



Assiut University
College of Education
Curriculum & Instruction Dept.

TEFL/TESOL for Students with Special Needs

For

EFL Student Teachers

Compiled & Prepared

By

Dr. Mahmoud M. S. Abdallah

TESOL-TEFL for Students with Special Needs

TESOL-TEFL for Students with Special Needs

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PREFACE

'Special education' has become a prominent field that needs some attention in pre-service teacher education programmes offered by educational and teacher training institutions (e.g. Egyptian colleges of education at university). Like normal students, students with special educational needs (e.g. physical and mental disabilities, learning difficulties, emotional disturbances, language and communication problems, etc.) have the right to learn and succeed like normal learners.

Therefore, the main goal of this course is to acquaint EFL student teachers with the concept of special education, and hence the methods, strategies and/or techniques that can be used for teaching English as a foreign language to learners with specific learning disabilities/handicaps.

According to the new college by-laws, this course is offered to both 3rd-year EFL student teachers

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(General English Programme) and senior (4th-year) EFL student teachers (Elementary-Education English Programme).

Course information below is based on new regulations (college bylaws, recently modified in 2013):

Course Details:		
Code: Curr321	Course Title: تدريس ذوى الاحتياجات الخاصة (<i>TEFL/TESOL for Students with Special Needs</i>)	Level: Third Year – 2 nd Semester
Major: Bachelor of Arts and Education (English section)	No. of Units: Lecture (2) Practical (0) Total (2)	
Aims:	By the end of the course, EFL student teachers are expected to be able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Identify the meaning of ‘special education’ and the current trends used for teaching English to students	

	<p>with special needs;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Recognise the characteristics and manifestations which indicate the existence of learning difficulties within language learners;• Understand the wide range of options that can be employed inside the language classroom for dealing with low-level language learners;• Use some techniques for dealing with gifted/talented language learners;• Identify the modern language teaching methods used for dealing with students with special needs (e.g. active learning, multiple intelligences-based instruction, learning styles-based language learning, computer-assisted language learning, and self-paced learning).
1- Intended Learning Outcomes (ILOs)	
1.1 Knowledge and Understanding:	<p>1-2-1 يتمكن الخريج من استراتيجيات التعليم والتعلم الحديثة في العملية التعليمية ومتطلبات تنفيذها داخل الصف وخارجة.</p> <p>2-3-1 يظهر الخريج معرفة بخصائص النمو لدى الطلاب.</p> <p>2-4-2 يمتلك معرفة باستراتيجيات إدارة البيئة التربوية واليات تنفيذها.</p>

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	<p>2-5-1 يظهر الخريج معرفة عميقة بالوسائط والأساليب التكنولوجية الحديثة اللازمة لعملية التدريس.</p> <p>2-6-1 يمتلك الخريج معرفة بأساليب التقويم المختلفة لاختيار أنسبها لتقويم المعارف والمهارات والاتجاهات لدى طلابه.</p> <p>2-7-1 يظهر الخريج فهما لنظم الإدارة المدرسية والتعليمية داخل المدرسة والإدارة التعليمية.</p> <p>3-1-1 يظهر الخريج معرفته بمصادر وأدبيات النمو المهني في إعداد خطة لتنمية ذاته مهنيًا.</p> <p>4-1-1 يظهر الخريج معرفة بمهارات التواصل وآدابه وكيفية استخدامها لخدمة العملية التعليمية وتحسينها.</p> <p>4-2-2 يمتلك مهارات استخدام الانترنت في البحث عن المعلومات والتواصل مع الآخرين.</p> <p>4-3-1 يتوافر لدى الخريج معرفة عميقة بأنواع التفكير ومستوياته.</p> <p>4-4-1 يظهر الخريج فهما لواجبات مهنة التعليم وآدابها.</p>
1.2 Intellectual Skills:	<p>1.2.15. The student teacher demonstrates higher-order thinking skills (HOTS) during reading.</p> <p>1.2.17 The student teacher relates a speaker's ideas and information to prior knowledge and</p>

	<p>experience.</p> <p>1.2.18 The student teacher responds to specific situations and current conditions when implementing instructions.</p> <p>1.2.19 The student teacher responds to the ideas and opinions of other speakers thoughtfully before uttering.</p> <p>1.2.20 The student teacher evaluates the validity and adequacy of ideas, arguments, hypotheses and evidence.</p> <p>1.2.21 The student teacher controls counterproductive emotional responses. etc)</p> <p>1.2.24 The student teacher uses various devices for word recognition skills, including rereading and finding context.</p>
<p>1.3 Profession al Skills:</p>	<p>3.1.1 The student teacher recognizes the various devices of professional development.</p> <p>3.1.2 The student teacher recognizes the various devices of professional development as English language teacher.</p>

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	<p>3.1.3 The student teacher recognizes the various thinking skills (creative, critical and reflective).</p> <p>3.1.4 The student teacher recognizes the code of ethics and principled behaviors in the education profession in Egypt.</p> <p>3.1.5 The student teacher demonstrates knowledge of international education.</p> <p>3.1.6 The student teacher demonstrates knowledge of sociology of education.</p> <p>3.1.7 The student teacher recognizes the various aspects of human rights.</p>
General Skills:	<p>1.4.1 The student teacher responds to specific situations and current conditions when implementing instructions.</p> <p>1.4.2 The student teacher responds to the ideas and opinions of other speakers thoughtfully before uttering.</p> <p>1.4.3 The student teacher evaluates the validity</p>

	and adequacy of ideas, arguments, hypotheses and evidence.			
2- Contents	Topic	Weeks	No. of Hours	Lectures
	Chapter One: Introducing Special Education	1 & 2	4	2
	Chapter Two: Language Learners with Special Educational Needs	3 & 4	4	2
	Chapter Three: Accommodating Language Learners with Special Educational Needs: Theories, Methods, and Approaches	5 & 6	4	2
	Chapter Four: Multiple Intelligences-	7	2	1

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	Based Language Learning			
	Formative Assessment			
	Chapter Five: <i>Teaching Different Language Aspects & Skills to Students with Special Needs</i>	8	2	1
	A-Teaching Listening to Special Needs Students	9	2	1
	B-Teaching Speaking to Special Needs Students	10	2	1
	C-Teaching Reading to Special Needs Students	11	2	1
	D-Teaching Writing to Special Needs Students	12	2	1
	Conclusion and Evaluation	13	2	1
3- Teaching and Learning Methods	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Lectures 2. Discussion 3. Online Learning 4. Reflective Learning 			
4- Teaching and	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Self-paced learning 2. Cooperative learning 3. Online tutorials 			

Learning Methods for Low Learners	
5- Evaluation:	
a) Tools	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Oral presentations• Written reports
b) Time Schedule	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Weekly lectures for 13 weeks• Each of the first three chapters is covered within two successive weeks (i.e. 2 lectures devoted for each chapter), while each of the remaining chapters is covered within one week.• Formative assessment is conducted towards the middle of the semester in the form of <i>written reports</i> and <i>oral presentations</i> that should reflect a reasonable understanding and mastery of most of the studied content by student teachers.
c) Grading System	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Semester work (written reports + oral presentations): 20 marks• Semester final written exam: 80 marks

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6- List of References:	
a- Course Notes	A pamphlet prepared by the instructor, entitled: "TESOL/TEFL for Students with Special Educational Needs"
b- Required Books (Text Books)	<p>Abdallah, M. M. S. (2010). Multiple Intelligences, Oral Communication and Language Learning. VDM Verlag Dr. Müller, Saarbrücken, Germany.</p> <p>Abdallah, M. M. S. (2011). <i>Teaching English as a Foreign Language from a New Literacy Perspective: A Guide for Egyptian EFL Student Teachers</i>. VDM Verlag Dr. Müller, Saarbrücken, Germany.</p>
c- Reference Books	<p>Oxford, Rebecca L. "Language Learning Styles and Strategies: an Overview." <i>Language Styles and Strategies</i>. n. p., 2003. Web. 7 Dec. 2009.</p> <p>Ortiz, Alba. "English Language Learners with Special Needs Effective Instructional Strategies." CAL Center for Applied Linguistics.</p>

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	CAL, Dec. 2001. Web. 7 Jan. 2009.
d- Periodicals	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Special_needs http://library.adoption.com/articles/definition-of-special-needs.html http://karenplumley.suite101.com/reading-comprehension-for-special-needs-a201156

Course Instructor:

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCING SPECIAL EDUCATION

1.1 Special Education vs. General Education

The opposite of *special education* is general education. *General education* is the standard curriculum presented with standard teaching methods and without additional supports. Thus, the main idea of special education is to ***make adjustments*** to our normal teaching so that specific types of learners are cared for. There are some students who might have ***particular needs*** that might be overlooked or neglected inside the classroom. Those students have the right to learn and succeed based on their particular abilities, strengths, and needs.

Language educators should ***adjust*** their teaching in such a way that ***encompasses*** and ***meets*** all students' ***specific needs*** (i.e. disabilities, language levels, proficiency, learning difficulties, talents, psychological problems/handicaps/needs, etc.). Students are different, and therefore, they have to

address many types of learners. Otherwise, many students in the **mainstream** education (i.e. general education) will be left behind.

Nowadays, there is a growing interest in special education. **Unified** instruction in the mainstream education has **disadvantaged** many learners with special needs. Hence, a **special-education approach** has recently come to the fore to help those learners to learn according to their real academic abilities, levels, and needs.

1.2 What are 'Special Needs' & 'Special Education' ?

Common special needs include challenges with learning, communication challenges, emotional and behavioural disorders, physical disabilities, and developmental disorders. Students with these kinds of special needs are likely to benefit from **additional educational services** such as **different approaches to teaching**, use of technology, a specifically adapted teaching area, or resource room.

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Intellectual giftedness is a difference in learning and can also benefit from specialised teaching techniques or different educational programs, but the term "special education" is generally used to specifically ***indicate instruction of students whose special needs reduce their ability to learn independently or in an ordinary classroom,*** and gifted education is handled separately.

In most ***developed countries,*** educators are modifying teaching methods and environments so that the maximum number of students are served in general education environments. Special education in developed countries is often regarded less as a "place" and more as "a range of services, available in every school." Integration can reduce social stigmas and improve academic achievement for many students.

Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics defines ***Special education*** as: "provision of schooling or special support for those whose needs cannot be readily accommodated in

the mainstream curriculum, e.g. for students who may have particular emotional, intellectual, physical or social needs."

Special education can also be defined as:

- The education of physically or mentally handicapped children whose needs cannot be met in an ordinary classroom;
- The education of students with special needs in a way that addresses the students' individual differences and needs;
- Educational programmes and services for disabled and/or gifted individuals who have intellectually, physically, emotionally, or socially different characteristics from those who can be taught through normal methods or materials;
- Specially designed instruction, at no cost to the parents, to meet the unique needs of a child with a disability;
- Services offered to children who possess one or more of the following disabilities: specific

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learning disabilities, speech or language impairments, mental retardation, emotional disturbance, multiple disabilities, hearing impairments, orthopaedic impairments, visual impairments, autism, combined deafness and blindness, traumatic brain injury, and other health impairments;

- Specialised educational services designed to address disabilities in intelligence, language skills, perceptive skills, behaviour, or social and emotional development that make it hard for a student to learn well in a regular classroom.

In a nutshell, ***special education*** is the education of students with ***special needs*** in a way that addresses the students' individual differences and needs. Ideally, this process involves the ***individually planned*** and systematically monitored ***arrangement*** of teaching procedures, adapted equipment and materials, accessible settings, and other ***interventions*** designed to help

learners with special needs achieve a higher level of personal self-sufficiency and success in school and community than would be available if the students were only given access to a typical classroom education.

1.3 Main Principles of Special Education that English Language Teachers Should Consider

There are some general principles that teachers in general, and language teachers in particular, should take into consideration:

- Every human being has the ***right*** to learn; Young children and students with special education needs have the same rights to a high quality education as people of the same age who do not have special education needs.
- No one should be ***left*** behind; there should be a place for everyone in our schools no matter how intelligent or smart they are.
- Every one's ***specific needs*** should be taken into consideration; the primary focus of special education is to meet the ***individual***

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learning and developmental needs of the young child and student.

- People are ***different***, and therefore, we should NEVER assume that there is ONE (unified) way (or one-size-fits-all) way of treating all students;
- Learners' ***individual differences and learning styles*** (i.e. auditory learners, visual learners, and kinaesthetic learners) should be the main focus in the classroom;
- English language teachers should be ***aware*** of those ***innovative/specific*** methods, techniques, and/or interventions that should be employed inside the classroom to reach all learners (e.g., the wide range of needs of those learners);
- Teaching should be ***tailored*** in a way that addresses a wide audience of learners; this adjustment is extremely needed in mixed-ability classrooms where learners do not have the same academic achievement levels;

- Some students are ***mistakenly*** classified as stupid, dull, or poor because they cannot perform like other normal students.
- All young children and students with identified special education needs should have access to a fair share of the available ***special education resources***.

1.4 Identifying Students with Special Needs

Some children are ***easily identified*** as candidates for special needs from their ***medical history***. They may have been diagnosed with a genetic condition that is associated with mental retardation, may have various forms of brain damage, may have a developmental disorder, may have visual or hearing disabilities, or other disabilities.

Among students whose ***identification is less obvious***, such as students with learning difficulties, ***two primary methods*** have been used for

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identifying them: the discrepancy model and the response to intervention model. The ***discrepancy model*** depends on the teacher noticing that the students' achievements are noticeably below what is expected. The ***response to intervention model*** advocates earlier intervention.

In the ***discrepancy model***, a student receives special educational services for a specific learning difficulty (SLD) if and only if the student has at least normal intelligence and the student's academic achievement is below what is expected of a student with his or her IQ. Although the discrepancy model has dominated the school system for many years, there has been substantial criticism of this approach (e.g., Aaron, 1995, Flanagan and Mascolo, 2005) among researchers. One reason for criticism is that diagnosing SLDs on the basis of the discrepancy between achievement and IQ does not predict the effectiveness of treatment. Low academic achievers who also have low IQ appear to benefit from treatment just as much as low

academic achievers who have normal or high intelligence.

The alternative approach, ***response to intervention***, identifies children who are having difficulties in school in their first or second year after starting school. They then receive additional assistance such as participating in a reading remediation program. The response of the children to this intervention then determines whether they are designated as having a learning disability. Those few who still have trouble may then receive designation and further assistance. Sternberg (1999) has argued that early remediation can greatly reduce the number of children meeting diagnostic criteria for learning disabilities. He has also suggested that the focus on learning disabilities and the provision of accommodations in school fails to acknowledge that people have a range of strengths and weaknesses and places undue emphasis on academics by insisting that

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people should be propped up in this arena and not in music or sports.

1.5 Individual needs

A special education programme should be customised to address each individual student's unique needs. Special educators provide a continuum of services, in which students with special needs receive services in varying degrees based on their individual needs. Special education programmes need to be individualised so that they address the unique combination of needs in a given student.

Students with special needs are assessed to determine their specific strengths and weaknesses. Placement, resources, and goals are determined on the basis of the student's needs. ***Accommodations and Modifications to the regular programme*** may include changes in curriculum, supplementary aids or equipment, and the provision of specialised physical adaptations that allow students to participate in the educational environment to the fullest extent possible. Students may need this help

to access subject matter, to physically gain access to the school, or to meet their emotional needs. For example, if the assessment determines that the student cannot write by hand because of a physical disability, then the school might provide a computer for typing assignments, or allow the student to answer questions orally instead. If the school determines that the student is severely distracted by the normal activities in a large, busy classroom, then the student might be placed in a smaller classroom such as a resource room.

1.6 Methods of provision

Schools use *different approaches* to providing special education services to identified students. These can be broadly grouped into four categories, according to whether and how much contact the student with special needs has with normal students:

- **Inclusion:** In this approach, students with special educational needs spend all, or at least more than half, of the school day with

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students who do not have special educational needs. Because inclusion can require substantial modification of the general curriculum, most schools use it only for selected students with mild to moderate special needs, for which it is accepted as a best practice. Specialised services may be provided inside or outside the regular classroom, depending on the type of service. Students may occasionally leave the regular classroom to attend smaller, more intensive instructional sessions in a resource room, or to receive other related services that might require specialized equipment or might be disruptive to the rest of the class, such as speech and language therapy, occupational therapy, physical therapy, or might require greater privacy, such as counselling sessions with a social worker.

- **Mainstreaming** refers to the practice of educating students with special needs in classes with other normal students during

specific time periods based on their skills. Students with special needs are segregated in separate classes exclusively for students with special needs for the rest of the school day.

- **Segregation** in a separate classroom or special school exclusively for students with special needs: In this model, students with special needs spend no time in classes with other normal students. Segregated students may attend the same school where regular classes are provided, but spend all instructional time exclusively in a separate classroom for students with special needs. If their special class is located in an ordinary school, they may be provided opportunities for social integration outside the classroom, e.g., by eating meals with non-disabled students. Alternatively, these students may attend a special school.
- **Exclusion:** A student who does not receive instruction in any school is excluded from school. Historically, most students with

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special needs have been excluded from school, and such exclusion may still occur where there is no legal mandate for special education services, such as in developing countries. It may also occur when a student is in hospital, housebound, or detained by the criminal justice system. These students may receive one-on-one instruction or group instruction. Students who have been suspended or expelled are not considered excluded in this sense.

1.7 Review

Now you should treat the following main questions based on your reading:

1. How can you define ***Special Education***?
(Provide your own definition based on your personal understanding of some stated definitions)
2. What is the main difference between '***general education***' and '***special education***'?

3. What is meant by '**students with special needs**'?
4. What are the types of **those special needs** that English language teachers should consider?
5. Discuss the **accommodations and modifications** that can be made to the regular educational programme so as to meet students' specific learning needs.
6. Discuss the **different approaches** that schools might use for providing special education services to students identified with special needs.
7. In your opinion, what are the **most important Special Education Principles** that English language teachers should consider?

CHAPTER TWO

LANGUAGE LEARNERS WITH SPECIAL EDUCATIONAL NEEDS

2.1 Special Language Learning Needs

To define the term *special educational needs* (SEN) explicitly is quite difficult since there are various definitions for it, especially because the range of symptoms varies among individuals, both in severity and extension. Yet, there are main points of concurrence among them, many of which are generally related to *language learning*.

"Special educational needs" (SEN) falls under the wider term, *"special learning disabilities"* (SLD). The former term is the one which is more often used in academic books and articles, and which covers a broad range of disabilities - from the minor ones to the really severe ones.

A *learning disability* is a neurological disorder that affects one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or using

spoken language. This disability may manifest itself in an inadequate ability to listen, think, speak, read, write and spell, or do mathematical calculations. It means that there are difficulties, not only with reading and spelling (that are generally associated with dyslexia), recognising language patterns that are presented orally, or writing properly, but also with paying attention, following and understanding directions, organising and sequencing thoughts, retaining information, following more-than-one-step instructions or directions, interacting with peers appropriately, and preserving self-esteem.

Learning disability (LD, sometimes called a learning difference, learning disorder, or learning difficulty) is a classification including several disorders in which a person has difficulty learning in a typical manner, usually caused by an unknown factor or factors. The unknown factor is the disorder that affects the brain's ability to receive and process information. This disorder can make it problematic for a person to learn as quickly or in

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the same way as someone who is not affected by a learning disability. People with a learning disability have trouble performing specific types of skills or completing tasks if left to figure things out by themselves or if taught in conventional ways.

Some forms of learning disability are incurable. However, with appropriate cognitive/academic interventions, many can be overcome. Individuals with learning disabilities can face unique challenges that are often pervasive throughout the lifespan. Depending on the type and severity of the disability, interventions may be used to help the individual learn strategies that will foster future success. Some interventions can be quite simplistic, while others are intricate and complex. Teachers and parents will be a part of the intervention in terms of how they aid the individual in successfully completing different tasks. School psychologists quite often help to design the intervention, and coordinate the execution of the intervention with

teachers and parents. Social support improves the learning for students with learning disabilities.

Learning disabilities are sometimes called ***learning problems/difficulties***, although some scholars argue that 'learning problems' or 'learning difficulties' might be less severe than 'learning disabilities'. Learning disabilities are primarily the result of visual, hearing, or motor handicaps; of mental retardation; of emotional disturbance; or of environmental, cultural or economic disadvantages. Therefore, they, unlike some minor learning problems or difficulties, cannot be cured.

Generally, Special Learning Disabilities (SLD) students are of average or above-average intelligence. Nevertheless, there often appears to be a gap between an individual's potential and actual achievement; the person might seem bright and intelligent, but may be unable to demonstrate the skill level expected from someone of a similar age.

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Every person shows different combinations and degrees of difficulties, and every student has a different profile of strengths and weaknesses. As Turnbull states: "if you were to observe twenty students with learning disabilities, you would find twenty different ways in which the condition manifests itself" (Turnbull et al. 2002: 107).

2.2 Characteristics and Manifestations of Special Educational Needs

Because *learning disabilities* is an "umbrella term" that includes *a broader range of difficulties*, we can focus on a list of SEN categories which are quite relevant to language learning:

- a learning and reading disability (Dyslexia);
- a writing disorder resulting in illegibility (Dysgraphia);
- difficulty with processing and remembering language-related tasks (Central Auditory Processing Disorder);

- reversing letters, inability to copy accurately, and losing place (Visual-Perceptual/Visual-Motor Deficit);
- having trouble with understanding spoken language, and poor reading comprehension (Language Disorders/Aphasia or Dysphasia);

Since our main focus is mainly on the needs of students with ***language-connected learning disabilities***, we will discuss the essential problems that SEN students can have, and which can show the teacher that a student has some learning problems.

A student with special educational needs may:

- read slowly or painfully;
- have trouble with the order of letters in writing and how to decode them;
- have trouble with spelling and with handwriting (which can cause difficulties with written language);

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- show disparity between listening and reading comprehension of some texts;
- have unfinished words or letters, omitted words, and inconsistent spacing between words and letters;
- take more time to copy or write something;
- have great difficulty with thinking and writing at the same time (i.e. taking notes, and creative writing);
- misspell and mispronounce similar-sounding words, omit syllables, and/or confuse similar-sounding words (e.g., salary – celery, three – free, jab – job);
- have trouble with understanding directions when they are given in the foreign language, and with comprehending spoken language, especially when it is spoken quickly;
- incorrectly repeat sounds, words, phrases, or sentences that are provided by the teacher or through an audio recorder;

- find it difficult to stay focused on (or remember) a verbal presentation or lecture;
- have trouble with understanding and applying grammatical rules (forming plurals and possessives, and using proper word order), especially when these rules are different from the native language;
- have difficulty with grasping meaning from spoken language;
- spend more time on foreign-language study than other school subjects, not knowing how to study a particular foreign language concept (e.g. learning new vocabulary, and analysing a grammar or pronunciation rule).

2.3 Foreign language learners with language difficulties

Students who experience language learning difficulties in their mother tongue may have problems in learning another language at school. Nevertheless, there are many students who only have difficulties with learning a new language system, and who are not dyslexic or have a learning disability. This is one of the most important reasons why the language teacher should be trained in special pedagogy. He or she should be able to ***recognise a student's special educational needs*** and know which approaches work with this student and how.

Students who have difficulties in most or all of the four language skills/components (i.e. reading, writing, listening, and speaking) are likely to experience many problems while learning a foreign language, particularly in traditional language classrooms. Research suggests that there is no specific disability for learning a foreign language;

rather, the difficulties are an extension of a continuum from very good to very poor language learners.

2.4 Meeting the Needs of Students with Special Educational Needs

Teachers usually teach within mixed-ability classes; each class is a heterogeneous place that is full of individuals with different motivations, intelligences, strengths, and weaknesses. Therefore, meeting the needs of those students should be one of the most essential aims for all teachers, whether teaching SEN students or not.

Consequently, language teachers should adopt an "***eclectic approach***", which means that they should cater for diverse foreign-language learning styles. In the move away from teachers following one specific methodology, the ***eclectic approach*** is the label given to a teacher's use of techniques and activities from a range of language teaching

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approaches and methodologies. The teacher decides what methodology or approach to use depending on the aims of the lesson and the learners in the group and their specific characteristics and needs.

The eclectic approach combines the techniques of several different approaches. For example, many courses have elements from the Functional approach, the Communicative approach, the structural-situational approach, a skills approach, and so on.

Larsen-Freeman (2000) and Mellow (2000) both have used the term ***principled eclecticism*** to describe a desirable, coherent, pluralistic approach to language teaching. ***Eclecticism*** involves the use of a variety of language learning activities, each of which may have very different characteristics and may be motivated by different underlying assumptions. The use of ***eclecticism*** is due to the fact that there are strengths as well as weaknesses

of single theory-based methods. Reliance upon a single theory of teaching has been criticized because the use of a limited number of techniques can become mechanic. The students, thus, cannot get benefits of learning. The use of eclecticism does not mean to mix up different approaches randomly. There must be some philosophical backgrounds and some systematic relations among different activities. Usually it is recommended to mix structural approaches with communicative use of language.

The use of words such as 'difficulty and 'disorder' may be counter-productive when considering equality of access to foreign language learning in SEN. An alternative approach involves not having predominant focus on learning disorders and disabilities, but rather on different kinds of learning ability.

It is recommended that foreign language programmes at schools ***should be made flexible*** so

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that they can meet the wide range of students' needs. As argued in a UNESCO guide (2000): "all pupils achieve when teachers adapt the curricula and their teaching styles to suit the range of diversity that is found among children in any class. Usually these adaptations require little extra equipment but lots of creativity".

2.5 Accommodating Students with Special Educational Needs

There are many strategies that are essential for good teaching in general; moreover the careful application of them is essential for SEN students.

1. First, all language aspects, including reading, spelling/writing, listening, speaking, grammar and vocabulary exercises, should be somehow addressed in each lesson. All aspects are equally important for learning a foreign language. Thus, addressing many language aspects/areas in the same lesson usually provides more options and possibilities that should enable students to acquire

or learn the target language, because if one is not good at an area, s/he might succeed in another.

2. Second, language teachers should teach in an ***explicit way*** because SEN students can have problems with understanding and using foreign language patterns properly without explicit explanation. Topics and contents can be broken down into small segments/parts and taught individually. Further, topics can be taught in a logical order while students are guided and directed by the teacher. The purpose of ***explicit teaching*** is to provide guided instruction in the basic understanding of given skills. Students profit from learning through practice, collaboration, repetition, developmental play and activities. Explicit instruction consists of: (1) setting the scene for learning; (2) a clear explanation of what to do; (3) the process of modelling and providing multiple opportunities for practice – first guided and then independent. Explicit instruction moves systematically from extensive teacher input and

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little student responsibility initially, to total student responsibility and minimal teacher involvement at the end of the learning cycle. To use explicit teaching in a language class is really important in letter-sound relationships for proper pronunciation, reading, and spelling; in common vocabulary patterns; and in grammar.

3. No matter which book or course a teacher uses, s/he is advised to carefully analyse each unit in it. English language books are usually organised according to topics. As struggling foreign-language students need to be taught simpler structures before more complex ones, a teacher often has to re-arrange the sequencing of the book and adapt it to the actual needs of the students in the class.

4. Sometimes units in textbooks are often quite long and full of new language items. It is beneficial for students (and probably for the teacher too) to cut down each unit into smaller, logically sequenced units. This enables the teacher to focus on teaching

explicitly how new knowledge aspects connect with the previous ones, and to work with exercises more deeply.

5. Employing '***multi-sensory teaching***' is quite effective. Multi-sensory teaching programmes are designed to enable learners to grasp knowledge using not one of their senses or channels, but as many as possible. ***Multi-sensory teaching*** refers to simultaneously using visual, auditory, and kinaesthetic-tactile techniques to enhance memory and learning. Links are consistently made between the visual (what we see), auditory (what we hear), and kinaesthetic-tactile (what we feel) pathways of learning. It is an efficient teaching method when teachers and their students rely on all three pathways for learning rather than focusing on a memory/recall method, a tracing method, or a phonetic method alone. Multisensory learning takes place when a teacher presents learning objectives and learning materials in such a way that students can learn by seeing, hearing, touching (hands-on)

and saying (oral kinaesthetic). Multi-sensory teaching includes a variety of materials used besides the body movement. There are colour and shape-coding cards, pictures, tables, fabric, and other materials. Further, games can be employed as activities that should present language in a multi-sensory and funny way. The more a teacher is creative and inventive, the more multisensory activities will be incorporated in the lesson.

6. Another useful approach is teaching in a ***meta-cognitive or meta-linguistic*** way. This approach provides opportunities to process language concepts properly through verbalising a certain language activity, such as pronunciation and structure formation, and grammatical word formation. ***A meta-cognitive approach*** can help students to learn how to take control of their own learning by defining learning goals and monitoring their progress.

2.6 Review

Now you should treat the following main questions based on your reading:

1. Discuss the following terms:
 - A learning disability
 - Special Educational Needs (SEN) categories
 - Explicit teaching
 - Multi-sensory teaching
 - Eclectic approach
2. Discuss the different strategies that language teachers can use to accommodate students with special educational needs.
3. Illustrate briefly some manifestations or examples of the language problems/difficulties that learners with special educational needs might show, and which language teachers should notice inside the classroom.

CHAPTER THREE

CATERING FOR STUDENTS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS

3.1 Introduction

In preparing students for the assessment tasks, teachers need to be aware of the specific learning needs of individual students in their classes. These could include ESL learners with varying levels of language, literacy and conceptual understanding, and students with disabilities and impairments who will have a range of special needs. There are a number of *scaffolding strategies* that can be adapted for different learners and which are particularly applicable in the pre-teaching stage.

3.2 Analysing the Support Needed to Complete the Tasks

In determining the level and type of support needed for completing the preliminary activities

and the tasks, the following questions may be helpful:

- What general background or cultural knowledge is assumed? Might any elements of this cause difficulties for ESL learners or special needs students?
- What knowledge and skills does this activity or task build on that some students may not have been exposed to or may not have mastered?
- What specific topic knowledge is assumed?
- What specialised vocabulary is used in the texts provided?
- Is the language used in the task and student worksheets colloquial or idiomatic and therefore likely to cause difficulties for an ESL learner or student with special needs? For example, newspaper headlines.
- What is the level of complexity of the structure of the text? Look at sentence length and grammatical complexity such as

frequency of embedded clauses and the number of subordinate clauses.

- Will students be able to access the text with support in the pre reading and during reading stages, or is there a simpler text that could be used with some students?
- Will students be able to complete the task in the requested mode or will alternative arrangements need to be made for them to demonstrate their knowledge, e.g. use of a scribe or computer?

3.3 Classroom Organisation

Classroom organisation that allows for a balance between small groups and the whole class is the most effective model for meeting special needs.

All students will benefit from a whole class focus on the language requirements of the task and the stimulation of sharing of ideas by the class. Working in small groups allows the teacher to work intensively with a small group on explicit teaching

of aspects of the task, for example pre-teaching of vocabulary, deconstructing a sample text or a joint construction. It provides support for students who may be reluctant to contribute in a larger group.

3.4 Working in Groups

Some ESL learners may not be familiar with Australian learning styles so it is useful to revisit the purpose for working in groups and review class rules/procedures for group work. These can be listed on a chart and displayed. Group roles can be taught and practised in a small group of students with similar needs, using a simple task to begin with.

For some activities, ESL and special needs learners may work best in a similar needs group with the support of the teacher or a teacher aide if one is available. At other times they can benefit by being placed in small groups or pairs with students who provide strong English language models. The kind

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of collaborative and exploratory talk that occurs in small groups has been shown to be beneficial for students acquiring a second language. Groups of no more than four students seem to work best. There needs to be a clear role for each student and an expectation that all students have some information that the others will need. Information gap and problem solving activities work well.

For ESL learners and special needs students, it can be useful to model a group activity using a fishbowl technique. The activity is demonstrated with a small group of students that you have prepared beforehand. You then ask the class to comment on how well the group worked together, what kind of language was used and what would have helped the group to work even more effectively. It helps to focus on the actual language used to express different functions, e.g. how to get your turn, how to disagree politely, how to make a suggestion and offer a hypothesis. This language can be listed on a chart for display.

3.5 Strategies to Scaffold Learning

The following strategies can be used to scaffold learning in any learning area and can be adapted to suit different learning needs and preferred learning styles.

3.6 Teaching of Vocabulary

ESL learners will need specific vocabulary teaching in order to understand a topic or text. Activities to assist vocabulary acquisition can include the following:

- Use a visual to introduce the topic, eg a model, flow chart, diagram, cartoon or photograph. Elicit or teach vocabulary and develop a word bank. Display on a chart or have students label their own copy of the visual.
- Group vocabulary into teacher-assigned categories or allow students to determine

their own categories. In the follow-up discussion students explain their choices.

- Match a word to its definition, or identify a correct definition from several choices.
- Where appropriate, put words on a continuum, e.g. egg, lava, pupa, caterpillar, butterfly.
- Develop word webs using associated words.
- Use a cloze passage with new content words deleted.
- Make bi-lingual or multi lingual word charts.
- Encourage students to keep their own personalised dictionaries. These can be very useful, particularly for the learning of terminology specific to one learning area.

3.7 Reading

Pre-reading strategies

Pre-reading strategies aid prediction. Teachers could consider selecting from the following activities to use during the scaffolding part of the task:

- **Teach skimming and scanning skills.** (Use a text on an overhead projector to make this clear to students.) Skim the text to get an idea of content and style. Show students how to use headings, sub-headings and specific text features, eg brochure format, to predict the type of text and the content. Teach the style and function of parts of a text, eg headlines, captions. Teach skim reading for general gist and scanning for the location of specific information. Ask students to read the first and last paragraph and the first line of each paragraph and to predict content.

- **Build or extend content knowledge.** Use visuals and class discussion to build content knowledge and to make the connection with prior knowledge. Use opportunities to bring in students' experiences.

- **Do a word splash.** List 6–10 key content words on the board, check understanding and ask students to anticipate the content of the text by

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writing possible sentences. They check the accuracy of their predictions after reading the text.

- **Do a class or group brainstorm on the topic.**

The brainstorm can be presented as a list or as a concept or mind map.

- **Prepare an anticipation guide.** Write four to six statements of opinion that relate to the concepts and opinions expressed in the text. Students read the statements and agree or disagree. After reading the text, they can answer the same questions as though they were the author.

- **Do a KWL chart.** List what you know about a topic, and questions you would like answered. At the conclusion of the reading, list what you learnt from the text.

- **Help students to understand how texts are organised.** A text is chopped up into sections and students work together to reconstruct it. This

activity is best used with texts that have an identifiable structure or organisation such as procedures or newspaper articles.

- **Use a graphic outline.** Present students with a graphic outline of the text that shows the hierarchy of ideas and the relationship between ideas.
- **Use concept maps.** Students make their own concept maps in groups using vocabulary cards and linking words. This kind of activity could follow a science experiment, a shared experience or a visual presentation of a topic prior to reading a related text.

While reading strategies

While reading strategies concentrate on helping students gain meaning from the text and on teaching specific reading strategies used by competent readers. Teachers could select from the following activities for use during the scaffolding part of the task:

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- Read the text aloud to the whole class or to a small group of special needs students to assist understanding and demonstrate fluent reading. Bring the text to life. With lower level learners, their comprehension will increase on subsequent readings.
- Demonstrate and practise a particular meaning-making strategy using an enlarged version of the text for shared reading, such as questioning the text: 'What does the writer mean by ...?'; making connections 'That reminds me of ...'; visualising 'I can just see those stress hormones racing around the body'; synthesising 'I think the writer means that ...'.
- Make the function of specific language features explicit, e.g. '*On the other hand* means the writer is going to talk about an opposing view.'

- Think and jot. Following a prompt, students stop reading and write down a question, an idea or a connection they made with the text.
- Think pair share. Rather than asking a class question which one person answers, each student writes a response to the question and shares it with his/her neighbour.

Post-reading activities

After-reading activities will depend on the nature of the text and the purpose of the reading. Teachers can choose from the following activities, all of which are designed to help comprehension:

- Students retell the gist of a text to a partner.
- Students generate questions about the texts in pairs or groups and then give them to another group or pair to answer.
- Students complete True/False statements about a text – which could be dictated orally by the teacher.

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- Where a text has a definite sequence, eg a procedure text such as a science experiment, students complete sequencing exercises.
- Specific language activities that help students understand how texts are constructed, eg cloze activities that focus on logical connectives such as *however, although, moreover, whereas*, or a pronoun referral activity where students draw a box around the pronoun and draw a line showing to whom or what the pronoun refers.
- Ask students to identify the main idea and supporting detail by drawing a box around the main idea and underlining supporting detail.
- Use cloze activities to check content understanding.
- Information transfer activities, eg make a mind map of the topic, showing connections between various aspects. Construct a timeline of events.

3.8 Writing

Many assessment tasks are dependent on writing skills in a range of genres. Special needs students

and ESL learners, particularly those who have limited literacy in their first language, will benefit from support at each stage of the writing process.

Make explicit:

- the purpose of the writing
- the audience for the writing
- the kind of text they are writing. Consider providing models for discussion
- the kind of language they will use. Again, provide and discuss models.

For many ESL and special needs learners the differences between spoken and written English and appropriate registers needs to be specifically taught.

All writing, including the planning and revising stages, should be modelled first on the board or an overhead so that students see what thinking processes you go through as a writer and how language choices are made.

For extended pieces of writing, a suggested strategy is:

- Build up the field knowledge and vocabulary needed for the writing task through various classroom activities, eg an experiment, a problem-solving activity, an excursion, reading a text, research activities, viewing a film.
- Brainstorm ideas and language generated by these activities.
- Present an example of the kind of writing you are looking for, eg a brochure, a letter to a newspaper, a report, a PowerPoint presentation.
- Deconstruct the model. Look at how the content is organised and what kind of language is used, eg *This is a recipe, therefore you use the imperative of the verb*. Use an overhead transparency of the text, making certain there is room to write in annotations.

- Model each stage of the writing process including the planning process.
- Do a joint construction of a sample text.
- Allow students time to draft and revise their writing and provide a focus for the revision. Ideally, the focus (spelling, paragraphing, sentence structure) should be one which is relevant for the individual.

Other writing scaffolds

- Allow ESL learners to do prewriting and planning in their first language.
- Use writing frames. The following URLs might be useful:

<http://www.warwick.ac.uk/staff/D.J.Wray/Ideas/frames.html>

- Provide a graphic organiser to help planning, e.g. an expository essay planner would have a wide box for the central thesis, two columns for supporting arguments or evidence to support, and a box for the conclusion.

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- Model using other graphic organisers as planning tools, eg Venn diagram, concept map. An Internet search for 'graphic organisers' will yield many examples.
- Students dictate to the teacher or another student or onto a tape recorder.
- Allow students to write in pairs or groups.
- Practise correct word order by unjumbling sentences.
- Use a variety of cloze exercises to focus on specific language items, eg use the correct form of the verb.
- Use a computer for all stages of the writing process.
- Self assessment checklists also provide scaffolding, eg *Have I included _____?*

Wording of writing tasks

ESL learners in particular, but also many native speakers, have difficulty understanding the wording of writing tasks. Instruction words may not be clearly understood by the learner. For

example, *discuss* means different things to different subject teachers. To a biology teacher it means to *describe* or *explain*, but to a SOSE teacher it can mean *look at an issue from different points of view and come to a conclusion*. Students benefit from clear explanation of tasks and being taught the range of question forms that are used to request different kinds of writing.

3.9 Research Skills

- Students with low levels of literacy can be taught to research a topic using a data chart to guide their research and note taking, provided the text sources are simple. A data chart is a table with research questions heading the vertical columns and two or more sources of information heading the horizontal columns. The first column lists what the student knows already about the research questions. The advantages of data charts are that they build on what students already know, they help organise information, they prevent large amounts of copying and they

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provide a framework for the final written task. (See the SOSE Years 5 and 6 task on this site for another example of a data chart.)

- Note taking needs to be modelled. Don't just assume that students will know how to do it. Use an overhead projector.
- Graphic organisers can be used to scaffold note taking.

3.10 Role-play

In participating in role plays, students are learning and practising language in a realistic and supportive context as well as developing decision-making, communication and assertiveness skills.

They are confidence building and help prepare students for the performance demands of oral presentations. They can be used across the curriculum, e.g. to present different sides of an issue or the effects of an environmental problem.

Suggestions for special needs students and ESL learners

- Pre-teach the language of making suggestions and negotiation; for example:

Why don't we ...

How about we ...

I think we should ...

We could ...

I could ...

You could ...

This would be better

That's a great idea

Good thinking.

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- Pre-teach language of appreciation and criticism; for example:

I liked the way X did Y

You could hear everything clearly

They were really listening to each other

X's body language was very good

I thought X was funny when ...

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- Group size depends on the task, but should be no bigger than four students.
- Provide clear instructions for the task and support in the planning stage.
- Allow time for preparation and practice, and monitor participation.
- Role plays can be presented simultaneously if you feel that students will be less inhibited by not performing to the whole class.
- Allow time for whole class appreciation and discussion of the role plays and for time to debrief with the players. Discuss feelings and attitudes. You can ask questions like, '*How did it feel to be the bully/the mother?*' Give them time to talk about their responses and reactions to other players.

3.11 Oral Presentations

ESL learners and special needs students need considerable scaffolding to prepare for oral presentations. The notion of purpose, audience and context need explanation and practice. Students will need assistance in planning and practice in presentation. ESL learners may have pronunciation difficulties that will inhibit their presentation.

Strategies for scaffolding oral presentations

- The notion of audience can be illustrated by giving a short boring talk with lots of detail and jargon on a topic that no-one is likely to be interested in.
- The importance of appropriate register can be illustrated by giving a talk filled with informal and inappropriate colloquial expressions. (The students will love it!)
- Brainstorm the criteria for a good talk. Draw up a criteria sheet. Model a poor talk by breaking all the rules – mumble, read from notes, avoid eye

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contact, use minute visual aids, don't have an introduction or a conclusion. Students use the criteria sheet to comment on the presentation. Be careful to emphasise that grammatical accuracy and clear pronunciation are not part of the criteria for a successful talk.

- Provide sample talk scenarios. Students decide the purpose of the talk (to inform, to explain, to persuade, etc), the audience, and suggest ideas and aids that would be useful.
- If possible, use a video of a past talk (a good one) as a sample text to deconstruct. A past student might oblige as a guest speaker.
- Students prepare and present 30-second talks on themselves as preparation. Provide pronunciation practice for ESL students focusing on clear articulation of consonants, particularly final consonants.
- Consider collaborative presentations where students plan together and present different aspects of the topic.

- Provide practice time with a buddy or small group.
- Present to a small group rather than the whole class.

3.12 Visual Aids to Learning

Visual learning is a preferred learning style for many students; for ESL and special needs learners, visual aids such as pictures, diagrams, flow charts, timelines, graphs, charts and graphic organisers provide invaluable support for conceptual and linguistic development.

3.13 Concept Maps and Mind Maps

Concept and mind mapping are suggested as a means of presenting information visually so that relationships between ideas can be clearly seen.

Concept mapping organises ideas in a hierarchy from the most general to the most specific.

Concepts are written in boxes or circles which are joined with lines or arrows. Linking words are

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written on or near the line linking the concepts and show the meaning relationship between concepts.

Uses:

- Organise information after brainstorming.
- Present ideas found in a text.
- As a prompt for spoken language on a topic.

A mind map consists of a central word or picture with five or more associated ideas branching off from the central word/concept. Each one of these ideas can then have its own branches.

Uses:

- It is a useful tool for brainstorming as it encourages students to make associations and helps to organise ideas for an oral or written presentation.
- It can be used to plan writing.
- It can be used to present ideas found in a reading, listening or viewed text.

3.14 Review

Now, think about the following questions:

1. How can language teachers determine the type and level of support that students might need in the language class?
2. What are the activities and/or strategies that can help with vocabulary acquisition?
3. How can teachers help students with specific language needs to read properly?
4. How can role-playing help special needs students to acquire the English language?
5. What are 'mind maps' and 'concept maps'? And how can they be used with students to facilitate language learning for them?

CHAPTER FOUR

MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES-BASED LANGUAGE LEARNING

4.1 Introduction

There has been a significant shift in the history of education: a shift from the traditional teacher-centred approaches to learner-centred ones. For so long time, educators and principals had been so much concerned with implanting knowledge in a uniform way and giving students some previously-prepared courses. This led to creating stereotypes of students. Those students have been the victims of a traditional way of instruction that addressed all the students in the same way.

With the appearance of 'humanism' in the sixties, new ideas in teaching came to the scene. These ideas were the direct result of the new outlook of the student. The conventional, authoritative teacher-centred instruction has given way to the

learner-centred mode of instruction. Educators started paying attention to the impact that learners' affective factors may bring in the process of learning (Lin, 2000).

Educators and psychologists began to view education according to another perspective; they highlighted the necessity for caring for the learners' individual differences and learning styles because they represent the foundation upon which instructors should build their instructional methods. Gardner suggests that the challenge of this millennium is whether we can make these differences central to teaching and learning or whether we will instead continue to treat everyone in a uniform way. Gardner proposes 'individually configured education'-an education that takes individual differences seriously and craft practices that serve different kinds of minds equally well (Berman, 2001:5).

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To teach effectively does not mean just to present the content in a skilful way. There are many other factors involved in the teaching-learning process. Teaching is not something that is completely performed by the teacher, who is supposed to be the active side all the time, and directed to the students, who are considered the passive side. The students are never passive, anyway, because they handle the information they receive:

Effective teaching requires a thorough understanding of the learning process, characteristics of students at different stages of development, individual differences, factors that influence motivation, and procedures for maintaining orderly classrooms. Teachers rely on this background when they make decisions about what they will teach, which points they will emphasize, and how they will present content to their students (Eggen & Kauchak, 1994:545).

4.2 Multiple Intelligences Theory

Since Multiple Intelligences (MI) Theory is a relatively new term for many people, the

researcher devotes this section to shed some light on the theory. The theory will be tackled according to these angles: The new concept of intellect; history of MI Theory; main principles of MI Theory; the multiple intelligences. Multiple Intelligences Theory has come as a reaction to the classical outlook upon the human intelligence; it is a revolutionary theory which came at the same time when many theories appeared so as to explain the human intellectual abilities. Multiple Intelligences (MI) Theory offers a revolutionary, multi-faceted model of human intelligence. Gardner (1983) claimed that intelligence cannot be characterized by a single quantifiable test score and consists of several discrete abilities (Campbell, 2000).

There have been two main theories which appeared in the 20th century and which were an attempt to interpret human differences and to design educational models around these differences: Learning Styles Theory which has its roots in the psychoanalytical community and Multiple

Intelligences Theory which is the fruit of cognitive science (Silver, et al., 1997:22).

Multiple Intelligences Theory was first proposed by Howard Gardner, a professor of cognition and education at Harvard University, in his most celebrated book, *Frames of Mind*, in 1983. He regarded it “as a pluralistic view of mind which recognises many different and discrete facets of cognition and acknowledges that people have different cognitive strengths and contrasting cognitive styles (Cahill,1999:2).

Since then, educators have become so interested to apply this theory as a means through which they can improve teaching and learning in a multiplicity of ways. The theory represents a new orientation towards the nature of intelligences (Goodnough, 2000). In designing his theory, Gardner opposes the traditional view of the intellect stating that his theory is a new outlook of the human intelligence.

He considers the intelligences as a new definition of the human nature.

Throughout the history of humanity, many philosophers and scientists have defined the human nature in many different ways. Their definitions have relied on their own perspectives or points of view. Gardner (1999:44) states that Socrates looked upon man as a rational and sophisticated animal, while Freud saw him as an irrational being. Gardner describes man as an organism who possesses a basic set of intelligences. Thus he looks upon human beings in the light of a group of intelligences that they are supposed to have.

4.3 A New Concept of Intelligence

Traditionally, psychologists have looked upon intelligence as a linear concept that can be simply measured by IQ tests. They found that intelligence is the most difficult term to define. The first generation of psychologists of intelligence, such as Spearman (1927) and Terman (1975), cited by

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Gardner (1993:xii), tended to believe that intelligence was best conceptualized as a single, general capacity for conceptualisation and problem solving. They sought to demonstrate that a group of scores on tests reflected a single underlying factor of general intelligence.

Gardner (1993:3-11) presented a new concept of the human intelligence. This new concept contrasts completely with the traditionally accepted concept which states that the human intelligence is a linear concept which is measured by IQ tests.

Further, MI Theory suggests that every one is capable of learning and knowing about the world around him. Thus the theory suggests a new definition of intelligence. For most of the history of human beings, there was no scientific definition of intelligence. People spoke about the concept of intelligence so often and classified people as either 'dull' or 'bright' with varying degrees (Gardner, 1993:xii). Gardner defines intelligence as "the

ability to solve problems, or to fashion products, that are valued in one or more cultural or community settings” (Cahill, 1999:1).

Gardner (1999:34) refined his definition, giving a more comprehensive and accurate one which highlights the great effect that society or culture has on intelligence. He defines intelligence as: *“a bio-psychological potential to process information that can be activated in a cultural setting to solve problems or create products that are of value in a culture.”*

Again Gardner (1999:1) emphasises the impact which the cultural forces have on the human intellect. That is why some intelligences are developed in some person, while others are not developed in the same person. The environment in which the individual lives, the culture which he acquires, and the surrounding people with whom he interacts, play a great role in shaping his intelligences:

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Every society features the ideal human being. The ancient Greeks valued the person who displayed physical agility, rational judgement, and virtuous behaviour. The Romans highlighted manly courage (Gardner, 1999:1).

It is better to refer to the human intellectual power as composed of many talents which can be referred to as intelligences. In this way, man is looked upon in a fair way:

Human cognitive competence is better described in terms of a set of abilities, talents or mental skills, which we call 'intelligences'. All normal individuals possess each of these skills to some extent; individuals differ in the degree of skill and in the nature of their combination (Walters & Gardner, 1995:53).

It is evident that all human beings, provided that they are normal, possess all these intelligences, but with varying degrees. No two individuals are the same; they may deal with same subject matter or topic in a different way.

Gardner (1999:34) considers his new concept of intelligence as an expansion of the term 'intelligence'. This new concept includes areas that had not been considered of any relation to intelligence at all. There are many human capacities, talents or skills which are not considered intelligences at all, such as the musical talent, social skills, and bodily skills. People who are sociable, for example, are regarded as socially skilled, but are not regarded as having an interpersonal intelligence.

Similarly, people, who are able to perform beautiful dances or difficult movements with amazing coordination of their body muscles, are considered skilful at using their body, but are not regarded as having a bodily-kinaesthetic intelligence. In this respect, the human intelligence will encompass many capacities which are relatively independent of one another.

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Moreover, we should admit that our minds are so different and distinct from one another; no two persons have the same kinds of minds. Consequently, our mental abilities or capacities are not the same. That is to say, we do not process the information we receive identically in the same way:

We do not have the same strength in each intelligence area, and we do not have the same combination of intelligences. The idea is that our minds are just as distinct as our personalities (Sakamoto & Tsai, 2000).

4.4 History of MI Theory and IQ Tests

a) History of MI Theory

Tracing back Multiple Intelligences Theory in the history of education and instruction, one can find that it is not totally a new concept. It appeared in many forms a very long time ago when philosophers and educators began to call for modifying instruction in the light of the learners' personalities. They realised the importance of

caring for the learners as individuals who should learn in a peaceful, and non-threatening way. A long time ago, in the early history of education, philosophers called for making things easy for the students to learn. As philosophy guiding instruction, the theory is not a new concept (Dorathy, 1999).

For example, Plato, cited by Campbell (1997), states his advice to educators saying:

Don't then train youths to learn by force and harshness, but direct them to it by what amuses their minds so that you may be better able to discover with accuracy the peculiar bent of genius of each.

This ancient call that was made by this great philosopher is considered the origin of the idea of the multiple intelligences; Plato admitted that each student is smart and has a kind of genius that should be discovered. In order to discover it, teachers should teach their students in an amusing

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way that appeals to them. This is the core of the educational implications of MI Theory.

More recently, the pioneers of modern education called for basing education on more than verbal teaching. They wanted to develop new systems of education in which the student was to be in focus. The famous philosopher, Jean Jacque Rousseau in the 18th century declared that “the child must learn not through words, but through experience; not through books, but through the book of life” (Armstrong, 1994:49).

Also, the Swiss reformer Johanna Heinrich Pestalozzi emphasized an integrated curriculum that regarded physical, moral, and intellectual training based solidly on concrete experiences. The founder of modern day kindergarten, Friedrich Froebel, developed a curriculum consisting of hands-on experiences with manipulatives, playing games, singing songs, gardening and caring for animals. Froebel created a respect for children

including their individuality, dynamic, and creative abilities (Dorathy, 1999).

In the 20th century, innovators like Maria Montessori and John Dewey evolved systems of instruction based upon multiple-intelligences-like techniques, including Montessori's tactile letters and other self-paced materials, and Dewey's vision of the classroom as a microcosm of society. The traditional concept of intelligence limits the human capacities in a very narrow scale. Intelligence is not a linear concept that is always measured by IQ tests. Intelligence is so wide that it cannot be measured in this way (Gardner, 1999:1-14).

Therefore, there were alternative theories of intelligence which appeared to change this traditional concept of intelligence. These theories were espoused by Sternberg (1985), Ceci (1990), Feldman (1986), and others, cited in White et al. (1995:180).

They have been popular in the educational circles. These theories share something in common; they assert that human beings exhibit intelligent behaviour in a wide variety of ways. People are not simply 'smart' or 'dumb'. They vary in their intellectual strength depending on the context in which they are working (White, et al., 1995:180).

b) IQ tests and Identifying or Classifying Students

IQ tests were developed by Binet and were used to assess the children's potential in school (Berman, 2001:4). The main problem with these standardized tests is that they focus on two intelligences only: linguistic intelligence and logical-mathematical intelligence, which have been always regarded as 'scholastic' intelligences (Gardner, 1999:1-10; Hoerr, 2000:1-15)

Another problem is that IQ tests are not predictive of the total performance of the individual. There are

so many aspects of the human performance that are not predicted by IQ tests:

Hurnstein and Murray (1994), cited in Sternberg (1996:18), " in The Bell Curve argue that IQ is predictive of almost any kind of success that is imaginable in our society...What they fail to highlight, though IQ is predictive, is that the prediction is quite weak...Conventional academic intelligence tests account for less than 10 percent of the individual variation differences in actual performance...More than 90 percent of the variation we see in performance is not accounted for by conventional ability tests.

The marks which the student gets cannot represent a final judgement on his performance in a particular field. The student's level can be higher than the marks indicate. A final conclusion cannot be drawn just from these marks. A teacher who has to give a failing mark often does so with the nagging sense that the student is smarter than the grade indicates (White, et al., 1995:174). In addition to that, performance in the classroom is not indicative of the person's mastery of every thing; a lot of

people excel in many fields after they are graduated. Very few people who make it to the top of their fields are the same ones who were the top performers in school (Sternberg, 1996:18).

4.5 The Multiple Intelligences

Gardner states that there are at least seven intelligences, and that there is a possibility of the existence of more intelligences. Here is a demonstration of the seven intelligences according to three main dimensions: The meaning of each intelligence; the characteristics of the persons who exhibit each intelligence; examples of the jobs or life fields in which each intelligence appears.

1-Verbal-Linguistic Intelligence

Meaning:

Verbal/linguistic intelligence involves sensitivity to spoken and written language, the ability to learn languages, and the capacity to use language to accomplish certain goals (Gardner, 1999:37).

Characteristics:

A person with well-developed verbal/linguistic intelligence usually (1) listens and responds to the sound, rhythm, colour, and variety of the spoken word; (2) learns through listening, reading, writing, and discussing; (3) listens effectively, comprehends, paraphrases, interprets, and remembers what has been said; (4) reads and speaks effectively, comprehends, summarises, interprets or explains, and remembers what has been read; (5) exhibits ability to learn other languages and uses listening, speaking, writing, and reading to communicate, discuss, explain and persuade (Laughlin, 1999).

Examples:

There are many people who demonstrate a high degree of this intelligence such as Poets, lawyers, public speakers and writers. Those people are able to use the written and spoken word properly.

2-Logical/mathematical intelligence

Meaning:

It entails the ability to reason either deductively or inductively, recognise and manipulate abstract patterns and relationships (White et al., 1995:181). It is applied to those who investigate issues scientifically (Gardner, 1999:42).

Characteristics:

A person with well-developed logical/mathematical intelligence usually (1) demonstrates skill at logical problem-solving; (2) enjoys complex operations such as computer programming, or research methods; (3) thinks mathematically; (4) expresses interest in careers such as accounting, computer technology, law, engineering, and chemistry (Laughlin, 1999).

Examples:

There are many kinds of people who exhibit a high degree of this intelligence such as scientists, mathematicians, philosophers, logicians, computer

programmers and accountants. Besides, there are many people throughout history who demonstrated a well-developed logical/mathematical intelligence such as the famous philosophers, *Plato* and *Aristotle*, and the great scientist, *Archimedes*.

3- Intrapersonal/introspective intelligence:

Meaning:

It involves the capacity to understand oneself: (i.e. one's own desires, fears, and capacities). It also involves using such information effectively in regulating one's own life (Gardner, 1999:43).

Characteristics:

A person with well-developed intrapersonal intelligence usually (1) is aware of his range of emotions; (2) finds approaches and outlets to express his feelings and thoughts; (3) works independently and is curious about the "big questions" in life: meaning, relevance, and purpose; (4) attempts to seek out and understand inner

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experiences; (5) gains insights into the complexities of self and the human condition; (6) strives for self-actualization (Laughlin, 1999).

Examples:

There are many kinds of people who exhibit a high degree of this intelligence such as independent learners, self-paced learners, and great thinkers and decision makers.

4-Interpersonal intelligence:

Meaning:

It denotes a person's capacity to understand other people (i.e. their intentions, motivations, desires, hidden goals, etc.), and consequently, to work effectively with others (Gardner, 1999:43).

Characteristics:

A person with well-developed interpersonal intelligence usually: (1) forms and maintains social relationships and recognizes and uses a variety of ways to relate to others; (2) perceives the feelings,

thoughts, motivations, behaviours, and lifestyles of others; (3) influences the opinions or actions of others; (4) understands and communicates effectively; (5) adapts behaviour to different environments or groups; (6) expresses an interest in interpersonally-oriented careers such as teaching, social work, counselling, management, or politics (Laughlin, 1999).

Examples:

There are many kinds of people who exhibit a high degree of this intelligence such as religious leaders, political leaders, teachers, and psychologists.

5-Bodily/kinaesthetic intelligence

Meaning:

It entails the potential of using one's whole body or parts of the body (like the hand or the mouth) to solve problems or fashion products (Gardner, 1999:42). In other words, it involves using the body to solve problems, create products, and convey ideas or emotions (White, 1995:181).

Characteristics:

A person with well-developed bodily/kinaesthetic intelligence usually (1) explores the environment and objects through touch and movement; (2) learns best by direct involvement and participation and remembers most clearly what was done, rather than what was said or observed; (3) enjoys concrete learning experiences such as field trips, model building, or participating in role play, games; (4) is sensitive and responsive to physical environments and physical systems; (5) demonstrates skill in acting, athletics, dancing, sewing, etc; (6) may express interest in careers such as those of an athlete, dancer, surgeon, or builder (Laughlin, 1999).

Examples:

There are many kinds of people who exhibit a high degree of this intelligence such as dancers, actors, athletes, and craft-persons.

6-Visual/spatial intelligence

Meaning:

It is the ability to create visual-spatial representations of the world and transfer those representations either mentally, or concretely. It features the potential to recognise and manipulate the patterns of wide space as well as the patterns of more confined areas (Gardner, 1999:43).

Characteristics:

A person with well-developed visual/spatial intelligence usually (1) learns by seeing and observing; (2) recognizes faces, objects, shapes, colours, details, and scenes; uses visual images as an aid in recalling information; enjoys drawing, painting, etc; (5) creates concrete or visual representation of information; (6) expresses interest or skill in being an artist, photographer, engineer, architect and designer (Laughlin, 1999).

Examples:

There are many kinds of people who exhibit a high degree of this intelligence such as navigators, pilots,

sculptures, sailors, engineers, painters and all those people who are concerned with drawing, designing, sailing and recognising space.

7-Musical/rhythmic intelligence

Meaning:

It entails skill in performance, composition, and appreciation of musical patterns (Gardner, 1999:42). It includes sensitivity to pitch, timbre, and rhythm of sounds, as well as responsiveness to the emotional implications to these elements.

Characteristics:

A person with well-developed visual/spatial intelligence usually (1) listens and responds with interest to a variety of sounds (White, 1995:181); (2) enjoys and seeks out opportunities to hear music or environmental sounds in the learning environment; (3) responds to music kinaesthetically by performing and moving; (4) collects music and information about music in various; develops the ability to sing and/or play an

instrument alone or with others; (5) enjoys playing with sounds, and when given a phrase of music, can complete a musical statement in a way that makes sense; (6) may offer his or her own interpretation of what a composer is communicating through music; may express interest in careers involving music such as being a singer, instrumentalist and sound engineer (Laughlin, 1999).

Examples:

There are many kinds of people who exhibit a high degree of this intelligence such as composers, instrumentalists, vocalists, and birds' singing lovers.

4.6 Importance of MI Theory in Education

Since Gardner proposed his Multiple Intelligences Theory in his book, *Frames of Mind* in 1983, a great majority of educators have been applying it in education.

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They have considered the idea of multiple intelligences as a 'powerful medicine' for the shortcomings that are existent in the educational system. Whether they used it as a teaching approach, method or strategy or as an assessment tool, they agreed on that instruction should be tailored according to the multiple intelligences of the students. They called for considering the strengths of the students that may exist in other areas other than the logical-mathematical and verbal-linguistic areas. Common sense tells us that it is so hard to deny the importance of the 'non-academic' intelligence such as musical activities, self-awareness, or visual spatial abilities (Shearer, 1999).

In the following section, there is an illustration of the points that give value and importance to the application of MI Theory in the educational settings. These points show the advantages of MI Theory in the field of education and encourage all the teachers around the world to use it in their

teaching in a way that suits the subject matter they teach and the educational conditions they have.

a) MI Theory as a Tool to Achieve More Success

Teachers are strongly motivated to help all students to learn. Therefore, they have explored MI Theory as a tool that makes more kids learn and succeed. The great majority of the classrooms are characterized by the existence of scholastic winners and losers. MI Theory is important here because it teaches us that all the kids are smart, and that they differ only in the way in which they are smart. Thus, all children have potential and using MI increases the opportunities for students to learn and succeed, giving adults more ways to grow professionally and personally (Hoerr, 2000:x).

b) MI Makes Learning More Enjoyable

Students learn better if they like what they are learning and enjoy it. It is hard for students to learn

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without interest. When students do not like what they learn, they feel bored and tired even if they are able to learn well and succeed in the final exam. Therefore, it is better to create an enjoyable classroom atmosphere in which students like what they learn and enjoy it. Using MI Theory in the classroom can help teachers to create such an encouraging atmosphere:

Students learn best when they enjoy what they are doing. Giving them the opportunity to display their talents, learn new skills without fear of embarrassment or failure, and laugh in the process makes the learning experience rewarding for both teacher and student (Bailey, 1999:37).

c) MI Cares for Individual Differences in Learning

All students are different. No two persons are exactly the same even the identical twins. Even the same person is different from one period to another or from one situation to another in many ways. Difference is the rule and stability is the exception.

This is applied to students while they are learning in the classroom:

It is a fact of classroom life that what interests one student leaves another bored, literally, to distraction. It is also a fact that the student who is the most enthusiastic on Tuesday is often the one who is the most bored on Wednesday. This phenomenon can leave students feeling short-changed and teachers feeling frustrated and guilty for failing to reach their students. The theory of Multiple Intelligences (MI)...not only helps explain this phenomenon, but helps teachers find ways around the obstacles to learning" (Bailey, 1999:36).

It is evident that we will never reach all the learners, whatever approach to teaching we adopt, unless we teach multi-modally and cater for all the intelligences in our lessons (Berman, 2001). Therefore, MI Theory is greatly required so as to deal with the different students who have different minds. It will involve all the students with their different personalities to have more chance for

learning and achieving success in spite of these differences that cannot be considered.

4.7 Multiple Intelligences-Based Instruction

Multiple Intelligences Theory and its applications in the educational settings are growing so rapidly. Many educators began to adopt MI-Based Instruction as a way to overcome the difficulties which they encounter with their students as a result of their individual differences and their learning styles. These difficulties may be represented in their inability to reach most of their students. As a result, they become frustrated and their students lose interest in the teaching-learning process as a whole. These difficulties may be caused by the uniform way in which they teach their students : *“There are currently thousands of MI teachers and ten thousands of students undergoing MI-based classroom instruction”* (Campbell, 2000:12).

Once Multiple Intelligences Theory is understood, it can be applied in education in a variety of ways. There is no one definite way through which the theory can be applied in education. The theory is very flexible and it can be adapted to the context in which it is applied. The theory can be implemented in a wide range of instructional contexts, from highly traditional settings where teachers spend much of their time directly teaching students to open environments where students regulate most of their own learning (Armstrong, 1994:51).

Thus instruction can be modified and organized in the light of MI Theory. The theory in this case acts as a framework for teaching upon which teaching is organised:

On a deeper level...MI theory suggests a set of parameters within which educators can create new curricula. In fact, the theory provides a context within which educators can address any skill, content, area, theme, or instructional objectives, and develop at least seven ways to teach it. Essentially, MI Theory offers a means

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of building daily lesson plans, weekly units, or monthly or year-long themes and programs in such a way that all students can have their strongest intelligences addressed at least some of the time (Armstrong, 1994:57).

Using MI in instruction means that students learn in different ways and express their understanding in many ways. Using paper and pencil measures as traditional measures limits the students' capacity to the linguistic skills which they use in writing their answers (Hoerr, 2000:12-14).

Under the use of MI-Based instruction, the students are treated as individuals. The students' talents and interests are not ignored because it is not fair to concentrate on some students and neglect others whose capacities and talents are not well identified.

This idea is emphasised by Hoerr (2000) who gives a definition of MI approach in the light of which instruction is delivered in a way that considers students' interests and talents:

An MI approach means developing curriculum and using instruction that taps into students' interests and talents. Students are given options, different ways to learn, and they share responsibility in their learning (Hoerr, 2000:12).

Gardner (1999:151) proposed another alternative to the traditional way of learning called 'individually-configured education'. This way considers individual differences seriously and crafts practices that can be useful to different kinds of minds.

In this type of education, the human individual differences are given primacy to anything else. The students are not obliged to learn in a uniform way in which the student who has a different kind of mind is viewed as a stupid one. This is a very limited view of this student who is not linguistically or mathematically talented.

This unfair view does not allow the other talents to come out. Instead, the individual talents and

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interests are given more focus, and are also allowed to come out. Consequently, the teacher's role is different from the one he used to perform in the traditional way of instruction:

In the traditional classroom, the teacher lectures while standing at the front of the classroom, writes on the blackboard, asks students questions about the assigned reading or handouts, and waits while students finish their written work. In the MI classroom, the teacher continually shifts her method of presentation from linguistic to spatial to musical and so on, often combining intelligences in creative ways (Armstrong, 1994:50).

The teacher's role has to be changed, simply because the philosophy under which the new role is performed is completely different from the old one: In the old philosophy, which is completely teacher-centred, instruction is dominated by the teacher who is considered the source of information and the planter of knowledge.

Using MI theory in education involves using it as a content of instruction and as a means of conveying this content at the same time. This indicates that using MI Theory can take many forms. The ultimate goal of any form in which the theory is used is to facilitate instruction as much as possible, and reaching all the students at the same time:

Under MI Theory, an intelligence can serve both as the content of instruction and the means or medium for communicating that content. This state of affairs has important ramifications for instruction. For example, suppose that a child is learning some mathematical principle but that this child is not skilled in Logical-Mathematical Intelligence. The child will probably experience some difficulty during the learning process...In the present example, the teacher must attempt to find an alternative route to the mathematical content-a metaphor in another medium. Language is perhaps the most obvious alternative, but spatial modelling and even bodily-kinesthetic metaphor may prove appropriate in some cases (Walters & Gardner, 1999:74-75).

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In teaching English, Multiple Intelligences-Based Instruction can be effective in many ways: first of all, the students are given many options and opportunities to express themselves in the English language. Second, students are not confined to answer their exams using only two types of tests:

Using MI in curriculum and instruction means that students learn and show their understanding in many different ways. While paper and pencil measures--essays and objective tests--have their role, they invariably limit the students' responses to a few intelligences...By limiting students to writing their answers, relying on their linguistic skills, the teacher may find out whether a student has a good command of the English language and writes well, but she may short change students' understanding in other ways" (Hoerr, 2000:13-14).

To base the instruction of the English language on MI Theory means that the teacher should use a variety of teaching strategies which should be used in a way that makes this instruction address the intelligences which the students possess. In this

way, the English language is taught in a natural atmosphere.

This is a model of instruction which applies the MI philosophy:

On one level, MI Theory applied to the curriculum might be best represented by a loose and diverse collection of teaching strategies. In this sense, MI Theory represents a model of instruction that has no distinct rules other than the demands imposed by the cognitive components of the intelligences themselves. Teachers can pick and choose from (many) activities, implementing the theory in a way suited to their own unique teaching style and congruent with their educational philosophy (as long as that philosophy does not declare that all children learn in the same way) (Armstrong, 1994:57).

Catering for the various intelligences which the students possess is not an easy task; it needs much effort from both the teacher and the students. The teacher is obliged to achieve a match between the standard curriculum and the student's proclivities:

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Making the match between the standard curriculum and each student's proclivities is not easy, but progress can be achieved with the efforts of teachers and students. Teachers can take an active role by shaping their presentations of the curriculum to fit the needs of a wider range of students. . Experienced and successful teachers often cater to a range of students by teaching each part of the curriculum in many different ways (White, 1995:186).

This means that those successful and experienced teachers do not deal with some concept or some content area in a uniform way. Rather, they diversify their methods of presentation in such a way that the same concept or content area is dealt with in many different ways. This will result in the involvement of more of the students' multiple intelligences at the same time, and thus, involving more students in the teaching-learning process. Thus, they provide the learners with several opportunities to understand and learn the same concept:

They tend to revisit a key concept or theme often and with variations to provide several opportunities for students to approach a concept from different perspectives. In multiple intelligences terms, this variety provides the multiple paths to understanding necessary to engage the multiple intelligences that students bring to the classroom (White, 1995:186).

To develop his instruction under the MI philosophy, the teacher has to do his best in order to develop the materials in a way that makes them appropriate to address the students' multiple intelligences. In other words, the teacher has to translate the linguistic materials into activities that cope with MI Theory. The teacher of English, for example, has to consider the linguistic content he is dealing with and try to involve other intelligences and translate this content, not into French for example, but into the languages of these intelligences:

The best way to approach curriculum development using the theory of multiple intelligences is by thinking about how we can translate the material to be taught from one intelligence to another. In other words, how

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can we take a linguistic symbol system, such as the English language, and translate it--not into other linguistic languages, such as Spanish or French, but into the languages of other intelligences, namely, pictures, physical or musical expression, logical symbols or concepts, social interactions, and intrapersonal connections (Armstrong, 1994:57-58).

The following seven-step procedure suggests one way to create lesson plans or curriculum units using MI Theory as an organising framework (Armstrong, 1994:58-60):

1. Focus on specific objectives
2. Ask key Multiple Intelligences Questions
3. Consider the Possibilities
4. Brainstorm
5. Select Appropriate Activities
6. Set Up to a Sequential Plan
7. Implement the Plan.

However, we should keep in mind that the theory is not a rigid model that must be applied in a certain

way. The teacher can adapt the theory in a way that serves his/her stated objectives and carry out his/her goals. He should be thoughtful and creative so as to use it effectively inside his classroom. In this way, the theory becomes a means to an end, not an end in itself:

Although the multiple intelligences theory provides an effective instructional framework, teachers should avoid using it as a rigid pedagogical formula. One teacher who attempted to teach all content through all eight modes every day admitted that he occasionally had to tack on activities. Even students complained that some lessons were really stretching it. Instructional methods should be appropriate for the content” (Campbell, 1997).

This means that the theory is very flexible and has many ways of application in the teaching process. Also we should keep in mind that it is not obligatory to use all the intelligences to teach certain content. This may take so much time. Also, this makes the learning process boring instead of making it interesting to the students.

Therefore, we should always ask ourselves about the main idea of this model in the teaching-learning process. The main idea lies in the fact that we can teach anything in a variety of ways. This makes our teaching appeal to many students:

The master code of this learning style model is simple: for whatever you wish to teach, link your instructional objectives to words, numbers or logic, pictures, music, the body, social interaction, and/or personal experience. If you can create activities that combine these intelligences in unique ways, so much the better" (Armstrong, 1994).

Gardner (1999) indicates three positive ways in which MI can be used in schools:

- 1) The cultivation of desired capacities;
- 2) Approaching a concept, subject matter, or discipline in variety of ways; and
- 3) The personalisation of education.

To begin lesson planning, teachers should reflect on a concept that they want to teach and identify the intelligences that seem most appropriate for communicating the content (Campbell, 1997). This is the main strategy which the researcher will adopt in order to teach and develop the speaking skills. To teach speaking effectively using MI-Based Instruction, the teacher should determine the intelligences which are the most closely related to the speaking skills. Of course all the intelligences are related, but there are some intelligences which are more related to the speaking skills than others. Besides, some intelligences might come into play in one situation more effectively than others.

There are many intelligences which are closely related to the speaking skills. These intelligences are interpersonal intelligence, intrapersonal intelligence, verbal-linguistic intelligence, bodily-kinaesthetic intelligence. For example, the interpersonal intelligence is concerned here because it entails the person's ability to

communicate with other people. This ability is needed to develop speaking skills because speaking involves an interactive communication with other people. This interaction can be fostered if the teacher uses some activities which are based on the interpersonal intelligence. The intrapersonal intelligence is involved here because it may enable the individual student to reflect upon something and then express himself/herself using the target language. The bodily-kinaesthetic intelligence is also involved because it can be used to make students move and act roles while they are speaking.

4.8 Review

Please try to answer the following questions:

1. What is the core (main idea) of MI Theory?
2. Shed some light on the main intelligences that Gardner (1983) identified.
3. What is meant by 'MI-based Instruction'?

4. What are the main characteristics of MI-based Instruction?
5. How, in your opinion and based on your reading, can MI-based instruction resolve many language-learning problems inside the classroom?

CHAPTER FIVE

TEACHING DIFFERENT LANGUAGE ASPECTS AND SKILLS TO STUDENTS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS

5.1 Introduction

Today, almost every classroom includes a number of students who are dealing with a disability...either physical, educational, emotional, or a combination of all. As a teacher, you probably find yourself looking for information and resources that will help you effectively teach those students and help them learn successfully.

5.2 Teaching Spelling to Students with Special Needs

One of the greatest challenges of most students with special learning needs is written language in general, and spelling in particular. To generalize weakness in spelling skills within the population of children with disabilities may not be completely accurate; however, it is certainly among the high

incidence skill deficits. Spelling accurately not only enables a child to be a more proficient reader and writer, but also enhances that child's self-concept. Conversely, a child who has difficulty spelling also usually experiences difficulty reading and writing, and may perceive himself as "not smart". Spelling, in fact, has little, if any, correlation with intelligence. Spelling is, however, a developmental cognitive process. When we observe the spelling of children with, for instance, learning disabilities, we usually notice that they are using early stage spelling skills. Spelling problems occur in children who, for whatever reason, have weak visual memory skills and delayed or poor sound-symbol correspondence skills. Inability to read words correlates highly with inability to write those same words when dictated. To assist children in their spelling growth, teachers of children with special needs use many of the following **techniques**:

Examples:

Reading and writing:

Children will learn to spell by reading and writing. When they are exposed to words over and over—especially in a context— their recall of word spellings is generally improved. Children with learning disabilities need the same opportunity, although their acquisition of accurate spellings, as seen in their spontaneous writing, often takes longer to master, and there truly are some words that some children in this population may never master. However, frequent interaction with words is key, and in a meaningful context is preferred. We all recognize that there are so many words in our language that do not follow the rules for spelling. Children with learning disabilities in visual processing and memory have a particular difficult time memorizing those words, many of which we refer to as "sight words." Repetition of visual input is essential to the acquisition of those words. This can be accomplished in many ways, and some of those ways are detailed below. While the drill

method (affectionately called "Drill and Kill" by many teachers) does nothing to contextualize those words, it does provide an opportunity for additional exposure and practice for commonly misspelled words. It has its place in the 'big picture,' but should never be used as the only method of teaching sight words. Drill is often done using flashcards of individual words. Expand the use of flashcards, and trace over each with some glue! This will provide a tactile input, as well.

Language Experience Approach:

Just as the child's own language becomes his beginning reading material, it also becomes his vehicle for acquiring proficiency in spelling and writing. Skills are taught in a context created by the child, which, as we know, is very likely to engage the child's attention and interest in doing his best work. In this approach, a child dictates a story as the teacher scribes. The teacher encourages the child to participate in the writing by prompting the child with questions such as, "What letter would

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that word begin with?" and "Does this look like the way I should spell (dog)?" Eventually, the child will assume more responsibility for the writing of his own stories, filling in letters, whole words, punctuation, and finally, the entire text. The completed text can be used further to improve spelling skills. For example, the child or the teacher could cut apart the story into sentence strips to be arranged in sequence to reinforce reading, and consequently, spelling. Cutting sentences into individual words, and then, perhaps cutting some words into isolated parts (such as onsets and rimes, or blends, digraphs, root words with plural endings, etc.) continues to provide students with the opportunity to practice reading. Always using the context is key. Putting letters, words or sentences back together, rereading frequently, and self-monitoring and self-correcting leads to further skill improvement.

Teaching through familiar names and words:

This is a popular and useful approach to reinforcing spelling of phonics generalizations, such as short and long vowels, and consonant sounds. In this approach, the teacher would emphasize, for example, a vowel sound within a child's name, such as the short /e/ in Debby. When attention is called to the sound made by that vowel in Debby's name, Debby would be able to use a familiar name (her own) to assist her in recalling which vowel makes that sound when she needs to spell other words with the same sound. The teacher would prompt her by saying, for example, "How is that word (ten) like your name?"

"Words I Can Write" books:

Students will be encouraged by their own progress in spelling when they can see how quickly their "Words I Can Write" book grows during the school year. As a child masters a new spelling, he adds those words to his personal book, which is organized alphabetically. This student-made

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resource can then also be used to assist the child in independent proofreading, too.

The 'Word Wall' and the Print-Rich Environment:

Structuring the classroom for success is a sign of an effective teacher. Students who have difficulty spelling will use their environment to assist them in their reading, writing and spelling. A room filled with written language (labels, book titles, bulletin boards, a word wall, captions, maps, charts, etc.) will provide students with the confidence to take writing and spelling risks more often.

Predictable Texts:

"I can..." and "I like..." books created by students will give them the repetition and practice they need to support their growth in spelling. So, too, will allow students to self-select reading books, and reading quality literature books over and over again to them as they follow along. Using these books, as well as wordless picture books and

others, to create their own text, is highly motivating to students of all ages and abilities.

Writing Aloud:

This non-threatening technique involves the teacher in writing in such a way that the students are listening to his/her decision-making as s/he spells/writes on the board. For example, the teacher writes: "We will not have music today." As s/he writes each word, s/he makes comments such as, "I will begin my first word with a capital, because it is the first word in the sentence.

The Mini-Lesson:

Individualized mini-lessons are provided by the teacher as children's own written products, such as journals, are reviewed in writing conferences. For example, if a child omit the final /e/ in words such as 'hope' or 'take', the teacher seizes the opportunity to address the 'silent /e/' issue, using the students' own writings and further modeling.

Mnemonics or, "Tricky Ways to Remember Stuff!"

Most of us learned something in our schooling using mnemonics, and for children for special learning needs, this is a very effective way to facilitate their learning. The limitations of mnemonics are only defined by the level of creativity of the teacher.

5.3 Teaching Writing to Students with Special needs

A student with a learning disability struggles when expressing oneself verbally, organizing thoughts, learning to read and therefore struggles to learn to write. Writing is a vehicle to express thoughts and relay information and for a student with a learning disability, the inability to express information can lead to lack of self-esteem. Usually, a student with a learning disability is intelligent and has an average or above average intellect but may have difficulty processing information. With the proper support

and teaching method, a student with a learning disability can learn to write.

Instructions:

- Expand expressive language skills. A student with a learning disability usually has difficulty with expressive language and this can lead to difficulty with writing. Activities that can help with expressive language include expanding a sentence, story-telling and introducing the types of sentences. Without expressive language, it will be difficult to put thoughts and ideas into writing.
- Develop organizational and planning skills. A student with a learning disability must learn to plan what they want to write, to whom, why they are writing, what they know and how they will organize their thoughts. A thinking sheet can help the student with answering these questions as they prepare to write.

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- Create a rough draft from information on the thinking sheet. The rough draft will help with developing a plan of action for the student and teacher or parent to discuss the content and structure of the draft and make necessary changes.
- Revise and edit the rough draft. This is a very important part of the writing process and will help the student deliver what is on the thinking sheet.
- Teach text structure for writing. This will also provide a plan of action for writing. Each type of writing has steps and will dictate how text should be structured. For example, an essay contains a thesis and supporting statements while a narrative contains character development and a story highpoint.
- Provide feedback. Provide the student with a learning disability with frequent feedback on their writing. This will help student with determining the quality of their writing,

identify any missing elements and pinpoint strengths.

- Practice to reinforce skills learned. This will continue to develop writing skills.

Tips & Warnings

- Have patience.
- Provide instruction in a workshop method or resource room.
- Some students with a learning disability may have issues with fine motor skills such as handwriting. This makes it difficult to translate thoughts to paper and discourage student from wanting to write. Practice letter formations and copying words to develop handwriting skills.

5.4 Teaching Reading to Students with Special Needs

Teaching reading to children with special needs even when they do not demonstrate 'reading readiness' opens up a whole new world of

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information and communication for them. Encouraging our sons and daughters to become readers at home should always be an enjoyable enterprise for both parent and child, because our relationship with our children is more important than any accomplishment or goal we can set for them. Teachers have been surprised to discover that including children with developmental disabilities like Down syndrome in mainstream classrooms can lead to early success in reading.

Sometimes a student with a disability will learn to read when given the opportunity, after failing to accomplish pre-reading goals on an IEP. Many students who have speech therapy needs will speak more clearly, including all the sounds and syllables in a word, when they learn the visual representations of the sounds. Some families turn on the 'close caption' function when their child is learning to read to help them to understand the relationship between the written and spoken word. Others discover that their son or daughter has had

difficulty in speech due to undiagnosed hearing problems when they suddenly start communicating differently after learning to read and spell.

Teachers may employ big books, word and sentence boards, children's software programs, DVDs or educational television shows to help children learn to decode words, use phonics, and count out syllables. Some innovative programs use music and physical movements. 'Talking books' and computer software that reads aloud to children can entertain them as well as build their skills in sight reading. Being among readers who enjoy books and magazines can inspire children to put more effort into learning to read and so does learning to associate reading with comfort and companionship.

Some students have to be taught to read at home to prove to educational experts that they have that potential. Remember that teachers and staff are doing their best according to what they have been taught and the experiences they have had before

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meeting each child. It can be difficult for them to believe two contradictory facts, and they may reject the one that has the most evidence if they believe strongly enough in the one that doesn't - just like the rest of us. They may have never met a child with your son or daughter's diagnosis that can read, and may not have read the most recent research on supporting students with special learning needs to build literacy skills.

One thing is for certain - children need many opportunities to learn to read, and no matter how soon or late they become readers, whole new worlds can open up for them. Children with developmental disabilities or other special needs should have access to books before they learn to read for themselves, just like their mainstream peers. Just as expressive and receptive language skills may vary greatly in some children, reading skills and the capacity to understand higher level books may not match up. Each of us may have individual interests that we want to follow and we

also may respond differently while reading the same book. Our children will find their favorite authors or stories only when they have access to a wide variety of literature and formats.

Books on tape and DVD are great alternatives to the printed page. Many children who struggle with the written word can still be enthralled by the stories found between classic book covers and the latest best sellers. The Library for the Blind may have resources that are real treasures for children with developmental disabilities and 'late bloomers' or those who need a slower pace reading on tape.

If you have found that your children enjoy listening to books on audio as they thumb through their storybooks, and if they love to have you read to them, do encourage their interests by scheduling that kind of 'down time'. It might foster a lifelong love of learning, or just be a comfort in times of transition or stress for you both.

5.5 Reading Comprehension for Special Needs

Children with reading disabilities will have trouble with comprehension. This article will provide ways of improving reading comprehension in kids with special needs. In order for children to perform their best in school, they must learn to understand what they are reading. But for kids with reading disabilities, reading comprehension does not come easily. Children must master the art of phonics, and develop reading fluency before they can even hope to understand the meaning of a sentence, paragraph, or story. Once a child has a good grasp of phonics and reads more fluently, improving comprehension will be easier.

Reading Comprehension Problems in Children with Special Needs:

If a child with special needs displays symptoms of a reading disability relating to phonemic awareness, phonics, or reading fluency, then these issues must

be addressed before expecting the child to have good reading comprehension.

Sometimes a child with a reading disability will have no difficulties with reading mechanics at all, but still will not understand the ideas and themes in a sentence, paragraph, or story. When reading aloud, there may be incorrect pauses in the middle of a sentence, or no pauses at the end of sentences. Reading is done in a monotone voice with little or no expression. Vocabulary skills may be weak. Also, the child will not be able to summarize what was just read.

Strategies and Tips for Teaching Reading Comprehension:

If a child with a reading disability is having difficulty with reading comprehension, a teacher may want to try the following strategies and accommodations in the classroom to improve understanding:

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1. Review what the story is about before reading it. This can teach students the right way to summarize a story.
2. When reading to the students, pause and ask questions frequently about what was just read.
3. Teach students to ask themselves questions during their reading time. This can be done by preparing a reading questionnaire and marking when to pause in the story and review each question.
4. Have the students list what they think the main ideas of a reading passage are. Do this often as an exercise in class, as a group and individually.
5. Read stories that are related to a subject the child with special needs already knows or is interested in.
6. Teach a child who doesn't understand something that was read to raise his or her hand and ask for help.

7. Provide dictionaries so that kids can look up words they don't know (see vocabulary strategies below).
8. Important reading (for instance instructions for a test or activity) should be read to the students until reading comprehension improves.

Vocabulary Word Strategies:

It is important to provide students with a list of vocabulary words before they are required to read a story containing them. This step will augment a student's comprehension of the passage, and will also help with word recognition and pronunciation. Also, try providing pictures of the unknown words along with the reading material.

Helping children who struggle with reading in the regular classroom can be challenging for teachers. However, children with reading disabilities will struggle in all areas of learning until their issues can be addressed. Therefore, teachers need to apply

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some of these strategies and tips to improve reading comprehension. When children with special needs begin to comprehend what they are reading, a whole new world of possibilities becomes open to them, both academically and personally.

5.6 Teaching Vocabulary to ESL & Special Education Students:

Vocabulary instruction needs to focus on the tools that students need in order to deal with new vocabulary as they read. Because vocabulary knowledge is closely related to reading comprehension, introducing new vocabulary through context yields better results than teaching new vocabulary one word at a time. The teacher's task is to enable students to develop independent strategies for recognizing new vocabulary words and their meanings. It is also critical to guide children in their choices of which words are worth worrying about while they read. As readers themselves, teachers realize that a proper name of a person or place, for example, may not always be

essential to be able to pronounce and recall, whereas a concept or thing may be. Teachers must also help children learn how words are used in text, and encourage their interest in discovering meanings.

Oftentimes, children with special learning needs that affect their comprehension skills have an auditory-oral system (hearing and speaking) that is insufficient. This may be true, for example, in cases of children who have hearing loss and children with specific learning disabilities. Communication disorders are also typical in children who are mentally retarded, autistic, or have acquired language disorders caused, for example, by a traumatic brain injury. We refer to some of these difficulties as receptive and expressive language disorders, aphasia, or dysnomia.

EXAMPLES:

Keeping in mind the 'layering' concept discussed in the Concepts in Print section, the individual

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recommendations that follow should also be considered as part of a more holistic approach. Teaching vocabulary using a multisensory approach is also more dynamic, more fun and more effective, for example, than rote memorization of isolated vocabulary words. Enthusiasm and movement, rhythm and music, and activities with props, or realia, can bring about very positive results in vocabulary teaching and learning, too! Vocabulary development occurs best through the use of meaningful contexts. When we support those contexts with scaffolding techniques, experiences and opportunities for authentic use, progress in vocabulary development is inevitable.

Tell It In Your Own Words: Retellings give teachers a great deal of insight into how well children understand text. Comprehension of text includes the awareness of vocabulary meaning. Without knowing what important vocabulary words mean, children will not be able to accurately retell what they have read.

A variation of this strategy is for you, the teacher, to retell the story in your own words. In that way you are demonstrating the meaning of new vocabulary, and by modelling retelling for them in this way, they are more apt to use this strategy themselves.

The Book Introduction - Natural Vocabulary: Struggling readers who are introduced to new vocabulary through the actual context of a book introduction will be better prepared to comprehend the new vocabulary when they confront it in the text. By introducing a book, and by using new vocabulary in the introduction, you are giving the students some background experience that will scaffold their learning. When the new vocabulary is crucial to understanding a context, this pre-reading experience will support their vocabulary development and comprehension.

Vocabulary Prediction Activities: Prior to reading, choose a certain amount of words (3-6)

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from the text to be read that are new to most of the students. Write the words on the board, and leave space for students to write or tell definitions of these words. Complete the spaces prior to reading, and then direct the children to read the selections that include those words. Following the reading, redirect the students to the words and definitions, and ask them if, among their guesses, there were definitions that fit the meanings of the words they found in the story. (Teacher asks, “What does the word mean as it is used in the story?”) For words that they have not included accurate definitions, prompt them with their prior knowledge, building on their guesses, and finally giving them the word in a context that aligns with the story.

Multiple Meanings: There are so many words in English that have multiple meanings, and for children with special needs, this can often be very confusing. Common words with multiple meanings are: tied, run, act, step, arm, hand, type, and so on. (There are hundreds.)

Multiple meanings can be taught explicitly, and there are activities that your Speech Therapist may be able to suggest as well. One such activity involves students brainstorming the meanings of words that are given by you (ones that have multiple meanings), and then locating the words in the text and deciding which meaning makes the most sense. They can do this as a pre-reading activity, discover while they are reading, or do this after they have read.

Conceptually Grounded Vocabulary: When students develop and share already known statements and questions about a given topic, they may use new vocabulary that not all students know. When this is the case, the teacher should ask for explanation or elaboration (“What did you mean by ___?” “Could you tell me more about ___?”). As this activity (sharing statements and questions) becomes a consistent part of your pre-reading

lessons, the students, and not the teacher, will begin to ask those questions.

Categorizing Vocabulary (w/K-W-L Charts): A variation of the Conceptually Grounded Vocabulary activity is to draw up a K-W-L (What I Know, What I Want to Know, What I Have Learned) chart for categorizing words found in their reading. When students have some knowledge about categories of words, such as “kinds of transportation” or “emotions”, they may realize common attributes of other words that belong in those categories. They will engage in further thinking and discussion of the words' meanings and uses. Keeping a word category journal or vocabulary journal for a reference would complement this activity nicely. For struggling readers, activating knowledge in this pre-reading activity can be helpful in predicting word and sentence meanings while reading.

Use of Realia: What better way to bring words to life than to have an actual, concrete representation

of those words available to your students? There may be limited opportunity for children to go to the beach, for example. Bringing in seashells, starfish, driftwood, and seaweed to look at and touch while reading about habitats, land forms, or literature that is set around a beach will facilitate comprehension and vocabulary development. Engage the children in realia searches, too. Many of them have collections of plastic dinosaurs, insects, seashells, rocks, etc. that can add to lessons you teach.

The semantic map may be done prior to, during, or after reading. In this activity, the teacher may choose a central idea, and will invite the students to build the map by giving related words. This type of graphic organizer is very useful in reinforcing vocabulary. Children may develop their own maps, or they may develop them within small cooperative groups. Students with special learning needs often respond quite favourably to this approach.

NON-EXAMPLES:

Pre-Reading Vocabulary Lists: One of the most commonly used class activities aimed at enhancing vocabulary development and reading comprehension is to provide students with a list of vocabulary prior to a reading activity. The assumption is that if a child knows the meanings of words prior to reading, then the child will have better comprehension while reading. It is not uncommon to see teacher's manuals for basal readers including this activity routinely.

There are several examples of why this is not an effective strategy to improve vocabulary. In a typical math book, children are introduced to familiar words arranged in new contextual patterns that no longer have clear meaning to the children. Syntactic cues are often sufficient to assist children in answering questions about most given contexts. A child's experience with English (using and listening to it) helps her/him respond to questions about the context. Knowing word endings and

word-ordering rules in one's own language, however, can mislead teachers to believe that children understand what they have read, when in fact they are only knowledgeable about how their language works.

Introduction of New Vocabulary Prior to Text

Reading: When new vocabulary is introduced out of context, there is less likelihood that children will retain meanings of new vocabulary during or following reading. The assumption that preview of vocabulary, as mentioned in the previous section, will improve comprehension, is weak and not well founded in research. Supplementing the introduction of new vocabulary prior to reading with realia, concrete experiences, discussion, semantic maps, etc. will improve the chances. However, the best chance for successful acquisition of new vocabulary comes with its use in meaningful contexts.

Pre-Reading Dictionary Word Search: This activity borders on (or is) busy work that has little value other than locating words in a dictionary. Children copy definitions without actually reading and understanding definitions. The lack of interaction between the children and the teacher, or their peers, further diminishes the potential for actual vocabulary development. Children with special learning needs need this interaction.

Single Non-Relevant Sentence Reading Prior to Text Reading: Putting new vocabulary words in a sentence (either supplied by the teacher, or created by the student) that is not related to the context of the actual reading selection in which the word is found, has little impact on how the same new vocabulary word will be understood, and how it will affect comprehension. This activity needs serious scrutinizing, because it has been used for years, and continues to be used without sufficient evidence that it actually works.

5.7 How to Teach Academic Vocabularies to Children with Learning Disabilities

Words used often in a particular content area or subject are known as academic vocabulary. Students must first understand the meaning of these words before they can fully grasp the concepts being taught in a particular subject such as science or math. Understanding academic vocabulary is important for completing class assignments and for understanding the questions on standardized tests. Students with learning disabilities can struggle with academic vocabulary. To help them learn, teachers should provide interactive and repetitive vocabulary instruction.

Instructions:

1. Teach vocabulary in context. Providing students with a list of words to define and memorize is not ideal in any subject. Though it might be beneficial to review vocabulary words in subjects such as reading and social studies before embarking on a new unit, the

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same is not always true for technical vocabulary for subjects such as science and math. Vocabulary should be taught as the terms become relevant during instruction; otherwise, the words have no real meaning to students.

2. Provide examples and explain meaning before giving students a formal definition. Students with learning disabilities often have difficulty comprehending grade-level material, especially when reading it on their own. Students often do not comprehend the definition, so they do not understand the meaning of the word. First explain to students the meaning, repeating the word often during instruction. Use the word in multiple contexts and ask students questions as you do, reiterating the definition.
3. Allow students to write their own definitions. Though providing the formal definition can be helpful, it can also prompt students to memorize a group of words instead of

understanding the new vocabulary word. When a student creates her own definition, she makes the word meaningful to her.

4. Use the Frayer Model for vocabulary instruction. The Frayer Model is a graphic organizer designed to help students deepen their understanding of academic vocabulary. It includes sections for students to list their definition of the word, examples or synonyms, non-examples or antonyms, and characteristics. The vocabulary term is listed in the centre. The model can be changed if necessary to meet the needs of students with learning disabilities. At times the non-example section is replaced with a drawing by the student.

5.8 Teaching Grammar to ESL & Special Education Students

Grammar leads very quickly into abstraction. For example, verb tense and time do not always correspond, as in the present tense/future time meaning in a conditional clause such as, "If it rains

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tomorrow, I will bring my umbrella." ESL and special needs educators have developed approaches which emphasize evidence-based inductive grammar instruction and multisensory learning. The two methodologies combine to create an approach to grammar teaching suitable for mixed groups of ESL and special education students.

Instructions:

1. Write the following sentences on the board, with all words in one colour:

I have lived in California.

I have eaten sushi.

Yes, I have.

No, I haven't.

Have you lived in California?

Have you eaten sushi?

Ask students to read the sentences out loud to each other in groups.

2. Students working in group of two or three copy the sentences onto their whiteboards. Ask students to use the same colour for words that are the same or similar. Ask each group to share their colour-coding scheme and, as a class, determine a colour-coding scheme that will be the new standard for the whole class. You might end up with something like this:

Nouns = green

Pronouns = blue

Verbs = red

Prepositions = orange

...and so on.

3. Point out to students that in statements, green or blue comes first, whereas in questions, red comes first. Invite students to

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create their own statements and questions with the same tense.

4. Write the student-generated questions on the board. Ask students to copy these questions onto index cards, using the colour-coding convention. Invite students to circulate around the classroom, asking each other these questions. Instruct students to write the name of anyone who answers yes onto the appropriate index card.
5. Ask students to write a few sentences about their classmates, preserving the class's color-coding scheme.

5.9 Teaching Communication Skills to Students with Special Needs

Parents and educators can use special tools and techniques to teach kids with special needs to communicate effectively with each other as well as with others. Each technique focuses a child's attention on a task or social situation, giving him experience and insight on social expectations and his own perspectives about those situations. You

can change the techniques to fit the development of your child or to address other social issues as they become apparent.

Instructions:

1. Prepare social scripts for kids and take turns reading them repetitively. Write a story, from the child's point of view; highlighting the steps to complete a task, the possible emotions and feelings he will face during the task, and the method he can use to address the task. For instance, you can write a simple story about how to ask a parent for dinner, starting with feelings of hunger and demonstrating a healthy and appropriate way to express those feelings.
2. Use role-playing to give kids experience handling social situations and establishing healthy communication. Describe a situation to the child that places her in the position to communicate something to you, her parent or another child. Instruct the children to play

out the situation in your classroom. Assess her performance and offer positive feedback and advice. For example, if you want to teach your students how to make a new friend, present them with the conditions under which they could make a new friend and watch them play out the scenario.

3. Make your classroom a comfort zone where you can provide social organization to your students' lives. Spend time in class regularly instructing your students to get to know each other, play together and form friendships in an environment where you are present and can help. Make friends with children who show signs of shyness or social anxiety. Inspire your students to think of their classmates as a unified group, and encourage them to continue the group outside of class -- at lunch, recess or after school.
4. Get parents involved with your work. Send communication assignments home with your students, instructing them to carry out

specific communicative tasks in their home, such as talking to their parents about their school day. Invite your students' parents into your classroom to participate in class and use it as an opportunity to introduce parents to each other. Encourage your students' parents to organize time outside of class for their children to meet in a social setting and play.

5.10 Review

Now, think of answers to the following questions:

1. How can we teach reading comprehension to students with special needs?
2. What are 'vocabulary prediction activities'?
3. How can we teach academic vocabularies to children with learning disabilities?
4. What are the techniques used for teaching grammar to special education students?
5. What is the importance of using 'realia' while teaching new vocabulary to students with special educational needs?

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