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INSTRUCTING TEACHERS OF CHILDREN WITH DISABILITIES  
WITHIN THE CHURCH OF JESUS CHRIST  
OF LATTER-DAY SAINTS

by

Katie E. Sampson

A thesis submitted to the faculty of  
Brigham Young University  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Science

Department of Counseling Psychology and Special Education

Brigham Young University

August 2004

BRIGHAM YOUNG UNIVERSITY

GRADUATE COMMITTEE APPROVAL

of a thesis submitted by

Katie E. Sampson

This thesis has been read by each member of the following graduate committee and by the majority vote has been found to be satisfactory.

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As chair of the candidate's graduate committee, I have read the thesis of Katie E. Sampson in its final form and have found that (1) its format, citations, and bibliographical style are consistent and acceptable and fulfill university and department style requirements; (2) its illustrative materials including figures, tables, and charts are in place; and (3) the final manuscript is satisfactory to the graduate committee and is ready for submission to the university library.

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## ABSTRACT

### INSTRUCTING TEACHERS OF CHILDREN WITH DISABILITIES WITHIN THE CHURCH OF JESUS CHRIST OF LATTER-DAY SAINTS

Katie E. Sampson

Department of Counseling Psychology and Special Education

Master of Science

This study investigates benefits of in-service training on LDS Primary teachers' ability to state an objective, obtain and keep attention, use wait time, incorporate active participation, teach to the multiple intelligences, and employ positive behavior management techniques. Two groups of 30 viewed either a video-tape or read a handout. Pre and post surveys were used to determine mean gain.

Using an ANCOVA, comparisons were made of overall mean gain for each group. Results showed participants made a gain of approximately 1/2 point per question on a 4-point scale on the video and the handout (video gain = .6032  $p < .01$ ; handout gain = .6264  $p < .01$ ). The results of this study support the hypothesis that teachers receiving one in-service will increase their perception of their ability to teach students with special needs.

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## Introduction

The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints (LDS Church) uses lay leadership to conduct its congregational business, including religious instruction. This involvement among laity is likely to have a positive impact on the members within the Church. Johnson and Mullin (1990) explained this religious involvement by stating “we come to value that for which we make sacrifices. Giving members more opportunity and encouragement to participate . . . should positively engage social psychological principles” (p. 260). Some of the positive social psychological principles found in a congregation could include: more involvement by members, a greater sense of belonging, and a higher level of invested interest for the success of the organization by its members. This high level of involvement can lead to LDS Church members’ participation in a myriad of activities related to church structure and organization usually within local congregations referred to as “wards.”

One of these possible activities is teaching in Primary, a Sunday School-type instructional organization for children 3-12 years old. This organization is established for children in all wards of the LDS Church, including children with disabilities. Approximately 12% of school-age children have a disability within the United States (U.S. Department of Education, 2003). Because disability has no religious boundaries, it is therefore assumed that a similar proportion of children within the Primary of the LDS Church in the United States have a disability as well.

Materials developed by the LDS Church include statements that indicate that an effort to meet the needs of members with disabilities is in place. These materials

include: (a) *The Church Handbook of Instructions* (The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints, 1998), which informs leadership within the LDS Church on proper procedures and policies when working with members with special needs and how to assist the families who have a child with a disability (see pp. 310-312); (b) a packet that describes specific disabilities and how to effectively work with the students who have those disabilities (The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints, n.d.). Included in this packet are specific materials, published by the Primary General Board, on how to work with various types of learners, particularly individuals with disabilities; (c) articles in church magazines regarding understanding and accepting individuals with disabilities, and strategies for serving members with disabilities (The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints, 2000); (d) *Teaching the Handicapped* (The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints, 1978), a manual which explains various disabilities, the responsibility to teach those with disabilities, and how to teach individuals depending upon what the disability may be; and (e) *Beginning Course Kit* (The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints, 2000), a CD-ROM which contains ways to simplify scripture stories, visual ways to teach the scriptures and concepts, simple activities to involve students, and LDS songs and hymns. Also, a book written for an LDS audience, *Stop Struggling, Start Teaching* (Vandyke & Wilcox, 2002), answers questions regarding concerns that can arise for teachers of youth in the LDS Church. This book touches briefly on working with children with intellectual disabilities. Although these training materials exist to help identify the characteristics of those with disabilities, and to provide instructional activities, there still is not a specific tool that has been studied and shown effective in

educating lay teachers about the skills needed to effectively reach students with disabilities.

The LDS Church is attempting to meet the needs of their members with disabilities. However, it appears that, “congregations with severe disabilities need more proactive accommodations from clergy to enable them to actively participate in religious practice” (Riordan & Vasa, 1991, p. 155). The key word is “proactive,” meaning that something needs to be done ahead of time to meet the needs of those within the congregation. One proactive strategy for helping teachers of church members with disabilities comes from the broad field of education. Shade (2001) investigated attitudes of regular education teachers who taught in inclusionary settings and received only one inservice, a meeting where instruction on inclusion was presented, regarding how to work with their students with disabilities. Results indicated that the majority of teachers who received this instruction felt much better about being able to teach their students with a disability after receiving the inservice. A similar strategy may be beneficial for teachers of children with a disability within the LDS Church.

Speaking to researchers about the integration of their child with disabilities into their religious setting, one parent noted, “whereas we could always make the assumption that there would be a program for Kate and Amy, we could not make the same assumption for Jay” (Fewell, 1986, p. 306). The assumption could not be made for Jay, their child with special needs, because no specific program existed or had been developed to prepare his teachers to meet his needs. This example illustrates the personal need to develop methods for teaching church doctrine and practices to children with special needs.

This problem of a need for consistency with the instruction of students with special needs in a religious setting is further illustrated through research conducted by Riordan and Vasa (1991), who stated, “clergy felt great responsibility for, but little competence in religious training of persons with mental retardation” (p. 152). Ecclesiastical leaders or teachers of students with disabilities may feel great responsibility to help the progress of those within their stewardship. This compassion is most likely evident in those who have accepted the call to serve. Such service might be arduous if teachers do not feel that they possess the competence to truly help these individuals.

The nation’s aim when dealing with individuals with disabilities should be to insure equality in participation in each aspect of daily living (Edgell, 1993). Meeting this goal is a process of normalization where individuals are blending into their environments as naturally as possible, thereby enhancing their quality of life. It has been noted that “religious organizations can provide an important aspect of normalization” (Riordan & Vasa, 1991, p. 151). Participation in church activities may provide natural, normal settings for members with disabilities. Such church participation is valued by some because it is an element that aids in enhancing the quality of one’s life.

While government offers aid through financing programs, church members can offer natural compassion, friendship, and knowledge. These programs offered by the government have their role and provide necessary support. However, monetary support cannot create the compassion and esteem that comes from feeling a part of a group and having someone to call a friend. It has been noted that “a significant part of the problem is that the government provides services when what is really needed is caring” (McNair

& Swartz, 1995, p. 306). Money cannot teach a child religious principles, but proper training of teachers for children with disabilities regarding effective teaching skills may create better normalizing environments to assist this teaching.

### *Purpose*

Prior to initiating this study, the researcher conducted several informal interviews with Primary teachers and parents of children with disabilities. Anecdotal evidence from these informal interviews indicated that many Primary teachers have concerns about teaching children with special needs. Their comments generated the following two themes: (a) teachers feel they need additional help in teaching and managing their students with disabilities, and (b) their students with special needs are often segregated from non-disabled students. The theme of needing additional help was recognized through comments such as, “We just don’t know what to do,” “He’s just too difficult to work with,” and “She just kept running off, so they asked me [a mother of a young girl with Down syndrome] to be responsible for her.”

The theme of segregation emerged from the interviewees, who described a variety of related situations. One of these included a mother of a son with Traumatic Brain Injury who was so upset by her church leaders’ decision to create a special Primary class for only her son that she now sends the boy to church with his grandmother in a different ward where he will be mainstreamed into a regular Primary class. Another story involves a set of parents who take turns attending religious services alone so that the spouse can stay home with their eleven year-old son with Fragile X Syndrome who refuses to go to church. Church leaders are concerned about families who stay home from church



because their children with disabilities seem to cause too much trouble for church members who work with them.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of training on Primary teachers of children with disabilities in the LDS Church. This training was based upon an informative and accessible 45-minute video-taped training inservice on effective teaching skills to apply in the classroom, and on an informative handout detailing these skills (Appendix A). The LDS Church has more than eleven million members in congregations in nearly every nation. Both media could be easily transported to various locations throughout the world by placing them on a web site that could be accessed through the Internet. The impact of this training may be more far-reaching than other methods such as in-services that may require bringing in specialists, or providing training manuals that could be easily misunderstood or perhaps never read.

### *Questions of the Study*

This study was designed to answer the following questions: (a) What were the differences in perceived skills and attitudes between participants who viewed the training video and those who read the informative sheets regarding teaching skills? (b) What were the differences between the groups on demographic factors and their perceived skills and attitudes toward teaching a student with a disability?

## Review of Literature

Effective instruction results in students being able to exhibit self-control, participate appropriately, and learn the content being taught. Teachers can learn and apply a variety of strategies and methods for creating positive learning environments and enabling all students to learn. Though a myriad of methods for achieving these goals exist in the field of education, the following six have been identified as skills to promote success in teaching students of varying abilities.

The six fundamental elements include (a) stating an objective (Reid, 1996), (b) obtaining and keeping student attention (Latham, 1997), (c) providing adequate wait time, (Rowe, 1987), (d) utilizing active participation to maintain full engagement (Wilén & Clegg, 1986), (e) teaching to the multiple intelligences of students (Gardner, 1993), and (f) implementing positive behavior management techniques (Latham, 1997). Each of these skills will be discussed in relation to teaching children with diverse learning needs.

### *Stating an Objective*

An objective has been defined as “a clear and unambiguous description of your educational intentions for your students” (Woolfolk, 1993, p. 437). The teacher, knowing the subject matter she will teach, forms an objective by asking, “What do I want my students to know after this lesson is complete?” The objective for a lesson on being kind to your neighbors might be: “Students will state at least one thing they will do in the coming week to show kindness to their neighbors.” A clearly stated objective for each lesson creates a clear course for the development of the lesson for the teacher and student. Hunter (1994) includes stating of the objective as an element to her Direct Instruction

lesson plan. A teacher should be keenly aware of the lesson's direction and effectively communicate the objective to the students so they know what is expected of them. Stating an "instructional objective will probably help focus students' attention and thus increase achievement" (Woolfolk, 1993, p. 437). Gronlund (2000) also shares the importance of stating a lesson objective, by indicating that stated objectives can enhance student achievement.

### *Obtaining and Keeping Attention*

An effective tool a teacher can have is the ability to obtain and maintain her students' attention. A teacher cannot effectively teach students who are not attending to her. Latham (1996) continues with this idea, "Certainly, such a conclusion only makes sense. One cannot learn if one is not attending to what is being taught" (p. 35). The skill of gaining attention should be used from the initiation and continued throughout the duration of each lesson. "The sooner you get students on task, the easier it is to keep them on task and the easier it is to get them back on task should they get off task" (Latham, 1996, p. 36).

Obtaining attention from the very beginning of a lesson is often referred to as an attention getter or anticipatory set. Hunter (1994) explains that this is accomplished through a five minute or less activation of background schema. For example, if you were teaching a lesson on being friendly you might begin by asking the students to think about who is their very best friend. The teacher could then ask the students to share reasons why their friend is such a good friend. This activity allows all of her students to focus their attention on what will be taught that day. In addition, "The effective schools

literature identifies student on-task behavior as being essential to academic success”

(Latham, 1996, p. 35).

### *Using Wait Time*

Questioning is essential to every style of instruction. A mother asks her child, “What color is this?” or “Where’s your nose?” School teachers inquire, “If you have two apples and get three more apples, how many apples will you have altogether?” And Sunday school teachers may query, “What role does God play in your life?” Whatever the setting, the role of questions will exist in a teaching environment. “In order to teach well, it is widely believed that one must be able to question well” (Brualdi, 1998, p. 3). Therefore, educators should be trained on effective methods when questioning students in their classrooms. One such method is the use of wait time.

Wait time can be defined as the time given to allow for student response after a question has been posed. Wait time is one aspect of questioning that deserves attention because experts agree that allowing students to process what has been asked before expecting a response is beneficial. In one study, “increasing teacher wait time had a number of effects including: a decrease in the amount of teacher talk, an increase in the amount of student utterances, fewer low cognitive-level questions, and more high-level questions” (Tobin, 1987, p. 76). The benefits of waiting are evident, yet one study indicates that most teachers waited only one second for students to respond after a question was posed (Rowe, 1987).

Once a question has been asked by the teacher, it has been suggested that a minimum of ten seconds be given before a teacher would expect to receive an adequate response (Rowe, 1987). Other researchers suggest only three to five seconds of wait time

(Wilén & Clegg, 1986). However, these recommendations are based upon learners without disabilities. Children with disabilities may need more time to process the question and then to formulate an answer. In an inclusive environment, it is important that the teacher instruct students not to answer aloud until he/she directs them to answer. This will assist in allowing an adequate wait time for all of the students. The need to educate teachers about wait time is therefore necessary to help them adequately instruct their students with a disability. A proactive approach should be taken in defining, explaining, and modeling this method for all those in a teaching capacity.

#### *Incorporating Active Participation*

Teachers should “encourage students to respond in some way to each question” (Wilén & Clegg, 1986, p. 153). For example, a teacher may pose a question, and then ask the students to raise their hands to reply. When hands fly in the air, she asks each student to share the answer with a neighbor. This method allows the students to be actively involved in the learning process.

Active participation has been demonstrated to increase positive parent and student attitudes toward learning and student achievement (Pratton, 1986). A non-example of this can be illustrated when a teacher poses a question to a group of young students, and instantly several children who desire to share the right answer raise their hands. Other students’ hands stay down out of fear that they do not know the answer, while others’ hands play at their sides due to lack of attention or desire to participate. The teacher calls on one student who states the correct answer, then quickly moves on to the next part of her lesson, leaving many of the children disappointed that they were not called on to share their responses.

The student who was allowed to state the right answer may feel confident, but how do the other students feel? Those who raised their hands may be left thinking, “I knew it!” or “She never calls on me!” Students who never raised their hands discover that as long as someone else talks, they do not need to know the answers. And finally, those who were not paying attention most likely stay in that same frame of mind. Active participation helps eliminate this problem by giving each student the responsibility and opportunity to be engaged in the lesson.

### *Teaching to the Multiple Intelligences*

Walk through a college hallway during finals week and one will see a variety of studying techniques. These include the use of flash-cards, students talking in a group, visual depictions drawn in notebooks, a student pacing the halls as she studies her notes, and another lounging comfortably on his back browsing through a textbook. Study habits are as varied as the individuals who are studying. Likewise, a single method of learning or teaching does not exist that can be applied successfully to everyone. Rather, teachers need to be aware of what works best to meet the individual needs of each student, especially those requiring special attention due to a disability.

Howard Gardner (1999) addresses the issue of reaching students of various learning styles in his book, *Intelligence Reframed: Multiple Intelligences for the 21st Century*. He states that intelligence is multifaceted and comprises several faculties that are not always dealt with in classroom coursework and procedures. His hypothesis is founded on the fact that students have individual strengths and learning styles that should be addressed in the classroom.

Gardner identifies ten basic intelligences or learning strengths. The first is *body-kinesthetic*, referring to knowledge gained through movement and body awareness. Dancers and athletes are often strong in this area of intelligence. Next, *verbal linguistic* intelligence is demonstrated by a strong command in literacy and reading. Those who are scientifically and mathematically gifted often have strengths in the *logical-mathematical* intelligence. A strong command of rhythm combined with appreciation for and the ability to write and perform music is found in the *musical-rhythmic* intelligence. Engineers, surgeons, and artists usually fall into the *visual-spatial* intellectual category. Those who understand and relate well with others possess strengths in *interpersonal-social* intelligence. *Intrapersonal-introspective* intelligence refers to those with a keen awareness of their inner self. *Naturalistic* involves one's ability to sense patterns and make connections with nature. Those strong in the area of *spiritual* intelligence often express a powerful ability to grasp vast and brilliant truths. A grand ability to ask profound questions about the meaning of life and death would demonstrate intelligence in the area of *existentialism*.

Though these strengths are recognized by some teachers, many still focus primarily on the visual and auditory processing of their students. Such exclusion of the other intelligences forces many students to learn through a means which may be least natural to them. An ability by the teacher to incorporate Gardner's intelligences could enable students to have greater access to their learning strengths.

Problems often arise when teaching is conducted in only one form, such as auditorally, because those students who learn best visually or via other means are at a disadvantage. "Howard Gardner's Multiple Intelligence theory favors education that

recognizes differences among individuals and discourages standardized, linear presentations of material. This results in a more equitable approach to education” (Armstrong, 1993, p. 47). Teachers need to teach in a variety of ways and know their students’ strengths to achieve optimal learning. For example, a teacher who discovers her student has a strength in music could include singing a song that deals with her lesson as she teaches. Another teacher who has a student who enjoys drawing could have her student draw a picture dealing with the lesson. These methods could help the students to better learn the objective of the lesson.

Accommodating multiple learning styles and strengths in the classroom involves adapting teaching methods. “The framework of Multiple Intelligence theory encourages teachers to adapt their communication style to involve and to motivate students” (Armstrong, 1993, p. 56). This encouragement of Gardner’s ten identified intelligences helps teachers to make specific adaptations to meet the individual needs of their students with special needs.

#### *Employing Positive Behavior Management Techniques*

Teachers must work on finding and praising positive behavior more than correcting negative behavior. Research has demonstrated the need for reinforcing positive behaviors time and again (Latham, 1997). The concept that one would rather be praised for things done correctly over being chastised for mistakes made is simple.

A basic principle of human behavior teaches us that behavior responds better to positive than to negative consequences. Most people understand this, but despite it, there is a strong tendency on the part of classroom teachers to manage the classroom environment coercively (Latham, 1997, p. 7).



The challenge for teachers is to be proactive and to applaud positive behavior. “Teachers allow over 90% of all of the appropriate things their students do go unrecognized; yet, when students misbehave, teachers are 2 to 5 times more likely to pay attention to that behavior than they are to . . . appropriate behavior” (Latham, 1997, p. 7). These findings illustrate the need to equip teachers with effective positive behavior management skills. As Latham added, “Teachers have simply got to learn to be much more positive and encouraging than negative and discouraging” (1997, p. 8). These skills will enable teachers to then praise students while ignoring inappropriate behaviors.

An example of a positive method of behavior management is the use of a marble jar. An empty jar is placed at the front of the classroom. When the teacher observes that the students are on task, she may add a marble to the jar, thus calling attention to their positive behavior. Once the jar is full, the students will earn a prearranged reward (Canter, 1989). Another method involves having the students earn points for appropriate behavior. Once a set amount of points is earned, a type of reinforcement is implemented. “Research has shown that the most effective way to reduce problem behavior in children is to strengthen desirable behavior through positive reinforcement rather than trying to weaken undesirable behavior using aversive and negative processes” (Bijou, 1988, p. 444). The fundamental core of the above examples is that the teacher takes a positive approach to preventing maladaptive behaviors in the classroom.

The inclusion of these six elements into instruction was the focus of this investigation. It was assumed by the researcher that with simple preparation in these six general teaching strategies, Primary teachers would be more confident in teaching students with special needs.

The rationale for conducting this research was well summarized in The New Testament in the book of Matthew in chapter 18 verses 10-14 where Matthew gave an account by Jesus:

Take heed that ye despise not one of these little ones . . . for the Son of man is come to save that which was lost. How think ye? If a man an hundred sheep, and one of them be gone astray, doth he not leave the ninety and nine, and goeth into the mountains, and seeketh that which is gone astray? And if it so be that he find it, verily I say unto you, he rejoiceth more of that sheep, than of the ninety and nine which went not astray. Even so it is not the will of your Father which is in heaven, that one of these little ones should perish. (Holy Bible, 1979, p. 1218)

These words present a call of responsibility to not let even one child “perish,” including those with special needs. The call is given to many to teach and care for them, and to bring them into the fold, even if sacrifice is required. This sacrifice may include augmenting existing resources of The LDS Church to provide better overall education of those called to teach children with special needs.

## Method

### *Participants*

Participants were obtained through convenience sampling by the researcher. The convenience sampling was conducted by asking 20 ecclesiastical leaders if they would like to participate in the study. These Church leaders then asked Primary teachers to participate. Sixty Primary teachers in three geographical areas of the western United States: Utah, northwest (Oregon, Idaho, or Washington), and southwest (California, Arizona, or Nevada) participated. Geographically, 34 (57%) of the participants were from Utah, 15 (25%) were from the northwest (Oregon, Idaho, or Washington) and the remaining participants, 11 (18%) were from the southwestern United States (California, Arizona, or Nevada).

Demographic information from the 60 surveys revealed that 35 (58%) participants were female, and the participants ranged in age from 18 to 80. Eighteen (30%) stated that their highest level of education was a high school degree while 17 (28%) marked a college degree as their highest level. Over half of the participants (n=34) had taught Primary for less than three years, 37 (62%) marked themselves as having no background experience in teaching, and 28 (47%) of the teachers had taught a student with special needs for less than one year. The age of the students the participants taught ranged from 18 months to 12-years old. The students that the teachers taught ranged in disability from mild, (e.g., Attention Deficit, Learning Disabilities) to severe (e.g., Down syndrome, Autism).

### *Settings*

Participants participated in teacher in-services offered in various classroom environments such as BYU classrooms, individuals' homes, and church buildings. The choice of these settings was made by the Church leaders. Some leaders found it most effective to have the entire group watch the video together in one room at the church, while the other group read the handout (see Appendix A), in another room. Other leaders found it helpful to distribute the videos to some teachers and handouts to others, and asked them to view or read the handout at their convenience in their own homes.

### *Instrumentation*

Three instruments were used in this study: two for instructional purposes, and one for data collection. The instructional materials included the video, which was designed to instruct Primary Teachers on effective teaching skills, and the handout, which was a written format of the instructional skills taught in the video. The data collection instrument was a pre/post-survey which was used to assess teachers' perceptions of their teaching skills.

Participants also completed the consent form (see Appendix B) and the demographic sheet (see Appendix C). The demographic information form consisted of eight questions regarding the participants' teaching experience, educational level, relation to individuals with disabilities, and gender.

*Video and handout.* The video was made through hiring a film student at Brigham Young University to record a one angle view of the researcher conducting a live in-service focusing on the six effective skills of teaching as mentioned in the literature review of this thesis. A 45-minute video of a live taped seminar was developed that

emphasized training Primary teachers on effective teaching skills to implement in their classrooms. The teaching skills addressed on the video were: (a) Direct Instruction: The Use of Objectives, (b) Attention, (c) Wait time, (d) Active Participation, (e) Teaching to the Multiple Intelligences, and (f) Positive Behavior Management Skills. Each of these skills were modeled by the researcher in the video. The video group viewed this video.

The handout was created by the researcher, and it contained definitions, literature support, and examples of each of the six effective teaching skills as shown in the video. The handout was four-pages in length. This handout was read individually in place of viewing the videotape by those participating in the handout group.

*Pre/post-survey.* A survey was developed to ascertain teachers' perceptions of their use of effective teaching skills (questions 1-7 of the pre/post-survey), feelings about their students with special needs' abilities to learn from their teaching style (questions 8-10 of the pre/post-survey), perceptions about the benefits of using effective teaching practices (questions 11-13 of the pre/post-survey), and an overall recommendation to others for using this instructional instrument (question 14 of the pre/post-survey) (see Appendix D). This assessment was created as a 14-question survey. Each question from the survey used a Likert scale with a one to four ranking. Marking a one on the scale represented that the teacher felt that he/she "never" performed the task. Marking a four on the survey indicated that the teacher felt that he/she "almost always" fulfilled the statement posed on the survey. Participants were asked to teach two lessons implementing the skills learned from the training video or the handout, and then complete the post-survey. The same survey served as a pre- and post-measure. This instrument was not tested for validity or reliability.

### *Design*

This research consisted of two different experimental groups and utilized a pre-post-survey design. The two experimental groups were used to determine if any differences in gain would be achieved between the two different interventions: the video and the handout. Thirty Primary teachers who had a child with special needs in their classes were in each group.

All of the participants first took the pre-survey. Then they were randomly assigned by their church leaders to either watch the video or read the handout. The church leaders were asked to assign equal number of individuals to each group. Participants in one group watched the video instructing them on the six essential teaching skills (objective, attention, wait-time, active participation, multiple intelligences, and positive behavior management). Those participating in the handout group read the handout containing the same information as the video. After receiving one of the forms of instruction, the participants all taught for two weeks. Finally, the participants took the post-survey.

### *Procedures*

Ethical procedures for conducting research were followed, including obtaining approval from the Institutional Review Board at Brigham Young University. Confidentiality of participants was maintained through a numbering system of the surveys. No names were placed upon the surveys. Basic demographic information regarding participants' background in teaching, where they lived, level of education, and relationship to someone with a disability was also obtained.

Church leaders, including Primary and ecclesiastical leaders such as Bishops and Stake Presidents, were given the following items from the researcher: the instructional video, copies of the handout (see Appendix A), “Consent to be a Research Subject” form (see Appendix B), copies of the “Demographic Information” (see Appendix C), copies of the “Pre/Post- Surveys” (see Appendix D), copies of the “Administrator’s Instructions” (see Appendix E), and return addressed envelopes for sending completed surveys back to the researcher.

The participants for the two groups were sought through in-service and workshop clinics for Primary teachers who were asked to participate. Each group (those who viewed the video and those who read the handout) began their instruction by first reading the consent form (see Appendix B), next, filling out the demographics sheet (see Appendix C), then filling out the pre-survey (see Appendix D) and turning all of these items into their ecclesiastical leader at the leader’s request. These items were kept by the leader and later mailed into the researcher with the completed post-surveys. Once these items were turned in, the participants who watched the video either viewed it immediately as a group or took the video home to watch it. Those who read the handout did so on their own time at a location of their choice. They were asked to teach for two weeks after they had viewed the video or read the handout. Reminder phone calls were given to participants and leaders at the two-week mark for participants to turn in their post-surveys. These post-surveys along with all of the other above mentioned surveys were collected by church leaders and mailed or hand delivered to the researcher.

### *Data Analysis*

It was predicted that the teachers' confidence in reported skills and attitudes in the video group would increase from the pre-survey to the post-survey after they had received the training from viewing the video-tape. This was predicted regarding both overall scores and a question-by-question examination. At the same time, it was anticipated that participants in the handout group would have a minimal increase in their reporting of skills and attitudes from pre- to post-surveys.

The two groups were compared by their average total change scores from the Likert scale between the pre- and post-surveys. The gains from the overall pre- and post-scores along with individual question scores were compared as a covariant with an ANCOVA. The gain from pre- to post-surveys were obtained through the pre-survey plus the treatment. A covariant was applied to the pre-survey to regulate varying pre-survey scores. This adjusted for gains made from participants who had the opportunity to make larger gains due to lower pre-survey scores than participants who had higher pre-survey scores.

The independent variables of this research are the in-service presentations. The dependent variable is the gain of scores from pre- surveys to post-surveys.



## Results

This study was designed to answer the following questions: (a) What were the differences in perceived skills and attitudes between participants who viewed the training video and those who read the informative sheets regarding teaching skills? (b) What were the differences between the groups on factors such as age, gender, background in teaching, years taught in a Primary setting, relation to someone with a disability, and place of residence (e.g. rural, or urban) to their skills and attitude towards teaching a student with a disability?

Surveys were distributed to 20 ecclesiastical leaders of 201 Primary teachers in Utah, Oregon, Idaho, Washington, California, Arizona, and Nevada. Of these 201 surveys, ecclesiastical leaders distributed 76 to those who would potentially view the video for a return rate of 30 surveys (39%). A total of 125 surveys were handed out for those who would potentially read the handout, for a return of 30 (24%). The overall return rate was 30%.

### *Overall Mean Gain From Pre- to Post-Surveys*

To find answers to the first research question, “What were the differences in perceived skills and attitudes between participants who viewed the training video and those who read the informative sheets regarding teaching skills?” an ANCOVA was conducted on the pre-test total scores to adjust for pre-test differences. There were no statistically significant differences in overall gain between those who read the handout and those who viewed the video.

Table 1 presents the overall gain from the pre- to post-surveys for those who viewed the video compared to those who read the handout for the 60 participants. The overall mean gain found through using the difference of least squares means for those who viewed the video was .6032 ( $p < .01$ ), and for those who read the handout .6264 ( $p < .01$ ). This is displayed in Figure 1.

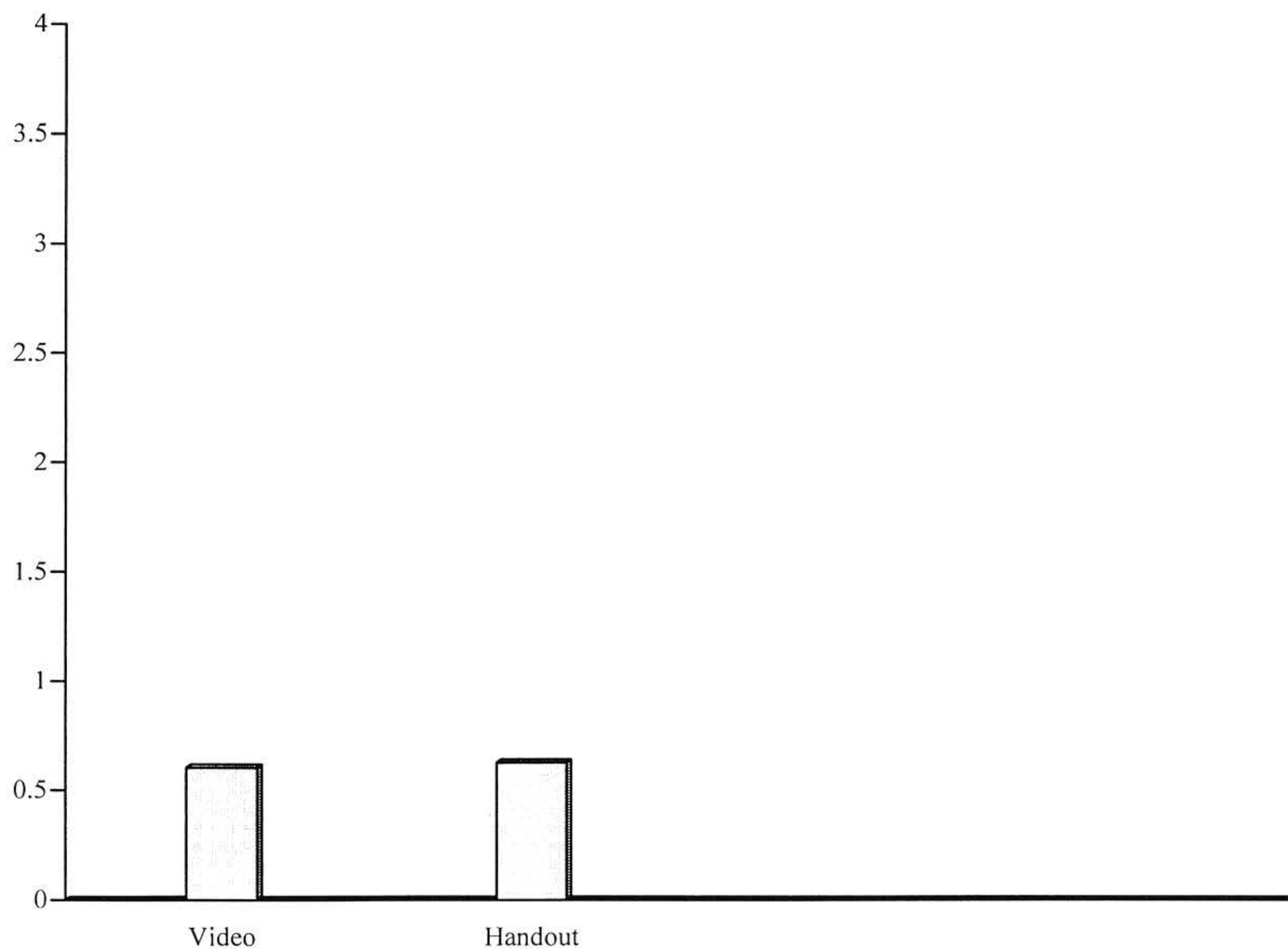
Table 1

*Overall Mean Gain from Pre- to Post- Surveys*

	Mean Gain	p.value
Video	0.6032	0.0005
Handout	0.6264	0.0001

Figure 1

*Overall Mean Gain from Pre- to Post- Surveys*



*Video and Handout Mean Gain Questions 1-14.*

Mean gains from pre- to post-surveys for individual questions from the video and handout surveys are shown in Table 2. The mean gain for each question was obtained using the difference of least square means. Gains made by the participants who viewed the video were statistically significant for 5 of the 14 questions: (a) “I can keep the attention of students with special needs throughout my lesson” ( $\bar{x} = 1.4696$ ;  $p < .01$ ); (b) “I feel good about my ability to teach my students with special needs” ( $\bar{x} = 1.3328$ ;

Table 2

*Video and Handout Mean Gains from Pre- to Post- Surveys Questions 1-14*

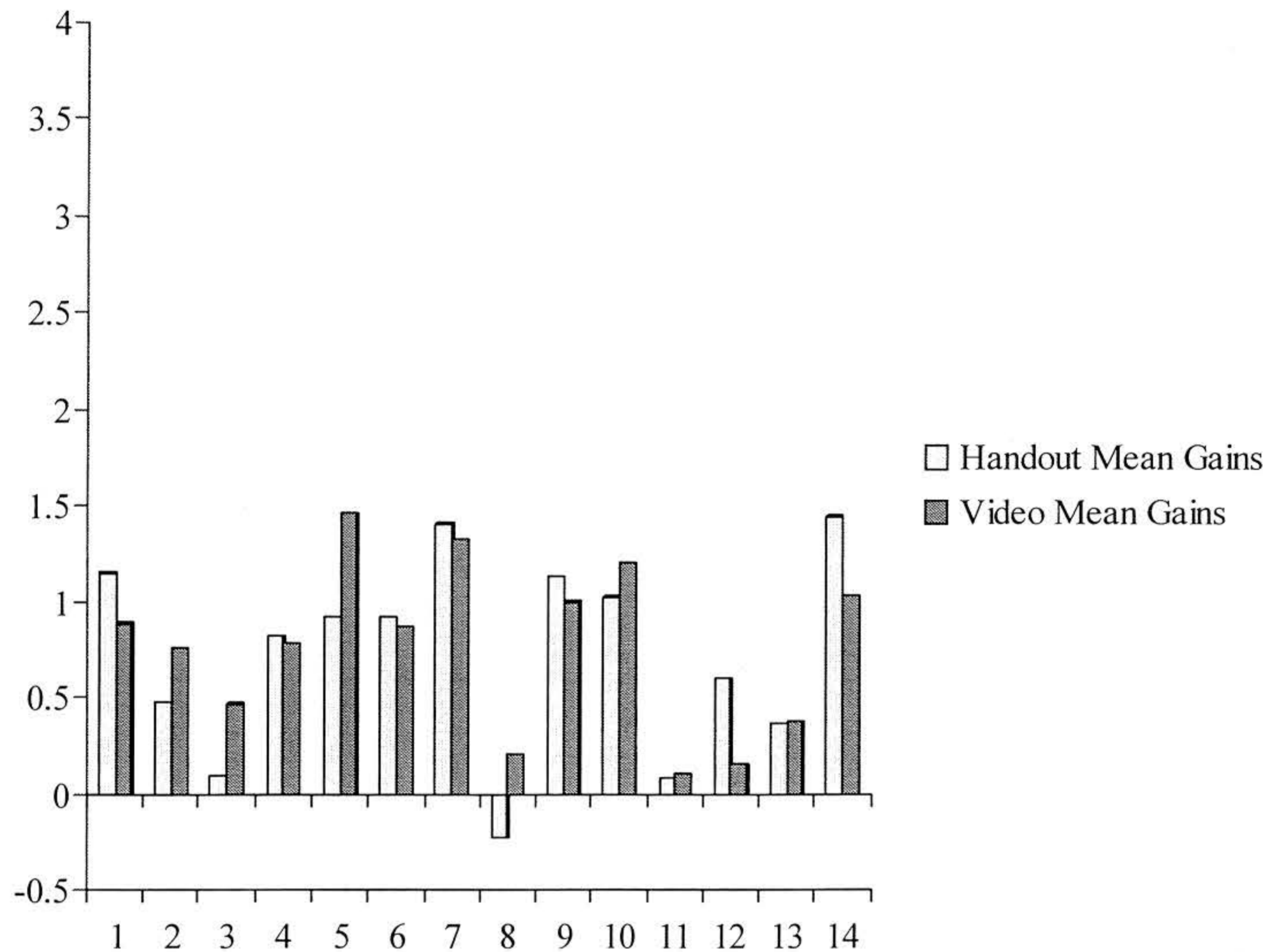
	Video mean gains	p. value	Handout mean gains	p. value
Objective	0.8943	0.945	1.1504	0.0402*
Wait Time	0.7611	0.0570	0.4793	0.2426
Variety of Methods	0.4738	0.3200	0.095995	0.8455
Active Participation	0.7911	0.0643	0.8243	0.0776
Attention	1.4696	0.0129*	0.9234	0.1213
Pos. Behavior	0.8698	0.1571	0.9227	0.1512
Ability to Teach	1.3328	0.0239*	1.4098	0.0251*
Paying Attention	0.2084	0.6578	-0.2258	0.6600
Adequate Time	1.0047	0.1339	1.1329	0.1129
Wide Variety	1.2077	.01**	1.0262	.01**
Equal Participation	0.1115	0.6776	0.08205	0.7687
Know from Beginning	0.1558	0.9184	0.6036	0.7192
Pos. Reinforcement	0.3782	0.0021**	0.3712	0.0018***
Recommend	1.0330	0.0530	1.4464	0.0071**

\*  $p \leq .05$ \*\*  $p \leq .01$ \*\*\*  $p \leq .001$

$p < .05$ ); (c) “I see how using a wide variety of ways to teach my lessons helps my students with special needs better learn” ( $\bar{x} = 1.2077$ ;  $p < .01$ ); (d) “I see the benefit of using positive reinforcement more than negative” ( $\bar{x} = .3782$ ;  $p < .01$ ); and (e) “I would recommend this training to others” ( $\bar{x} = 1.0330$ ;  $p < .05$ ).

The participants who studied the handout had mean gains in all of the same questions as those in the video group except for question five, which addressed the teacher’s ability to keep the attention of their student. Gains for the handout group were significant in the following questions: (a) “I feel good about my ability to teach my students with special needs” ( $\bar{x} = 1.4098$ ;  $p < .05$ ); (b) “I see how using a wide variety of ways to teach my lessons helps my students with special needs learn better” ( $\bar{x} = 1.0262$ ;  $p < .01$ ); (c) “I see the benefit of using positive reinforcement more than negative” ( $\bar{x} = .3712$ ;  $p < .01$ ); and (d) “I would recommend this training to others” ( $\bar{x} = 1.4464$ ;  $p < .01$ ). Figure 2 presents this information.

Figure 2

*Video and Handout Mean Gains Questions 1-14*

To find answers to the second research question, “What were the differences between the groups on demographic factors and their perceived skills and attitudes toward teaching a student with a disability?” least square means was used. Question 6, “Where do you teach Primary?” from the demographic information sheet (see Appendix C) was the only item where significant differences were observed. The findings reveal that the geographical area of Utah had the least overall mean gain ( $\bar{x} = .3807$ ;  $p < .01$ ) while the northwest (i.e. Oregon, Idaho, Washington and California) displayed the greatest overall mean gain ( $\bar{x} = .7501$ ;  $p < .01$ ).

## Discussion

The results of this study supported the hypothesis that Primary teachers receiving only one in-service could feel more confident in their ability to teach their students with a disability. Teachers participating in this study demonstrated an average overall gain of one-half point per question on a Likert scale of only four points. This finding is similar to research reported by Shade (2001), where a group of regular educators improved their confidence in teaching students with a special need after just one in-service on this topic. There were no statistically significant differences in overall gain between those who read the handout and those who viewed the video.

Participants in both the video and handout groups reported greater confidence in their ability to teach students with special needs in 4 of the 14 areas on the survey. The additional questions regarding skills and attitudes found on the pre- and post-surveys did not show gains that were at a statistically significant level.

Participants in the video group rated their ability to maintain students' attention nearly one point higher after the instruction. This relates to the well-documented need for teachers to obtain and keep students' attention (Latham, 1997). Participants felt that after the in-service they were able to maintain student's attention better than they had prior to their participation in the research.

Another finding reflects Gardner's (1999) and Armstrong's (1993) research on the benefits of teaching to multiple intelligences. Participants had an average gain of over one point on being able to see how using a variety of teaching methods helped their students to learn better. This translates to a perceived increase in teachers who

students to learn better. This translates to a perceived increase in teachers who participated in the study with their ability to use multiple methods of teaching in their classroom setting.

Using positive reinforcement techniques were supported by an average gain of one-third point, a statistically significant difference from pre- to post-survey. Teachers increased their awareness of the need to reinforce students' positive behaviors using a proactive approach.

Primary teachers in this study also demonstrated improved confidence regarding their capacity to teach a student with special needs. This increase of over one point on a four-point scale showed a marked enhancement on their attitudes towards teaching students with special needs. This supports Shade's research that teachers could increase their confidence levels in teaching a child with special needs after one in-service on this topic (2001).

Considering the attitudes of the participants in both groups, the results from one question, "I would recommend this training to others," had a mean gain of over one point. It appears that these participants benefited from the training and after being instructed, they felt more confident to teach children with special needs. However, since the participants had not yet been exposed to the video or handout prior to taking the pre-survey, this increase could be the result of having a better knowledge of what they would recommend, and not a pure indicator of their interest in recommending the training.

The overall return rate from those who viewed the video and those who read the handout was 30%. Further, those who viewed the video had a 15% higher return rate than those who read the handout. Motivation to participate in a training involving



watching a video over reading a handout should be considered in further research.

Results may indicate that participants are simply more motivated to watch a video over reading a handout. Alternatively, those who watched the video often did so in a group, whereas those who read the handout often did so individually.

Only one question from the demographic survey, “Where do you teach Primary?” had statistical significance for demographic factors of the participants. Those living in Utah had the lowest overall gain, while those living in the states of Oregon, Idaho, or Washington showed the highest overall gain. It may be theorized that those living in Utah have had more exposure to instruction and materials distributed by the LDS Church, which is based in Salt Lake City. Those living in the other areas may have not had as much access to this type of information, therefore making this inservice appear to be more novel and beneficial to them.

### *Limitations*

This was a preliminary study investigating perceived gains in six essential teaching skills of Primary teachers who received one in-service on the topic. Several limitations occurred during the study which will now be discussed. This study used convenience sampling to gain its pool of participants, who were from the western United States. These factors could have created a somewhat similar group of participants. Additional studies should use a random sampling approach and cover a larger geographical area in order to determine if similar effects would occur regardless of the diversity of the group.

The video used in the instruction was made on a very low budget with a single camera angle of an actual in-service. A more advanced and graphically rich video might

help in the instruction of those teachers viewing the video, especially for those individuals who learn better through visual methods. In addition, a video that showed clips of actual teachers demonstrating the six essential skills could be powerful for participants to view specifically how these concepts might be applied in authentic settings.

Participants involved in this research may have been alerted to the information the researcher wanted them to gain as they read the pre-survey. The educational jargon on the survey could have made them aware of certain factors in the instruction they may not have noticed if they had not read the pre-survey first. Therefore, pre-test sensitization could have been a factor affecting the results.

The pre- and post-surveys were developed for use in this study, and were not tested for validity or reliability. Consequently, the ability of these instruments to be trusted is inconclusive.

Also, those who viewed the video often watched it as a group while those who read the handout often did so independently. This could have affected the return rates since group participation could have influenced the motivation of participants to complete their surveys.

### *Future Research*

This study focused on the teachers' perceived gains of their skills and attitudes in teaching a student with a special need. Further research could address the power of effect the intervention had since there was no evidence on what gains were made in practice. Some of this research could include studying the actual skill increase of the teachers. This could be achieved through an in-class observation collecting a baseline of actual

skills exhibited. After the Primary teacher has been instructed, the same observation could be used to obtain gains in each skill.

The learning increase for the students whose teachers participated in this instruction should also be investigated. A baseline of behaviors to be gained by the students (such as attention and active participation) could be found through an observation checklist filled out by a researcher on the student with special needs. Once the teacher has received instruction, his/her student with special needs would be observed again to check for gain in the various areas.

Higher return rates from participants in the video group could be explained by a few factors. These individuals may have been more inclined to participate in a video training than a training that would involve only reading a handout. Or those who watched the video often participated in a group meeting while those reading the handout often did so on their own. It would appear that the video along with group participation might be an activity that more teachers would be willing to be involved with, and should therefore be pursued as a method that is more motivating for participants.

On the other hand, it should be noted that although those who watched the video had a higher return rate, those who read the handout provided a higher recommendation over those who watched the video. This is shown on question fourteen, "I would recommend this training to others." Those who read the handout had an average growth of 1.4464 while those who watched the video only increased by 1.0330. Research should continue in this area on the participants' motivation to watch a video or read a handout in order to obtain information regarding teaching strategies.

Those who lived outside of the state of Utah found the largest gain by the participants. A method should be investigated as a way to distribute this instruction to teachers outside of the state of Utah, as they seem to benefit most.

### *Conclusion*

Various perceived skills and attitudes of teachers of children with special needs in an LDS Primary setting were found to increase after viewing an instructional video or reading a handout. This suggests that by providing instruction regarding essential teaching skills to teachers, their perceived skills and attitudes about teaching their student with a special need may increase.

As stated by Riordan and Vasa, “congregations with severe disabilities need more proactive accommodations from clergy to enable them to actively participate in religious practice” (1991, p. 155). A deeper look at the application of either of these tools used in this investigation could prove beneficial to increase confidence of church workers as they strive to more actively involve their members with disabilities, while at the same time creating an outlet for more active participation in the various religious settings for these individuals with disabilities.

The results of this study alone aided in the re-activation of three LDS families who had a child with a disability, and for various reasons had felt a loss of hope in the ability to bring their child to church. One family had been offended with the primary teachers’ inability to handle teaching their child with special needs. The other two families did not want to appear a burden to the Primary teachers, and therefore chose to keep their child with a disability at home with them. Once these families knew that members within their congregation had a desire to reach out to them and their child with

a disability, they felt encouraged. They were pleased to know that members who would be working with their child had the drive to understand how they could better serve them. Surely these families are not isolated cases. The methods spoken of in this research combined with a desire to contribute to the lives of others by those who serve individuals with disabilities could be used to bring many more back into the fold.

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## Appendix A

### Effective Teaching Skills Handout

#### Effective Teaching Skills

Compiled by: Katie Sampson

The following is an explanation of 6 essential skills that should help any teacher better teach their students with a special need when applied in the classroom setting:

*Objective.* An objective has been defined as, “a clear and unambiguous description of your educational intentions for your students” (Woolfolk, 1993, p. 437). For example, the objective for a lesson on being kind to your neighbors might be: “By the end of this lesson, each student will state at least one thing they will do in the coming week to show kindness to their neighbors.” The teacher, knowing the subject matter she will teach, forms an objective by asking, “What do I want my students to know after this lesson is complete?”

The clear course where the students are going is made possible through a clearly stated objective within each lesson. Hunter (1994) includes the stating of the objective as the second step of a lesson. A teacher should be keenly aware of the lesson’s direction and effectively communicate these objectives to the students so they know what is expected of them. Stating an “instructional objective will probably help focus students’ attention and thus increase achievement” (Woolfolk, 1993, p. 437). Gronlund (2000) also shares the importance of stating a lesson objective. He believes that clearly stated objectives can enhance student achievement.

*Wait Time.* Questioning is essential to every style of instruction. A mother asks her child, “What color is this?” or “Where’s your nose?” School teachers inquire, “If you have two apples and get three more apples, how many apples will you have all together?” And Sunday School teachers may query, “What role does God play in your life?” Whatever the setting, the role of questions will and should exist in a teaching environment. “In order to teach well, it is widely believed that one must be able to question well” (Brualdi, 1998, p. 3). Therefore, educators should be trained on effective methods when questioning students in their classrooms. One such method is the use of wait time.

Wait time can be defined as the time given to allow for student response after a question has been posed. Wait time is one aspect of questioning that deserves attention because experts agree that allowing students to process what has been asked before expecting a response is beneficial. In one study, “increasing teacher wait time had a number of effects including: a decrease in the amount of teacher talk, an increase in the amount of student utterances, fewer low cognitive-level questions, and more high-level questions” (Tobin, 1987, p. 76).

Once a question has been asked by the teacher, it has been suggested that a minimum of ten seconds be given before a teacher would expect to receive an adequate response (Rowe, 1987). Other researchers suggest only three to five seconds of wait time

(Wilén & Clegg, 1986). However, these recommendations are based upon learners without disabilities. Children with disabilities may need more time to process the question and then to formulate an answer.

*Active Participation.* Teachers should “encourage students to respond in some way to each question” (Wilén & Clegg, 1986, p. 153). For example, a teacher may pose a question, then ask the students to raise their hands to reply. When hands fly in the air, she asks each student to share the answer with a neighbor. This style allows the students to be actively involved in the learning process. Active participation has been demonstrated to increase parent and student attitudes toward learning (Moriarty, 2001), and student achievement (Pratton, 1986).

This can be illustrated when a teacher poses a question to a group of young students, and instantly several children who desire to share the right answer raise their hands. Other students’ hands stay down out of fear that they don’t know the answer, while others’ hands play at their sides due to lack of attention or desire to participate. The teacher calls on one student who states the correct answer. The teacher then quickly moves on to the next part of her lesson, leaving many of the children disappointed that they were not called on to share their responses.

The one student who was allowed to state the right answer may feel great, but how do the other students feel? Those who raised their hands may be left thinking, “I knew it!” or “She never calls on me!” Students who never raised their hands discover that as long as someone else talks, they do not need to know the answers. And finally, those who weren’t paying attention most likely stay in that same frame of mind. Active participation helps eliminate this problem by giving each student the responsibility and opportunity to be engaged in the lesson.

*Multiple Intelligences.* Walk through a college hallway during finals week and one will see a variety of studying techniques. These include the use of flash-cards, students talking in a group, visual depictions drawn in notebooks, a student pacing the halls as she studies her notes, and another lounging comfortably on his back browsing through a textbook. Study habits are as varied as the individuals who are studying. Likewise, a single method of learning or teaching does not exist that can be applied successfully to everyone. Rather, teachers need to be aware of what works best to meet the individual needs of each student, especially those requiring special attention due to a disability.

Howard Gardner (1999) addresses the issue of reaching students of various learning styles in his book, *Intelligence Reframed: Multiple Intelligences for the 21st Century*, and states that intelligence is multifaceted and comprises several faculties that are not always dealt with in classroom coursework and procedures. His hypothesis is founded on the fact that students have individual strengths and learning styles that should be addressed in the classroom.

Gardner claims ten basic intelligences and learning strengths including: body-kinesthetic, which refers to knowledge gained through movement and body awareness. Dancers and athletes are often strong in this area of intelligence. Verbal linguistic intelligence is demonstrated by a strong command in literacy and reading. Those who are

scientifically and mathematically gifted often have strengths in the logical-mathematical intelligence. A strong command of rhythm combined with appreciation for and the ability to write and perform music is found in the musical-rhythmic intelligence. Engineers, surgeons, and artists usually fall into the visual-spatial intellectual category. Those who understand and relate well with others possess strengths in interpersonal-social intelligence. Intrapersonal-introspective intelligence refers to those with a keen awareness of their inner self. Gardner has recently added three new intelligences including; naturalistic, spiritual, and existential. Though these strengths are recognized by some teachers, many still focus on the visual and auditory processing of their students. Such exclusion of the other intelligences forces many students to learn through a means which may be least natural to them.

Problems arise when teaching is conducted in only one form, such as auditorally, because those students who learn best visually or via other means are at a disadvantage. "Howard Gardner's Multiple Intelligence theory favors education that recognizes differences among individuals and discourages standardized, linear presentations of material. This results in a more equitable approach to education" (Armstrong, 1993, p. 47). Teachers need to teach in a variety of ways and know their students' strengths to achieve optimal learning.

*Positive Behavior Management.* Teachers must work on finding and praising positive behavior more than correcting negative behavior. Research has demonstrated the need for reinforcing positive behaviors time and again (Latham, 1997). The concept that one would rather be praised for things done correctly over being chastised for mistakes made is simple.

A basic principle of human behavior teaches us that behavior responds better to positive than to negative consequences. Most people understand this, but despite it, there is a strong tendency on the part of classroom teachers to manage the classroom environment coercively (Latham, 1997, p. 7).

The challenge for teachers is to be proactive and to applaud positive behavior. "Teachers allow over 90% of all of the appropriate things their students do to go unrecognized; yet, when students misbehave, teachers are 2 to 5 times more likely to pay attention to that behavior than they are to . . . appropriate behavior" (Latham, 1997, p. 7). These findings illustrate the need to equip teachers with effective positive behavior management skills. As Latham said, "Teachers have simply got to learn to be much more positive and encouraging than negative and discouraging" (1997, p. 8). These skills will enable teachers to then praise the good while eliminating the inappropriate behaviors.

An example of a positive method of behavior management is the use of a marble jar. An empty jar is placed at the front of the classroom. When the teacher observes that the students are on task, she may add a marble to the jar, thus calling attention to their positive behavior. Once the jar is full, the students will earn a prearranged reward. Another method involves having the students earn points for appropriate behavior. Once a set amount of points is earned, a type of reinforcement is implemented. "Research has shown that the most effective way to reduce problem behavior in children is to strengthen desirable behavior through positive reinforcement rather than trying to weaken undesirable behavior using aversive and negative processes" (Bijou, 1988, p. 444). The

fundamental core of the above examples is that the teacher takes a positive approach to preventing maladaptive behaviors in the classroom.

*Attention.* When students are not paying attention there is little point in continuing with the lesson. “I have observed that a key to on-task behavior is to quickly engage students in the learning activity. I have found that the sooner teachers get students on task, the easier it is to keep them on task” (Latham, 1997, p. 6). Effective teachers will be aware of ways to pull students into their lessons and keep them focused. One method is Madeline Hunter’s direct instruction teaching approach (Hunter, 1994). The first step in this plan is the *anticipatory set*, or attention getter, and involves activating background information of the student. “At the beginning of a lesson, the teacher needs to establish a positive . . . attitude of readiness in students” (Slavin, 2003, p. 226). The anticipatory set sets up the subject and allows students to begin activating their background schema on what is about to be learned.

An example from a Sunday School lesson on being kind to your neighbor illustrates the use of an anticipatory set. The teacher begins by posing the question, “Who has ever had a neighbor do something nice for you or your family?” She then allows time for processing and asks the students to share their stories with their classmates. Now she has effectively taken their attention away from school, friends, and dinner time, to focus on neighbors and kind deeds. Following Hunter’s direct instruction method, the teacher quickly engaged her students in the learning activity.

Take heed that ye despise not one of these little ones . . . for the Son of man come to save that which was lost. How think ye? If a man an hundred sheep, and one of them be gone astray, doth he not leave the ninety and nine, and goeth into the mountains, and seeketh that which is gone astray? And if so be that he find it, verily I say unto you, he rejoiceth more of that sheep, than of the ninety and nine which went not astray. Even so it is not the will of your Father which is in heaven, that one of these little ones should perish.  
(Matthew 18:10-14)

Appendix B  
Consent to Be a Research Subject

Consent to Be a Research Subject:

The purpose of this research study is to determine if a training video can help teachers' confidence levels. Katie Sampson, a graduate student in Special Education at Brigham Young University, is conducting this study. You were selected to participate because you teach Primary, and you have a child with special needs in your classroom. You will be asked to fill out a pre-survey that will take about 10 minutes, read a 3 page paper or watch a 45 minute video and then mail-in a post- survey, taking another 10 minutes to fill out, 2 weeks after reading or watching the video.

There are minimal risks or discomforts for participation in this study. There are no known benefits to you for participating in this study. Participation in this research is voluntary. You have the right to refuse to participate and the right to withdraw later without any jeopardy to me. Strict confidentiality will be maintained as all identifying references will be removed and replaced by control numbers.

If you have any questions regarding this research project, you may contact Katie Sampson (801) 374-0881. If you have any questions regarding your rights as a participant in a research project, you may contact Dr. Shane S. Schulthies, Chair of Institutional Review Board, 120 RB, BYU, Provo, UT 84602; phone (801) 422-5490. The return of this survey is your consent to participate in this research.

## Appendix C

## Demographic Information

Demographic Information:

ID Number: \_\_\_\_\_

1) How many years total have you taught Primary?

- a) less than or equal to 1 year                      b) between 2 and 3 years  
 c) between 4 and 6 years                              d) 7 or more years

2) What type (if any) background experience do you have in teaching? (Circle any that apply)

- a) none    b) college courses specifically on teaching  
 c) a BS degree in education                        d) a Masters or PhD in education  
 e) Special Ed. Certification

3) What is your highest level of education?

- a) High School degree                                b) Vocational or tech training  
 c) Associates degree                                    d) College degree  
 d) Graduate degree

4) How long have you taught Primary students with special needs?

- a) less than or equal to 1 year                      b) between 2 and 3 years  
 c) between 4 and 6 years                              d) 7 or more years

5) Are you related to anyone with a disability? If so, what is the relation?

6) Where do you teach Primary?

- a) Utah    b) AZ, NV, NM, CO  
 c) OR, ID, WA, CA                                    d) Somewhere else, please state \_\_\_\_\_

7) What is your gender? M/F

8) What age group do you teach? \_\_\_\_\_

## Appendix D

## Pre/Post- Survey

Pre/Post- Survey:

Number: \_\_\_\_\_

On a scale of 1-4 (1 being “Never” 3 being “Sometimes” and 4 being “Almost Always”) rate yourself on the following statements:

- |   |                           |
|---|---------------------------|
| 1) I state a clear objective to my students with special needs before I begin my lessons.                         | 1 . . . 2 . . . 3 . . . 4 |
| 2) I implement the use of adequate wait time after questioning my students with special needs.                    | 1 . . . 2 . . . 3 . . . 4 |
| 3) I use a variety of teaching methods such as, but not limited to visual, auditory, tactile, and music.          | 1 . . . 2 . . . 3 . . . 4 |
| 4) I implement the use of active participation for my students with special needs.                                | 1 . . . 2 . . . 3 . . . 4 |
| 5) I can keep the attention of students with special needs throughout my lesson.                                  | 1 . . . 2 . . . 3 . . . 4 |
| 6) I implement positive behavior management techniques to help my students with special needs stay on task.       | 1 . . . 2 . . . 3 . . . 4 |
| 7) I feel good about my ability to teach my student with special needs.   | 1 . . . 2 . . . 3 . . . 4 |
| 8) I feel that my student with special needs is able to pay attention throughout my entire lesson.                | 1 . . . 2 . . . 3 . . . 4 |
| 9) I feel like by giving my students with special needs adequate time to respond to my questions they learn more. | 1 . . . 2 . . . 3 . . . 4 |
| 10) I see how using a wide variety of ways to teach my lessons helps my students with special needs better learn. | 1 . . . 2 . . . 3 . . . 4 |
| 11) I enjoy seeing all of my students equally participating in class.   | 1 . . . 2 . . . 3 . . . 4 |
| 12) I know my students with special needs know from the very beginning what they will learn that day.             | 1 . . . 2 . . . 3 . . . 4 |
| 13) I see the benefit of using positive reinforcement more than negative.   | 1 . . . 2 . . . 3 . . . 4 |
| 14) I would recommend this training to others.  | 1 . . . 2 . . . 3 . . . 4 |



## Appendix E

## Administrator's Instructions

Dear Investigator's Assistant:

In this envelope you will find the following materials:

- \_\_\_\_\_ Pre- and Post- Surveys
- \_\_\_\_\_ Demographic Sheets
- \_\_\_\_\_ Return Envelopes
- \_\_\_\_\_ Videotapes
- \_\_\_\_\_ Effective Teaching Skills Handouts

Please have at least \_\_\_\_\_ people watch the video and the same amount of DIFFERENT individuals read the "Effective Teaching Skills" handout. NO ONE IN THIS RESEARCH WILL BOTH WATCH THE VIDEO AND READ THE HANDOUT since we are comparing the effectiveness of each instrument separately.

INSTRUCTIONS:

FOR THOSE WATCHING THE VIDEO:

- 1) Have the participants read the "Consent Form"
- 2) Have them fill out the "Demographic Sheet" and then collect it from them
- 3) Have them fill out the "Pre-Survey" and then collect it from them
- 4) Have them view the videotape
- 5) Give them the "Post-Survey" with the self-addressed stamped envelope and ask them to mail the Post –Survey in 2 weeks OR collect the Post-Survey from them in 2 weeks
- 6) Call the participants in 2 weeks from the time they viewed the video to remind them to return their Post-Survey.
- 7) Return all Demographic Sheets and Pre- and Post- Surveys to:  
Katie Sampson 385 East 760 North Orem, UT 84057 (801) 226-2014

FOR THOSE READING THE HANDOUT:

- 1) Have the participants read the "Consent Form"
- 2) Have them fill out the "Demographic Sheet" and then collect it from them
- 3) Have them fill out the "Pre-Survey" and then collect it from them
- 4) Have them read the "Effective Teaching Skills" handout
- 5) Give them the "Post-Survey" with the self-addressed stamped envelope and ask them to mail the Post –Survey in 2 weeks OR collect the Post-Survey from them in 2 weeks
- 6) Call the participants in 2 weeks from the time they viewed the video to remind them to return their Post-Survey.
- 7) Return all Demographic Sheets and Pre- and Post- Surveys to:  
Katie Sampson 385 East 760 North Orem, UT 84057 (801) 226-2014

Thanks for all of your help! Please do not hesitate to call me.