing tools and control them as tactile with the help of these programs. This is a great opportunity for individuals with visual impairment.

There are limited numbers of studies conducted on teaching individuals with visual impairment to use the keyboard (Glinert, 1984; Klenk & Pufpaff, 2011; Mioduser et al., 2000). These studies were generally conducted with relatively older children who already read and write. Similarly, Douglas et al. (2011) taught a computer program to a 10-year-old student who was

visually impaired and the student learned to type with a keyboard. In another case study, the IntelliKeys keyboard, a keyboard adapted for students with visual impairment, was used for a student who was 14 years old and had difficulty writing in Braille. The keyboard had enlarged keys and the student quickly mastered it. Research shows that information technologies can support the writing skills of students with visual impairments in different ways. There are several studies suggesting the use of a standard keyboard for individuals with visual impairment as an alternative and supportive writing tool to the Braille writing system (Abdolrahmani et al., 2018; Angelocci & Connors, 2002; Avhad et al., 2016; Azenkot & Lee, 2013; Boulton, 1993; Condado et al., 2011; McGookin & Brewster, 2006; Rahimi et al., 2018). Nevertheless, there are no published best practices for teaching keyboarding skills to young students with visual impairment. Current teaching methods to introduce these students to standard keyboards appear to be based on the experience and personal approach of individual educators (Damsma et al., 2015). Although teaching writing with a keyboard to people with visual impairment has been studied and practiced for many years, there is only limited and scattered information available about the specifics of teaching techniques, writing speed, fluency, and maintenance. However, these studies show that continuous instructor or trainer intervention is necessary. This study aims to eliminate this constant student support by enabling students to learn to type using a keyboard in a close-to-independent manner. For this purpose, it is necessary to demonstrate the effectiveness of a keyboard-teaching computer program that sets criteria based on student need, gives feedback to students, and suggests new goals and criteria to students when the old criteria are met.

This research study aims to examine the effectiveness of a computer program designed for students with visual impairments to gain typing skills with a keyboard at an early age. This computer program gives instructions to the students, gives feedback in cases where the instructions are followed or not, quickly makes an evaluation at the end of the instruction, offers a new instruction when the student meets the criteria, and continues by following the process in this way. This study hopes to help students with visual impairments gain writing skills at a similar pace as their peers. Thus, these students will not fall behind their peers academically. An additional goal of the study is to assist students with visual impairments in getting to know and use computers, which is a part of daily life, at an

early age. The computer program used in this study will enable students to complete academic tasks without assistance from a teacher or an instructor. The research question is: "Is teaching with Phonetic-based Typing Tutorial Application (PTAP) effective for students with visual impairments?"

METHODS

Participants

School visits were conducted by securing formal approval from the Ministry of National Education. During the school visits, teachers were asked which students were eligible to participate in this study. Students were asked if they were interested in taking part in this study. Finally, the parents of the students were contacted and their written consent was obtained to participate in this study. Participants were selected based on prerequisite criteria and skills provided below.

1. Having been diagnosed with a total visual impairment at public or university hospitals (the individual has a visual acuity of 20/200 or less in the well-sighted eye and a visual field of fewer than 20 degrees);
2. Attending first or second grade;
3. Not having any additional disabilities or developmental delays;
4. Being able to show their right and left hands and knowing the names of their fingers; and
5. Ability to interact with an adult for at least 15 minutes.

Descriptive information for participants is given in Table 1.

Environment and Materials

The research was conducted in a Mitat Enç Primary School for the Visually Impaired (Ankara, Turkey). There are individual training rooms within the school to carry out one-on-one studies. In the room, there was a table large enough to hold a practice computer and a chair high enough for the student to reach the computer keyboard and place their fingers properly. A computer with the Phonetic-based Typing Tutorial Application (PTAP) was prepared. In addition, the location of the individual training room in the school was far from school sounds that could distract the student while listening. There was a video camera set up in the room.

Table 1
Descriptive Information for Participants.

Variables	First Participant	Second Participant	Third Participant	Fourth Participant
Sex	F	M	F	M
Age	9 years old	9 years old	8 years old	8 years old
Grade	2nd	2nd	1st	1st
Literacy	Braille without abbreviation	Braille without abbreviation	No Literacy	No Literacy
Visual Acuity	3%	4%	No light perception	5%

Pilot Study

Before conducting the study, the implementer carried out a pilot trial. In the pilot, PTAP was trialed to see if the instructions to students were feasible, to observe student reactions and gains, to decide the length of the session, and to identify other difficulties, if any. The pilot trial was carried out with four different students.

Phonetic-based Typing Tutorial Application (PTAP)

Phonetic-based Typing Tutorial Application (PTAP) is a program that aims to enable students to match sounds to the keys on a keyboard. It was developed by the researcher. The program follows a certain sequence in order to achieve this goal. Notches in the letters F and J, one of the universal design requirements found on all keyboards, were used as key references.

From the moment PTAP starts working, it performs based on the reactions of the students with the help of the space key on a keyboard at every stage. It functions by announcing to the student which letters would be learned at each stage and monitors their reactions. It gives soft and hard sound warnings based on the positive and negative reactions of the students.

When a student matches a keyboard key to its relevant sound, they are given another sound to relate to another key. The first set of modules focus on teaching the relationship between keyboard keys and the sounds of letters. It includes the letters and sounds matched in each module, as well as the letters and sounds learned in previous modules. The difficulty level increases as the modules progress. When enough keys are learned to form syllables, the student is asked to type the letters of some syllables. At this stage, after vocalizing the letters that make up the syllable, the program vocalizes syllables by combining separate letters into syllables and presenting them to the student. At a later stage, the program only vocalizes syllables. Students are expected to decode these syllables and type the letters correctly. In the advanced stages, the same is true for words. This

is a feature that can be used in phonetic languages, such as Turkish. The program is designed in consecutive stages so one cannot proceed to another stage without completing the previous stage.

The program records the number of key touches expected for each task from the student. It also includes a time frame for each task expected from the student. After the task is given to the student, the timer records the time until the button is touched correctly. The program also records the number of incorrect keys touched in the task. Thus, at the end of the module, it can be determined whether the student meets the required criteria for each stage.

PTAP Performance Criteria

Relevant research shows that training affects the number of correctly typed words. When training was not given, there were between three and five correctly typed words per minute. When training was given, the numbers increased to between six and 11 per minute. The number of correctly typed letters per minute also increases as the grade level increases (Connelly et al., 2007; Freeman et al., 2005). Participants in these research studies were generally secondary school students. In the limited number of studies conducted at the first and second grades of primary school on the number of correctly typed letters per minute, it was observed that the number of correctly typed words per minute at baseline was between one and three, and the values increased to between three and five with training (Britten, 1988). In some studies, the researchers converted the number of correctly written words per minute and the number of correctly typed letters per minute. Many studies assume that a word consists on average of four or five letters (Behymer & Echternacht, 1987; Ferrell et al., 2006; Heebner, 1990; Phenix & Hannan, 1984). The literature shows that in an average minute, three words and 15 letters were typed. The rate of 15 letters per minute ratio translates to four seconds

per letter. Different levels of accuracy were detected by the number of mistyped letters (Britten, 1988; Connelly et al., 2007; Freeman et al., 2005; Grace, 1989; Niepert, 2018). In this study, based on the results by Britten (1988), the number of incorrectly touched keys is determined as 10% of the total number of keys touched. Thus, the acceptance criterion for the number of correctly typed letters per minute was 90%.

Research Design

This study follows a single-subject research design. Initially, pre-test data was collected in accordance with the changing criterion design with the four participating students. The training sessions followed each other and were arranged to continue by changing criteria. There were nine different levels of criteria in this study. The minimum requirement is 90% accuracy for each criterion and a key push in four seconds or less. But to meet the first criterion, the students only need to press the letters “j, k, l, s, f, d, s, a.” For the second criterion, they should write words that will form syllables using these letters. For the third criterion, in addition to the previous criteria, the letters “e, l, a, k, i, n” are also included in the words. In the fourth criterion, in addition to the previous criteria, the letters “o, m, u, t, ü, y” are also included in words. The process continues by adding new letter groups for each new criterion. The selection of these letters was made based on letter groups in primary schools. The criteria continue in this way, getting harder. With eight criteria, students are expected to gain fluency in writing words using all the letters on the keyboard. With nine criteria, students are expected to write a whole sentence fluently.

After all the criterion levels were met in a determined manner, the training sessions ended. Two, four, and eight weeks after the teaching sessions ended, follow-up sessions were held to observe the permanence of the skills of the students. The dependent variable in the research is the skill level of writing with the help of the keyboard for the letters and words that are voiced out loud. The independent variable in this research was teaching writing using a keyboard with PTAP.

Data Collection and Evaluation

Four different types of data were collected: research application data, implementation data, social validity data, and inter-observer reliability data. Research and application data were collected in PTAP teaching sessions. The PTAP program automatically recorded the time spent pressing the keys in seconds and milliseconds, as well as the number of correct and incorrect presses, using a technique known as “timestamp.” The

PTAP fully automated the process of determining if the student met the requirements based on criteria decided by the researcher.

Implementation data were collected from the teaching sessions to detect implementation errors. All teaching sessions and participant behaviors were recorded during the implementation process. Forty percent of the session videos were selected by random assignment, and the videos were watched by two independent observers. After completing the observer forms, implementation reliability was calculated using the observed researcher behavior/planned behavior x 100 formula. Inter-observer reliability was calculated using the agreement/agreement + disagreement x 100 formula. Social validity data were collected via interviews, using 10 questions regarding the purpose, process, and effect of PTAP teaching sessions with students, parents, and teachers. In the individual training room, the researcher conducted one-on-one interviews with four students, their teachers, and their parents.

Teaching Prerequisite Skills

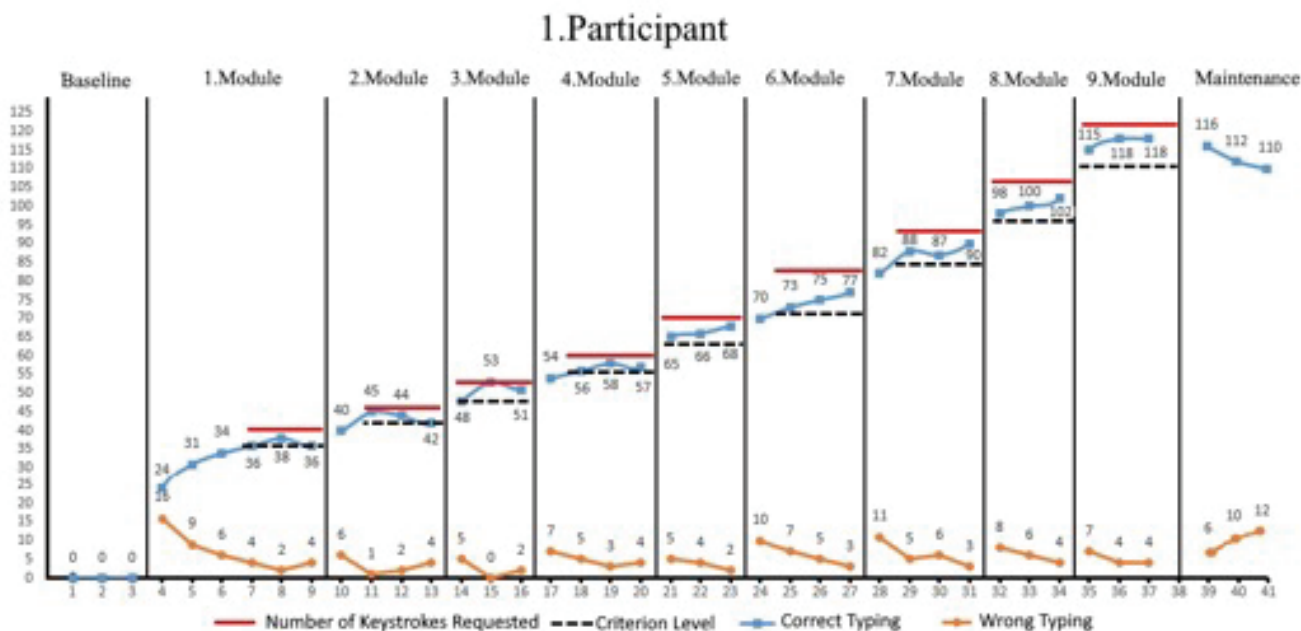
A student is taught basic computer concepts (computer, keyboard, keyboard keys) and the Enter, Tab, and Space keys that they need to know to use the PTAP program. Prerequisite skills were carried out by the researcher before the PTAP teaching sessions. The instruction followed the physical model, guided practice, and independent practice stages. Incorrect answers are corrected. When a student could not correctly pronounce the concepts or touch the correct key, physical assistance was provided to touch the correct key, and the correct response was reinforced. This continued until the student reacts correctly and independently. In the sessions, the determined response interval for subjects to react was five seconds. When a student achieves 80% success in the evaluation, teaching the prerequisite skills ends and the PTAP teaching sessions begin.

PTAP Teaching Sessions

When the session starts, the reinforcer that will be given to the student at the end of the study is selected. After starting the teaching sessions with PTAP, a path that repeats itself is followed. There are three different scenarios, depending on whether the student fulfills the instructions of the PTAP: (a) The student touched the desired key based on the instructions, (b) the student did not touch the desired key within the five-second timeframe, and (c) the student touched the wrong key.

When the student touches the desired key based on the instructions, PTAP continues with the next instruction. If the student does not touch the desired key

Figure 1
 First participant baseline, instructional, and maintenance sessions.



within five seconds, the cues are gradually increased for the student, starting with a verbal cue all the way to the desired key is touched with physical assistance. If the student touches the wrong key, the program gives negative feedback; the cues gradually increase, starting with a verbal cue, all the way to physical help. When the student completes the module successfully or the 20 minutes expires, the student is given the reinforcer he/she chooses, and the session is ended.

Follow-Up Sessions

Teaching sessions end when students successfully complete the ninth module. Two, four, and eight weeks after the end of the teaching sessions, follow-up sessions were held to determine the maintenance level of the students' keyboard writing skills. In these sessions, students repeat the ninth module and are expected to complete tasks that require writing texts of 30–50 words, containing all letter groups without any time limit.

RESULTS

None of the participants were able to correctly touch any key on the keyboard at baseline. After stable data were obtained in the preliminary sessions, training sessions began. With the start of the intervention sessions, the number of keys touched correctly by the participants on the keyboard increased. Meanwhile, the number of keys touched incorrectly, and the time

needed to type a letter, began to decrease. The first modules were the longest and most challenging for all students.

First Participant

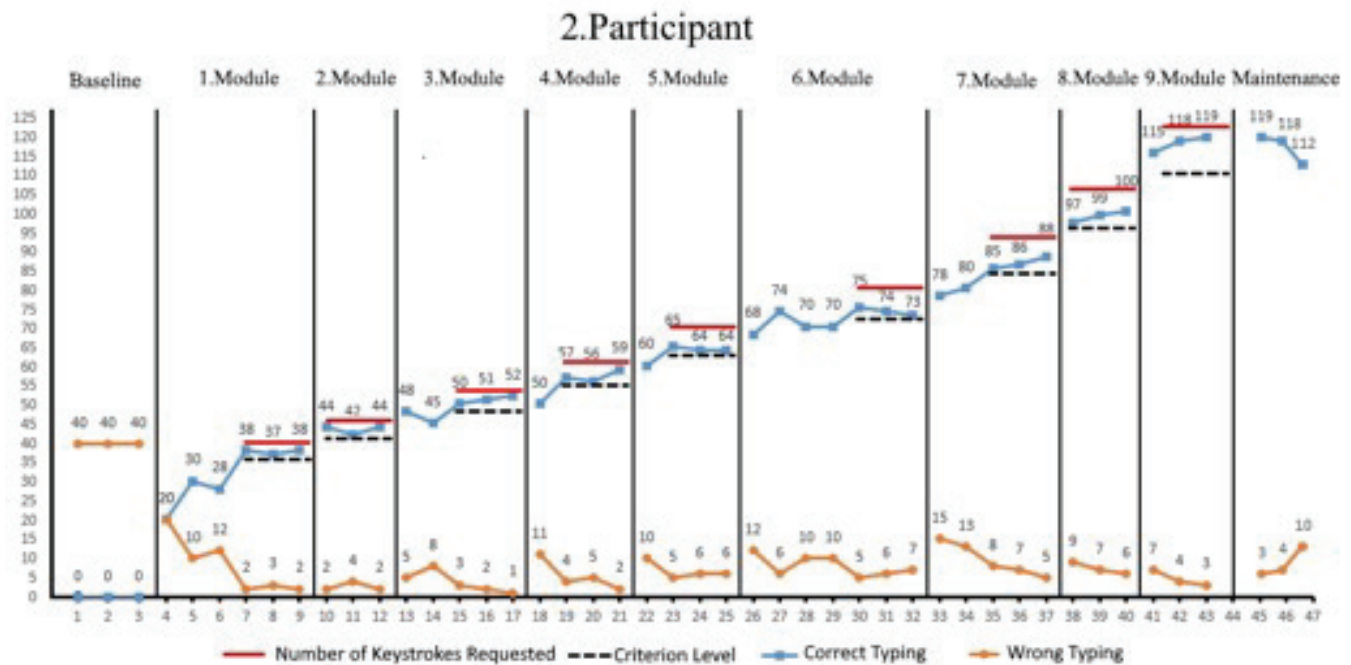
The average accuracy rate of the first participant in the ninth module was 96%. While the first participant could not touch any key with the keyboard correctly at baseline, he reached these values at the end of 34 sessions.

For the follow-up sessions held two, four, and eight weeks later, the first participant's average number of correctly typed letters on the keyboard was 112, the average number of incorrectly typed letters on the keyboard was 9.6, and the average time to type a letter was 3.3 seconds and the standard deviation of keys touched correctly was 3.4 letters. The average accuracy rate in the follow-up sessions of the first participant was 92%. It was observed that the first participant maintained her keyboard typing skill despite the elapsed time (see Figure 1).

Second Participant

The average accuracy rate of the second participant in the ninth module was 96%. While the second participant could not touch any key correctly with the keyboard at baseline, he reached these values at the end of 40 sessions.

Figure 2
 Second participant baseline, instructional, and maintenance sessions.



For the follow-up sessions, the second participant’s average number of correctly-typed letters on the keyboard was 116, the average number of letters incorrectly-typed on the keyboard was 5.6, the average time to type a letter was 3 seconds, and the standard deviation of keys touched correctly was 3.7 letters. The average accuracy rate in follow-up sessions was 95%. It was observed that the second participant preserved his keyboard typing skill despite the elapsed time (see Figure 2).

Third Participant

The average accuracy rate of the third participant in the ninth module was 93%. While the third participant could not touch any key correctly with the keyboard at baseline, he reached these values at the end of 47 sessions.

For the follow-up sessions, the third participant’s average number of correctly typed letters on the keyboard was 111, the average number of incorrectly typed letters on the keyboard was 11, the average time to type a letter was 2.7 seconds, and the standard deviation of the keys touched correctly was 3 letters. The average accuracy rate of the third participant’s follow-up sessions was 90%. It was observed that the third participant preserved her keyboard typing skill despite the elapsed time (see Figure 3).

Fourth Participant

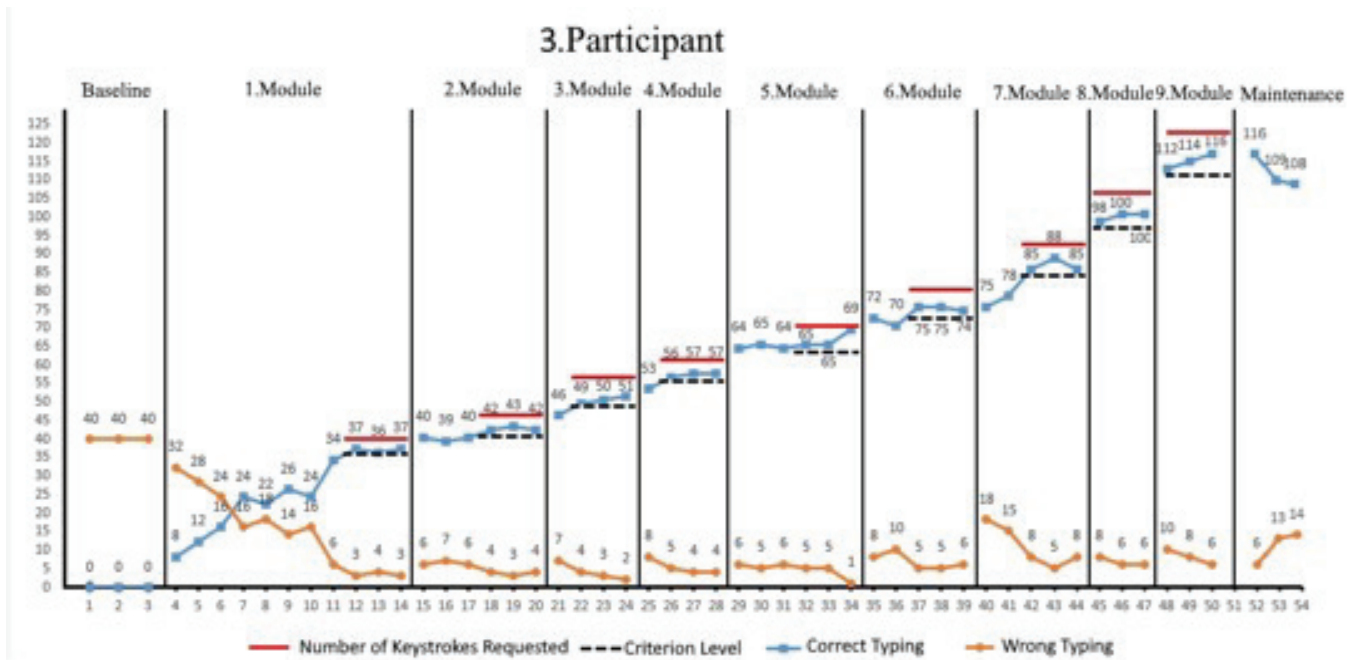
The average accuracy rate of the fourth participant in the ninth module was 93%. While the fourth participant could not touch any key with the keyboard at baseline, he reached these values at the end of 56 sessions.

For the follow-up sessions, the fourth participant’s average number of correctly typed letters on the keyboard was 110, the average number of incorrectly typed letters on the keyboard was 11.3, the average time to type a letter was 3 seconds, and the standard deviation of the keys touched correctly was 5.1 letters. The average accuracy rate in the follow-up sessions of the fourth participant was 90%. It was observed that the fourth participant preserved his typing skill despite the elapsed time (see Figure 4).

Implementation and Inter-observer Reliability

The implementation reliability value of the study was calculated as 96%, which was acceptably high. The inter-observer reliability of the interactions of the student with the keyboard and research behavior was calculated as 100%. It is thought that the very high reliability between observers is due to the computer-assisted instruction and the fact that the data were recorded by the computer. It has been revealed that teaching typing skills on the keyboard sessions with a computer program for individuals with visual impairments can be conducted with high implementation reliability.

Figure 3
Third participant baseline, instructional, and maintenance sessions.



Social Validity Findings

As a result of the interviews with students, parents, and teachers, it is not possible to talk about a consensus about purpose, process, and effect of the PTAP. Regarding the purpose of PTAP: Although teachers of the students said that typing skills are important, the majority of students and parents did not think that using a keyboard to type was not one of their educational goals. The answers given by students and parents about phonetics and letter knowledge were neutral, and this situation is due to the difficulties of students and parents in defining the concepts of phonetics and letter knowledge. They couldn't give positive reactions to something they didn't know.

Regarding the effect of PTAP about teaching typing skills: Students, parents, and teachers agreed that the ability to type independently with a keyboard is gained. All stakeholders gave positive answers in a consensus of opinion to the questions about the PTAP process. Computer guidance received positive reactions from students, parents, and teachers. The students with visual impairments participating in the study, their parents, and teachers expressed positive opinions that the program was easy to use and that other students with visual impairments could learn to type in this way.

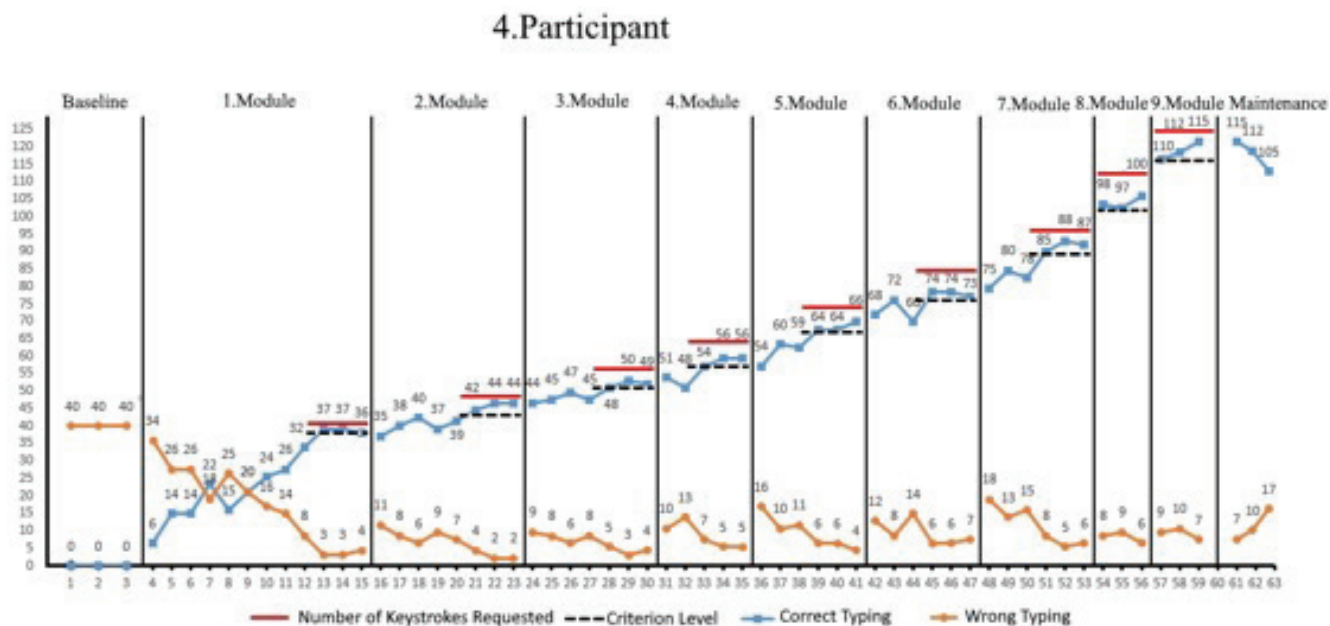
DISCUSSION

The fact that visual perception cannot be used at all to teach individuals with visual impairments caused difficulties for the students in the first sessions of teaching with PTAP. The most repeated module for all students was the first module, with an average of 8.75 repetitions. The reason for this may be that the students did not have any previous experience with the keyboard. In addition, the fact that two of the students are illiterate suggests that these students also lack experience with letters and phonetics.

Since Braille reading and writing require a certain level of development in finger muscles and tactile skills, it is thought that students who can read and write in Braille have more developed fine motor skills. It can be argued that students who are illiterate in Braille and whose motor skills have not yet been developed, have limited tactile sensing and touching skills. The illiterate students learned to match the sound and letter keys in the first module after an average of 11.5 sessions. On average, students who can read and write completed the first module after six sessions.

This situation may seem to be a disadvantage for illiterate students but learning to type with a keyboard is much less time-consuming compared to the time it takes to read and write Braille.

Figure 4
Fourth participant baseline, instructional, and maintenance sessions.



Teaching sessions were completed by the participants in different durations. However, 59 sessions were the most sessions held with students. Considering this, it is possible for students to become independent in their keyboard typing skills in between 15 and 20 weeks if relatively short sessions are held three to four times each week. This finding suggests that many students who have visual impairments can gain the ability to write independently with the keyboard in only one academic year.

When this research started, the participants and their peers who were illiterate in the same class had started tactile awareness and activities of distinguishing letters within the scope of Braille literacy preparation studies. As this research was completed, the students who were illiterate participating in the study could type independently with a keyboard. These students and their peers who shared the same class had not yet finished learning the letters in the first letter group in their Braille education.

Regarding retention, when the accuracy performances of the last training sessions for all participants were compared with the follow-up performances of the eighth week, it was found that the skill level was higher than 90%, is presumably permanent, and there is no significant decrease in the writing speed.

Studies suggest using the standard keyboard as an alternative and supportive writing tool for the Braille Writing system for individuals with visual impairments

(Abdolrahmani et al., 2018; Angelocci & Connors, 2002; Avhad et al., 2016; Azenkot & Lee, 2013; Boulton, 1993; Condado et al., 2011; Douglas et al., 2011; Frey et al., 2011; McGookin & Brewster, 2006; Hidayat & Prafanto, 2016; Rahimi et al., 2018). It is also known that people with visual impairments use keyboards (Douglas, 2001; Douglas et al., 2011; Erickson et al., 2007). With this research, it is thought that students who do not know how to read and write Braille can quickly improve their keyboard typing skills under computer guidance. Computer-assisted instruction enables students to learn to type on the keyboard, independent of any location or instructor. Also, it is possible to teach with a keyboard using compatible versions of the program without a computer and a smartphone or tablet. This might make it possible for people with visual impairment who cannot afford computers to learn how to type on a keyboard.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The PTAP, which was developed for this research, can help individuals with visual impairments become better at typing. In addition to teaching typing skills with the keyboard, computer-assisted instruction can support teaching for illiterate students to acquire skills such as phonics, letter knowledge, combining sounds, and forming syllables.

In this study, the sessions were spread over time with each session taking less than 20 minutes per student. It is recommended that session be less than 20 minutes in length and that continuous work be spread over time. It is possible to advise teacher candidates or teachers during teacher training procedures or during in-service training sessions that typing can increase sound- and letter-knowledge levels and that computer-assisted instruction can be effective. Students who fall behind their peers or who struggle to learn to read and write can use computer-assisted teaching for typing as an alternative to the Braille writing system.

Suggestions for Further Research

For computer-assisted keyboard training for students with visual impairments to become an evidence-based strategy, studies in phonetic languages by various researchers with larger groups of students are required. The research's generalizability and verifiability will increase if it is conducted with larger groups of students. Studies that examine the effect of PTAP on students' phonetic and letter awareness levels can be planned. PTAP, which is used as a teaching tool in this study, can be used for research on teaching typing with the keyboard to students who have been affected by different types of disabilities, including typically developing individuals, and who have problems with writing.

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Reflections on Over a Decade of Experience with Campus Life: Insights into the Deeper Meanings of Positive Social Development for Students with Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities at University

Zana Marie Lutfiyya

Trevi B. Freeze

Rick Freeze

University of Manitoba, Canada

Abstract

In this article, we reflect on the social development of a group of students with intellectual and developmental disabilities attending university. The students are supported by Campus Life, a program that provides the supports necessary for adults with significant intellectual and/or developmental disabilities (e.g., Down syndrome, autism, fetal alcohol syndrome, cerebral palsy) to attend university as part-time undergraduate auditing students. We begin with a discussion of the principles upon which Campus Life is based. Then our thoughts about the social development of the students are presented with a focus on valued participation, friendship development, identity development, and the facilitators of social development.

Keywords: intellectual and developmental disabilities, post-secondary education, positive social development

INTRODUCTION

Students with disabilities are attending and graduating from universities in unprecedented numbers in Canada and elsewhere (Harrison & Wolforth, 2012). However, most of these students have physical, sensory, learning, and mental health conditions that do not significantly compromise their participation and success in post-secondary education. That is, they (a) meet existing entrance requirements; (b) work within existing curricula; (c) meet diploma and degree requirements; and (d) learn, study, work, and recreate on campus much like other students. Their participation often depends, in part, upon disability services (increasingly referred to as *accessibility services*) at their institutions. Such services ensure physical accessibility, access to assistive technologies, academic supports such as American Sign Language (ASL) interpreters, academic tutoring, counseling, and accommodations for coursework and exams. For instance, typical accommodations for tests and exams might include additional time, an alternate location (e.g., a private space rather than an examination hall), or an alternate format (e.g., oral versus written, typed versus written). In other words, for most students with disabilities, the goals, content, outcomes, and standards of university remain unchanged, but how learning is achieved and the formats in which outcomes are expressed vary. Consequently, much of the literature in this area has focused on these students and the accommodations that make their participation possible

(Cawthorn & Cole, 2010; Eckes & Ochoa, 2005; Garrison-Wade, 2012; Janiga & Costenbadder, 2002).

In this article, we wish to discuss our thoughts about a different group of students. These are students with significant intellectual and/or developmental impairments who: (a) do not meet university entrance requirements, (b) require substantial nonacademic supports, (c) depend on varying degrees of curricular adaptation to work within university curricula, (d) meet the requirements to be auditing students, but not diploma or degree students and yet, (e) are capable of and interested in full inclusion at university. In our experiences with students that meet these criteria and are supported by Campus Life at the University of Manitoba, consistent growth in non-academic areas such as social belonging, friendship networks, identity development, and vocational opportunities, in addition to academic gains, have been noted (Freeze, 2008; Freeze et al., 2015; Lutfiyya & Cantor, 2007; Wilson et al., 2012). Our respective roles in supervising, working in and coordinating, and initiating and guiding the program over the past 15 years since its inception, have shaped our reflections. To put our discussion in context, we first describe Campus Life. Then we turn to our reflections on the personal and social growth that we have observed in our students.

Campus Life

Purpose and principles. The purpose of Campus Life has been to create the supports necessary for adults with significant intellectual and/or developmental disabilities

(e.g., Down syndrome, autism, fetal alcohol syndrome, cerebral palsy) to attend university as part-time undergraduate auditing students. Campus Life has been described in considerable detail in other publications (Freeze et al., 2015; Wilson et al., 2012); however, a few principles are particularly salient to this article.

First, community consultation was very important in the development of Campus Life. In addition, cooperation with other adult services, advocacy groups, schools, and supported employment agencies has allowed the students supported by Campus Life to continue to participate in community-based programs while attending university.

Second, Campus Life represents a conscious attempt to realize the goal of inclusive learning and full social participation at the university level. Campus Life students are counseled and supported to attend regular classes with peers without disabilities, take part in university activities, and access student services in the same ways as other students. Campus Life most definitely is not a day program housed at the university; rather, it is an access service for students with intellectual and/or developmental disabilities (IDD) to attend university. For example, in addition to university classes, Campus Life students have access to academic skills workshops, library assistance, athletic opportunities, recreational facilities and programs, health and counseling services, self-improvement groups, special interest groups, employment services, as well as clubs, choirs, theater groups, entertainment options, and the many other services, activities, and groups available to all students at the university. However, Campus Life students receive additional supports such as regular academic tutoring and guidance in negotiating university life.

Third, Campus Life furthers the university's accessibility mandate and faculty members, support staff, and students have supported it enthusiastically. Students in a wide range of faculties have gained opportunities to meet, know, support, befriend, spend time with, and work with students with IDD. Classmates, study partners, volunteers, and friends play important roles in the success of Campus Life students at the university by providing natural supports. In addition, professors have reported that the presence of students with disabilities in their classes has strengthened learning about human differences and respect for human rights. This may be because Campus Life promotes a model of social responsibility, inclusivity, tolerance, and understanding to classmates and instructors (Community Living Manitoba, 2008; Freeze, 2008; Freeze, 2009; Freeze, 2011; Lutfiyya & Cantor, 2007; Lutfiyya & Freeze, 2010).

Fourth, Campus Life relies on experienced university students to run the program. This is because the students who help run the program are peers immersed in the opportunities and obstacles of university life and because they act as academic and social role models. A part-time director, who also is a doctoral student, manages the program throughout the academic year. The director (a) administers the program's funding and staffing, (b) conducts individualized person-centered planning for students, (c) monitors the ongoing participation and satisfaction of Campus Life students at the university, (d) engages in problem-solving with individual students and (e) manages the recruitment, orientation, training, support, and supervision of the paid academic tutors and volunteers. The students who work in Campus Life are supervised and supported by university professors and administrators.

Campus Life also employs university students from a wide range of faculties as part-time academic tutors. In collaboration with professors and the program director, they adapt and teach course materials by shaping course content and assessment to match the learning abilities, interests, and needs of each student. In addition, the tutors arrange for learning accommodations such as text-to-speech software, note-taking by classmates, textbook reading by volunteers, extra time to write exams, oral exam options, and other adaptations. The tutors also recruit, orient, and support classmates, study partners, volunteers, and mentors who help Campus Life students take part in class and connect with extra-curricular activities. Additionally, the tutors assist in areas such as course registration, buying texts, using the library or computer labs, and accessing university services, groups, and activities. Finally, the tutors utilize methods designed to give increasing self-determination and independence to the students they support.

Personal and social growth. For most students, attending university coincides with life-changing experiences that go far beyond academic learning and preparation for a career. Students develop new social networks, explore a variety of vocational options through part-time work or course field placements, seek to enhance and solidify their personal identities, and develop greater personal autonomy and independence (Freeze et al., 2018).

Interestingly, we have observed that this evolution in personal and social growth very often is even more dramatic for students with disabilities in Campus Life than it appears to be for university students in general. One way this can be understood is by contrasting the status of students with IDD in high school and at the university.

First, prior to Campus Life in high school, the programs of study of these students were very much prescribed by curricula, their teachers, and their parents. However, at the university, they choose their courses and extracurricular activities based on their individual interests.

Second, many of the Campus Life students had experienced fully or partially segregated special education placements in high school with limited access to extracurricular activities, and no access to regular academic high school courses (Agran et al., 2017; Brigham et al., 2006; Carter et al., 2010; Lutfiyya et al., 2017). However, at the university, they have a greater opportunity to experience equitable access to courses as auditing students and a wide range of extracurricular opportunities.

Third, high school assessments tend to be based on a deficit model, grounded in a negative psychology of disability, disease, disorder, and dysfunction that often leads to stigmatization, devaluation, and segregation (Garrison-Wade, 2012; Osburn, 2006; Wolfensberger, 2013). The Campus Life approach, by contrast, is grounded in positive psychology (Snyder & Lopez, 2005) with its emphasis on appreciating individual strengths and abilities, pursuing academic interests, supporting valued social participation, and adopting a developmental approach to personal growth and the achievement of academic, social, and vocational goals. In our experience, this approach, often leads to a reformation in the self-awareness, identity, and self-determination of the students.

Fourth, unlike high school, where special education provisions have traditionally been designed by teachers and parents to replace regular instruction for this group of students (Broer et al., 2005), university supports are designed cooperatively by the student and his or her tutor, and intended to help the student access, as much as possible, the same instruction as other students. Stated more forcefully, high school adaptations and accommodations for students with IDD often are achieved by reducing, replacing, and/or simplifying curricular outcomes and evaluation standards (Reid et al., 2018). These are fundamental changes that place these high school students on “modified” programs, do not lead them to graduation with a “real” high school diploma, and project them into day programs, underemployment, or unemployment. In contrast, in Campus Life, adaptations and accommodations, for the most part, are designed to help students access general course curricula and typical learning experiences. This is done considering the prior knowledge, abilities, and interests

of the Campus Life students. While the Campus Life students are auditing students, a significant number of them have progressed from Campus Life into competitive employment, post-secondary community college credit programs, or a university degree program. For example, a student who participated in a physical education coaching and mentorship practicum was offered a permanent position at the practicum site after graduation. After taking courses in nutritional science, another Campus Life student obtained permanent employment in that field. As a final example, a Campus Life student who studied human ecology at university went on to study how to be an educational assistant at a community college. Nevertheless, at other institutions, some post-secondary provisions are offered as fully or partially segregated programs (Neubert et al., 2004; Grigal et al., 2012). We believe these approaches constitute a naive form of post-secondary inclusion that misses the opportunities students gain through genuine inclusion in general courses and other campus activities.

Fifth, in high school, many students with significant IDD experienced lowered expectations, easier courses, deficit assessments, labeling, segregated programming, exclusionary policies, and opportunities dependent on special funding and devaluation (Garrison-Wade, 2012). In contrast, over the past three decades, universities have developed disability (accessibility) services following an access model, rather than a segregation model, and consequently lack a history of institutional segregation, special curricula, separate funding, or exclusionary policies based on disability characteristics. This is a contentious point, as exclusion from university depends on academic achievement, but not on disability per se. Consequently, low graduation rates from high school for students with significant IDD severely limits the number of these students who seek to attend university.

Sixth, in comparison to high school, the university student body is typically larger and more diverse in terms of age range, linguistic and cultural background, prior experience, and disciplinary interests. Universities are a much more adult environment where differences are celebrated, and groups are more likely to originate in common studies, goals, beliefs, interests, and pastimes. In contrast, the peer cultures of high schools often are very different from those at university. High schools typically have “in” and “out” groups grounded in superficial characteristics such as popularity, wealth, peer pressure, beauty, athleticism, intellect, talent, and so on. In such circumstances, students risk their own

peer acceptance when they befriend a student with a significant disability (Wilson et al., 2012; Stephenson et al., in press).

Taken together, these factors suggest that university may be a more welcoming environment for students with disabilities because it is a bigger, more diverse, more inclusive, and more “adult” place than high school. In prior articles (Freeze et al., 2015; Lutfiyya et al., 2017; Stephenson et al., in press; Wilson et al., 2012) Campus Life students have expressed how they felt valued and appreciated at the university and related how they have made real connections there. In addition, we have received unsolicited feedback indicating that the Campus Life students feel they “fit in” and are well-received by their peers without disabilities. With respect to how professors and degree students feel about the Campus Life students, we have only anecdotal evidence. Several professors and many degree students have indicated that they value the presence of the Campus Life students because they challenge traditional university stereotypes and represent a step forward in human rights for people with significant IDD. Professors and degree students also have expressed appreciation for the motivation and determination they see in Campus Life students. Future research in this area is warranted.

Social Belonging

Valued participation and friendship development.

Universities offer more opportunities to meet more people with diverse backgrounds and interests than most other adult environments. Consequently, Campus Life students, especially those largely excluded from social belonging in high school, find a feast of opportunities for social engagement with peers without disabilities at university, both inside and outside of class. This reality differentiates the transition from high school to university from other transitions to adult life that are more likely to involve segregated living (e.g., group homes, adult care homes, institutions), unemployment or underemployment (e.g., day programs, sheltered workshops, supported employment placements) and limited recreational experiences (e.g., disability sports, segregated recreation programs). In contrast, Campus Life students have participated in a wide variety of inclusive activities, including those where they pay for membership (e.g., Toastmasters, Weightwatchers, intramural sports, fitness classes), participate as university students (e.g., orientation activities, student interest groups, clubs, and religious, arts, advocacy, and service groups), volunteer (e.g., daycare, food-bank, student recruitment

week, university food services), work for pay (e.g., live theater, university copy center, student accessibility services, guest lectures) and receive student services (e.g., Academic Learning Centre, Library, Career Mentor Program and other programs at the Student Counseling and Career Centre). Also, they sometimes just “hang out” at the student union or faculty lounges, cafeterias, and pubs.

In addition, Campus Life students become involved in student cohorts studying in the same discipline. The cohorts include in-class discussion groups and lab partners, as well as out-of-class study and cooperative learning groups. Friendships between students with and without disabilities are not uncommon in these contexts. Finally, Campus Life students often become friends with their classmates, tutors, and program volunteers, and their respective circles of friends. An important insight into friendship development for students with IDD at university is that while opportunities for real friendships are not directly mediated, Campus Life staff advise and coach the students so that they understand and take advantage of the patterns of interaction typical of university students in general.

Identity development. Enhanced social participation and friendship development are mirrored by internal changes that the students undergo. Being a university student is a highly respected, valued, and appreciated social role. Auditing students are not differentiated from other students in the classroom and engage in learning experiences that are, except for the tutorial supports they receive, identical to or very similar to other students. Just the reality of being able to say, “I am going to university this year,” creates a new set of positive expectations in others and themselves and leads to a new sense of self that is not defined by a disability label, deviant status program, or a devalued social role. We have noted changes in four key areas: personal presence, knowledge growth, self-awareness, and self-determination.

First, with respect to personal presence, Campus Life students likely are influenced, consciously and unconsciously, by the imagery and activities of their peers (Wolfensberger, 2013). We have observed that they actively adopt the dress, hairstyle, make-up, posture, and fashion trends of their classmates. These changes often are reinforced by their on-campus friends and classmates and add an element of individual style to their developing personas. Negotiating campus environments inspires new personal competencies in everyday activities including: using public transportation, locating classes, purchasing textbooks and other supplies, eating

in a cafeteria, accessing a banking machine, paying tuition, using libraries and computer labs, accessing online university systems, joining study groups, following class and tutoring schedules, participating in extracurricular activities, and managing their personal calendars to coordinate their school, work, home, and other obligations. We have observed that the development of new social competencies is associated with increased comfort in social situations, greater confidence and sociability, and the dissolving of learned helplessness in Campus Life students. This has led to increased personal exploration and positive risk taking in their academic and social pursuits on campus. For example, over the years, several Campus Life students joined Toastmasters in a proactive effort to become more comfortable speaking in public.

A second area of identity development relates to knowledge growth. While it might seem obvious that students attending university courses should increase their knowledge, we have observed a sea change in the vocabulary usage, conversational topics, and general erudition of Campus Life students. To some degree, the growth of their knowledge reflects the concepts and terms that arise in class discussions, study groups, tutoring sessions, and while researching assignments. However, to a surprising degree, it is a more general phenomenon that may be mediated by informal conversations with their professors, classmates, friends, tutors, study buddies, and others on campus.

Growth in the self-awareness of the Campus Life students is a third key element we have observed in their identity development. We have noted an increasingly sophisticated acceptance of their individual disability characteristics and deeper understandings of how those characteristics affect their academic learning, social relations, and personal imagery. In other words, they become better at: (a) “teaching” their tutors how to best support their learning by, for example, evaluating and selecting differentiated instruction strategies (e.g., telling the tutors which strategies have worked best for them in the past), (b) understanding the social conventions of relating to their classmates in areas such as recognizing other people’s needs for personal space (e.g., how close to stand in line at the cafeteria), when it is appropriate to talk with others (e.g., in the coffee shop, not in class), what to talk about (e.g., personal problems in a support group, not in a study group), and how often to call, text or email classmates and friends (e.g., text and wait for a response; don’t keep re-texting), and (c) looking and acting like university students (e.g., consciously replacing distancing behaviors such

as avoiding eye contact, looking down, and over-apologizing with more inviting behaviors such as making eye contact, adopting a confident posture, and sharing without defensiveness). The self-awareness of Campus Life students also has been promoted by their course choices. For example, several students have elected to take courses that explore gender, disability, and cultural issues, related to their own personal roads of self-discovery (Freeze et al., 2018).

More importantly, the Campus Life students begin to understand that their disabilities are social constructs as well as individual attributes. For example, once they understand that others’ expectations and assumptions, as well as cultural memes (i.e., big ideas that spread within a culture and carry cultural understandings and practices through time) have defined them, they begin to reframe their personal pasts in the light of this new information. This reframing leads to interesting outcomes. First, the Campus Life students often gain a new appreciation for the sustained commitment and advocacy of their parents. As two students have explained, they came to recognize the contributions of their parents in helping them to overcome the limiting assumptions, reduced expectations, and stereotyping memes they faced throughout childhood and adolescence (Wilson et al., 2012). Second, they consciously choose to become advocates for others with disabilities and recognize their roles as pioneers in opening post-secondary education to people with IDD (Freeze et al., 2018). For example, Campus Life graduates and students have participated at high school career fairs, presented in classrooms, held university art shows, published articles and book chapters, and presented at conferences (Freeze et al., 2018; Wilson et al., 2012). Finally, self-awareness of how disability is a social construct leads them to redefine their personal rights and expectations for the future. For example, when they are perceived and treated as autonomous adults at university, they begin to question how they are seen and treated in other settings in their lives (Freeze et al., 2018).

A final area of identity development relates to self-determination. Campus Life students express their self-determination in several ways. First, they make increasingly focused choices in course selection (e.g., first year exploration of diverse disciplines often evolves into a pursuit of knowledge in a particular discipline). Second, as they become more confident in their abilities to understand concepts, participate in class, and complete assignments, they require less facilitation, and their work more closely approximates that of their non-auditing peers. For example, the supports tutors provide typically

change across semesters and years. Basic instruction in skills such as reading, note-taking, studying, and contributing in class, are gradually replaced by higher order instruction in which the students take much more initiative in choosing assignment topics, managing their own reading and study time, and asking questions. This pattern is reflected in other changes. First year students need help registering for courses, paying tuition, buying books, navigating campus, using the library, accessing student services, joining clubs, and accessing other on-campus opportunities. Later-year students do most or all of these tasks on their own initiative and ask for and receive support to do them independently rather than with assistance. They also approach their studies with greater academic rigor, often wanting to complete assignments with fewer adaptations and write exams with fewer accommodations.

Facilitators of social development. In addition to the contribution of courses and extracurricular activities to building interpersonal connections and relationships for Campus Life students, the tutors also play an important role modeling and cueing social skills. To some degree, this occurs as observational learning through which Campus Life students imitate the actions and conversational styles of their tutors. However, it also occurs as the informal but explicit cueing of social skills, such as practicing for a volunteer placement or job interview or learning how to prepare a resumé. The tutors balance supporting the personal explorations of their students by “backing off” and allowing them to take social initiatives on their own. In addition, the tutors often introduce Campus Life students into their personal friendship circles and their academic, professional, and leisure networks. In other words, Campus Life staff has learned to “step back” and “give space” for the students to engage in social and personal exploration and redefinition, giving credence to the philosophy of the program that you can only learn life skills by participating in life.

A second facilitator of social development is a balanced approach to cooperation with student supporters in other life domains (e.g., home, work, community) and agencies (e.g., group home, supported employment, day programs). In other words, attendance at university is not seen as the only important activity in the lives of the Campus Life students. Coordination, negotiation, and advocacy across these domains is essential in the development of a “hidden curriculum” related to social belonging, identity development, general personal competency enhancement, vocational readiness, and work experiences (Freeze, 2015; Reid et al., 2018).

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, attendance at university should be seen as a legitimate destination for young adults with IDD who express an interest in continuing their education during high school transition planning. In almost two decades of experience, we have found the university setting to be a very important transformative form of positive compensation (Wolfensberger, 2013) for students with IDD that has led to both image and competency enhancement, and greater access to the good things in life.

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Social Inclusion in the Czech Schools from the Perspective of Non-Roma Female School Educators

Dušan Klapko

Masaryk University, Czech Republic

Abstract

In this research study, the author presents analysis of the testimonies of female school educators focused on everyday problems associated with school socialization of Roma pupils in the Czech education system. This study follows current trends related to school inclusion and equitable access to education. Given the breadth of the research material, the author focuses here mainly on summary interpretations supplemented by examples of testimonies from the target group of female school educators. For this publication, the researcher analysed the testimonies of female educators at so-called Roma schools in articles in the weekly Czech periodical Učitelské noviny (“Teachers’ Newspaper”) describing the education of Roma pupils. The methodological basis for this research was discourse analysis.

Keywords: *discourse analysis, social inclusion, school socialization, education of Roma pupils, Czech education system*

INTRODUCTION

Fulfilling strategic educational goals in school can be analysed from countless perspectives. These perspectives are anchored in the situational context. This situational context can be interpreted in a pluralistic way by the various participants in education (teachers, pupils, parents, etc.) according to each person’s existing knowledge. Efforts to achieve a set of strategic educational goals of the Czech education system are interpreted from different perspectives on how to achieve these goals by participants in education. The author considers it essential to distinguish between political discourse, which universally and thus uniformly presents a vision of the educational system, and the discourse of everyday educational practice, which situationally constitutes different modes of educational (communicative) interaction.

In the Czech Republic, the current strategic educational document is *Strategy 2030+* that responds to and builds on *Strategy 2020*. The main strategic educational priorities of the Czech education system were defined in *Strategy 2020* as follows: (a) reduce inequalities in education, (b) support quality of teaching and teachers, and (c) manage the education system responsibly and effectively. In *Strategy 2030+* the following two main objectives are defined:

1. “Focusing education more on acquiring competences required for active civic, professional and personal life.”
2. “Reducing inequalities in access to quality education and enabling the maximum development of pupils’ and students’ potential” (Fryč et al., 2020, p. 72).

The author’s point of view is rooted in the field of social education. For research purposes, social education is defined as a scientific field that analyzes the everyday effects of socialization and social relations on target groups in a local socio-cultural environment and then uses this analysis to inform educational action. The goal of this educational action is to achieve healthy interpersonal relationships and acceptance of self-responsibility and self-respect as a life value among these target groups.

In this research study, the author analyzes of the testimonies of non-Roma female educators who work in special schools with a majority of Roma pupils. The author believes that analyzing different actors’ everyday vision of social reality fosters understanding of the complex process of implementing social inclusion in education. Each person’s views vary according to different discourses of their situations. Given the objective of this research, the method of discourse analysis was chosen because it is considered an approach to knowledge generation, rather than merely a research method. This methodological approach of knowledge generation allows us to analyze the so-called discursive and non-discursive practices (Keller, 2013) of actors anchored in their lived reality—an intersecting social and cultural context. The author chose discourse analysis as a research method on the requirement of the “Index for Inclusion” (Booth & Ainscow, 2002), preferring qualitative over quantitative data.

Promoting Inclusive Mechanisms in Schools

Officially, the Czech education system is divided at the level of primary education into primary schools (for typical pupils) and special needs primary schools (for pupils with disabilities or disadvantages). In the field

of special education, the unofficial term *special school* had long been used in practice, referring to schools that served mainly pupils with mild intellectual disabilities or pupils with learning difficulties (this also included the category of pupils with social disadvantages). The term *special school* was gradually replaced by the term *practical primary school*. Today, this type of school is officially referred to as a “primary school established under Section 16(9) of the Education Act” (cf. Ministerstvo školství, mládeže a tělovýchovy, 2022; Vokáč, 2015).

The education of children with disabilities or disadvantages had long been segregated from mainstream schools in the Czech education system, specifically in the special education system. The aim of such education was not to exclude children with disabilities or disadvantages from the mainstream children, but to provide them with a specialised environment and education by specifically trained teaching staff. The philosophy of selective schooling rested on the idea of providing children with a “tailor-made” education that took account of their disadvantage or disability. The question is whether the very focus on helping children with disabilities or disadvantages also simultaneously stigmatizes these children with a social label. This label may lead to a stereotyped view of the perceived identity of these children through an aforementioned criterion, namely disability or disadvantage. In the selective schooling system, integration mechanisms rigidly separated special education from mainstream schools. Integration efforts retained the relative homogeneity of disadvantaged or disabled pupils within special classes, but offered the relative heterogeneity of the pupils within mainstream school attendance. The journey from integration to inclusion can be documented in the Czech education system during the last two decades (Zilcher & Svoboda, 2019).

Inclusion is a characteristic of quality education. Inclusion represents a complex system of educational policy and a culture of interpersonal relations. Philosophically, inclusion is based on the humanistic premise of equal rights for all people, on social justice, and on the freedom to choose one’s educational path. From the perspective of education policy, economics or legislation, the vision of a quality school based on inclusive mechanisms is technically feasible (Lazarová et al., 2015). The problem arises in the concrete functioning of inclusive mechanisms in schools, or in the perceptions of inclusion not only by participants in education but also of all members of society. In order to understand inclusion, it is necessary to perceive the difference

between the level of school inclusion achieved and society-wide inclusion. Narrowing down the scope of inclusion to the school environment alone is inherently incomplete, because inclusion cannot be implemented by simply changing legislation, increasing standards, providing special educational services or organizational interventions in the school system. These activities are only means that help achieve an inclusive school or inclusive education. The dialectical influence of society on the school and of the school on society intersect here. The essence of inclusion is setting the norms and requirements of society in terms of how it can treat people with disadvantages or disabilities and provide them with a supportive social environment to live a full everyday life. It is certainly not sufficient to advocate a notion of inclusion that “only” prevents stigmatization and discrimination against pupils with disabilities or disadvantages.

In addition, excessive emphasis on the care of disadvantaged or disabled pupils also leads to their stigmatization (Goffman, 2003). The right to autonomy in the management of one’s own life is fundamental to every person’s life. True inclusion can occur where people mutually recognise difference, diversity, equality of access, human support, community cohesion, and the autonomy of each individual.

The introduction of school inclusion has undergone a dynamic evolution in the last decade. Before 2016, there was a heated debate about the extent that inclusion would change the organization of the Czech school system (Klapko, 2016a). Advocates of across-the-board inclusion opposed the advocates of partial inclusion, although both camps followed similar goals. The goals were equal educational opportunities and addressing the individual educational needs of pupils. The so-called inclusionists, or proponents of the psycho-social model of inclusion (Lazarová et al., 2015), emphasized the values of equality, diversity, community life, participation, and individualization for pupils with disabilities or disadvantage in mainstream school practice. The inclusionists relied on the axiological dimension of equal rights for all and the uniqueness of each person or the conditions for experiencing the quality of their lives. At the same time, they benefited from the political influence of supranational organizations, such as the United Nations (UN); the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization bodies and agencies (UNESCO); the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), the Council of Europe (CE), the European Union (EU), and Amnesty International (AI). These supranational organizations supported a discursive trend

toward the adaptation of the school environment to the needs of the pupil. “The current situation repeatedly creates and reproduces inequality of life chances for special school pupils and their offspring. The selective mechanisms of the school system do not create equal opportunities for pupils with disabilities to engage in life” (Lechta, 2016, p. 61).

The opposition consisted of special education advocates and workers, i.e., the supporters of the psycho-medical model of inclusion. These individuals argued for maintaining forms of special education because it is the homogeneous environment that better suits the needs of pupils with disabilities or disadvantages (Lazarová et al., 2015). Advocates of special education referred to a functioning segregated school system spanning several years, where pupils outside the mainstream education system received an education that was tailored to their disability or disadvantage. The school infrastructure was preparing clearly defined job positions (e.g., special teachers, psychologists, social workers) and specialized departments dedicated to pupils with disabilities or disadvantages. Understandably, both camps had no problem defending their arguments (Klapko, 2016a).

A specific event that influenced the change in the concept of Czech education policy towards inclusive education was the judgment in *D. H. and Others v. Czech Republic*, a lawsuit brought against the Czech Republic by the European Roma Rights Centre (ERRC), alleging unequal access to education based on the ethnicity of 18 pupils in the city of Ostrava. In 2007, the Grand Chamber of the European Court of Human Rights ruled in favor of the plaintiffs. The Czech Republic had already ratified the European Convention on Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms so the court verdict obligated the Czech Republic, via the Ministry of Education, to provide annual reports on equal access to education in the Czech education system (cf. Ivatts et al., 2015; Devroye, 2009).

Civic associations and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) in the Czech Republic also promoted inclusion. In 1994, the civic association Rytmus was involved in inclusive education from the perspective of counseling and methodologies. Since 2005, equal conditions in education have been addressed by the League of Human Rights that managed the Fair School project. The Open Society Fund Prague was involved in the School for All II project of the AISIS association in the Czech Republic. The organization People in Need managed the project School for Everyone-School for All within the Variants program. The target group were

pupils from socially-excluded localities. Support for successful school attendance and educational options for pupils with social disadvantages, as well as training for teachers, was provided by a pilot project of the Ministry of Education and the Institute of Pedagogical and Psychological Counselling, called the Centre for Integration of Minorities (SIM) in 2006–2009. Inclusive principles were applied to education by the Centre for the Promotion of Inclusive Education (CPIV) project in 2010–2013. The CPIV project often collaborated with people inside and outside the school who promoted inclusion; these included school founders, school counseling centers, professional associations, representatives of universities, and staff of NGOs. In 2013–2015, the Ministry of Education ran a successful project known as Systemic Support of Inclusive Education in the Czech Republic. Project members were from Palacky University Olomouc and People in Need; they created a key document, *The Catalogue of Support Measures*, “Teaching Assistant’s Standard of Work” and other educational methodology manuals (cf. Lazarová et al., 2015; Česká školní inspekce, 2014).

METHODS

For this research, the author chose the methodological approach of discourse analysis. Before focusing on its characteristics, the concept of discourse will be explained.

In discourse, the mechanisms of language, knowledge, action, the spiritual world, the physical world (e.g., time, space) and the material world intersect. The mechanics of discourse is particularly evident in constructing social processes (e.g., identities of persons, social relations, categorization of events), based on the everyday knowledge of the actors. The interpretation of social events is usually influenced by the so-called dominant discourse that, for example, defines what is a valid testimony (Foucault, 1972). In the symbolic constructions of language, several discourses manifest at the same time, intersecting and transforming in different ways. Although a discourse has temporary validity, it can be understood as a state completed at a given moment, which “...represents the boundedness of social knowledge and action, signifying the certainty of individual meanings determined by the relation to other entities in a particular social environment” (Schneiderová, 2015, p. 22).

Interpenetration of discourses concerns all human activity. Discourses in education mean that one can, for example, speak and act according to the so-called tradition, or create alternatives; operate within a social

order, maintain or disrupt social norms, transmit experience, and share experiences. To summarize, discourses can highlight the content of our communication and experience. The meaning of the content of communication and experience can be revealed by analyzing the practical use of signs, i.e., natural conversation in a situational context. The meaning that persons individually attribute to events in communication leads to the intentionality of an individual's perception. Thus, actions are based on social position, on power, and on the expectations of other people reacting to our behavior according to normatively-shared knowledge. Through this self-reflection and subsequent conceptualization, individuals can accept the subjectivity of others in their thinking and evaluation. Conceptualization in one's communication means not only recognizing the general function or purpose of the described object, but also giving significance for oneself to the function of this object in the situational context. By means of conceptualization, one can continuously adapt to the constantly-changing world due to the action of different discursive contexts within an event. Everyday conceptualization of familiar objects and events can lead one to so-called automated expectations that cause us to stereotype reality or to fail to see the changes taking place in this reality. It is essential to realize that in a discursive context, people occupy or accept certain positions of power. People are thus driven by the dominant discourse to hold certain types of attitudes. The ability to use concepts in a communicative context is referred to as discursive competence by Harré and Gillett (1994). These discursive competencies are acquired through a lifelong application of rules in constructing the meaning of concepts. In the concrete discourse of speech, people mutually affirm some degree of shared knowledge of norms (Berger & Luckmann, 1967). For the researcher, the key to understanding people's utterances is the description of the social position of the speakers, located in a particular event (Willig, 2005).

If the researcher wants to know the social construction of the world of the person studied, they need to enter into their discourse of understanding reality. For this reason, the author regards discourse analysis as an appropriate research tool. "Discourse analysis is not merely a method of analysing data. Rather, it provides us with a way of thinking about the role of discourse in the construction of social and psychological realities" (Willig, 2005, p. 274). The discursive analysis approach focuses on the process of negotiating meanings between different interpreters of information. In this analytical approach, the linguistic level (utterances) and the

socio-cultural level (the conceptualization of utterances within a situation) are pursued, where the symbolic mediation of power interests and norms, represented by the different institutions and identities of communication actors, are intertwined. The analytical process from text to socio-cultural context (Fairclough, 2003) requires a high methodological skill from the researcher, because the researcher must be able to "read between the lines." Discursive analysis thus does not focus only on the interpretation of the research interviews themselves. For the researcher, there is an unlimited field of articulation of social interactions from which they seek to create an understanding of at least a limited slice of the social reality they perceive. Social reality is not perceived through the lens of a universal truth attained by different people to a greater or lesser extent. The actions of people are determined by their perceptions of the socio-cultural conditions. Based on the conditions of the social environment, people act and determine their everyday social life. An important aspect of the communication process is the actors' currently achieved level of knowledge of their own identity. Another essential aspect of communication is the social distribution of knowledge that influences other social subjects with whom the actors interact (Berger & Luckmann, 1967). Thus, discursive analysis focuses on the processes of situational highlighting of social reality from the perspective of different actors. Unlike other research methods, discursive analysis does not first try to accumulate a wealth of information in the data collection phase, which it then reduces to an imaginary funnel that condenses research communications in the analytical phase. On the contrary, the research material obtained during data collection further develops the breadth and depth of knowledge. The analytical and interpretive phases of the research are cyclically intertwined with the data collection phase and bring different interpretations of social reality.

Natural sciences tend to produce patterns and generalizations; a strength of discursive analysis is that it avoids this tendency. In the spirit of qualitative research, this approach emphasizes unique research conclusions. Discursive analysis is ideologically based mainly on constructivism, pragmatism, and structuralism. In the spirit of constructivism, the discursive analyst's research aims to interpret how all research participants differently describe and make sense of their world (cf. Klapko & Remsová, 2014; Klapko, 2016b). This analysis also includes the actions and knowledge of the researcher. In pragmatism, knowledge is a means of acclimatization to life's problems (cf. Dewey, 1933; Mead

& Strauss, 1969). In the spirit of Foucaultian structuralism, knowledge is a product of power and it produces power at the same time (Jäger & Maier, 2002). Discourse analysis does not claim to read minds; instead, it studies how speakers advocate their views, to whom they speak, what sources they refer to, or which institutions and ideological systems they subscribe to (Potter & Wetherell, 2004). Implementing social inclusion in schools does not offer a measure that can uniformly and accurately evaluate the different expectations, social roles and statuses, interests, and attitudes of different actors in schools. Discursive analysis accepts different perspectives as a starting point for research. In the case of compliance with legislative norms, the recognition of the different views and actions of actors seems to be taken for granted, taking into account the community's physical location. Each social actor has the right to his or her vision of social reality, which should be socially perceived and reflected (Walzer, 2000).

In this research investigation, the author applied methodological approaches that can be classified under four different sources. The first group includes the so-called *modi operandi* described by Thompson (1990). *Modi operandi* represent the strategies of symbolic construction of informants' statements by which they seek to ideologically influence their listeners.

Other methodological tools applied are based on discourse theory as formulated by Laclau and Mouffe (1985). These are called articulatory practices, and they include elements and moments. Discourse formation begins and ends with articulatory practice. Articulatory practice constantly and randomly intervenes with the structures of meaning of signs, breaking closed discourses and creating new ones. To explain the temporary emergence of a particular discourse, Laclau and Mouffe (1985) use the terms *elements* and *moments*. Elements represent multiple meanings that await their discursive anchoring. Discourse attempts to turn these elements into moments by reducing their multiple meanings, thus temporarily enclosing the meaning in a specific discourse. *Articulation* means creating a connection between individual constituents (elements) in such a way that their identity changes as a result of articulatory/expressive techniques. The structured whole resulting from these articulatory techniques is called a *discourse* (Laclau & Mouffe, 1985, p. 105).

In order to answer the research questions, the author also used interpretive repertoires (Potter & Wetherell, 2004) that represent the interpretation of social reality from the perspective of the informants' common sense.

In the context of the constructivist approach used in this research study, it is important to describe the formation of *binaries*. According to Schütz (Nohejl, 2001), binaries typify social reality. Binaries polarize the identities or opinions of the persons described. Binaries must be understood in the context of whole discourses, not in isolation, because they are situationally intertwined within cooperating and competing discourses. By creating binaries, the educators interviewed achieved meaning in their arguments. Binaries were used in the testimonies based on the situational self-localization of the educators and the researcher.

The aim of the research was to interpret the opinions of selected non-Roma female educators on the topic of educating Roma pupils in the context of social inclusion.

The following research questions are related to the research objective:

1. What version of social reality did the informants create with their testimonies on the topic of Roma pupils' education?
2. What speech strategies did the informants use to ensure the credibility of their testimonies?
3. What types of competing and collaborating discourses were encountered and what were the consequences for the construction of social reality?
4. Which interpretive repertoires were highlighted as central to the construction of social reality from the informants' perspectives?

This research meets the conditions of academic ethical standards in the Czech Republic and the Declaration of Helsinki (Giancola, 2021). The researcher's code of ethics was approved by the Czech Educational Research Association in 2013 (Česká asociace pedagogického výzkumu, 2013. <https://capv.cz/eticky-kodex-capv>). All research respondents (persons at school) were informed about the research goals. The identities of the informants were anonymized.

An Excerpt from the Data Analysis

Due to the limited scope of this study, the author in the following text only lists selected quotes from educators in their individual interviews. For ease of reference, the author has labelled the individual excerpts of the utterances with an interpretive repertoire (hereinafter, IR). The researcher's expressions are in bold type and designated with a "T." Remember that the unofficial term *practical school* refers to the current

official designation “primary school established under Section 16(9) of the Education Act.” The term *practical school* is commonly used in the Czech environment and therefore the educators used it when they spoke.

Explanation of the transcription:

- are excited – the underlined text refers to the intensity of the speaker’s intonation,
- (1) – the number in brackets indicates the length of a pause, in seconds,
- who: – a colon between syllables indicates a substantial lengthening of the vowel,
- = Mainstream ones – an equals sign means “butting in” (interrupting) on the other speaker,
- ((*laughter*)) – the text in italics in double brackets means expressing the speaker’s emotions,
- ... – an ellipsis means the omission of the text passage of an utterance.
- line numbering helps better orientation in the speakers’ utterances; this line numbering is used for a detailed interpretation of the data for each replica separately (for the purpose of our research study, we only present the overall interpretation of the data).
- In the samples, the researcher of the current study presents original recordings of the speakers’ statements. This is why the staff responses below contain imperfect stylistics and incomplete sentences; these are part of natural speech. This is evidence that the discursive analysis is based on natural conversations, not on post-edited (censored) texts.

Teacher A:

IR: The practical school is a place of safety for Roma pupils.

1. Because those kids are usually emotionally deprived, so they need a sort of mum.
2. So they don’t mind the teacher. I’d say (1) they feel alright here and the kids with mild mental
3. disability need to kinda mature a little bit. They’re a little slower to develop, so they’re
4. happy to be here, easily until they’re eighteen.

IR: Inclusion is a step back.

1. **T: So basically, I guess if we sum it up, it’s from the position of a teacher of a helping**
2. **profession. When I look at those kids, you could say the school is sort of tailor-made for**
3. **them?**
4. Yeah, exactly! And what’ll happen to these kids, I think, if we shove them into primary schools?
5. **T: = Mainstream ones?**
6. Mainstream ones, so they’ll be unhappy, unhappy and so will be their parents and grandparents
7. and we’ll put the education system I feel some twenty years back in time. ...
8. Well, that’s probably where it’s heading because I think that as we were being blamed for having
9. those kids here, why we have them here if when they don’t have mild intellectual disabilities so
10. that’s why I guess they should be at primary school, only they’d need someone to look after
11. them individually there.

IR: Practical school provides opportunities to succeed.

1. So, like in every classroom, the number of assistants would be the same as the number of teachers.
2. **T: That’d be a costly system!**
3. Very costly indeed. Well, I think it’s much cheaper to keep practical primary schools
4. and keep those kids happy, even if just for a few years, or let them experience success at
5. school.
6. Because if I’m gonna push somebody hard, they’re never gonna become a full-fledged person,
7. an adult, are they? They’ll always need some crutch and something to hold on to, so it’ll be no
8. surprise if they, for example, take to the bottle.

IR: Roma children are trapped in the reproduction of social patterns without the school’s help.

1. **T: What kind of life stories are they?**
2. Maybe one of ten kids, like, sticks to his own priorities: “Ma’am, I’m never gonna do this.
3. (1) I’m not gonna to be like mom!” And six months after he leaves this place, he’s back in there. ...
4. And I’m afraid that when he returns home, the family will seek him out as soon as he gets

5. some money from us here and as soon as he starts earning, I think he'll live again (0.5).
6. Gradually he'll adjust to them. He'll go back to where he was, and especially this one. This
7. is an awfully good kid who is gonna be used by the whole family to provide for them all,
8. yeah.

Teacher B:

IR: I mustn't play any games.

1. **T: And I'd like to know, for example, how do you make those kids respect you? How**
2. **do you make it happen?**
3. Well, I mustn't play any games. I mustn't act macho to show I'm something more.
4. Definitely not. Or, like, yeah, I mustn't from the position of strength. I always have to try to
5. discuss things with them. But they also get it that when I yell at them. They already know
6. something's wrong, like they've gone over the top or something. So, with each one
7. individually. In the beginning, it was tough, even though we knew the background of the
8. families and stuff. And when you know those kids, like, three or four years, and you know that
9. they're living in a rathole, three-by-four meter room, and there's ten of them and they have
10. nowhere to sleep and nowhere to put their things, and they're always dealing with lice and cold
11. and some violence and stuff. So Europe's capitals are just not important to them. That's how I'd
12. put it to you.

IR: Roma parents don't want Roma schools.

1. Our Roma assistants, for example, won't put their children in our school. Because there are a
2. lot of Roma children. And they want to have, I'd say (1) how to say it? I guess the
3. boys'd have to say yes, but they won't put the Roma child here because they know it's kinda
4. wilder here and they just don't want that environment
5. **T: = to drag them down?**
6. Yeah, exactly. So if they don't want that child to be dragged down by that environment, then
7. it's another school.

IR: Educating Roma kids after the ninth grade is a pipe dream; school isn't a priority.

1. That maybe they study for one or two years and either the girls go on maternity leave, right, or
2. they go away and say, "They were nasty to us there and they're racist." And stuff like that.
3. But then again, they cry racist every time someone gives them a mean look. Well, yeah, they're
4. very touchy in this respect, I'd say, yeah.
5. So they might even want to, but mostly, mostly it's like, if you do the ninth grade, after two
6. years, they're coming to show you the babies in the pram, yeah. So that's how it is, with the
7. women, it's like that (1).
8. **T: And with the boys?**
9. Boys, gosh. When I completed the ninth grade three years ago, there were about thirteen of
10. them. Five boys had started doing drugs and stuff in the meantime, so they were actually out
11. on the street in different gangs.

IR: There is no dialogue with Roma children at home.

1. Those kids, when they're a year old or so, the non-Roma mom will talk to them, and read them
2. books like *Ferd the Ant*, and she's like always talking to him and answering him. Whereas
3. Roma moms, well, not all of them, you know, I don't wanna hurt anybody, when the
4. kids make any sound, they give them a dummy. And we have, like in prep school,
5. you have five-year-olds, and they still have a dummy at six. Yeah, they're like not developing
6. at that age, at that early, you know, the earliest age, those like motor skills, you know,
7. all the things that moms normally do, yeah. Or they don't read them fairy tales, for example.

IR: It is harmful to the Roma that all they have to do is stretch out their hand.

1. They couldn't understand, for example, that I don't go to the welfare office to get money. That
2. I get money for the work I do. Yeah, so it was totally, I think the 7th grade, I was left just
3. speechless ((*astonished*)).
4. "Are you kids really serious you don't know you're gonna get paid for your work?"

5. T: = Do you think the adults understand it?

6. I don't know. They're used to it. They're used to, I don't wanna say stretching out their hand,
7. figuratively, but they are. They either yell it out, or (0.5) they don't have a long time in
8. between. I'm talking decades. It's just the habit. I work and I have a job and I have a
9. paycheck, yeah. They don't. You know, there are generations like in a row that don't really
10. work, yeah.

IR: *The Roma don't plan; they live in the present.*

1. And they say about us non-Roma that actually, when we have fun and maybe it's our
2. birthday, that we don't know how to spend money and we don't know how to enjoy
3. ourselves. That if we have a wedding, then we save everything like, for the next day. And that
4. we're like that: we save too much. They say, "Ma'am, you're saving too much. You must save
5. kinda a little." *((throws arms around))* So I say, "Okay, but if I fritter it away now, I know I
6. won't have it left for the next day." And they're like, "It's okay, it'll work out somehow." So we
7. plan as if and they don't plan at all.

Teacher C:

IR: *It is necessary to look at Roma people as they are and build on that.*

1. T: And if you apply this to yourself?

2. Do you mean what it gave me? What it took away from me? So I think (0.5) that it trained me
3. *((speaking judiciously))* It trained me maybe to be more tolerant. I learned an awful lot about
4. myself, about handling situations, conflict situations. I'm not saying I've always handled them
5. well, but just the fact that there were a lot of conflict situations. The fact that I got to know
6. people who are, you know, in spite of their facade, which is very, like, offensive: they
7. can be very beautiful personalities, and I now mean the kids. Like the facade; the facade is just
8. a facade, and that inside they're little kids who just want that love and that care, simply. And
9. that's why (1) and because they don't know how else to show it, how to ask for it, so they do it
10. that way. And also that if we want to raise somebody who's, like, so different, we just have to

11. be specific every time, and use the things that are primary for that purpose. Which means
12. particularly art, drama, music. And I feel the teachers rather need to become sort of moms
13. then. Like, you have to have that primary maternal instinct towards them that they need to make it work somehow.

IR: *There is a lack of relaxation in schools.*

1. What I haven't said yet. What else I would, I would definitely introduce into those schools
2. some sensory education and relaxation. I would definitely introduce it in that
3. curriculum. Because that's what they're badly lacking. They're so, like, disconnected and they
4. need to stop during the day and just be. They need the opposite of what they are. And that's
5. this here. It's the relaxation and exhaling, and then they feel okay. They're calm.
6. Music therapy. Definitely with them, music therapy into these schools too, because that's close
7. to their hearts.

IR: *You'll burn out if you take it personally.*

1. What bothered me more, I guess, but that's probably just normal, seeking that you're trying;
2. you're just trying to make it work, like if... And actually, after the class is over, you find out
3. that you're totally, brutally exhausted because you've been so supportive of them and they absolutely don't
4. **= T: Give a damn.**
5. = Give a damn. Or they do give a damn, but it's such a long, long-term job. And I kinda knew
6. that they need support. That they need like a kind word, but then you're just like... exhausted,
7. that's all. And then they tell you go fuck yourself, so then you'd just (2), "So what am I here for? Am I a fool then? *((angrily))* Like, I'm trying to support you right now and you like end up telling me this?" And I know I can't take it personally because it was like their outburst, but it always messes me up.

IR: *They're missing the message that you love them.*

1. And maybe they're missing like, hugs and things like, "Yeah, I love you, like

- now we're gonna do something together here and everything's gonna be okay." And I feel that.

Educational Counselor A:

IR: Roma people are caught in the vicious circle of social pathologies.

- I think they're just yelling at one another these days, partly because they're doing drugs.
- They're involved in criminal activity. So they're always in that, yeah, vicious circle and they
- can't solve problems. That's another thing, or competence, that I'd so much want
- to see. They don't know how to solve a problem. They can't argue. They'll attack straight away. They'll normally fight. They'll start shouting abuse at each other. And when there's a problem, "either I run away from it." They absolutely can't. They can't face a problem head on and deal with it in some way. "I'll run away or I'll find the guilty party."
- T: = "But it's never me. It's never my fault."**
- Yes, "it's basically *never* my fault." (*(resignedly)*)

Educational Counselor B:

IR: Problems from families are dealt with at school.

- Well, they're impulsive. You can do them good a thousand times and once you don't oblige
- and at that moment, you're already bad, they see it this way. It's momentary. It's the
- situation now. They don't think about it.
- T: =Basically, always a new present moment.**
- And when there's a problem in the family, they go straight away. It's happened here several
- times. They go to have a row. They already go to the school with the intention to provoke something, to vent their anger.

Teaching Assistant:

IR: Roma parents don't care about education.

- I'm talking so nasty, or maybe I sound so bitter. It's like because of those parents.
- You're just trying to do something. You're doing something there, but it's just totally futile.
- It's just completely pointless work! Because the kids might like it, yeah. There's just these

- moments where, "I don't wanna go home. Leave me here after school. Home is boring. There's
- nice stuff here. I want to draw here." So I let him stay until half past one, you know. Then
- mom comes in, mad and what have you. And the kid says: "I was bad, I got detention." And
- it's not true.

...

- Well, so in their case, I think, it's like perfectly clearly given, by the parents, just like totally (1)
- not giving a damn. They're like, "The kid can do everything, everything." But that thing from
- a young age that mommy like guides the kid, like, "Oh, look, this is such and such and that is
- such and such, and this color is red and that's an apple and that's just a tree and birds and
- spring, summer" (1) that doesn't work there at all. Just not at all! They're
- totally, they don't know it. They're not (1) like it. It doesn't even occur to those parents to teach
- them to do it, to encourage them to do it. These kids spend all day on the street, mostly
- pushing some kind of pram, yeah.

IR: Without authority, they'll have you in the palm of their hand.

- I didn't even know how to deal with them at the outset, how to approach them, how to behave.
- But you just have to be tough. They (0.5), they have some sixth sense to know your weaknesses.
- And they take advantage of that, and if you're not (0.5) tough on them, they've got you in the
- palm of their hand! They just they need the rules (0.5). If they don't have them at home, they
- at least need them at school.

DISCUSSION

Summary of the Analysis of the Non-Roma Educators' Views

The testimonial pattern of non-Roma educators (teachers, teaching assistants, educational counselors) constructed everyday school reality against the background of causal generalizations regarding the entire Roma population. The female educators often mentioned extreme pathological examples of parenting of Roma children. In this way, the construction of social reality achieved the effect of the urgent need to retain the so-called practical primary schools (currently

primary schools established under Section 16(9) of the Education Act (cf. MŠMT, 2004; Vokáč, 2015)), or to retain the selective model of education.

A common educational social reality was created as a construction of neglect by Roma parents. The interpretation of social reality thus had a predominantly negative connotation. In order to avoid the suspicion that the non-Roma educators were speaking on the basis of their prejudices against the Roma ethnic group, these educators often referred to their long-standing professional experience. Examples of good practice of functioning cooperation between the school and Roma families were the exception to the rule, thus rhetorically increasing the “impartiality” and validity of their statements.

The educators highlighted the role of a school for pupils with social or health disadvantages or disabilities as a socially urgent specialized contract. In their opinion, these schools must not only demonstrate specific didactic erudition, but above all they should fulfill a moral goal, which is to rescue the young Roma generation from socially pathological phenomena in their lived reality. This rescue perspective is characterised by increased care and demonstration of affection in the form of maternal love for Roma children. In contrast to the activities of non-Roma schools, school socialization in this case gives preference to the awakening of feelings and moral-social aspects of education rather than to education itself (the creation of knowledge) within the framework of teaching individual pupils. The educators justified reducing the pedagogical component of education in order to promote an individual approach to each pupil and to correct the failing of parental socialization. In the education at the first level of primary school, this individual approach is manifested by the teaching of the curriculum content at the level of pre-school content.

Informants blamed Roma parents for their children’s cognitive and social backwardness because they allegedly do not provide adequate parental care, especially during the preschool period (the first five years of a child’s life). Female educators detected evidence of this neglect in parents’ disinterest in communicating with their child. This lack of communicative stimuli delays linguistic socialization among Roma children, who spend their free time on the streets. When arguing about the topic of the school-Roma family relationship, the educators pointed to low attendance or the rapid deterioration of pupils’ grades, and in rare cases, treating injuries caused by pupils outside the school environment. Educators referred to Roma parents as school clients who need counseling.

The non-Roma educators asserted their opinions and descriptions in various speech constructions. Thompson (1990) named these ideologically-tinged speech constructions as *modi operandi* represented by: legitimation, dissimulation, unification, fragmentation, and reification. The individual *modi operandi* are further divided into lower units, called strategies. It is important to note that these speech constructions do not reflect social reality, but serve to support the speakers’ arguments.

The *modus operandi* of legitimation promotes relations of dominance and subordination among people or social groups (Thompson, 1990). In this research investigation, the strategy of rationalization was the most frequently applied in this *modus operandi*, with arguments for maintaining selection of education, highlighting the social contribution of former practical schools for students with disadvantages or disabilities. This has, among other things, supported an alternative discourse that goes against the politically current trend of social inclusion. At the same time, the non-Roma educators used rationalization to affirm their professional expertise and social usefulness. The strategy of generalization (universalization) also became part of legitimation, whereby the non-Roma educators constructed quotations from the testimonies of the Roma pupils and parents that they recalled from their professional practice. They subsequently treated these quotations as evidence characteristic of the entire Roma ethnic group. The narrativization strategy of non-Roma educators predicted how Roma pupils had little chance of keeping up with the pace of learning in non-Roma schools and how they would not be happy in these schools. A very common subject of narratives was the Roma family, described as dysfunctional or even morally depraved. In this way, the educators again reaffirmed the former practical schools as Roma pupils’ only hope.

The *modus operandi* of dissimulation is intended to provide a single possible vision or solution to the phenomenon under study, thus diverting attention from describing its complexity and variability (Thompson, 1990). In this *modus*, non-Roma educators focused on the dysfunctionality of Roma families in the context of primary socialization. In particular, the strategy of displacement was used, which was manifested in the absence of a description of a functional Roma family. The statements often connected with the strategy of generalization to highlight the rhetorical effect of the speech. The *modus operandi* of dissimulation was also manifested in the formal aspect of the organization of educators’ testimonies, which was represented by a strategy

called trope, i.e., a fixed figurative name, that changes the meaning of a statement based on the similarity of words (cf. Brukner & Filip, 1997; Chaloupka, 2007). In tropes, there is a figurative use of language known especially from literature. In this case, this involved the use of metaphors that affirmed both the social superiority of the educators in contrast to the constructed neglectful upbringing of Roma parents, as well as the social disengagement and disintegration of Roma children. Examples of the metaphors used included: “pushed out of the womb”, “building a house without a foundation”, “working in a tunnel all your life” or “children standing over an abyss.” Educators’ opinions were reinforced with so-called “self-evidencing” (cf. Šanderová & Šmídová, 2009) of given and logical truths about the described reality. In this way, the educators constructed axioms that did not need to be critically analyzed or questioned. An example of an axiom was the construction of the intellectual disability of Roma pupils caused by the neglectful care of their parents. At the same time, this construction created a space for proposing a solution in the form of greater school intervention in the education of pre-school Roma children.

In the modus operandi of unification, the cohesion of a particular social group is formed, for example, through a collective identity regardless of the differences existing within that group (Thompson, 1990). An example of its use involved the strategies of standardization and symbolization of unity in the topic of future employability of Roma pupils. Here, collective identity was constructed against the background of the binary of working and educated non-Roma versus unemployed Roma. A common feature of the symbolic unity of the non-Roma population was anchoring it into the priority to find a place in the labor market. Another example was the description of the Roma children’s imitation of their parents in their negative attitude towards education or the value of learning, towards the abuse of social benefits or towards meaningful spending of leisure time. More sensitive topics were presented in offensive speech to achieve a stronger rhetorical effect.

In the modus operandi of fragmentation, the speech constructions are meant to create an awareness of a threat by an enemy or by pointing out the danger taking place in a particular social group (Thompson, 1990). To increase social dominance and moral superiority, the we–they binary is commonly used in this mode, which is qualitative in nature. The qualitative character means that the use of the personal pronoun *we* assumes positive characteristics of the social group, while the use of the personal pronoun *they* assumes

negative characteristics (van Dijk, 2011). The differentiation strategy emphasises the differences and contradictions between social groups. A typical theme of the school educators’ arguments was the comment on the voluntary unemployment of Roma and their life on the streets. By using the strategy of differentiation, the non-Roma educators thus increased the significance of the assertion of the power superiority of the non-Roma population in terms of access to employment. In the case of Roma children, this explains the logic of cause and effect that leads to the fact that Roma children complete their education predominantly in former primary schools practically due to low cultural capital. The strategy of elimination of the other also served to confirm the “truths” of the school educators. Polarization presents examples from social reality on a bipolar scale. Through polarization, the non-Roma educators constructed the successful socialization of Roma children in school and the antisociality of the lives of these Roma children in the out-of-school environment.

In constructions of social reality, the non-Roma educators also used the modus operandi of reification, which deliberately affirms the speakers’ interpretation as a given and so-called natural state, existing independently of time (Thompson, 1990). This is particularly significant in maintaining the power position of an elite social group over other social groups. To reinforce the described reality from the perspective of the non-Roma educators, the strategy of naturalization of the narrated examples from educational practice, supplemented by indirect “second-hand” quotations, was used. For example, the topic of maintaining selection in education was deliberately portrayed in the context of positives for the future life of Roma children. On the one hand, this socialization may bring less stress to Roma children from the pressure of school performance and may better meet the requirement of an individual approach to the child, but it simultaneously excludes these children from participation in a higher type of schools, thus fulfilling the function of social and cultural selection and educational reproduction. Former practical primary schools, where Roma children used to be placed in large numbers, were described as the optimal educational solution in the naturalization strategy. The educators justified their reassignment to the former practical schools by referring to the unruly (problematic) behavior of Roma children, to their reduced intellectual abilities, to their rejection of non-Roma authorities, to the hatred of the non-Roma population instilled in them by their Roma parents, and to the life pattern of “street children,” etc. Thus, with the help of reification,

the topics discussed give the impression of clearly positive effects of the selective education system (Klapko, 2016b).

It can be concluded that the educators used a wide range of *modi operandi* to create typified examples of educational practice. In them, the non-Roma educators used verbal phrases with unambiguous negative connotations for the activities of Roma pupils and their parents or with resolute expressions that excluded alternatives. On the other hand, the non-Roma educators evaluated the school's activities in an unambiguously positive way as an institution that corrects the primary (family) socialization of Roma pupils. Constructing social reality this way can be considered ideologically biased because it serves to maintain the school's levers of power. In respect of this polarizing evaluative description of social reality, van Dijk's (2011) methodological tool of the "ideological square" is worth mentioning. Applying the ideological square to the educators' speeches was based on two binaries: us - them and pros - cons. The speakers represented the "we" camp by highlighting the pros and downplaying their own shortcomings, while for the "they" camp, the educators downplayed the pros and highlighted the cons. This led to member categorization and the establishment of binding norms and sanctioning rules. To emphasize the argumentative level, the non-Roma educators settled their claims in so-called verdicts (final decisions) or paraphrasing the testimonies of Roma pupils and their parents. They constructed evaluations of social reality in the form of philippics (offensive speeches), which prepared a discursive space for social labeling of Roma pupils. The illocutionary power (Austin, 1976) of the non-Roma educators' statements was aimed at eliciting sympathy and pity for the fate of Roma children, as well as acknowledging the specifics of teaching in a school with Roma pupils, condemning the neglectful upbringing of Roma parents, and then calling for correcting the deeds of Roma parents.

We will now focus on the methodological tools of discourse analysis defined by Laclau and Mouffe (1985): the so-called articulation practices, elements, moments, contact features, floating features, and the concepts of hegemony and antagonism.

The non-Roma educators relied on the power discourse of institutional education (this discourse designation was created by the author of the research), which reinforces the social superiority of the pedagogical worker over the Roma pupil. This discourse was represented by the binaries of us-them, educator-Roma pupil,

adult-child, and expert-lay person. These social binaries formed an articulation scheme within the categorization inventory.

The earlier discourse on power asserted the power of the school as an educational institution to intervene in the life of the Roma child, or Roma families, for the purpose of education, social counseling or social work. The key area of school intervention was identified as the early socialization of Roma children. The educators defined the dependence of Roma children on school socialization, as the school supposedly compensates for parental deficits in the children's development. Thus, Roma pupils were categorized as waiting for professional intervention from the school. A significant moment of articulation practice was the socialization anchoring of the school as a hierarchically higher institution than the Roma family. The reason was an argument demonstrating the corrective activities of the school, which must make up for the neglected development of Roma children caused by the indifference (or ignorance) of the educational practices of Roma parents. Among the elements of articulatory practice, we can include the latently-assumed difference in the goals of Roma parents' upbringing, as well as the school's power-promoting ideology that forces children to prepare for competitive employment, or the disinterest in the everyday knowledge of the Roma. This knowledge is culturally different from that of non-Roma society.

Based on their professional practice, the educators constructed an obvious difference in cultural capital between Roma and non-Roma children. Thus, the topic of "expected level of family socialization" was related to the discourse of institutional education. This theme was given significance as a basic unit of the functioning of the social order in Czech society. This can be described as a discourse of civic responsibility (this discourse designation was created by the author of the research), in which the following binaries were used: school - home, school - Roma family, social care - neglectful care, and child education - upbringing for crime. These social binaries formed an articulation scheme within the categorization inventory. This type of discourse affirmed the expected and normalized cooperation between school and family in terms of the needs of the school.

Clearly, in the case of Roma parents, this kind of rule-setting can cause problems. The reason for the problematic nature of the situation was, among other things, the different understanding of the value of education in the context of the pupil's social application, for example in the form of educational attainment and subsequent salary. In this case, the educators were

inclined to assess the conditions of equal access to material and spiritual goods on the one hand, and the irresponsible attitude of Roma parents to limit their children's educational chances on the other.

A highlighted moment of articulation practice was the normative appeal to the personal obligation of every parent to prepare their children for service in a democratic, free-market society. This service to society is normatively expected in encouraging and guiding children to do well in school and to subsequently choose prestigious schools as a prerequisite for their future employment. The existence of prestigious schools validates the assumed starting point of view of the educators, based on a selective model of education, not on the existence of an inclusive school. Thus, in their opinion, Roma parents have to actively share with the school the commitment to their children's educational obligations and results. In the event of academic failure, the school has the right to seek explanations and remedies from parents. The non-Roma educators said that the social order is based on the emulation of social patterns in which parents are expected to go to work (commitment to support the family) and to guide their children to study within their individual capabilities in preparation for civic life (commitment to society).

The academic failure of a Roma pupil or his/her delayed intellectual development is considered likely, given the social conditions of Roma families. The discourse of civic responsibility does not accept if Roma parents or Roma pupils refuse the helping hand of the educational system that offers a second chance. Among the elements of articulation practice in the discourse of civic responsibility we should see the right of free decision of each Roma parent to autonomous educational action. Similarly, the preference of life values can create different educational and life patterns than those applied by mainstream society. Unless these patterns break the law, then it is questionable whether the school has the right to put pressure on Roma parents. There is also an opposite approach in communication between the school and the Roma family, whereby the school would adapt to the lifestyle of the Roma family, which is a condition for the implementation of measures related to inclusive education.

Closely linked to the discourse of civic responsibility was the discourse of finding a place in the labor market (this discourse designation was created by the author of the research). In this discourse, typified patterns of behaviour were characterized in binaries: non-Roma - Roma, employed - unemployed, employment - abuse of social benefits, and financial literacy - financial illiteracy.

These social binaries formed an articulation scheme within the categorization inventory. In this case, school was legitimized because of the desire to motivate Roma children to regularly fulfill their school obligations as a way for future employment in the labor market and for upward social mobility. The attempt to characterize the mechanisms of social reproduction in Roma society was rhetorically realized through qualitative word types (mainly pronouns and adverbs), which by their introduction affirmed the evaluated characteristic of the described phenomena. For example, the expression "in that environment" was understood in the speakers' statements as equivalent to a problematic environment.

A highlighted moment in the articulation practice was the demand for a commitment to upward social mobility for Romani children whose environment is stereotypically and symbolically classified as an excluded locality. The key to this mobility may be the employment of Roma parents and the support of their children to study and achieve at least the level of an apprenticeship certificate. This research shows that one element of articulation practice involved the limited opportunities for Roma in the labor market due to their lower educational level, lower cultural capital, and social reputation. The educators acknowledged the social disadvantage of Roma, which is manifested in distrust of mainstream society. Employment opportunities for Roma are thus more likely to be in unskilled professions, but this confirms the futility of study efforts. In addition to the persistent problem of low cultural capital which, according to the educators, results in low educational attainment and thus low employment opportunities, the cultural pattern of Roma people associated with starting families at an early age is also strongly manifested here.

The discourse of equal educational opportunities (this discourse designation was created by the author of the research) was most prominent in the topic of "selection in education." Here it was argued through binaries: alternative learning - drill learning, provision of emotional background in school - pressure on learning performance, former practical school - mainstream school, teacher as a didactic specialist - teacher as a field worker, individual approach to the pupil - mass frontal teaching, and Roma child - non-Roma child. These social binaries formed an articulation scheme within the categorization inventory.

The non-Roma educators tried to demonstrate the adequacy of maintaining the former practical schools. Their main testimonial pattern was the promoted knowledge of the Roma environment, knowledge of the

mentality of Roma pupils and their parents, or mastery of the specifics of the ways of communicating with Roma pupils. These educators categorized themselves as experts providing optimal educational capital. Thus, these individuals opposed social inclusion not in theory, but in practice. For this reason, these individuals differentiated themselves hierarchically from their colleagues in non-Roma schools. A highlighted moment in the articulatory practice of the educators was the maintenance of a selective system of education in which former primary practical schools function in the position of “tailor-made schools.”

In this way, the special education sector has discursively retained regulation over the education of pupils with medical or social disadvantages or disabilities. By maintaining the exceptional status of special education in the school system, the educators simultaneously constructed an identity as specialists. By highlighting the specialized expertise of educators in former practical schools, Roma pupils were discursively attributed with remaining in the social stigma of clients dependent on social interventions. Against the rejection of competing mechanisms of social inclusion, the non-Roma educators argued that it was necessary to separate the conditions for full inclusion and the conditions for functional inclusion.

Here, full inclusion was constructed as a social hazard for teachers from mainstream schools and a source of conflict between a diverse group of pupils, while functional inclusion (or rather integration) was based on the proven practices of special educators. Functional inclusion was primarily about meeting the needs of Roma pupils, but in practice this meant agreeing to separate teaching and lowering academic expectations. An element of articulatory practice in the discourse of equal educational opportunities was to allow for curricular alternatives and to acknowledge educational concepts that promote the personal and social development of pupils rather than teaching the memorization of knowledge. Thus, the priority is not to prepare for professional employment, but to shape the self-development and self-esteem of Roma pupils.

At the end of the analytical and interpretative part of the current study, the author will reiterate the contradiction between the theoretical acceptance of the idea of social inclusion in schools and the practical problem of its everyday implementation. The discourse is constructed around a particular nodal point or multiple nodal points (Laclau & Mouffe, 1985). A nodal point is a privileged sign that determines the context of other signs and thus organizes a particular discourse.

The nodal point in current pedagogical discourse is the idea of social inclusion in schools. This discourse is institutionalized by the highest Czech body of education policy, i.e., the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports (MŠMT), and its content is made up of strategic educational documents. The theoretical definition of social inclusion in schools is thus relatively anchored, although it cannot be said that it is a unilaterally accepted concept.

Interdisciplinary institutional cooperation involves social scientists, researchers, some (transnational) NGOs, representatives of the Ministry of Education, educational institutions, and school educators. The establishment of the meaning of the nodal point (social inclusion in schools) through articulatory practice is thus enabled by official power discourse. In contrast to the theoretical framing of the nodal point (social inclusion in schools), educational practice stands out. Views on the practical implementation of social inclusion in schools represent a highly-polarized discursive node that is interwoven with competing discursive currents. The two main opposing camps include supporters of full inclusion and supporters of partial inclusion (or partial selection), promoting the retention of former practical primary schools within the competence of special educators. The issue of social inclusion in schools is at the level of so-called floating signifiers, which means that the concepts of this school reform are highlighted in a discursively contrary manner. Thus, the process of social inclusion in schools is still in a phase of anchoring meanings. There are numerous competing actors in this field of education policy. The author believes that the analysis and interpretation of the views of teachers, (active) parents and their children should play a key role in this process, as they are the target groups. The education system shapes the mechanisms for the promotion of certain social values, which should ensure appropriate educational conditions for children and for effective school-family cooperation.

LIMITATIONS

The author has presented the results of the discourse analysis in the previous chapter. It is now necessary to point out the limitations of the research findings.

The first limitation concerns the tendency to generalize the conclusions presented. The description and interpretation of the research data must be understood within the context of a small sample of speakers and therefore it would be misleading to generalize the findings to the whole population of female school educators, for example. In line with the premise of negotiating meanings

through verbal and non-verbal utterances in a situational context, once recorded, the utterances made by specific informants in a particular social space and time cannot be considered immutable. On the other hand, among the advantages of discursive analysis the author includes the aspect of in-depth coverage and interpretation of only what the people said during the study. Discursive analysis allows us to present an interpretation of a section of social reality based on the researcher's participation in the collection and analysis of data.

The second limitation relates to the tendency to consider scientific conclusions as objective and permanently valid. Yet objectivity and independence of knowledge is considered impossible in constructivist-oriented research (through discourse analysis). This is due, among other things, to the fact that the informants highlighted reality from their social position and self-location in the discourse. Thus, the non-Roma educators created an interpretation of reality seen in educational practice at a particular school.

The third limitation lies in setting the boundaries of the discursive analysis itself. Due to the unlimited number of sources that are part of the intersecting discourses, it is unrealistic to produce an exhaustive analysis. The comprehensiveness and incompleteness of the discourses exceed the researcher's methodological procedures, tools, and capacity. Social reality operates in a constant flux of the meanings of objects, the social positions of actors, and the scope of competing and collaborating discourses.

The fourth limitation stems from the selective choice of the sources of knowledge available to the researcher and educators in constructing social reality. These sources of knowledge are revealed by discursive analysis using the so-called emic approach. The emic approach (cf. Šanderová & Šmídová, 2009) seeks to understand the interpretation of social reality of the persons under study from their position of understanding concepts, from their professional experience, from their particular point of view. Thus, in line with the constructivist approach, the researcher succeeded in demonstrating that the so-called truths about social reality are conventional in nature and purposively serve speakers to promote their own speech goals and to affirm their identities. In these speech goals, one's own position of power is usually asserted; for example, the erudition of the educators in the professional field at schools established under Section 16(9) of the Education Act (cf. MŠMT, 2004; Vokáč, 2015). In the emic approach, it is also important to draw attention to the activities of the researcher who, despite all efforts, cannot provide

an impartial interpretation of the recorded statements of the persons under study. The researcher's interpretation reveals his or her own perspective of seeing the social reality he or she is investigating. It is important to note that the interaction of the interview between the researcher and the educators was conducted in the discourses of people who work in education. By this aspect, both parties could claim a professional assessment of the state of education of Roma pupils. On the other hand, the source of their knowledge was not the direct experience of family socialization or education in Roma families. They drew their knowledge from professional experience gained from interaction with Roma parents and pupils and from the repertoire of shared, typified knowledge about Roma assumed by non-Roma society.

CONCLUSION

The author believes that discourse analysis provides us with an interesting methodological approach to grasp speakers' linguistic constructions in the social context of their lived reality. These linguistic constructions are understood as a manifestation of a person's thinking, which guides his or her actions. The author begins with the assumption that people act on the basis of their everyday knowledge, i.e., their constructions of concepts and their interpretation of experience. The word, or utterance, is regarded as a speech act by which they form and negotiate the meanings of their utterances, the acceptance of their social status, as well as the formation of their worldview, i.e., "truth", which is purposive in nature. In this case, the author is noting the use of interpretive repertoires. Through this excerpt of analysis from the current research, the researcher has attempted to unpack the statements on social inclusion in schools from the perspective of selected female school educators working in schools established under Section 16(9) of the Education Act (cf. MŠMT, 2004; Vokáč, 2015). Most pupils in these schools are Roma.

Returning to the initial statement of the difference between the uniform proclamation of educational goals within political discourse and the plurality of the everyday communication of meanings between specific people, the author uses analogy to compare the process of social inclusion in Czech education to Habermas' concept of the natural world and the systemic world, or to the theory of discursive democracy (1990), or to Honneth's principle of recognition (2018). In line with the aforementioned sources, the author of this paper views social inclusion in a society-wide way, especially in the individual's right to autonomy and to reflect on social events.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- Create a position for a school researcher (or a team of researchers) to analyze the everyday knowledge of Roma pupils and parents.
- Develop a discussion across the social spectrum about the importance of education for every citizen of the Czech Republic. For the politically-proclaimed goals of the education system, it is necessary to make individual measures real in the lives of the actors.
- Introduce the concept of “dialogizing the educational environment” into the school curriculum. This would invite all educational participants to create a communication climate that accepted Roma pupils’ otherness. The means for implementing this concept could be a balanced integration of the three dimensions of the curriculum (cognitive, affective, psychomotor) in the context of the pupil’s personal and social development. A dialogic educational environment is the essence of social inclusion, as it provides a space for participatory negotiation of social conditions based on the individual needs of pupils, while at the same time providing opportunities for their educational growth.
- Apply the principle of equal access, especially in enabling social space (Kessl & Reutlinger, 2010) or social space pedagogy (Deinet & Reutlinger, 2004) for the pluralistic communication of the meanings of education in the lives of educators, Roma parents, and Roma pupils.

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Literacy Based Behavior Interventions to Increase Independence for Individuals with Disabilities

Kalynn Hall Pistorio
Columbus State University, USA

Shannon Eshman
Vanderbilt University, USA

Abstract

Literacy based behavior interventions (LBBI) help individuals with intellectual and developmental disabilities (IDD) acquire various skills. These interventions use written language coupled with visuals, rehearsal, and reinforcement to teach novel skills to individuals with disabilities. Research has shown LBBI to be effective with children as young as two learning self-regulation to adults learning job skills. The purpose of this article is to discuss how literacy based behavior interventions are developed, and how teachers, parents, and caregivers can use them to help individuals with IDD attain and maintain new skills.

Keywords: *Literacy based behavior interventions, intellectual and developmental disabilities, self-advocacy*

INTRODUCTION

Schools and colleges may struggle to find socially valid interventions that can be customized to address the social and academic needs of learners who have intellectual and developmental disabilities (IDD). Social validity means that the skill being taught should be of value to both the learner and their families (Wheeler & Richey, 2019). Social validity is important to both learners and their families because it helps them learn functional skills necessary for life rather than learning that has little lifetime benefit for them. The skills the students need to learn must be individualized to their daily routines so they can complete the task independently. Literacy based behavioral interventions (LBBI) use written language paired with visual, rehearsal, and reinforcement (Bucholz & Brady, 2008). These interventions are developed from a task analysis of the specific skill and setting that the student needs to learn. By using real-life pictures from a personal view, the LBBI is customized to match what the student will see as they complete the task (Brady, Hall, et al., 2016).

To many individuals with IDD, getting a job is a goal associated with independence, pride, and dignity. A job provides an opportunity to earn money which, in turn, helps that individual become more independent (Kearney & Dukes, 2018). However, to obtain jobs, students must learn functional skills, including daily living and job skills (Bartholomew et al., 2015). LBBI help pave the way for individuals with intellectual and developmental disabilities to obtain higher-paying jobs, better health, and improve their overall quality-of-life

by successfully teaching such skills (Hall Pistorio et al., 2018). LBBI have been successful in teaching skills, including proper hygiene, time management, and appropriate social behaviors (Brady, Hall, et al., 2016; Hall Pistorio et al., 2017; Kearney et al., 2018).

LBBI

Literacy based behavior interventions and supports (LBBI) are defined by Bucholz and Brady (2008) as, “instructional interventions that use print and pictures as an instructional medium.” LBBI are often confused with Social Stories™. However, Social Stories™ require a stringent format that can make them difficult for classroom teachers to create and implement. Additionally, LBBI include the behavioral principle of rehearsal during the intervention, which was shown to have an impact on performance (Kearney et al., 2018). Although social stories have existed for almost 30 years, they are still not considered an evidence-based practice (Qi et al., 2015).

In contrast, the research shows that LBBI help people with IDD acquire skills including: learning first-aid (Kearney et al., 2018), handwashing (Brady, Hall, et al., 2016), sandwich-making (Brady, Honsberger, et al., 2016), and self-regulation (Hall Pistorio et al., 2017).

Creation of LBBI for Individual Students

The research on LBBI up to this point has examined their efficacy within different regions of the United States with individuals with varying social economic statuses and resources. The practicality of developing and implementing LBBI lends itself well to potential

implementation in other countries as behavioral principles and visual pictures have been shown to help learners with IDD acquire skills across geographic locations (Bucholz & Brady, 2008; Kearney et al., 2018; Schlosser et al., 2017). LBBIs are practical because they can easily be tailored to individual students' needs, using local resources. LBBIs can be created in these five steps: (1) determine if the student has the prerequisite skills need for a successful LBBi, (2) identify the skill being taught, (3) create a task analysis, (4) develop the LBBi using the task analysis and appropriate visuals, and (5) determine how and when to deliver the LBBi to the student. LBBIs begin with a task analysis and then the creation of either a physical or an electronic book. According to Hall Pistorio et al. (2018), LBBIs are slightly more effective on a tablet; however, paper-based LBBIs did increase skill acquisition and were shown to be effective in other LBBi research. The decision on which medium to use should depend on the learner, their abilities and experiences, the skill, and the available resources.

Step 1: Confirm Pre-requisite Skills

For an LBBi to be effective, a student must be able to attend to a short story, have interest or willingness to learn the skill, and be able to follow one-step directions.

Step 2: Identify the Skill Being Taught

A specific skill should be targeted for the story. Multiple stories may be needed for complex skills. For example, if a student needs to have the skills required to join a track team, then they may need to know how to request a tryout, tie their running shoes, and use a timer.

Once the specific skill is identified, consider what it requires: self-advocacy skills, social skills, appropriate tone, and conversational volume. Prerequisite skills must already be present for the LBBi to be effective. It must also be determined if an LBBi is an appropriate way to teach the skill. Can the skill be task-analyzed? Can visuals be developed?

Table 1
LBBi: Asking the Coach to Tryout for the Team.

Task Analysis	Description	LBBi
1. The student approaches the coach.	The student will walk towards the coach and stop approximately three feet in front of the coach.	First, I walk up to the coach.
2. The student makes eye contact with the coach.	The student will look at the coach in the eyes.	Next, I look at the coach in the eyes.
3. The student greets the coach.	The student will say hello to the coach.	I say hello to the coach.
4. The student introduces themselves.	The student will tell the coach, "My name is ____."	I tell the coach my name. I say, "My name is Frankie."
5. The student explains their request.	The student will explain to the coach that they want to try out for the track team, using complete sentences.	After the coach introduces themselves, I ask, "Coach, can I try out for the track team?"
6. The student answers the coach's questions.	If the coach asks questions, the student will attempt to answer them.	The coach might ask me some questions. If Coach asks me questions, I will try my best to answer them.
7. If the student does not know the answer to the question, the student will write down the question and respond to the coach via email after checking with another teacher for assistance.	If the student does not know the answer, they will write down their question and email the coach the answer later.	If the coach asks a question I do not know the answer to, I will write down the question. I can get help answering the question later. Then I can email the coach. I will tell Coach I will email them when I know the answer.
8. The student thanks the coach for their time.	The student says, "Thank you for your time, Coach."	When I finish talking to the coach, I thank them. I say, "Thank you for your time, Coach."

Step 3: Develop the Task Analysis

A task analysis is a breakdown of an identified skill into measurable and observable steps. These steps are then described in observable and measurable terminology. Lastly, they are converted into systematic instructions for the LBBI story. Table 1 depicts what such a breakdown of tasks may look like.

In the first column, labeled “Task Analysis,” the skill has been broken down into eight distinct steps. In the second column, labeled “Description,” each step of the task analysis is described so that it is clearly measurable and observable. The third column, “LBBI,” are the words that the student will receive.

Step 4: Create the LBBI

Once the task analysis is developed, it is time to create the LBBI. Consider which LBBI format will be presented to the student. For instance, the LBBI could be delivered on paper or electronically and a peer or mentor could deliver it. Determining which method is best will depend on the situation, but knowing which method is important. For example, if a peer will deliver the LBBI, then the written content must be at a level they can read. Will the LBBI be delivered via a paper book? If so, is there a printer available if the LBBI is created using a computer and photos? Or will the paper book be handwritten with drawings?

After selecting a delivery method, the LBBI can be created. The written steps in the third column of Table 1 will be entered into the book, typically with one step per page, although this can be customized based on the student, and steps that they may have already mastered may be combined into a single page. Next, the visual will be added. Typically, the visual will be a picture, although for skills that are more complex, a video may be embedded if using an electronic LBBI. It is recommended that the photos be taken from a personal point of view, meaning the picture shows exactly what the student will see (picture taken from where their eyes would be). If a camera and printer are not available, create the LBBI by drawing pictures that are as close to real life as possible on handwritten sheets.

Step 5: Implement the LBBI

When the LBBI is ready, it is important to know how and when to deliver it to the student, so it will be the most effective. It is best to implement the LBBI in a setting and time that would lend itself to the skill. For example, if the student was struggling with tying their shoes, it would not make sense to deliver an LBBI on tying shoes before naptime, as the student would be taking their shoes off at this time, not putting them on.

In this example, it would be best to deliver the LBBI after naptime when the student should be putting their shoes on.

The LBBI should be delivered at a time and place that is most effective for the student without much interruption to their normal environment. Bucholz and Brady (2008) recognize the importance of selecting a quiet space without distraction to deliver LBBI. In some cases, it will not be possible to conduct the LBBI at the place and time that the skill would normally be used. In that case, simulate an environment that provides as much of the same stimuli as feasible. Once the delivery setting is determined, it is time to deliver the LBBI. The student should see the LBBI clearly and be able to focus on it. Either the student or the mediator should read each page, depending on the student’s reading level. At the end of each page, the student should be instructed to pause, point to the picture, practice what is being described on the page and done in the picture, and then praise and/or correction should be given as appropriate. Praise should be specific to reinforce the correct skill and correction should refer back to the LBBI: “I see you tried, but in the LBBI, it says to do this like in the picture.” At the end of the LBBI, the student should practice the skill in its entirety.

LBBI in Practice

Literacy based behavior interventions can be used to assist students who have disabilities with the acquisition of skills such as first aid, washing hands, and appropriate social interactions (Kearney et al., 2018). LBBI can also be used to help students transition between periods with greater ease (Hall Pistorio et al., 2017). Skills needed to function at school and in the community can be taught using LBBI.

The flexibility of delivery mode is a strength of LBBI. Paper, e-based, and enhanced e-book (embedded video) LBBI have all been shown to be effective (Hall Pistorio et al., 2018). To this end, LBBI can be implemented with a wide array of materials in many different countries. In countries with regular access to electronic devices, instructors may prefer to develop e-based LBBI to increase motivation and embed additional support into the LBBI, such as zooming into a picture. However, in countries with limited access to such technology, effective LBBI interventions can be delivered using the paper format.

Educators are always searching for interventions that will help students acquire new functional behaviors and LBBI have the advantage of flexibility. Teachers of preschool students can implement these

individualized interventions, and so can professors of students in inclusive postsecondary education programs across the world. LBBIs are also flexible in terms of technology: They can be implemented with complex technology or using the most basic supplies available. Whatever the level of instruction or technology, LBBIs are a new approach that simplifies the creation and implementation of effective interventions and encourages positive behavioral change among students.

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