

Student Diversity

2

FOCUS QUESTIONS

1. How do cognitive, affective, and physiological factors impact learning?
2. How can teachers respond to different learning styles?
3. What are the classroom implications of Howard Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences?
4. How does emotional intelligence influence teaching and learning?
5. How can teachers meet the diverse needs of an increasingly multicultural student population?
6. What are the different levels of multicultural education?
7. What are the political and instructional issues surrounding bilingual education?
8. How are the needs of special learners met in today's classrooms?



WHAT DO YOU THINK? Different Ways of Learning. Vote on the eight-point proposal presented on page 38 and see what the *Teachers, Schools, and Society* results are.

CHAPTER FOCUS

This chapter reflects the great diversity of today's students, from racial and cultural differences to learning style preferences. The chronicle of bilingual education in the United States is presented in historical context. The chapter also includes an update on learners and about learning itself, such as emotional intelligence theory. For a chapter outline, see the IM.

CHAPTER PREVIEW

At the dawn of the twenty-first century, basic educational concepts are being redefined, re-examined, and expanded. What does "intelligence" really mean? How many kinds of intelligences are there? What is EQ (emotional intelligence quotient), and is it a better predictor of success than IQ (intelligence quotient)? How should classrooms best be organized to meet the needs of different learning styles?

Not only are our basic concepts and assumptions changing; today's students are changing as well. An increasing number of students have their family roots not in Europe or Africa but in Asia and Latin America. As a result of an extraordinary increase in immigration to this country, the native language of well over 30 million Americans is a language other than English, creating a remarkable and formidable challenge for the nation's schools.¹ In many schools, the terms *minority* and *majority* are gaining new meanings as student demographics change.

Another educational transformation is the increasing numbers of school children now identified as exceptional learners—learning and physically disabled, mentally retarded, and emotionally disturbed—all of whom deserve appropriate educational strategies and materials. Gifted and talented students represent another special needs population too often lost in the current educational system.

This chapter will describe the demographic and conceptual changes reshaping America’s schools, as well as provide you with insights into and strategies for successful teaching in tomorrow’s classrooms.



Different Ways of Learning

GRABBERS
The Newest Intelligence
IM
Undercover
IM

FOCUS QUESTION
(1) How do cognitive, affective, and physiological factors impact learning?

TEACHING TIP
Poll your students for their opinions. How might their convictions change if they assessed their current study environment *outside* the classroom?

CLASS ACTIVITY:
LEARNING STYLES
IM, Activity 2:1

OVERHEAD
17 Factors Contributing to Learning Styles

Imagine you are on a committee of teachers that has been asked to offer recommendations to the school board regarding academic climates to increase the academic performance of the district’s students. It is an awesome responsibility. Here is the first draft of an eight point proposal. Take a moment and indicate your reaction to each of the points.²

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree
1. Schools and classrooms should be quiet places to promote thinking and learning.	_____	_____	_____
2. All classrooms and libraries should be well lighted to reduce eye strain.	_____	_____	_____
3. Difficult subjects, such as math, should be offered in the morning, when students are fresh and alert.	_____	_____	_____
4. School thermostats should be set at 68 to 72 degrees Fahrenheit to establish a comfortable learning environment.	_____	_____	_____
5. Eating and drinking in classrooms should be prohibited.	_____	_____	_____
6. Classroom periods should run between forty-five and fifty-five minutes to ensure adequate time to investigate significant issues and practice important skills.	_____	_____	_____
7. Students must be provided with adequate work areas, including chairs and desks, where they can sit quietly for the major part of their learning and study.	_____	_____	_____
8. Emphasis should be placed on reading textbooks and listening to lectures, for this is how students learn best.	_____	_____	_____

You might find that these points seem to make a lot of sense. And, for many students, these eight recommendations may lead to higher academic achievement—for many, but not all. Ironically, for a significant number of students, these recommendations can lead to poorer performance, even academic failure. The reason is that students have different **learning styles**—diverse ways of learning, comprehending, knowing.

Did you notice these different learning styles in your own elementary and secondary school experience? Perhaps you see them now in college or graduate school. Some students do their best work late at night, while others set an early alarm because they are most alert in the morning. Many students seek a quiet place in the library to prepare for finals; others learn best in a crowd of people with a radio blaring; still others study most effectively in a state of perpetual motion, constantly walking in circles to help their concentration. Some students seem unable to study without eating and drinking, simultaneously imbibing calories and knowledge, they all but

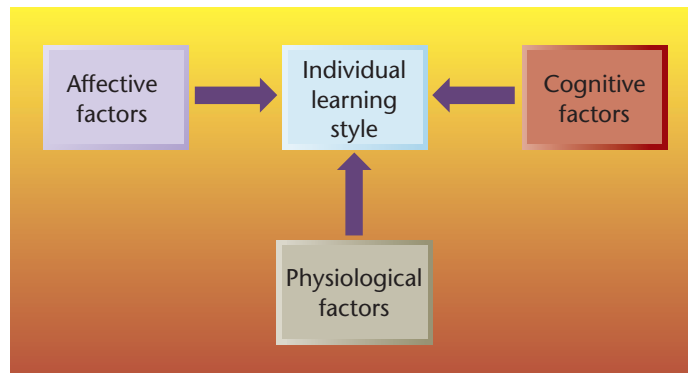


FIGURE 2.1
Factors contributing to learning styles.

REFLECTION

Describe your own learning style by identifying at least one factor under the affective, physiological and cognitive domains.

move into the refrigerator when preparing for tests. (These differences really strike home if you and your roommate clash because of conflicting learning styles.)

We are a population of incredibly diverse learners. Intriguing new research focusing on the ways students learn suggests that learning styles may be as unique as handwriting. The challenge for educators is to diagnose these styles and to shape instruction to meet individual student needs.

At least three types of factors—as diagrammed in Figure 2.1—contribute to each student’s individual learning style:

1. *Cognitive (information processing)*. Individuals have different ways of perceiving, organizing, and retaining information, all components of the **cognitive domain**. Some students prefer to learn by reading and looking at material, while others need to listen and hear information spoken aloud. Still others learn best kinesthetically, by whole body movement and participation. Some learners focus attention narrowly and with great intensity; others pay attention to many things at once. While some learners are quick to respond, others rely on a slower approach.
2. *Affective (attitudes)*. Individuals bring different levels of motivation to learning, and the intensity level of this motivation is a critical determinant of learning style. Other aspects of the **affective domain** include attitudes, values and emotions, factors that influence curiosity, the ability to tolerate and overcome frustration, and the willingness to take risks. A fascinating aspect of the affective domain is a concept termed **locus of control**. Some learners attribute success or failure to external factors (“Those problems were confusing,” “The teacher didn’t review the material well,” or “My score was high because I made some lucky guesses”). These learners have an external locus of control. Simply stated, they do not take responsibility for their behavior. Others attribute performance to internal factors (“I didn’t study enough” or “I didn’t read the directions carefully”). These students have an internal locus of control because they have the sense that they control their fate, that they can improve their performance.

3. *Physiology.* Clearly, a student who is hungry and tired will not learn as effectively as a well-nourished and rested child. Other physiological factors are less obvious. Different body rhythms cause some students to learn better in the day, while others are night owls. Some students can sit still for long periods of time, while others need to get up and move around. Light, sound, and temperature are yet other factors to which students respond differently based on their physiological development.³

FOCUS QUESTION
(2) How can teachers
respond to different
learning styles?



INTERACTIVE ACTIVITY
LEARNING STYLES
ASSESSMENT

Take a learning styles
assessment to determine
your own learning style.

With this introduction to learning styles, you now know that the committee's eight recommendations will not create a productive learning climate for all students. The following section paraphrases the original recommendations, explodes myths, and provides research concerning diverse learning styles.⁴

Myth

Students learn best in quiet surroundings.

Students learn best in well-lighted areas.

Difficult subjects are best taught in the morning, when students are most alert.

Room temperature should be maintained at a comfortable 68 to 72 degrees Fahrenheit to promote learning.

Eating or drinking while learning should be prohibited.

The most appropriate length of time for a class is forty-five to fifty-five minutes.

Students should be provided with appropriate work areas, including chairs and desks, where they spend most of their classroom time.

Fact

Many students learn best when studying to music or other background noise. Others need so much silence that only ear plugs will suffice.

Some students are actually disturbed by bright light and become hyperactive and less focused in their thinking. For them, dimmer light is more effective.

Peak learning times differ. Some students are at their best in the morning, while others function most effectively in the afternoon or evening.

Room temperature preferences vary greatly from individual to individual, and no single range pleases all. What chills one learner may provide the perfect climate for another.

Some students learn better and score higher on tests if they are allowed to eat or drink during these times.

Banning such activities may penalize these individuals unfairly.

This period of time may be too long for some and too brief for others. The comfort time zone of the student rather than a predetermined block of hours or minutes is the factor critical to effective learning.

A substantial number of students need to move about to learn. For these learners, sitting at a desk or a computer terminal for long periods of time can actually hinder academic performance.

FRAME OF REFERENCE

TEACHING TIPS FOR DIFFERENT LEARNING STYLES

Many educators believe that students have preferred learning styles and that teaching to these preferred styles will increase educational success. Following are three learning styles frequently mentioned in the literature. (Do you recognize yourself in any of these categories?) Since all of these students are typically in class at the same time, as a teacher you will be called on to use a variety of instructional approaches to reach all of them.

VISUAL LEARNERS

About half of the student population learns best by *seeing* information. They are termed visual learners.

Teaching Tips

Textbooks, charts, course outlines, and graphs are useful instructional aids.

Ask these students to write down information, even rewriting or highlighting key points.

Ask students to preview chapters by looking at subheadings and illustrations before they read each chapter.

Seat these students up front, away from windows and doors (to avoid distractions).

Encourage them to ask for comments or directions to be repeated if they did not understand directions the first time.

Use overheads and flip charts.

KINESTHETIC LEARNERS

This is another popular learning style, which is also called *haptic* (Greek for “moving and doing”) or *tactile*. These are “hands on” learners, students who learn best by doing.

Teaching Tips

Try to plan for student movement in class presentation, as well as independent study time.

Movement should be planned to avoid distracting others.

Memorizing information can be enhanced if these learners are encouraged to physically move about the room.

Providing students with a colored desk blotter or a colored transparency to read a book is called “color grounding” and can help focus their attention.

Ask them to take notes and encourage them to underline key points as they read.

Encourage them to take frequent but short breaks.

Try to use skits and role-plays to help make instructional points.

AUDITORY LEARNERS

This is a style used less frequently than the previous two. These students learn best by hearing; they can remember the details of conversations and lectures and many have strong language skills.

Teaching Tips

Provide the opportunity for auditory learners to recite the main points of a book or lecture.

Encourage these students to study with a friend, so they can talk through the main points.

Audiotapes of classroom activities can be helpful.

Suggest that they read class notes into a tape.

Encourage them to read the textbook out loud.

It can be helpful for these students to say out loud the meaning of the illustrations and main subject headings, and to recite any new vocabulary words.

Group work can be a useful class activity for auditory learners.

REFLECTION

Choose a subject or topic that you want to teach. Describe three learning activities (visual, kinesthetic, auditory) that you can use to reach students with different learning styles. Which of these learning styles appeals to you? Why?

Myth

Reading a textbook or listening to a lecture is the best way to learn.

Fact

Diverse students learn through a variety of modes, not only through reading or listening. While many students rely on these two perceptual modes, they are less effective for others. Some learn best through touch (for example, learning to read by tracing sandpaper letters), while others rely on kinesthetic movement, including creative drama, role-play, and field-based experiences.

OVERHEAD

**18 Creating a Productive
Learning Climate:
Myths and Facts**

Learning style is not the only area undergoing demystification: our understanding of **intelligence** is also being reconstructed. The IQ score, developed early in the twentieth century, is supposed to be a measure of a person's innate intelligence, with a score of 100 defined as normal, or average. The higher the score, the brighter the person. Some of us grew up in communities where IQ was barely mentioned. In many cases this lack of knowledge might have been a blessing. Others of us grew up with "IQ envy," in communities where IQ scores were a big part of our culture. Since the score is considered a fixed, permanent measure of intellect, like a person's physical height, the scores engendered strong feelings. Friends who scored 150 or 160 or higher on an IQ test had a secret weapon, a mysteriously wonderful brain. We were impressed. But then our friend, the "genius," was stumped trying to unpack and plug in a toaster oven or got hopelessly lost trying to follow the simplest driving directions. How could this person have such a high IQ? We may have been equally puzzled when another friend, who scored horribly low on an IQ test, went on to fame and riches (and promptly forgot that we were ever their friends). What is this IQ score supposed to mean?

Some students learn best in cooperative learning situations.





Multiple Intelligences and Emotional Intelligence

Also puzzled by these contradictions was Harvard professor **Howard Gardner**. Concerned about the traditional assessment of intelligence, with such a heavy emphasis on language and mathematical-logical skills, he broadened the concept to define *intelligence* as “the capacity to solve problems or to fashion products that are valued in one or more cultural settings.”⁵

Gardner identified eight kinds of intelligence, not all of which are commonly recognized in school settings, yet Gardner believes that his theory of **multiple intelligences** more accurately captures the diverse nature of human capability. Consider Gardner’s eight intelligences:

1. *Logical-mathematical*. Skills related to mathematical manipulations and discerning and solving logical problems (*related careers*: scientist, mathematician)
2. *Linguistic*. Sensitivity to the meanings, sounds, and rhythms of words, as well as to the function of language as a whole (*related careers*: poet, journalist, author)
3. *Bodily-kinesthetic*. Ability to excel physically and to handle objects skillfully (*related careers*: athlete, dancer, surgeon)
4. *Musical*. Ability to produce pitch and rhythm, as well as to appreciate various forms of musical expression (*related careers*: musician, composer)
5. *Spatial*. Ability to form a mental model of the spatial world and to maneuver and operate using that model (*related careers*: sculptor, navigator, engineer, painter)
6. *Interpersonal*. Ability to analyze and respond to the motivations, moods, and desires of other people (*related careers*: psychology, sales, teaching)
7. *Intrapersonal*. Knowledge of one’s feelings, needs, strengths, and weaknesses; ability to use this knowledge to guide behavior (*related benefit*: accurate self-awareness)
8. *Naturalist*. (Gardner’s most recently defined intelligence) Ability to discriminate among living things, to classify plants, animals, and minerals; a sensitivity to the natural world (*related careers*: botanist, environmentalist, chef, other science- and even consumer-related careers.)⁶

Gardner and his colleagues continue to conduct research, and this list is still growing. A possible ninth intelligence being explored by Gardner concerns an *existential intelligence*, the human inclination to formulate fundamental questions about who we are, where we come from, why we die, and the like. Gardner believes that we have yet to discover many more intelligences. (Can you think of some?)

The theory of multiple intelligences goes a long way in explaining why the quality of an individual’s performance may vary greatly in different activities, rather than reflect a single standard of performance as indicated by an IQ score. Gardner



INTERACTIVE ACTIVITY MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES

Label descriptions of different intelligences.

FOCUS QUESTION

(3) What are the classroom implications of Howard Gardner’s theory of multiple intelligences?

CLASS ACTIVITY:
EIGHT (OR MORE)
INTELLIGENCES
IM, Activity 2:2



The ability to perform intricate and extended physical maneuvers is a distinct form of intelligence.

FRAME OF REFERENCE

WHERE DO THE MERMAIDS STAND?

Giants, Wizards, and Dwarfs was the game to play.

Being left in charge of about eighty children seven to ten years old, while their parents were off doing parent things, I mustered my troops in the church social hall and explained the game. It's a large-scale version of Rock, Paper, and Scissors, and involves some intellectual decision making. But the real purpose of the game is to make a lot of noise and run around chasing people until nobody knows which side you are on or who won.

Organizing a roomful of wired-up grade schoolers into two teams, explaining the rudiments of the game, achieving consensus on group identity—all of this is no mean accomplishment, but we did it with a right good will and were ready to go.

The excitement of the chase had reached a critical mass. I yelled out: "You have to decide *now* which you are—a GIANT, a WIZARD, or a DWARF!"

While the groups huddled in frenzied, whispered consultation, a tug came at my pants leg. A small child stands there looking up, and asks in a small concerned voice, "Where do the Mermaids stand?"

A long pause: A *very* long pause. "Where do the Mermaids stand?" says I.

"Yes. You see, I am a Mermaid."

"There are no such things as Mermaids."

"Oh, yes, I am one!"

She did not relate to being a Giant, a Wizard, or a Dwarf. She knew her category, Mermaid, and was not about to leave the game and go over and stand against the wall where a loser would stand. She intended to participate, wherever Mermaids fit into the scheme of things. Without giving up dignity or identity. She took it for granted that there was a place for Mermaids and that I would know just where.

Well, where DO the Mermaids stand? All the "Mermaids"—all those who are different, who do not fit the norm and who do not accept the available boxes and pigeonholes?

Answer that question and you can build a school, a nation, or a world on it.

What was my answer at the moment? Every once in a while I say the right thing. "The Mermaid stands right here by the King of the Sea!" (Yes, right here by the King's Fool, I thought to myself.)

So we stood there hand in hand, reviewing the troops of Wizards and Giants and Dwarfs as they rolled by in wild disarray. It is not true, by the way, that Mermaids do not exist. I know at least one personally. I have held her hand.

SOURCE: Robert Fulghum, *All I Really Need to Know I Learned in Kindergarten* (New York: Villard Books, 1989), pp. 81–83.

REFLECTION

Was there ever a time when you did not fit neatly into a category—were you ever a mermaid? When and why? How will you make room for mermaids in your class?

INTER-MISSION

Multiple Intelligences
Bingo, 1:3, p. 124

GLOBAL VIEW

What are signs of
intelligence in varied
cultural, religious, or
international groups that
your students represent?

CRITICAL THINKING QUESTION

Can students' imaginations
be sparked to answer these
questions and ask others?

also points out that what is considered *intelligence* may differ, depending on cultural values. Thus, in the Pacific Islands, intelligence is the ability to navigate among the islands. For many Muslims, the ability to memorize the Koran is a mark of intelligence. Intelligence in Balinese social life is demonstrated by physical grace.

Gardner's theory has sparked the imaginations of many educators, some of whom are redesigning their curricula to respond to differing student intelligences. Teachers are refining their approaches in response to such questions as⁷

- How can I use music to emphasize key points?
- How can I promote hand and bodily movements and experiences to enhance learning?
- How can I incorporate sharing and interpersonal interactions into my lessons?

The Stuttgart, Arkansas, Junior High School varsity football team all shaved their heads so they could look more like teammate Stuart H., who lost most of his hair while undergoing chemotherapy. The coach explained: *They got together so he wouldn't feel weird, so they would all look weird together.*

SOURCE: *The American School Board Journal*, December 1997.

REFLECTION

Did you ever take risks or make sacrifices for your schoolmates? What can teachers do to foster the flames of compassion?



Click on *In the News* for recent *In the News* stories. Submit your own *In the News* summary to share with your colleagues.

- How can I encourage students to think more deeply about their feelings and memories?
- How can I use visual organizers and visual aids to promote understanding?
- How can I encourage students to classify and appreciate the world around them?

As instruction undergoes re-examination, so does evaluation. The old pencil-and-paper tests used to assess linguistic, math, and logical intelligences seem much less appropriate for measuring these new areas identified by Gardner.⁸ The **portfolio** approach, as found in the *Inter-missions* in this text, is an example of a more comprehensive assessment, which includes student artifacts (papers, projects, videotapes, exhibits) that offer tangible examples of student learning. Some schools ask students to assemble portfolios that reflect progress in Gardner's various intelligences. In other cases, rather than As and Bs or 80s and 90s, schools are using descriptions to report student competence. In music, for example, such descriptions might include "The student often listens to music," "She plays the piano with technical competence," "She is able to compose scores that other students and faculty enjoy," and so on. Whether the school is exploring portfolios, descriptive assessment, or another evaluation method, Gardner's multiple intelligences theory is reshaping many current assessment practices.⁹

While the theory of multiple intelligences raises fundamental questions about instruction and assessment, EQ may be even more revolutionary. **EQ**, or the **emotional intelligence quotient**, is described by **Daniel Goleman** in his book *Emotional Intelligence*. Goleman argues that when it comes to predicting success in life, EQ may be a better predictor than IQ. How does EQ work? The "marshmallow story" may help you understand:

A researcher explains to a 4-year-old that he/she needs to run off to do an errand, but there is a marshmallow for the youngster to enjoy. The youngster can choose to eat the marshmallow immediately. But, if the 4-year-old can wait and *not* eat the marshmallow right away, then an extra marshmallow will be given when the researcher returns. Eat one now, or hold off and get twice the reward.

FOCUS QUESTION

(4) How does emotional intelligence influence teaching and learning?

CRITICAL THINKING QUESTION

Faced with the marshmallow experiment, what do your students think they would have done as a 4-year-old? Are their current patterns of delayed gratification similar?

FRAME OF REFERENCE

SO WHAT'S YOUR EQ?

Like Daniel Goleman, Yale psychologist Peter Salovey works with emotional intelligence issues, and he identifies five elements of emotional intelligence. How would you rate yourself on each of these dimensions?

KNOWING EMOTIONS

The foundation of one's emotional intelligence is self-awareness. A person's ability to recognize a feeling as it happens is the essential first step in understanding the place and power of emotions. People who do not know when they are angry, jealous, or in love are at the mercy of their emotions.

Self-Rating on Knowing My Emotions

Always aware of my emotions__ Usually aware__ Sometimes aware__ Out of touch, clueless.__

MANAGING EMOTIONS

A person who can control and manage emotions can handle bad times as well as the good, shake off depression, bounce back from life's setbacks, and avoid irritability. In one study, up to half of the youngsters who at age 6 were disruptive and unable to get along with others were classified as delinquents by the time they were teenagers.

Self-Rating on Managing My Emotions

Always manage my emotions__ Usually manage__ Sometimes manage__ My emotions manage me.__

MOTIVATING ONESELF

Productive individuals are able to focus energy, confidence, and concentration on achieving a goal and avoid anxiety, anger, and depression. One study of 36,000 people found that "worriers" have poorer academic performance than nonworriers. (A load off your mind, no doubt!)

Self-Rating on Motivation and Focus

Always self-motivated/focused__ Usually self-motivated/ focused__ Sometimes self-motivated/focused__ I can't focus on when I was last focused (and I don't care).__

RECOGNIZING EMOTIONS IN OTHERS

This skill is the core of empathy, the ability to pick up subtle signs of what other people need or want. Such a person always seems to "get it," even before the words are spoken.

Self-Rating on Empathy

Always empathetic__ Usually empathetic__ Sometimes empathetic__ I rarely "get it."__

HANDLING RELATIONSHIPS

People whose EQ is high are the kind of people you want to be around. They are popular, are good leaders, and make you feel comfortable and connected. Children who lack social skills are often distracted from learning, and the dropout rate for children who are rejected by their peers can be two to eight times higher than for children who have friends.

Self-Rating on Relationships

I am rich in friendship and am often asked to lead activities and events.__ I have many friends.__ I have a few friends.__ Actually, I'm pretty desperate for friends.__

RATINGS

Give 4 points for each time you selected the first choice, 3 points for the "usual" or "many" second option, 2 points for the "sometimes" selection, and 1 point for the last choice.

18–20 points: A grade—WOW! Impressive!

14–17 points: B grade—You have considerable skills and talents.

10–13 points: C grade—Feel free to read further on this topic.

5–9 points: D grade—This may be a perfect subject to investigate in greater detail. Do you have a topic for your term project yet?

REFLECTION

Are you satisfied with your rating? If you earned a high rating, to what do you attribute your high EQ? If your rating was lower than you liked, how can you work on increasing your EQ?

What do you think you would have done as a 4-year-old? According to the social scientists who conducted the marshmallow experiment, decisions even at this age foreshadow an emotional disposition characteristic of a successful (or less successful) adult. By the time the children in the study reached high school, the now 14-year-olds were described by teachers and parents in a way that suggested their marshmallow behaviors predicted some significant differences. Students who ten years earlier were able to delay their gratification, to wait a while and garner a second marshmallow, were reported to be better adjusted, more popular, more adventurous, and more confident in adolescence than the group who ten years earlier had gobbled down their marshmallows. The children who gave in to temptation, ate the marshmallow and abandoned their chances for a second one, were more likely to be described as stubborn, easily frustrated, and lonely teenagers. In addition to the differences between the gobblers and waiters as described by parents and teachers, there was also a significant SAT scoring gap. The students who, ten years earlier, could wait for the second marshmallow scored 210 points higher than did the gobblers. Reasoning and control, “the regulation of emotion in a way that enhances living,”¹⁰ might be new, and perhaps better, measures of what we call smart, or intelligent.

Emotional intelligence “is a type of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the information to guide one’s thinking and actions.”¹¹ Goleman suggests that EQ taps into the heart, as well as the head, and introduces a new gateway for measuring intelligence, for children and adults.¹² By the way, how would you rate your EQ?

Goleman and Gardner are toppling educational traditions, stretching our understanding of what schools are about. In a sense, they are increasing the range and diversity of educational ideas. This chapter is all about diversity. The students you will teach will learn in diverse ways, and a single IQ or even EQ score is unlikely to capture the range of their abilities and skills. But these are not the only differences students bring to school. Let’s turn our attention to how cultural, ethnic, and racial diversity is transforming life in the classroom.



Cultural Diversity

America has just experienced the greatest immigration surge in its history. In the past few decades, more immigrants have come to this country than at the beginning of the twentieth century, a time often thought of as the great era of immigration and Americanization. These new Americans have arrived mainly from Latin America and Asia, but also from the Caribbean, the Middle East, Africa, and Eastern Europe. Today, about one in ten Americans is foreign born.

Consider the following:

- By 2012 the west (the geographic area expected to witness the greatest changes) will become “minority majority,” with no single racial or ethnic group having a majority.
- The nation has approximately 2.5 million Native Americans, a number that increases to about 4 million when including Americans claiming partial Indian heritage on the census.
- By 2000, the number of Asians, including Asian Indians, in the United States was over 10 million or 3.6 percent of the population.



INTERACTIVE ACTIVITY EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENT QUIZ

Take an EQ quiz to determine your own emotional intelligence quotient.

FOCUS QUESTION

(5) How can teachers meet the diverse needs of an increasingly multicultural student population?

- About 6 million Americans claimed multiracial heritage with 2 or more races indicated on Census 2000.
- By 2030, the number of U.S. residents who are nonwhite or Hispanic will be about 140 million or about 40 percent of the U.S. population.¹³

Demographic forecasting, the study of people and their vital statistics, provides a fascinating insight into tomorrow's schools. Demographers indicate that at the dawn of the twenty-first century, one out of three Americans will be of color. Some forecast that by 2020 almost half the school population will be from non-European ethnic groups. Demographers draw a portrait of a new generation of students far more diverse—by race, ethnicity, culture, and language—than our country has ever known. You will teach in a nation more diverse and less Eurocentric than the one you grew up in. How will this affect your life in the classroom?

Although the national demographics are powerful, you will not be a national teacher. You will be a local teacher, and the demographic realities you experience will be shaped by where you teach. If you teach in a large, urban school system, you will likely encounter classrooms where the majority of students are of color. In many cities today, students of color already constitute 70 to more than 90 percent of the students. If you decide to start your career in the tony suburbs outside the nation's capital, in Fairfax, Virginia, or Montgomery County, Maryland, for example, you may very well find third- and fourth-generation American children from wealthy homes attending your school, along with students recently arrived in this country—thousands of students speaking more than a hundred different languages. Of course, not every American community is experiencing dynamic population changes. You may find yourself teaching in a very stable school district, one where student demographics have remained basically unchanged for decades. But, even in these communities, changing national demographics will not go unnoticed. As the nation's population changes, so will the nation's culture, politics, and economy. To a degree, we are all part of the national fabric. The challenge for educators is how to prepare all of the nation's students for this more diverse America. (See Figure 2.2.)

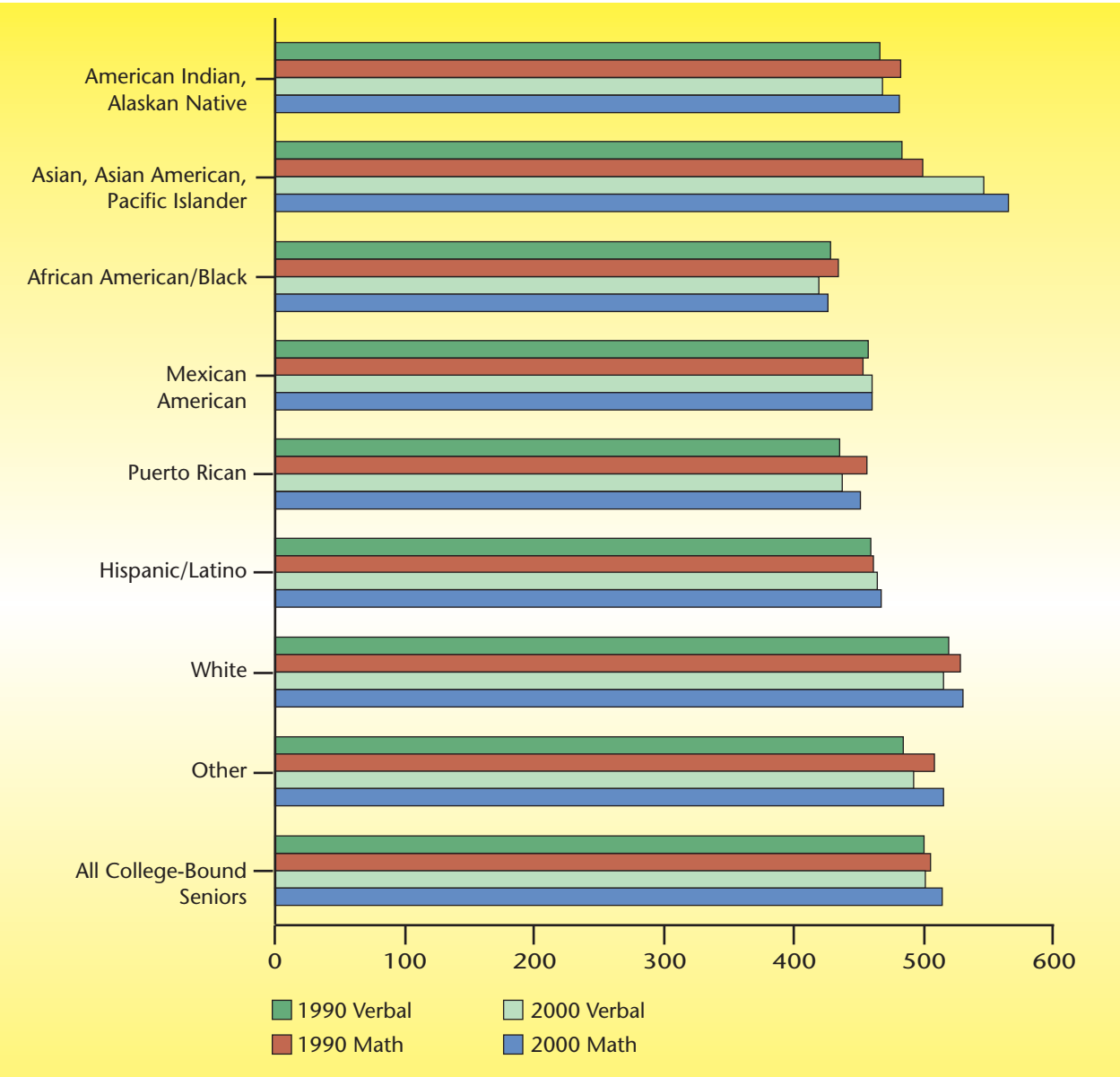
**CLASS ACTIVITY: SAT
SCORES AND DIVERSITY**
IM, Activity 2:4



Teaching Them All

Imagine this. You have graduated from your teacher preparation program and have signed the contract for your first teaching job, and now you stand before your very first class. As you survey your sixth-grade students, you see fifteen boys and fourteen girls. As you look at your class, you realize that you will be teaching a wonderfully diverse group. Off to the right, near the windows, are half a dozen students eagerly talking in Spanish. Some African American children, comparing their schedules, look to you with curiosity. In the front of the room, several Asian American children are in their seats, looking up to you, awaiting your comments. (You do have a good opening, right?) Several white children and a few students whose backgrounds may reflect more than one racial or ethnic group are looking at the motivational posters you hung just last night. You know from reading student records that six of your students have learning disabilities, and the child in the wheelchair has muscular dystrophy. One of the children has been identified as gifted. About half of your students are from single-parent homes. A third come from middle-class backgrounds, and the remaining children are from working-class or poor families. Whew! The proverbial American melting pot looks more like a tossed salad in your class.

FIGURE 2.2 SAT averages rose for most racial-ethnic groups between 1990 and 2000.

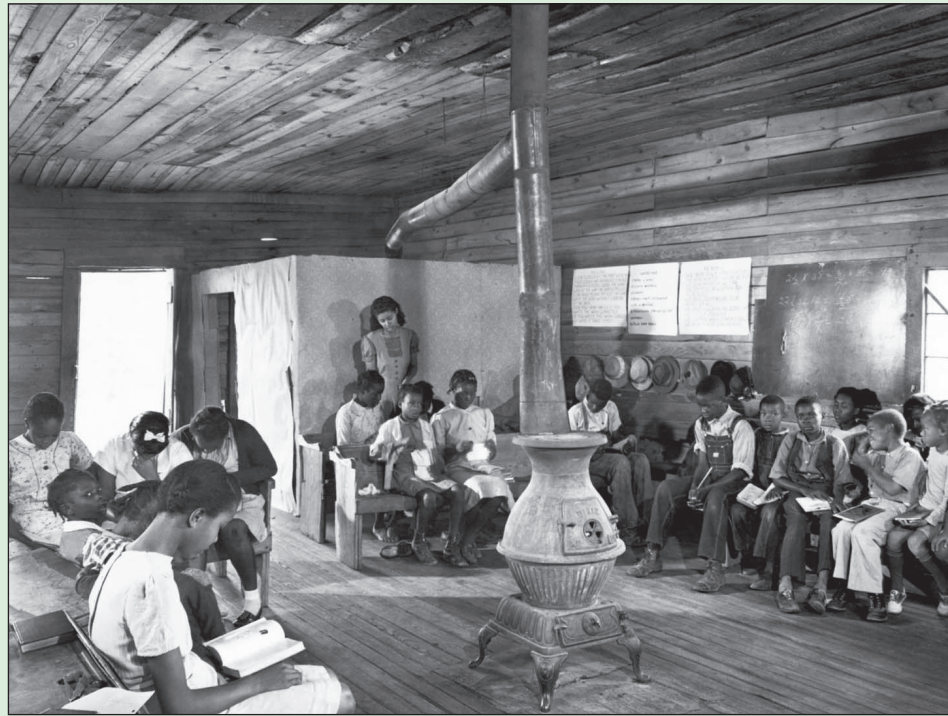


SOURCE: The College Board (2000). *2000 Profile of College Bound Seniors on the SAT*. New York: College Board.

REFLECTION

Why do you believe these scores have improved through the 1990s? Which groups have fared the best? Which groups have not shown significant test score improvement? Do you believe that these scores are a valid indicator of educational quality—or are they given too much weight?

During much of the twentieth century, African American students attended legally segregated schools. Today, while legal segregation has ended, segregation has not. Examine these two photos and suggest similarities and differences between segregation then and now. During the past hundred years, what other ethnic or racial groups might be photographed in much the same way?



You know from your training, reading, and experience that each of these young lives has been shaped, in part, by geography, ethnicity, exceptionality, social class, race, and gender. You understand that these characteristics will influence how these children perceive the world—and how the world views them. You also know that each one is likely to have a learning style as unique as his or her appearance.

How will you meet the needs of these twenty-nine different learners? What strategies and approaches will you use to foster equity and excellence in your classroom?

Culture and Education 101

Before teaching your first class, you may be required, or you may elect, to take courses in special education, gender equity, and multicultural education. Here we offer an introduction, some suggested topics that might be found in a course designed to help you teach diverse learners. We'll call our course "Culture and Education 101." Additional information and strategies for dealing with diversity will be described later in this book.

GENERALIZE, DON'T STEREOTYPE Although you are the teacher and your students are the "learners," be prepared to do quite a bit of learning yourself. As you assimilate information about your students, their culture, and their experiences, you will need to distinguish between stereotypes and generalizations. While the dangers of stereotyping are common knowledge these days, the usefulness of generalizations is less well known.

Stereotypes are absolute statements applied to all members of a group, statements that ignore individual differences. Stereotypes tend to close off discussion by providing simplistic characterizations. Generalizations offer information about groups that can help you teach more effectively. For instance, a generalization that members of a certain group avoid direct eye contact, while not applying to every group member (that would be a stereotype), is a generalization that teaches us what to expect from many if not most group members. **Generalizations** are flexible insights that provide us with clues about groups, useful information for instructional planning. Generalizations are discussion openers, recognizing that we are all members of many groups: religious, gender, geographic, class, interest, skills, and the like. Look for generalizations about your students' backgrounds that will help you plan for teaching. Avoid stereotypes.

MODEL SKILLS AND BEHAVIORS THAT REFLECT SENSITIVITY Looking for the first time at ethnically diverse names on a class list, a teacher might blurt out, "I'll never be able to pronounce that one!" or "That's the first time I heard that name." Such comments reflect a lack of cultural understanding and sensitivity, hardly endearing a teacher to a student. Some teachers dig a deeper hole, converting the "unusual" name to an easier to pronounce nickname or unilaterally deciding to Americanize the name, as in "Miguel, do you mind if I call you Mike?" Such names as Tomàs, Twanda, Chu, Ngyuen, or Kenji may take extra effort to learn to pronounce correctly, but it is an effort that demonstrates cultural and personal respect.

Once you have learned about your students and their cultural background, you will have to take the next big step: Ensure that your knowledge is reflected in your behavior. Being responsive to cultural norms is yet another way to demonstrate cultural sensitivity. For instance, one Native American and Asian cultural norm is to shun competition. If you were their teacher, you may want to minimize the practice of

OVERHEAD

19 Distinctions:
Stereotypes
and Generalizations

TEACHING TIP

Many students possess a story (and sometimes it's weighty) about their first, middle, family or nicknames. Some tales might be connected with religious and cultural history, gender assumptions or character traits. Open a sensitive dialogue on names and the norms surrounding them.

Being a good teacher in the years ahead will almost surely mean dealing with a culturally diverse population.



publicly praising one student's work in front of others, or even providing the stage for such comparisons. You could choose to review student performance through quiet, individual conferences, rather than announcing or posting such grades. Such steps go a long way in promoting effective relationships in and beyond the classroom.

USE CLASSROOM STRATEGIES THAT BUILD ON STUDENT LEARNING STYLES As was discussed earlier in this chapter, individuals, and even groups, have different, preferred learning styles. If your students are similar to the ones in the class described earlier, they are likely to bring with them an incredible assortment of educational styles and experiences. To get a sense of each student's unique approach to learning, observe each of them doing work and analyze how each approaches the curriculum. Some schools assist you in this effort by providing learning style assessments that you can administer to your students. Use this information and plan a variety of instructional options and teaching strategies that appeal to the different intelligences described by Gardner and others. Give all your students the chance to succeed.

GIVE EQUAL INSTRUCTIONAL ATTENTION The research on classroom interaction reflects subtle and not so subtle teacher biases. Male students tend to call out more than female students, and, even when males do not call out, teachers tend to call on them more than females. White students also garner more instructional time than students of color. The result is that white males receive more of the most precious items in the teacher's repertoire, time and attention. Even silence is not distributed equally. Teachers give males and perceived high achievers more wait time—more quiet time to respond to questions and to think about their answers. These patterns of bias are usually so subtle that teachers are not aware of them.

To avoid elusive interaction bias, you may want to ask a colleague, friend, or student to carefully and objectively tally the interactions you have with different students. Whom do you talk to the most? Who gets helped or praised the most? How is your wait time distributed?

FRAME OF REFERENCE

THE SONG IN HIS HEART

As I look back over a lifetime of teaching, one special student stands out. Kou was the most memorable student I've ever taught. Short, bandy-legged, and incredibly strong for a 13-year-old, he had come from a rural mountain village deep within Laos to my special-education class in the Santa Barbara suburbs. Although he was no bigger than an American nine-year-old, the hormones of puberty had thrown a dark fuzz over his lip. His voice was deep, a shock coming from that small a body. Often, he wore a bemused expression, compounded of amazement and tolerance for the Americans who were so different from his countrymen in pastoral Laos.

On the playground, Kou was king. He could throw farther, higher, and harder than any other child in school. He was unsurpassed at *hack*, a Laotian game played with the head and feet that seemed like a cross between volleyball and soccer. And in soccer, he was the best. He also carved wonderful wooden tops, which served as trade goods for the American treasures the other boys had.

In the classroom, however, Kou had a problem. The letters, numbers, and words that he painfully memorized one week seemed to vanish during the next.

Although I tried every trick in my teaching bag, nothing seemed to work. With my help, Kou attempted all sorts of experiments designed to help him learn: writing in colored chalk, making clay letters, drawing on the playground. Throughout every effort, he remained cheerful and willing. His attitude seemed to be, "Well, this is how it is in America." But his skills did not improve.

Over time, I noticed that Kou often sang to himself as he worked. "Kou, tell me about your song," I said one day. In his halting English, he told me that the song was about a woman whose man had left her all alone.

"Write it down, Mrs. Nolan," demanded La, his friend. And so our song translation project began. As the class chimed in and squabbled over the meaning of different words, Kou sang, thought, then said the words in his fractured English. I wrote the song down on a sheet of paper. When I was finished, the children all read the song aloud, then sang it with Kou. The next day, my students brought tapes of their native music to school. Suddenly, we had a full-fledged language-experience project underway! As we listened, hummed, and made illustrated booklets about the songs and read them back, the legends and stories of Laos and the Hmong people began to tumble from Kou. For the first time, he had a reason to communicate.

Brief, primitive, and loaded with mistakes, Kou's stories became the foundation for his reading, writing, and language instruction. Never a fan of basal readers, I used this experience as an opportunity to leave the textbooks behind. Kou's quickly improving skills were a source of pride for both of us. When Kou was 15, he left us for junior high. By then he could read at a third-grade level and do survival math. He still had that sweet smile and he still sang softly as he worked. He still longed for the hills of Laos and his old job of herding ducks beside a lake, but he spoke and wrote much better English.

And me? How much I had learned from Kou. Not only did he open the door into a rich and mysterious realm where ghosts walked and crocodiles roamed, but he taught me something about how to be a teacher. From him I learned about the value of starting with a student's interests—and about how powerful a learning tool sharing a culture can be.

SOURCE: Virginia Nolan, "The Song in His Heart," *Instructor* 101, no. 8 (1992), p. 94.

REFLECTION

The section on Multicultural Education lists four levels devised by James Banks. On what level would you place Mrs. Nolan's cultural approach?

Cooperative rather than competitive strategies can also help. Research shows that cooperative learning enhances not only achievement but relationships as well.¹⁴ When students of diverse ethnic and racial backgrounds work cooperatively, they learn to like and respect one another, as well as focus on higher academic goals. Cooperative learning also helps mainstreamed students with disabilities gain social acceptance. But do not expect the magic of cooperative learning without your active participation: Teachers need to monitor the groups, directly teaching social skills.¹⁵

Similar patterns of bias exist in instructional materials, as some groups receive more attention than others. Students in your class will naturally look for themselves in the curricular materials to see how they are presented. Will they find themselves in the materials that you use or will they be invisible? Are the instructional materials free of stereotypes? Are the views and information presented solely through Eurocentric eyes or are diverse perspectives included?

Because students spend an enormous amount of time working with textbooks and related materials, curricular choices are central to classroom learning. If you were, in fact, enrolled in our fictitious course, “Culture and Education 101,” you would undoubtedly invest a fair amount of time studying curriculum. One of the best-known writers in this area is James Banks, whose useful framework for incorporating multicultural concepts in the curriculum is described in the next section.

Multicultural Education

According to **James Banks**, the primary goal of **multicultural education** is to transform the school so that male and female students, exceptional students, and students from diverse cultural, social-class, racial, and ethnic groups experience an equal opportunity to learn.¹⁶ A key assumption of multicultural education is that students are more likely to achieve when the total **classroom climate** is more consistent with their diverse cultures and learning styles.

We have already discussed individual learning styles but have yet to focus on cultural learning styles. Some educators posit that, through **enculturation**, particular groups are likely to exhibit characteristic approaches to learning. For example, based on the groundbreaking work of **Carol Gilligan**, some studies show that women are more likely than men to personalize knowledge; in general, they prefer learning through experience and first-hand observation.¹⁷ Other research suggests that the African American culture emphasizes learning that is aural and participatory. When African American children are required to translate their participatory style onto a written test, they are likely to concentrate on the unaccustomed form of expression, to the detriment of their knowledge of the content.¹⁸ Multicultural educators say that, if we can identify and understand cultural learning styles, we can target curriculum and instruction more appropriately. Further research in cultural and gender learning styles holds the promise of transforming tomorrow’s schools.

Multicultural education also seeks to help all students develop more positive attitudes toward different racial, ethnic, cultural, and religious groups. According to a 1990s survey of more than one thousand young people between 15 and 24 conducted by People for the American Way, about half of the students described the state of race relations in the United States as generally bad. Fifty-five percent of African Americans and whites said they were “uneasy” rather than “comfortable” in dealing with members of the other racial group. However, most respondents felt their attitudes toward race relations were healthier than those of their parents.¹⁹

James Banks notes that one way to achieve more positive attitudes toward different groups is to integrate the curriculum, to make it more inclusive. He describes four approaches, described below and illustrated in Figure 2.3.²⁰ (Do you remember any of these approaches in your own schooling?)

1. Multicultural education often begins with the *contributions approach*, in which the study of ethnic heroes (for example, Sacajawea, Rosa Parks, or Booker T. Washington) is included in the curriculum. At this superficial contributions level,

FOCUS QUESTION

- (6) What are the different levels of multicultural education?

RELATED READING

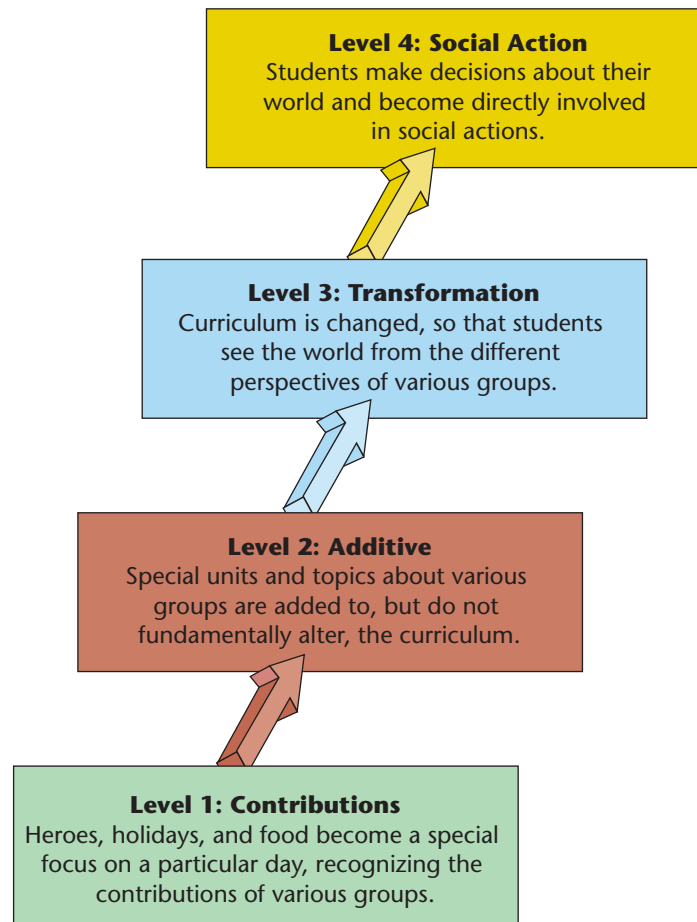
The Color of Water: A Black Man’s Tribute to His White Mother. by James McBride (1997).

OVERHEAD

20 Banks’ Approach to Multicultural Inclusion

MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCE CONNECTION

Let students explore their interpersonal intelligence. Have them identify 4 individuals in their circle of friends or acquaintances. Where do their friends stand on issues of multiculturalism?

**FIGURE 2.3**

Banks' approach to multicultural education.

REFLECTION

Think back to your own schooling. At which of Banks's levels would you place your own multicultural education? Provide supporting evidence. As a teacher, which of these levels do you want to reach and teach? Explain.

one might also find "food and festivals" being featured or such holidays as Cinco de Mayo being described or celebrated.

2. In the *additive approach*, a unit or course is incorporated, often but not always during a "special" week or month. February has become the month to study African Americans, while March has been designated "Women's History Month." Although these dedicated weeks and months offer a respite from the typical curricular material, no substantial change is made to the curriculum as a whole.
3. In the *transformation approach*, the entire Eurocentric nature of the curriculum is changed. Students are taught to view events and issues from diverse ethnic and cultural perspectives. For instance, the westward expansion of Europeans can be seen as manifest destiny through the eyes of European descendants, or as an invasion from the east, through the eyes of Native Americans.

Arguing that “love can conquer hate,” 14-year-old Aparna Noel Suri, of St. Paul, was chosen as the Most Philosophical Kid in America. Her essay described a neighborhood incident where a black couple faced hateful words from a neighbor by meeting with the neighbors, explaining who they were and why they were different. In the end, the two couples wept and embraced each other.

SOURCE: *Star Tribune* (Minneapolis, MN), May 13, 2001.

REFLECTION

What classroom activities could you undertake to foster the development of emotional intelligence around race and ethnic issues? Why are such efforts rare, and therefore newsworthy?



Click on *In the News* for recent *In the News* stories. Submit your own *In the News* summary to share with your colleagues.

4. The fourth level, *social action*, goes beyond the transformation approach.

Students not only learn to view issues from multiple perspectives but also

become directly involved in solving related problems. Rather than political passivity, the typical by-product of many curricular programs, this approach promotes decision making and social action in order to achieve multicultural goals and a more vibrant democracy. (See Chapter 7 for additional multicultural strategies and for a discussion of the debate concerning the place of multiculturalism in the curriculum.)



School learning environments in the future must accommodate a wide variety of individual and cultural learning styles.

Bilingual Education

What is going on in America? It is amazing, and disturbing, to ride on a road and see street signs that are printed not only in English but in other languages as well. What's more, even legal documents are now being written in foreign languages. How unnerving to walk down an American street and not understand what people are talking about. Maybe this isn't America. I feel like a stranger in my own land. Why don't they learn to speak English?

Sound like a stroll through today's Miami, or San Diego, or perhaps San Antonio? Good try, but you not only have the wrong city, you are also in the wrong century. Benjamin Franklin expressed this view in the 1750s.²¹ He was

disgruntled that Philadelphia had printed so many things, including street signs, in another language (German, in this case). Even the *Articles of Confederation* were published in German as well as English, and children were taught in Dutch, Italian, and Polish.

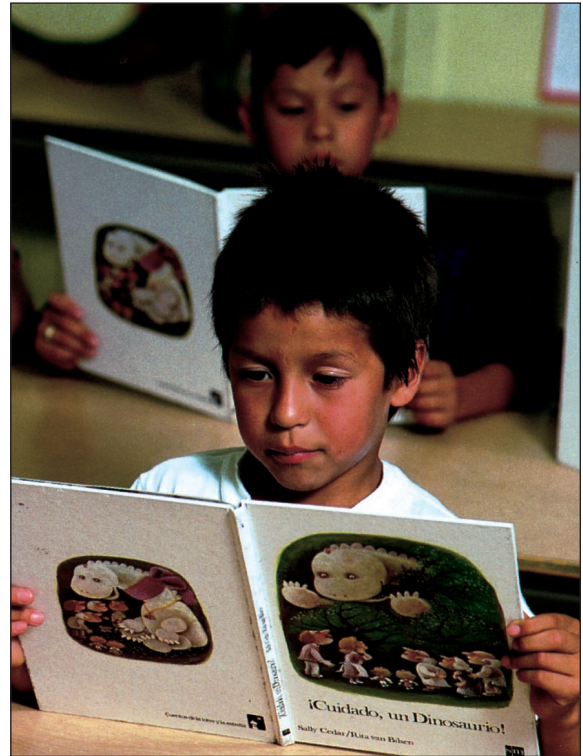
Bilingual education in America is hundreds of years old, hardly a “new” issue. In 1837, Pennsylvania law required that school instruction be given on an equal basis in German as well as English. In fact, that example provides us with a fairly concise definition of **bilingual education**, the use of two languages for instruction. But, almost a century later, as America was being pulled into World War I, foreign languages were seen as unpatriotic. Public pressure routed the German language from the curriculum, although nearly one in four high school students was studying the language at the time. Individual states went even further. Committed to a rapid assimilation of new immigrants, and suspicious of much that was foreign, these states prohibited the teaching of *any* foreign language during the first eight years of schooling. (The Supreme Court found this policy not only xenophobic but unconstitutional as well, in *Meyer v. State of Nebraska*, 1923.)²²

Despite the long history of bilingual education in this country, many school districts never really bought into the concept. In districts without bilingual education, students with a poor command of English had to sink or swim (or perhaps, more accurately, “speak or sink”). Students either learned to speak English as they sat in class—or they failed school, an approach sometimes referred to as **language submersion**. If submersion was not to their liking, they could choose to leave school. Many did.

Bilingual education had a rebirth in the 1960s, as the Civil Rights movement brought new attention to the struggles of many disenfranchised Americans, including non-English speakers trying to learn in a language they did not understand. And, unlike the 1800s, by the 1960s and 1970s education had become less an option and more a necessity, the threshold to economic success. To respond to this need, Congress passed the **Bilingual Education Act** in 1968. This act provided federal financial incentives, using what some people call “a carrot approach,” to encourage schools to initiate bilingual education programs. Not all districts chased the carrot.

From the start, the Bilingual Education Act was fraught with problems. The act lacked concrete recommendations for implementation and did not specify standards. Individual school districts and, in some cases, even individual schools, experimented with different approaches. The result was a patchwork of programs of varying quality, threadbare in spots and peppered with holes where no programs existed at all. In too many cases, the act simply failed to serve the students it was meant to serve.

During the early 1970s, disillusioned parents initiated lawsuits. In 1974, the Supreme Court heard the case of **Lau v. Nichols**. This class action lawsuit centered around Kinney Lau and 1,800 other Chinese students from the San Francisco area who were failing their courses because they could not understand English. The Court unanimously affirmed that federally funded schools must “rectify the language deficiency” of these students. Teaching students in a language they did not understand



In some bilingual education programs, English is learned as a second language, while the student takes other academic work in his or her native language.

FOCUS QUESTION

(7) What are the political and instructional issues surrounding bilingual education?

CLASS ACTIVITY: BILINGUAL EDUCATION

IM, Activity 2:3

ONLY A TEACHER VIDEO

Episode 1:V *Assimilating the Alien*
Time Code 40:25

GLOBAL VIEW

Xenophobia generally means fear and hatred of strangers or foreigners. While students may be new to the term, worldwide actions (by individuals, groups, and governments) should be familiar to them. What contemporary or historic events can they cite?

FRAME OF REFERENCE

THE HISTORY OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

1700–1800S: THE PERMISSIVE PERIOD

Linguistic and cultural tolerance maintained the peace in the new nation. Many schools offered content-related classes in languages other than English.

1900–1960S: THE RESTRICTIVE PERIOD

The anti-German hostility during World War I linked foreign languages with alien ideologies. Most states required that all schools teach all content courses in English, and promoted the Americanization of all immigrants.

1950S TO 1980S: THE OPPORTUNIST PERIOD

The Cold War demonstrated that the lack of linguistic ability was a strategic vulnerability, and federal laws were passed to encourage foreign language instruction. The Bilingual Education Act and the *Lau* Supreme Court decisions affirmed the civil rights of language-minority speakers. Schools explored numerous approaches to bilingual education.

1980S TO THE PRESENT: THE DISMISSIVE PERIOD

With the arrival of Presidents Reagan and Bush, an era of antibilingual education re-emerged. Federal support turned into federal hostility, and political movements such as “U.S. English,” “English First,” and “English Only” sprung up. State actions such as Proposition 227 in California required that English replace any other instructional language used in schools.

SOURCE: Carlos Ovando, “Bilingual Education in the United States: Historical Development and Current Issues.” Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association annual convention, Montreal, Canada, April 19–23, 1999.

REFLECTION

Why has teaching in English become a political issue, rather than an educational one? How does conservative political support for English-only courses conflict with conservative goals to enhance the nation’s performance in the global economy? Do you believe that bilingual education is a threat to national cohesion and stability?

was not an appropriate education. The Court’s decision in *Lau v. Nichols* prompted Congress to pass the **Equal Educational Opportunities Act (EEOA)**. Under this law, school districts must take positive steps to provide equal education for language-minority students by eliminating language barriers.

Typically in the bilingual approach, **limited English proficiency (LEP)** students learn English as a second language while taking other academic subjects in their native language. The **transitional approach** begins by using the native language as a bridge to English-language instruction. Academic subjects are first taught using the native language, but progressively the students transition to English, to their new language. This is the most widely used approach. The **maintenance, or developmental, approach** emphasizes the importance of maintaining both languages. The goal is to create a truly bilingual student, one who acquires English while maintaining competence in the native language. Students are instructed in both languages. **English as a Second Language (ESL)** supplements either the maintenance or transitional

FRAME OF REFERENCE

BILINGUAL AMNESIA

"My grandparents picked up English like everyone else back then, in school, where children learned their lessons in English, not in Spanish or Vietnamese."

"If people want to remain immersed in their old culture and old language, they should stay in their old country."

"Bilingual education has given us illiterate youngsters who can do little more than work at Taco Bell."

Sound familiar? After all, many of our ancestors came to America with few resources or funds, but they were able to learn English, pick up American ways, get through school, and succeed against great odds, so why can't today's immigrants do the same? According to Richard Rothstein—author of *The Way We Were?*—we suffer a bad case of national amnesia, and our recollection of history differs significantly from actual events. The author believes that some bilingual programs work well, and some do not. The key is to find out which are the effective ones and to move the issue of bilingual education out of the political arena and into objective evaluation. Rothstein reminds us that

- *Bilingual education is an American tradition.* In 1837, New York City established bilingual programs for German children, and, throughout the 1800s, Maryland, Colorado, Oregon, Kentucky, Indiana, and Iowa, to name but a few, established their own bilingual programs.
- *Opinions back then were also divided.* Some believed that the programs were essential for academic success, while others thought that they slowed down mastery of English. Then as now, individuals who were being taught in bilingual classrooms—Italian, German, Polish, French, Spanish, and so on—differed as to whether or not bilingual education was a good idea.
- *School performance for immigrants in English immersion programs was horrific.* From 1880 through the 1930s, immigrants were far more likely to drop out of school than to graduate, and they dropped out at much higher percentages than today's students.
- *Non-English-speaking students in New York City early in the twentieth century were 60 percent more likely than English speakers to be labeled "retarded,"* including more than a third of the Italian students.
- In most cases, immigrants to this country never mastered English. In fact, *it was not until the third generation that most immigrant groups became fluent enough in English to excel in school.*
- *As World War I pulled America into the conflict, communities across the nation reacted by eliminating not only bilingual education programs but even the teaching of foreign languages,* the most popular of which was German. It was not until the Supreme Court decision in the 1970s that bilingual education re-emerged as an issue in the nation's schools. And, by then, most Americans had not only forgotten the bilingual education programs of the past, but they had also forgotten what happened to students without them.

SOURCE: Adapted from Richard Rothstein, "Bilingual Education: The Controversy," *Phi Delta Kappan* 79, no. 9 (May 1998), pp. 672–78.

REFLECTION

Why do some Americans believe bilingual education is a relatively recent phenomenon? How are political beliefs reflected in the bilingual debate?

programs by providing special ESL classes for additional instruction in reading and writing English.

Two approaches which cannot truly be considered bilingual, language submersion and immersion, remind us of the "sink or swim" mentality but are used with LEP children nonetheless. Language submersion places students in classes where only English is spoken, and the student either learns English as the academic work progresses, or doesn't. **Immersion** is somewhat less rigid than submersion, because the teacher usually understands the native language and responds in English, sometimes using a "sheltered" or simplified English vocabulary.

TEACHING TIP

Demonstrate, by yourself or with a second language speaker, the four typical approaches to bilingual education: submersion, immersion, transitional, and maintenance. Have students distinguish the four and synthesize how language might impact learning.

FRAME OF REFERENCE

LANGUAGE SPOKEN AT HOME

Adult Americans who . . .	
Speak a language other than English	31,844,979 (about 14 percent)
Speak Spanish	17,345,064
Speak an Asian or Pacific Island language	4,471,621

About half of these Americans report that they do not speak English “very well.”

School-age Americans (ages 5–17) who . . .	
Speak a language other than English at home	6,322,934 (about 14 percent)
Live in households where everyone speaks a language other than English	4,834,637

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Language Use, Table 4 (1990). www.census.gov/population/www/socdemo/lang_use.html.

REFLECTION

In what way are these numbers an educational challenge? In what ways are these numbers an educational treasure? As a teacher, how will you meet the needs of limited English speakers?

- OVERHEAD
- 21 Approaches to Teaching Bilingual Students
- CRITICAL THINKING QUESTION
- Have students describe their in-school bilingual experiences. How did politics outside the school impact programs?

In schools using one or more of these approaches, problems persist. Consider the following:

. . . last week I saw an elementary school teacher who was teaching a class of 31 children in the third grade, and the 31 children spoke six languages, *none* of which was English. The teacher had one year of Spanish in her collegiate training.²³

As schools struggle to meet the needs of LEP students, bilingual education continues to spark political controversy. Millions of students speak hundreds of languages and dialects, including not only Spanish but Hmong, Urdu, Russian, Chinese, Polish, Korean, Tagalog, and Swahili. Misunderstandings are multiplied when language barriers are accompanied by racial and ethnic differences, leading to even greater isolation and segregation for many LEP students. And, while some struggle to make bilingual education work, others believe that it never will.

Opponents of bilingual education point to studies showing that first- and second-generation Hispanic students who attended bilingual programs from the 1970s to the 1990s earned considerably less money than Hispanics who attended “English only” classes. Moreover, Hispanic students who dropped out of bilingual programs were less likely to return and complete high school than were Hispanics who attended English-only programs.²⁴ LEP parents despair over their children’s lack of progress in learning English and graduating from school. The dropout rates for Hispanic students, the largest group of LEP students, hovers around 50 percent.²⁵ Many parents of students in bilingual programs now oppose these programs, an ironic turnabout, since it was parent protests in the 1960s and 1970s that forced reluctant schools and the federal government to initiate bilingual education. In 1998, more than 60 percent of the voters in California, including a sizable minority of Hispanic voters, supported an initiative to replace most bilingual maintenance programs with a fast-track transition to English. Proposition 227 required that LEP students be provided a year of English immersion instruction and then be shifted into regular classrooms where only English

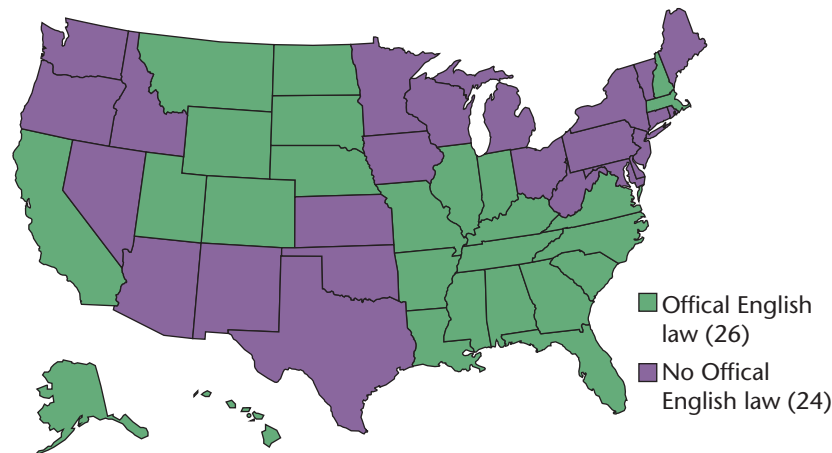


FIGURE 2.4
States with official English laws*

SOURCE: 2000, U.S. ENGLISH, Inc., www.us-english.org/inc/official/states.asp; see also English Plus, <http://ourworld.compuserve.com/homepages/JWCRAWFORD/engplus.htm>.

States with Official English Rule and Year Enacted

Alabama	1990	Mississippi	1987
Alaska	1998	Missouri	1998
Arkansas	1987	Montana	1995
California	1986	Nebraska	1920
Colorado	1988	New Hampshire	1995
Florida	1988	North Carolina	1987
Georgia	1986 & 1996	North Dakota	1987
Hawaii*	1978	South Carolina	1987
Illinois	1969	South Dakota	1995
Indiana	1984	Tennessee	1984
Kentucky	1984	Utah	2000
Louisiana*	1811	Virginia	1981 & 1996
Massachusetts	1975	Wyoming	1996

*Hawaii has recognized English and Hawaiian as official languages. An 1811 “enabling act” requires Louisiana to keep records in English. Arizona’s 1988 Official English amendment was overturned by the Arizona State Supreme Court in April, 1998.

REFLECTION

Do you see any pattern in which states have passed this law? Does this influence your decision as to where you might want to teach? Do you believe such English Only laws have any practical impact?

is spoken, unless their parents obtain a waiver. Several other states followed suit. The legality of such state laws is in the courts as of this writing.²⁶

Many people worry that bilingual education threatens the status of English as the nation’s primary vehicle of communication. As a result, an **English-only movement** has emerged (see Figure 2.4). Those who support this movement feel that English is a unifying national bond that preserves our common culture. They believe that English should be the only language used or spoken in public and that the purpose of bilingual education should be to quickly teach English to LEP students. In fact, they

assert that bilingual education hurts LEP students, by making them dependent on their native language and discouraging them from learning English.

Bilingual education advocates argue that America is a mosaic of diverse cultures and that diversity should be honored and nurtured. One problem, they point out, is that we simply do not have enough competent bilingual teachers who can respond to the large numbers of LEP children now in our schools.²⁷ Bilingual advocates oppose the English-only movement, and they feel that it promotes intolerance, will turn back the clock, and may very well be unconstitutional. Education writer James Crawford points out, "It is certainly more respectable to discriminate by language than by race. . . . Most people are not sensitive to language discrimination in this nation, so it is easy to argue that you're doing someone a favor by making them speak English."²⁸

Through the 1990s, the opponents of bilingual education gained ground as Congress sharply reduced funding for bilingual education. Moreover, a score of "English-only" bills made their way through various state legislatures and Congress. The future of bilingual education is still being defined.

What does the research say about the effectiveness of bilingual education? Unfortunately, the research is not clear. Educators are just now beginning to analyze long-term data, and they are uncovering some useful findings. In one case, the researchers found that when language-minority students spend more time learning in their native language, they are more likely to achieve at comparable and even higher levels in English.²⁹ Another study found that the earlier a student starts learning a new language, the more effective that language becomes in an academic setting.³⁰ Yet another study showed that no single approach holds a monopoly on success, and different approaches to bilingual education can each be effective, suggesting that local school systems should carefully select the programs most appropriate for their communities.³¹

One major bilingual study directed by Virginia Collier and Wayne Thomas evaluated the experiences by 42,000 students over a thirteen-year period. Early findings suggested that the students enrolled in well-implemented bilingual programs actually *outperform* the students in monolingual programs. One successful approach assumed bilingual education to be a two-way street, one in which English speakers and LEP students would learn from each other. In this model, during the Spanish part of the day, the Spanish-speaking students explained the lessons to native-English peers, while, during English instruction, the reverse took place. Collier and Thomas report that, by fourth grade, the students in these two-way classes had actually outperformed the native English speakers who attended English-only classes.³²

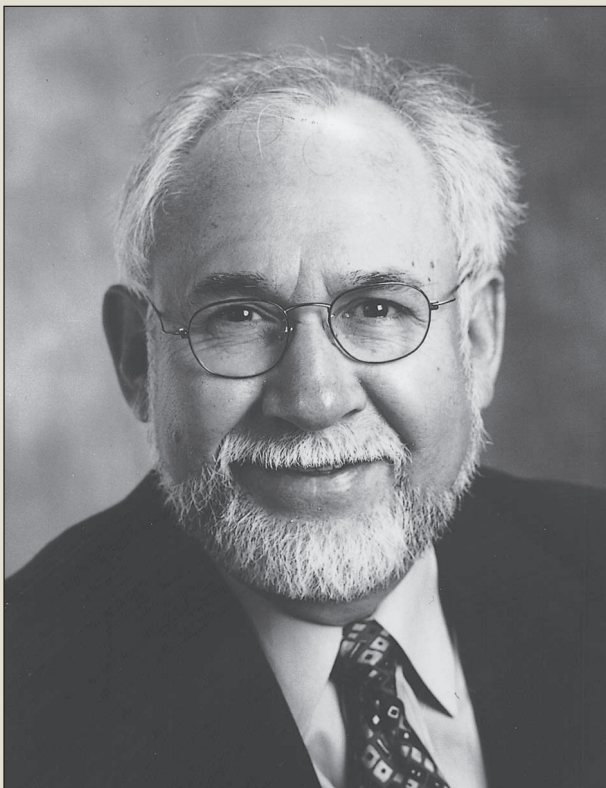
More than two centuries ago, Ben Franklin expressed his fears about the multiple languages heard on America's streets. His concerns have echoed through the centuries, despite a world in which national borders seem to be blurring or even disappearing. In today's global community, Russians and Americans are working together in space, such international organizations as the United Nations and NATO are expanding their membership, and corporations are crossing national boundaries to create global mergers in an international marketplace. Moreover, technological breakthroughs, such as the Internet, have made international communications not just possible but commonplace. However, for most Americans, these international conversations are viable only if the other side speaks English. In this new international era, Americans find themselves locked in a monolingual society. How strange that, instead of viewing those who speak other languages as welcome assets to our nation, some seem eager to erase linguistic diversity.

OVERHEADS

- 22 States with Official English Laws
- 23 U.S. School Districts with Highest LEP Enrollments
- 24 Percentage of School-Aged Limited English Proficient Students

CRITICAL THINKING QUESTION

With English as the most common second language in the world (and the language of international business, air travel, and technology) why do today's educators need bilingual skills?



Why am I not allowed to speak Spanish at school? Why do Mexican students seem ashamed of speaking Spanish? Am I stupid for not learning English quickly so that I can do the assignments? Why are there no teachers who look like me and who share my culture and language? And why did my parents leave the warmth and comfort of Central America for the indifference and coldness of the United States?¹

It was 1955. Carlos Julio Ovando had emigrated from Nicaragua and was anxious to show his teachers what he knew. But educationally disenfranchised by his linguistic and cultural background, he could not.

The promise of religious freedom and economic stability had motivated the Ovando family's move to Corpus Christi, Texas. In Nicaragua, the Somoza dictatorship opposed the vigorous attempts of Ovando's father, a former priest turned Protestant minister, to convert Catholics. The family was exiled. Yet, their Latin American heritage remained strong. Even after emigrating, Nicaraguan cultural traditions continued in the Ovando home and discussions of spiritual values were central to the family's daily life.

While home was a cultural touchstone for Ovando, school was foreign territory. Unable to understand the lessons in

English, he felt abandoned. At age 14, Carlos was placed in the sixth grade and wondered, "Why do teachers show little interest in who I am?" In Nicaragua, the family was entrusted with home life and the school took care of the academic lessons. But school was clearly not working for Carlos.

I do not recall my parents ever asking to see my report cards or expressing interest in visiting my school to talk to my teachers about my progress. As in the case with many other newly arrived immigrants, it may be that while tacitly interested in my academic well-being, my parents did not know how or were afraid to approach the unfamiliar American schools.²

Disconnected from school and doubtful of his own abilities, Ovando was experiencing education that was not so much immersion as submersion, the classic "sink or swim" approach, and Ovando was sinking, looking at America from the bottom of the pool. Ironically, a different kind of pool, a pool hall, provided to be the turning point in his life.

The turning point in my academic career began when somebody in the church congregation saw me coming out of a pool hall and told my father. Soon after that, in the hope of saving me from sin, my father sent me to a Mennonite high school in northern Indiana.³

At the new school, a teacher saw Ovando in an entirely different way. Not so much English challenged, as Spanish blessed. He affirmed Ovando's Latin American roots and championed his native linguistic talent. Spurred by his teacher's encouragement, Ovando rediscovered confidence in his academic abilities. Rather than being punished for speaking Spanish, his language talents were acclaimed. He won honors, including college scholarships. Ovando now reveled in the world of ideas. He taught Spanish in a Midwest high school before going on to college teaching and writing.

His work shows how language is much more than a set of words and grammar rules: It can be a cultural link for students, one that promotes academic achievement. While critics see bilingual education as a threat to national identity, Ovando envisions a society built on the strengths of its diverse population. He challenges teachers to unlock each student's cultural touchstones: "Pedagogy that activates the student voice and embraces the local community provides a much richer environment for student understanding than pedagogy that treats students as if they were empty vessels into which knowledge is to be poured."⁴

¹Adapted from Carlos J. Ovando and Virginia P. Collier, *Bilingual and ESL Classrooms: Teaching in Multicultural Contexts*, 2nd ed. (Boston: McGraw-Hill, 1998), p. 2.

²Ibid, p. 2.

³Ibid, p. 3.

⁴Ibid, p. 24.

REFLECTION

How is the history of bilingual education in America reflected in Ovando's story? What is the downside of promoting a monolingual society? How do you explain the popularity of the effort to make English the "official language" in the United States? Why has the maintenance approach encountered so much difficulty? If you were to teach a student like Ovando, how could you tackle these linguistic and cultural challenges?



WRITE YOUR OWN PROFILE IN EDUCATION:

Click on *Profiles in Education*, write a *Profile in Education* about an educator, and post it on the Online Learning Center. Check out the *Profiles in Education* submitted by other future teachers.

To learn more about Carlos Ovando, click on *Profiles in Education*.

Exceptional Learners

FOCUS QUESTION

(8) How are the needs of special learners met in today's classrooms?

CLASS ACTIVITY: EXCEPTIONAL LEARNERS

IM, Activity 2:5

In a typical classroom, a teacher faces students with a great range of abilities, from students reading years behind grade level to students reading years ahead. Both these groups of students are described by the same broad term: **exceptional learners**. Integrating exceptional learners into the regular classroom adds further challenge to the job of teaching diverse students.

Typically, exceptional learners are categorized as follows:

- Students with mental retardation
- Students with learning disabilities
- Students with emotional disturbance or behavior disorders
- Students with hearing and language impairments
- Students with visual impairments
- Students with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder
- Students with other health and physical impairments
- Students with severe and multiple disabilities
- Gifted and talented students³³

Today, children with disabilities constitute approximately 12 percent of the school-age population. Twice as many males as females are identified as disabled. Most students with disabilities who attend public schools are learning disabled (46 percent), another 18 percent have speech and language impairments, and 10 percent are mentally retarded. Almost 90 percent of students receiving special education are considered "mildly handicapped."³⁴

We will end this chapter with a close look at issues and developments in teaching exceptional learners, from students with disabilities to gifted and talented learners. Inclusion of each of these populations stretches not only the range of diversity in the classroom but also the range of skills you will need in order to meet the needs of all your students.³⁵

Exceptional Learners: An Exceptional Struggle for Educational Rights

Perhaps you have read the book *Karen*. It is the story of a child with cerebral palsy, a child who persevered despite devastating obstacles. A formidable obstacle was an

educational system that had no room for children with disabilities. The book was written by Karen's mother, who, like her daughter, refused the rejection of a hostile school and society. She wrote of her attempts to gain educational rights for her daughter and other children with disabilities:

We constantly sought a remedy for this appalling situation which deprived so many of an education, and eventually we found a few doctors and educators who had made strides in developing valid testing methods for handicapped children. On one occasion, when I voiced a plea for the education of the handicapped, a leading state official retorted, "It would be a waste of the state's money. They'll never get jobs."

We were frequently discouraged and not a little frightened as many of our "learned" men [sic] felt the same way.³⁶

Such disparaging attitudes were common in our society for years and resulted in inadequate educational programs for millions of exceptional children. Today, the educational rights of these children have been mandated by courts of law and are being put into practice in classrooms across the nation.

Before the Revolutionary War, the most that was offered to exceptional children was protective care in asylums. The asylums made little effort to help these children develop their physical, intellectual, and social skills. Following the American Revolution, however, the ideals of democracy and the development of human potential swept the nation. Within this humanist social context, procedures were devised for teaching the blind and the deaf. Then, in the early 1800s, attempts were made to educate the "idiotic" and the "insane" children who today would be called "mentally retarded" or "emotionally disturbed."

For many years, the legal system mirrored society's judgment that the best policy toward the disabled was "out of sight, out of mind." The courts typically saw education as a privilege rather than a right, and they ruled that children with disabilities should be excluded from schools. The notion was that the majority of children needed to be protected from those with disabilities: from the disruptions they might precipitate, from the excessive demands they might make, and from the discomfort their presence in classrooms might cause.

The years following World War II brought renewed hope and promise. Such pioneers as Grace Fernald, Marianne Frostig, and Heinz Werner—to name but a few—conducted research, developed programs, and gave new impetus to the field of **special education**. Their work was aided by the emergence of new disciplines, such as psychology, sociology, and social work. Parents also continued their struggle, individually and collectively, to obtain educational opportunities for children with disabilities. They took their cause to both the schools and the courts. Special education has broken away from the isolation and institutionalization so common in the late nineteenth century and has moved to mainstream exceptional children, as much as possible, into typical school settings.

By the 1970s, court decisions and federal law had established five critical principles of special education:

1. **Zero reject.** The principle of zero reject asserts that no child with disabilities may be denied a free, appropriate public education. Representatives of the disabled have asserted that excluding children with disabilities from public schools violates the constitutional interpretation behind the Supreme Court's *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) decision, which put an end to claims of "separate but equal" schooling. The courts have responded with landmark decisions in Pennsylvania (*Pennsylvania Association for Retarded Children v. Commonwealth*) and in Washington, DC (*Mill v. D.C. Board of Education*) that mandate public schools in

CLASS ACTIVITY: HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES ON SPECIAL EDUCATION
IM, Activity 2:6

OVERHEADS

25 Critical Principles of Special Education
26 Special Education: Percentage Distribution of Students 6–21 with Disabilities, By Educational Environment

those jurisdictions to provide a free, appropriate education to all children with disabilities. Other federal and state decisions have followed suit.

2. **Nondiscriminatory education.** The principle of nondiscriminatory education, based on the Fifth and Fourteenth Amendments of the U.S. Constitution, mandates that children with disabilities be fairly assessed, so that they can be protected from inappropriate classification and tracking. Much of the court activity in this area has centered on the disproportionate number of children of color assigned to special education classes, a situation that some claim is the result of biased testing. In one case, a court ruled that IQ tests could not be used for placing or tracking students. Other courts have forbidden the use of tests that are culturally biased, and still others have ordered that testing take place in the children's native language.
3. **Appropriate education.** While the principle of zero reject assures that children with disabilities will receive an appropriate public education, it is important to recognize that this principle goes beyond simply allowing children with disabilities to pass through the schoolhouse door. The term "appropriate education" implies that these children have the right to an education involving the accurate diagnosis of individual needs, as well as responsive programs keyed to those needs.
4. **Least-restrictive environment.** The principle of least-restrictive environment protects children with disabilities from being inappropriately segregated from their age-group peers. Court decisions have urged that special classes and separate schools be avoided unless a child's disabilities are such that education in a regular classroom with the aid of special materials and supportive services cannot be achieved.
5. **Procedural due process.** The principle of procedural due process upholds the right of the disabled to protest a school's decisions about their education. Due process entails the right of children with disabilities and their parents to be notified of school actions and decisions; to challenge those decisions before an impartial tribunal, using counsel and expert witnesses; to examine the school records on which a decision is based; and to appeal whatever decision is reached.

These five principles of special education law are encompassed in landmark federal legislation passed in 1975, **Public Law 94-142**, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act. This law offers states financial support to make a free and appropriate public education available to every child with disabilities. It was replaced and expanded in 1991 by the **Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA)**, which not only provided a more sensitive description of the act's purpose but also extended the act's coverage to all disabled learners between the ages of 3 and 21, including individuals with autism or traumatic brain injuries. IDEA also provided for rehabilitation and social work services. IDEA requires that each disabled child "have access to the program best suited to that child's special needs which is as close as possible to a normal child's educational program."³⁷ Classroom teachers shoulder the responsibilities of monitoring the needs of each child with disabilities placed in their classrooms and of using constructive procedures to meet their needs. The law further states that an **individualized education program (IEP)** be developed to provide a written record of those needs and procedures. The law states that an IEP must be written for each child who receives special education services. The IEP must include:

A statement of the student's current performance, including long-term (annual) goals and short-term objectives

A description of the nature and duration of the instructional services designed to meet the prescribed goals

An overview of the methods of evaluation that will be used to monitor the child's progress and to determine whether the goals and objectives have been met

There is no specific IEP form that must be used, as long as goals, objectives, services, and evaluation are accurately reflected. In fact, hundreds of different IEP forms are currently in use; some run as long as twenty pages; others are only two or three pages. New teachers should learn about their school district's norms and procedures for writing IEPs when they begin teaching. Remember, it is not the format that is important but, rather, whether or not the IEP accurately describes the educational needs and the related remedial plans. While writing these IEPs will undoubtedly consume a great deal of a teacher's time and energy, it often leads to better communication among the school staff, as well as between teachers and parents. Also, the practice of preparing IEPs will likely lead to more effective individualization of instruction for all children, not just those with disabilities.

IDEA has been one of the most thoroughly litigated federal laws in history. Parents whose children qualify for special education services can and do sue the school district if they believe their children's needs are not being met. Local courts agreeing with parents' views have ordered public schools to hire extra teachers or specialized personnel or to spend additional dollars to provide an appropriate education. When judges believe that a school is unable to meet the special needs of a child, even with these additional resources, they can and have ordered the public school to pay the tuition so that the student can attend a private school. The practice of judges ordering public schools to pay the private school tuition of some special needs children is currently being reviewed by the Supreme Court.³⁸

There is considerable confusion in identifying learning-disabled (LD) students, in deciding who is entitled to additional resources. Educational literature reflects more



Public Law 94-142 placed students with disabilities into regular classrooms, so that they receive the "least-restrictive" education possible.

than fifty terms to describe students with **learning disabilities**. Some believe that *learning disabled* has become a catchall term for many children whose achievement does not match their potential. Over the past decade, the number of children defined as needing special education services has multiplied, sharply driving up education costs as well.³⁹ Moreover, there is a disturbing pattern suggesting race bias in special education placement. African American children are almost three times as likely as are white children to be labeled mentally retarded.⁴⁰

Some question the effectiveness of current practices. For instance, many students with mild disabilities attend regular classrooms for part of the day but leave for a period of time to receive special instruction in a resource room. Recently, these “pull-out” programs have been charged with stigmatizing students while failing to improve their academic performance. Many who criticize pulling children out of mainstreamed classes for special education are proponents of what is known as the **regular education initiative**. This initiative endorses the placement of special needs children in a regular class from the start and emphasizes close collaboration between the regular classroom teacher and special educators in order to offer special services *within* the regular classroom. By the late 1990s about half of the students with disabilities spent 80 percent or more of the school day in a regular classroom.⁴¹ Debate over the best way to educate students with disabilities is certain to continue. (See Figure 2.5.)⁴²

Regular classroom teachers often express concerns about their ability to handle a mainstreamed classroom:

They want us all to be super teachers, but I’ve got 33 kids in my class and it’s really a job to take care of them without also having to deal with special needs kids too. I’m not complaining really—I wouldn’t want to do anything other than what I’m doing—but it is demanding.⁴³

VIDEO SEGMENT 2:

Accommodations for
Students with
Special Needs
IM, V:2

OVERHEAD

27 Accommodations for
Special Needs

Classroom teachers are expected to meet many of society’s needs, including the education of special needs students, but are not always given adequate tools to meet those expectations. Frustration is often the result. To succeed with special education students, teachers could benefit from additional time to plan with other professionals, the availability of appropriate curricular materials, perhaps extra classroom assistance, and on-going staff development programs that provide up-to-date instructional strategies. In any case, for **mainstreaming** (also termed **inclusion**) to succeed, teachers must genuinely support the integration of students with disabilities into their classrooms. They must be committed to exploding stereotypes and must recognize the essential value of helping all children learn to understand and accept differences. Although we have emphasized the legal decisions that prompted the mainstreaming movement, inclusion is at its heart a moral issue, one that raises the timeless principles of equality, justice, and the need for all of us to learn to live and grow together—not apart.

The Gifted and Talented

Precocious children are among our most neglected students. They, too, have special needs:

In Chicago, the school system turned down the request of a 5-year-old boy who wanted to enter school early. While he waits to be allowed to enter kindergarten, the boy spends his time in the public library doing independent research in astronomy and geography. His IQ has been measured at more than 180.

	1989–90	1998–99	Percent Change
Specific Learning Disabilities	2,062,076	2,817,148	36.6%
Speech and Language Impairments	974,256	1,074,548	10.3
Mental Retardation	563,902	611,076	8.4
Emotional Disturbance	381,639	463,262	21.4
Multiple Disabilities	87,957	107,763	22.5
Hearing Impairments	57,906	70,883	22.4
Orthopedic Impairments	48,050	69,495	44.6
Other Health Impairments	52,733	220,831	318.7
Visual Impairments	22,866	26,132	14.3
Autism	NA	53,576	b
Deaf-Blindness	1,633	1,609	–1.5
Traumatic Brain Injury	NA	12,933	
Developmental Delay	NA	11,910	c
All Disabilities	4,253,018	5,541,166	30.3

^aData from 1989–90 through 1993–94 include children with disabilities served under Chapter 1 of ESEA (SOP). Beginning in 1994–95, all services to students with disabilities were provided under IDEA only.

^bAutism and traumatic brain injury were first required to be reported in 1992–93. The percentage increase for these disability categories between 1992–93 and 1998–99 was 243.9 percent and 226.6 percent, respectively.

^cDevelopmental delay was first reported in 1997–98. The percentage increase between the two years was 214.1 percent.

FIGURE 2.5
Number of students ages 6 through 21 served under IDEA.^a

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs, Data Analysis System (DANS). 22nd Annual Report to Congress (2000), Table II-2.

REFLECTION

How do you explain the increases in the special education population? What factors might contribute to the high identification of children in some racial or ethnic groups as needing special education?

In Westchester County, a suburb of New York City, a 2½-year-old boy already emulates the language abilities of his parents. He speaks and reads English, French, Hebrew, Spanish, and Yiddish, and he has mastered some Danish. He is studying music theory and is conducting scientific experiments. The parents, however, are unable to find any educational facility willing and able to educate their young, gifted child. A member of their local school board told them: “It is not the responsibility or function of public schools to deal with such children.” As a result, the parents considered moving to Washington state, where there was an experimental preschool program for the gifted.⁴⁴

If you are like most Americans, you may find it difficult to consider gifted and talented children to be in any way disadvantaged. After all, **gifted learners** are the lucky ones who master subject matter with ease. They are the ones who shout out the solution before most of us have a chance to write down the problem. Others may have perfect musical pitch, are athletic superstars, become the class leaders who



YOU BE THE JUDGE

SPECIAL NEEDS STUDENTS

Should Be Mainstreamed Because . . .

WITHOUT INCLUSION, OUR DEMOCRATIC IDEAL IS HOLLOW

Segregating the disabled mirrors the historical segregation of African Americans and other groups, a segregation already rejected by the courts. Separate can never be equal, and all students quickly learn the stigma associated with those in “special” classrooms.

SOCIETY NEEDS THE TALENTS OF ALL ITS CITIZENS

Society needs the skills and economic productivity of all our citizens. Educating the disabled in a segregated setting decreases their opportunity for full and meaningful contributions later in life.

MAINSTREAMING IMPROVES THEIR ACADEMIC AND SOCIAL RELATIONS

Studies indicate that special needs students perform better academically when mainstreamed in regular classes. Not surprisingly, their social adjustment is also improved.

THE NONDISABLED GAIN WHEN SPECIAL NEEDS STUDENTS ARE PRESENT

In our increasingly stratified society, students can spend years in school with peers just like themselves. Inclusion provides an opportunity for children to appreciate and work with people who do not necessarily reflect their own experiences and viewpoints.

Should Not Be Mainstreamed Because . . .

MERELY SITTING IN REGULAR CLASSROOMS DOES NOT GUARANTEE A FITTING EDUCATION

A rallying cry like “democracy” sounds impressive, but we need to ensure that special needs students receive a quality education, and the best place for that is not necessarily in a mainstreamed classroom.

PULL-OUT PROGRAMS CAN OFFER SPECIAL NEEDS STUDENTS THE RESOURCES THEY NEED TO SUCCEED

Pull-out programs for special needs children can offer an adjusted curriculum, special instructional techniques, and smaller class size. Special needs students can soar in classrooms designed to meet their needs, but flounder when they are inappropriately placed in regular classes.

GIFTED AND TALENTED STUDENTS ARE AT PARTICULAR RISK

Gifted and talented students fall within the special needs category, and for them, mainstreaming is a disaster. If the gifted are not challenged, they will be turned off from school, and the gifts of our most able students will be lost to society.

WHEN SPECIAL NEEDS STUDENTS ARE MAINSTREAMED, NONDISABLED STUDENTS SUFFER

As teachers in regular classes adjust learning activities to accommodate the special needs students, other students lose out. The extra time, special curriculum, and attention given to special needs students amount to time and resources taken from others in the class.

SOURCE: Many of these arguments are found in greater detail in Jack L. Nelson, Stuart B. Palonsky, and Kenneth Carlson, *Critical Issues in Education: Dialogue and Dialectics* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 2000), pp. 416–42.



YOU BE THE JUDGE

What training would help you meet the special needs of students mainstreamed into your classroom? Can “separate” ever be “equal”? Whose needs are of most worth, those of special needs students, or of “regular” students? Do their needs actually conflict? As a teacher, would you want special needs children mainstreamed, or pulled out? Imagine yourself the parent of a special needs child. Would you want your child mainstreamed, or pulled out?

inspire us, or demonstrate insights that amaze and inform us. Many exhibit endless curiosity, creativity, and energy. Small wonder that there is relatively little national support for extra funds or programs targeted at these gifted students, the ones who make the rest of us feel somewhat uncomfortable, inadequate, and sometimes just plain envious.

Defining *giftedness*, like defining *learning disabilities*, invites controversy. To some, the traditional definition of *giftedness* includes those with an IQ of 130 or higher; to others, the label *giftedness* is reserved for those with an IQ score of 160 or higher. Still others, such as Gardner and Goleman, have expanded the concept of gifted to include those with special creative or artistic abilities, athletic prowess, interpersonal gifts, or emotional insights.

Education experts Joseph Renzulli and C. H. Smith described the gifted in somewhat traditional terms, as those who demonstrate

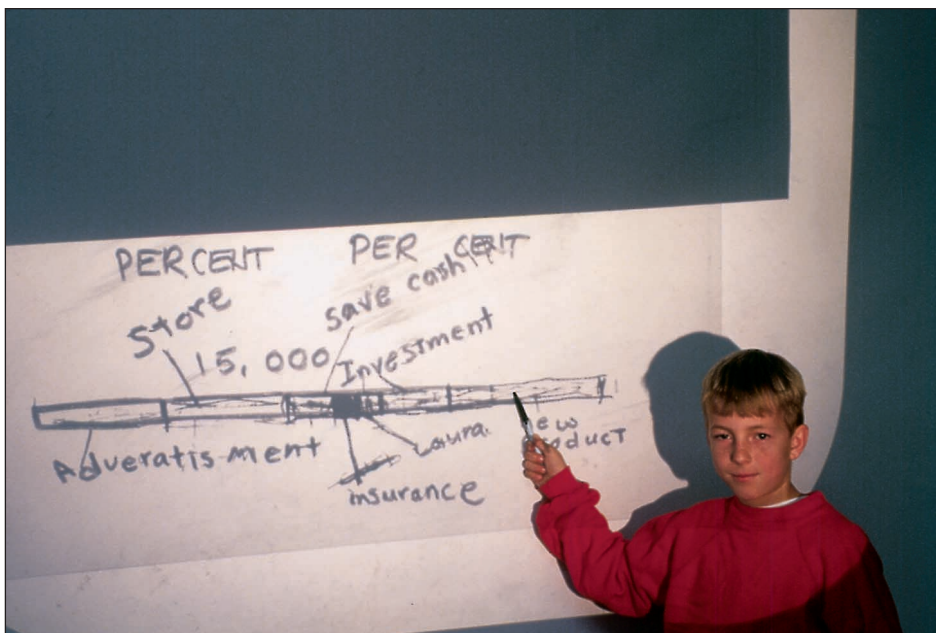
1. High ability
2. High creativity
3. High motivation and persistence (the drive to initiate and complete a task)⁴⁵

According to Renzulli and Smith, a child who is better than 85 percent of his or her peers in all three areas, and who exceeds 98 percent in at least one area, can be classified as gifted.

Another researcher, **Robert Sternberg**, has identified three major types of giftedness: analytic, synthetic, and practical. Students who are gifted analytically excel at dissecting problems and understanding their parts. Analytically gifted students usually do well on conventional tests of intelligence. Synthetic giftedness occurs in people who are creative, intuitive, or insightful. Individuals who are practically gifted can go into real-world situations, figure out what needs to be done, and negotiate and work with people to accomplish the task.⁴⁶

CRITICAL THINKING QUESTION

Exclusivity can invite hostility. Do students have any experience of this from their schooling? How might teachers overcome negative student tags for bright students (nerd, geek, oreo)?



Until recently, schools did little to accommodate the special needs of the gifted and talented.

FRAME OF REFERENCE

THE WAY THEY WERE

A FEW OF THE PEOPLE IDENTIFIED WITH PHYSICAL, LEARNING AND SPEECH DISABILITIES:

Moses, Demosthenes, Aesop, Cotton Mather, Benjamin Franklin, Clara Barton, Harriet Tubman, Charles Darwin, Jane Addams, Franklin Delano Roosevelt, Congresswoman Carolyn McCarthy, and James Earl Jones.

THE FOLLOWING INDIVIDUALS WERE ASKED TO LEAVE SCHOOL, DROPPED OUT OR FOUND ALTERNATIVES TO THE ADOLESCENT SCHOOL SCENE:

Salvador Dali, Whoopi Goldberg, Beryl Markham, Edgar Allan Poe, George Bernard Shaw, Percy Bysshe Shelley, James Whistler, and Frank Lloyd Wright.

REFLECTION

Do you know accomplished individuals who did not do well in school? How could education respond to the unique needs of these individuals? (You may want to research the learning issues of these well-known people.)

While definitions of *giftedness* vary, only a small percentage of our population possesses this high degree of ability, creativity, motivation, or pragmatic talent, making for a very exclusive club. Exclusivity can invite hostility. Since most people are, by definition, excluded from this highly select group, few believe that the gifted merit any special educational attention. To many Americans, it seems downright undemocratic to provide special services to children who already enjoy an advantage. While many parents of gifted children are strong advocates for their children, some parents of the gifted have shown reluctance to request additional educational programs for their children.

Many gifted students do not make it on their own. Highly talented young people suffer boredom and negative peer pressure when kept in regular classroom settings.⁴⁷ Instead of thriving in school, they drop out. The result is that many of our nation's brightest and most competent students are lost to neglect and apathy, and some of our most talented youth have not always succeeded at school.

Even in school districts that recognize the special needs of gifted children, opposition to providing special programs and educational opportunities continues. In some cases, funds are lacking; in others, little interest and commitment to the gifted may be the problem. Some object to special programs for the gifted because they see it as a form of tracking, an undemocratic strategy that separates the gifted from the rest of the population.

Research shows that a significant number of gifted students contemplate suicide. Gifted students may be haunted by a sense of isolation and loneliness, pressure to achieve, and fear of failure.⁴⁸ Talent, giftedness, and creativity set adolescents apart at a time when the push is for conformity, for being "normal" and "like everybody else." Gifted students most often talk about their feelings of isolation:

I feel as though I'll never fit in any place, no matter how hard I try.

Basically, the challenge in my schooling has not been academic, but having to conform—to be just like everyone else in order to be accepted.

I hate it when people use you. For example, if you have an incredible vocabulary and someone wants your help writing a speech, and then later they tell you to get lost.⁴⁹

The picture is especially dismal for females and children of color who are identified as gifted, and once identified, are more likely to drop out than gifted white males. Many experts urge the use of multiple criteria for identifying and retaining gifted students, including teacher recommendations and assessments of special talents, so that such programs could be more equitable and inclusive.

Once identified, there is no guarantee that gifted students will find high-quality programs. The regular classroom remains a major instructional resource for gifted students. For instance, a gifted student might spend most of the day in a regular class and be pulled out for a part of the day, perhaps an hour or so, to receive special instruction. Another approach is to set up resource centers within the regular classroom, where gifted students are offered individualized tutoring.⁵⁰ At the secondary level, comprehensive high schools have augmented their offerings with challenging courses of study, such as the International Baccalaureate (IB) program, an internationally recognized degree program that includes rigorous science, math, and foreign language requirements. Special high schools, such as the Bronx High School of Science and the North Carolina School for Mathematics and Science, have long and distinguished histories of providing educational opportunities for intellectually gifted students. Other special schools have focused on programs in acting, music, and dance. Yet many believe that we need to do a better job of “gifted inclusion,” by designing regular class activities that are more responsive to the needs of the gifted.⁵¹

Some school districts go beyond their own resources in order to meet the needs of gifted students. For instance, one such program connects gifted high school students with the local college or community college. These students spend part of their day enrolled in college-level courses, being intellectually challenged and receiving college credit while still enrolled in high school. Still other gifted students receive additional instruction through summer camps or even special year-long programs that augment their regular courses. Johns Hopkins University, for example, has been sponsoring the Center for Talented Youth (CTY) in different parts of the nation for several decades.

Many of these college programs are termed **accelerated programs**, for they allow gifted students to skip grades or receive college credit early. **Advanced placement** courses and exams (the APs), provide similar acceleration opportunities, permitting students to graduate before their chronological peers. While many Americans accept the notion of enrichment for the gifted, acceleration runs into stronger opposition. The common belief that the negative social consequences of acceleration outweigh the intellectual benefits represents an obstacle to implementing such programs for the gifted.

Whereas social maladjustment due to acceleration may indeed be a problem for some gifted children, others claim they feel just as comfortable, both academically and socially, with their intellectual peers as they do with their chronological peers. Yet, not accelerating gifted children may lead to boredom, apathy, frustration, and even ridicule. Several studies confirm the value of acceleration, from early admission to elementary school to early admission to college. Grade-accelerated students surpass their classmates in academic achievement and complete higher levels of education. While research suggests that grade acceleration does not cause problems in social and emotional adjustment, cases of students who found acceleration to be a disaster are also plentiful.⁵² No single program is likely to meet the needs of all gifted students.

Recognition of the special needs of the gifted has been slow in coming. It is estimated that most school systems provide special gifted services to between 7 and 12 percent of their students. However, with the current trend away from ability grouping, tracking, and special programs, it is possible that fewer resources will be available for the gifted in the years ahead.⁵³

RELATED READING

And Still We Rise: The Trials and Triumphs of Twelve Gifted Inner-City High School Students by Miles Corwin (2001).

OVERHEAD

28 Approaches to Teaching Gifted Students

MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCE CONNECTION

Student Diversity covers considerable territory. To deepen understanding (and explore spatial intelligence) have students design a graphic organizer for this chapter.) The organizers may yield solid evidence that everyone learns in diverse ways.

The qualities of effective gifted programs include a mastery dimension that allows students to move through the curriculum at their own pace; in-depth and independent learning; field study; and an interdisciplinary dimension that allows for the exploration of theories and issues across the curriculum. Moreover, an important but often overlooked advantage of these programs is the sense of community they offer, the opportunity for gifted students to connect with others like themselves. This is an important step in reducing student anxiety and alienation. When gifted students are placed in appropriate programs, they are often empowered to realize their full potential. One student was relieved to find that “there are lots of people like me and I’m not a weirdo after all.” As one 12-year-old girl said,

My heart is full of gratitude for my teacher who first wanted to have me tested for the gifted program. I’m not trying to brag, but I’m really glad there’s a class for people like me. We may seem peculiar or odd, but at least we have fun and we respect each other’s talents.⁵⁴

In the final analysis, it is not only the gifted who have suffered from our national neglect and apathy; it is all of us. How many works of art will never be enjoyed? How many medical breakthroughs and how many inventions have been lost because of our insensitivity to the gifted?

These questions of opportunities lost can be broadened to include many of the different student populations discussed in this chapter. How many of these students—because of their race, language, or special needs—have slipped through the educational cracks? How many cultural breakthroughs, intellectual insights, and economic advances have been lost because of inadequate school programs or unresponsive teachers? We will never know the final cost of our neglect, but we can rededicate ourselves to uncovering and nurturing the talents in all our students.

SUMMARY



CHAPTER REVIEW

Go to the Online Learning Center to take a chapter self-quiz, practice with key terms, and review key ideas from the chapter.

1. How do cognitive, affective, and physiological factors impact learning?
 - Individuals exhibit diverse styles of learning that are affected by attitudes, reasoning and physical differences. Cognitive factors impact the way students organize and retain information. Affective factors shape motivation and the ability to handle frustration. Finally, physiological differences influence body needs, from sleep to eating habits to the most comfortable room temperature.
 - Identifying a single optimal educational climate is not possible, since individuals differ so markedly in these three factors. Nonetheless, many schools presume that the ideal learning climate features quiet, well-lighted rooms, with difficult subjects being taught early in the morning in forty- or fifty-minute periods. Such a “one-size-fits-all” model does not work for many students.
2. How can teachers respond to different learning styles?
 - Teachers may need to experiment with the classroom environment, including temperature, lighting, and noise level. Teachers may want to plan activities of varying lengths, to accommodate students with different attention spans or tolerance for sitting quietly.

- Teachers can also offer instructional activities that complement various learning styles, such as visual, kinesthetic, or auditory.
3. What are the classroom implications of Howard Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences?
 - Just as some educators challenge the concept of a single appropriate learning style, others challenge the notion of a single type of intelligence. Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences identifies at least eight kinds of intelligence, ranging from the traditional verbal and mathematical to musical, physical, and interpersonal abilities. Teachers can plan their lessons to incorporate and develop these different intelligences described by Gardner (e.g., ask students to re-enact historical events through dance).
 4. How does emotional intelligence influence teaching and learning?
 - Daniel Goleman advocates that schools concern themselves with emotional as well as intellectual development, for he believes that emotional intelligence may better predict future success than IQ scores.
 - Teachers can increase a student's emotional intelligence quotient (EQ) by developing classroom strategies that help students understand their emotions, "read" the emotions of others, and learn how to manage relationships.
 5. How can teachers meet the diverse needs of an increasingly multicultural student population?
 - Changing patterns of immigration and birth rates have produced increasingly diverse classrooms. Generalized knowledge about different groups can be useful for instructional planning. Stereotypes, however, represent dangerous overstatements about groups and members of groups, and teachers must be wary of the damaging impact such stereotypes can have on both teaching and learning.
 - Early in the twenty-first century, one-third of all students will be of color, both enriching and challenging our schools. Teachers of diverse student populations must work to ensure equitable distribution of teacher attention, the accommodation and nurturing of different learning styles, and a curriculum that fairly represents the contributions and experiences of diverse groups.
 6. What are the different levels of multicultural education?
 - James Banks identifies four levels of multicultural education: contributions, additive, transformation, and social action. While the contributions and additive approaches are more superficial, the transformation and social action approaches hold more promise for ensuring that students of *all* backgrounds experience an equal opportunity to learn.
 7. What are the political and instructional issues surrounding bilingual education?
 - Educating limited English proficiency (LEP) students has been both an educational and a legal challenge in America since the colonial period. In *Lau v. Nichols* (1974), the Supreme Court ruled that schools were deficient in their treatment of students with limited English proficiency. Congress subsequently passed the Equal Educational Opportunities Act.
 - Many districts have redoubled their efforts in bilingual education. Some teach students in their native language only until they learn English (the transitional approach), other schools use both languages in the classroom (the maintenance approach), some supplement with English as a Second Language (ESL) classes, while still others opt for nonbilingual means, such as immersion and "submersion."
 - Studies suggest that many bilingual programs fall short of their goals. A political backlash against maintenance programs, and the desire to have all students speak English as soon as possible, has fanned the flames of an "English as the official language" movement in California and elsewhere. The future direction of bilingual education may be as much a political determination as an instructional one.

8. How are the needs of special learners met in today's classrooms?
- Legislation and court decisions have required schools to provide students with appropriate education in the least restrictive environment. The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) guarantees students with disabilities access to public education, and requires that individualized education programs be developed to document the school's efforts in meeting the needs of these students.
 - Despite the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, there are no easy answers to issues such as the identification of special needs children, the best ways to educate these learners, the wisdom of inclusion or mainstreaming, and the training and resources available to teachers.
 - Few resources are provided for gifted and talented students in many of the nation's school districts. When their needs are not met, these exceptional learners may become apathetic, bored, and alienated.
 - Gifted and talented programs usually promote one of two strategies: enrichment or acceleration. While many people worry that acceleration will lead to social maladjustment, research indicates that acceleration can have a positive impact on gifted students.

KEY TERMS AND PEOPLE

accelerated programs, 73	Howard Gardner, 43	locus of control, 39
advanced placement, 73	generalizations, 51	mainstreaming (inclusion), 68
affective domain, 39	gifted learners, 69	maintenance (developmental) approach, 58
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exceptional learners, 64		zero reject, 65

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

1. How would you characterize your own learning style? Interview other students in your class to determine how they characterize their learning styles. Based on these interviews, what recommendations could you offer your course instructor about how to meet the needs of different students in your class?
2. What is your opinion of Howard Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences? In which of the intelligences do you feel you are the strongest? the weakest?
3. Can you develop additional intelligences beyond the ones Gardner identifies? (This is often best accomplished in groups.)
4. Review Daniel Goleman's book *Emotional Intelligence* and present a summary of Goleman's findings to your classmates.
5. Write a research paper on the education and life experiences of at least one of the recent immigrant groups. If possible, interview students and family members who belong to that group about their experiences.
6. Do you believe that bilingual education should be saved or shelved? Why? If bilingual education is maintained, how can it be made more effective?
7. Given demographic trends, pick a region of the country and a particular community. Develop a scenario of a classroom in that community in the year 2020. Describe the students' characteristics and the teacher's role. Is that classroom likely to be impacted by changing demographics? How will learning styles and the new insights on intelligence be manifested in the way the teacher organizes and instructs the class?
8. Choose a school curriculum and suggest how it can be changed to reflect one of the four approaches to multicultural education described by Banks. Why did you choose the approach you did?
9. Investigate a special education program in a local school. Describe its strengths. What suggestions do you have for improving it?
10. Observe a mainstreamed classroom in a local school and interview the teacher. What is your assessment of the effectiveness of mainstreaming in this classroom?
11. Given budgetary limitations, do you think schools should provide special resources and programs for gifted students? Why or why not?
12. What is your opinion of ability grouping? If you had a gifted daughter or son, would you want your child in a special program? What kind of program?

WEB-TIVITIES

1. Multiple Intelligences
2. Multicultural Education
3. Bilingual Education
4. Exceptional Learners





REEL TO REAL TEACHING

CHILDREN OF A LESSER GOD (1986)

Run Time: 119 minutes

Synopsis: Special education instructor Jim Leeds brings his enthusiasm and innovative instruction to a school for deaf students.

Reflection:

1. How does this film redefine traditional notions of intelligence and the idea of one best learning style? Describe scenes in which Jim Leeds integrated the concepts of diverse learning styles, multiple intelligences, and EQ into his teaching.
2. Both Sarah and Jim ask, "If you want to speak to me, learn my language." Connect this statement with issues explored in the chapter for bilingual education. Brainstorm some linguistic and cultural parallels between bilingual and deaf education.
3. Many believe that the Deaf community has developed not only a system of communication (sign language), but also a unique and valuable culture, one that hearing people should learn more about. Using James Banks' four categories of multicultural education, how might you teach hearing students about Deaf culture?
4. Respond to the principal's remark, "No one is trying to change the world around here. We are only trying to help a few deaf kids get along a little better." What biases underlie this view? As a teacher, how might you fully develop the talents of all students in a diverse classroom, including those with special needs?

Follow-up Activities:

1. So, you wanna make a movie? Tap into your linguistic, spatial, and musical intelligences to create a sequel to *Children of a Lesser God*. Tell us about the lives of Sarah and Jim in twenty years. Has technology changed how they communicate with each other? What career choices did they make? Do they have a family?
2. A critical element in the original film was the dynamic between Jim's voice and Sarah's verbal silence. Some critics thought by telling the whole story from a hearing perspective, deafness was earmarked as a weakness to be overcome by Sarah. In *your* sequel, tell the story from Sarah's perspective. Or strike a balance between verbal and nonverbal communication styles.



How do you rate this film? Click on [Reel to Real Teaching](#) to submit your review of this or another education-related film, and read reviews submitted by others.

FOR FURTHER READING



The Children Are Watching, by Carlos E. Cortés (2000). This book analyzes both entertainment and news media, grappling with issues such as how media frame diversity themes, transmit values concerning diversity, and influence thinking about topics such as race, ethnicity, gender, religion, and sexual orientation.

Crossing Over to Canaan: The Journey of New Teachers in Diverse Classrooms, by Gloria Ladson-Billings (2001). Detailing the struggles and triumphs of eight novice teachers, this book shows how good teachers can use innovation and "teachable moments" to turn cultural differences into academic assets.

Culturally Responsive Teaching: Theory, Research, and Practice, by Geneva Gay (2000). The author discusses the role of teacher expectations and attitudes, formal and informal multicultural curricula, and diverse learning styles in the effort to improve the performance of underachieving students of color.

Latino Students in American Schools, by Guadalupe Valdes (2001). Focusing on the lives and experiences of four Mexican children in an American middle school, Valdes examines the policy and instructional dilemmas surrounding the English language education of immigrant children. Samples of the children's oral and written language as well as an analysis of their classrooms, school, and community are provided.

The Power of the Arts: Creative Strategies for Teaching Exceptional Learners, by Sally Smith (2001). Illustrates how to use the arts to teach academic subjects to children with learning disabilities. Includes step-by-step instructions for arts-based projects that teach science, math, and vocabulary.