

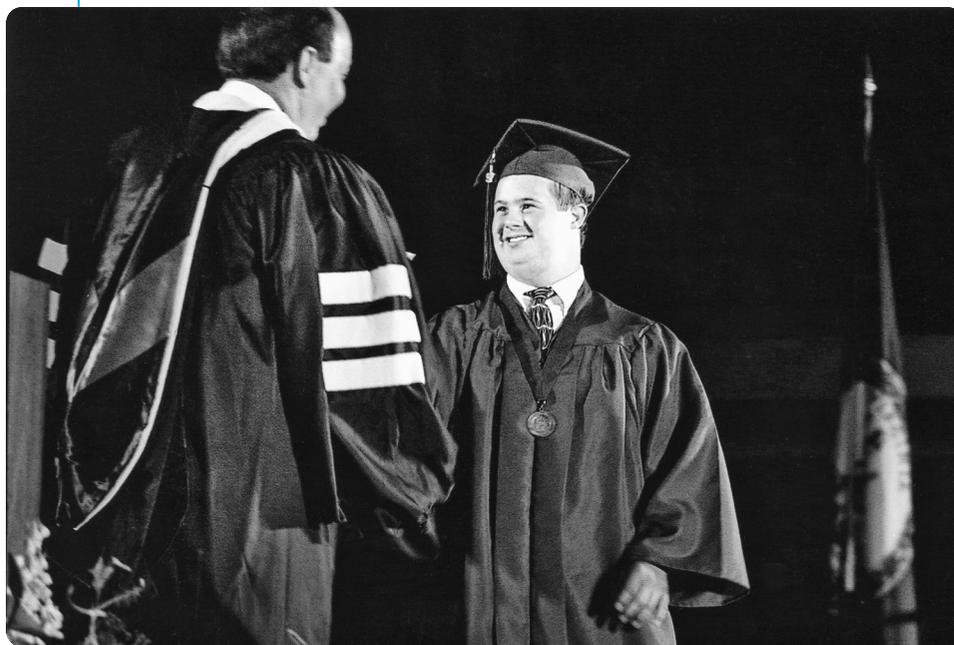
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Celebrate Difference

Promoting an Inclusive and Caring Society Through Education

CHAPTER GOAL

Understand how inclusive teaching relates to the ongoing social struggle to develop communities in which difference is valued and celebrated and how teachers can be part of leadership to move toward inclusive teaching.





CHAPTER OBJECTIVES

1. Understand how society and schools have responded to people who are different in terms of ethnicity, culture, socioeconomic status, sexual orientation, and (dis)ability.
2. Understand the movement from segregation to inclusive schools and communities.
3. Explore how teachers can be leaders in helping move toward inclusive teaching and schooling.

Welcome!

We welcome you on a quest to improve schooling and learning for *all* children through inclusive teaching. We begin this chapter with the question: How does society deal with people considered ‘different’? We will explore shifts in treatment of children and adults who are different in terms of ability, race/ethnicity, gender, culture, language, sexual orientation, and socioeconomic status.

To start, we ask you to close your eyes and picture inclusive teaching. Can you imagine teaching in a school where students with dramatically different academic, social–emotional, and sensory–physical abilities learn well *together*, rather than being separated from one another? Can you imagine classrooms where children who are gifted learn with children who have cognitive disabilities; where no student leaves to get special help and support teachers come into the class; where students are not grouped by ability; where children work at their own levels of ability, no longer bound by a one-size-fits-all curriculum? Can you picture a school in which students of various races and cultures learn with and about one another, where students learn to value one another’s differences. Can you picture a school where students who are gay are not afraid of ridicule, where gay teachers do not have to fear for their jobs but are appreciated for the role models they provide for caring, committed relationships? Can you picture a school where children with behavioral challenges are rarely medicated and the school community is so strong that no one would think of sending a child to a segregated program because of emotional problems? Can you imagine a school where children are evaluated by how much each one has progressed rather than meeting an arbitrary standard?

Such schools are not imaginary. In schools throughout the world, inclusive teachers are creating a quiet revolution, discovering new energy and excitement as they learn how to teach very different children well together. Teachers *can make a difference*. We have important choices. We *do* have the power to create classrooms where difference is celebrated, embraced, and valued. So let’s begin. As we travel, we encourage you to think deeply, take notes, and seek colleagues from whom you can gain support and with whom you can talk. We are off.

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Sights TO SEE



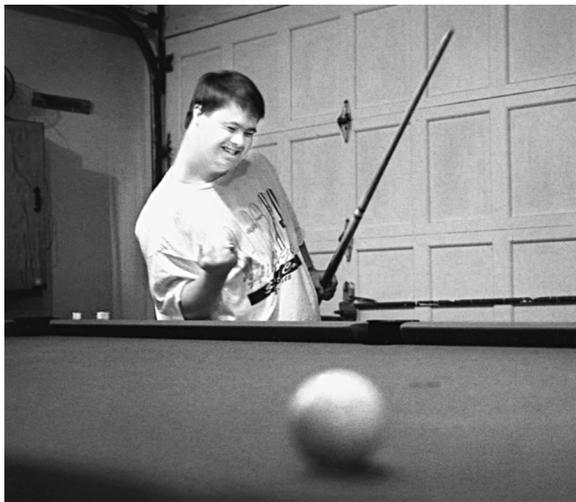
Inclusive O's

A good friend says it works this way related to inclusive teaching: “You must first believe, and then you can see.” We think that’s true. If you don’t believe in the need for and potential of inclusive teaching, you literally could go into a great inclusive classroom and not perceive what you see before you. On the other hand, it’s helpful to actually see practices in action. In each chapter, we’ll provide a couple of online links to video segments to give you a brief glimpse and experience of inclusive teaching practices and ideas. Here’s the one we selected for Chapter 1.

Inclusive O's: The Advertisement You’ll enjoy this! Three young elementary children act out a simulated advertisement for Inclusive O's, a great, multicolored cereal. The point is a good one. Think about your own views on inclusive teaching as you watch this. www.youtube.com/watch?v=ho3ioTigoD8



Pictures in Time: Shifting Possibilities



Jeffrey Regan became the first person with Down syndrome to graduate with a regular high school diploma from Kempsville High School in Virginia in June 1999. At home Jeffrey relaxes playing pool.

bus. As a young adult, he learned to read, write, and talk, although he still walked awkwardly and had speech difficulties. He liked reading about sports and enrolled in an adult education program. He wanted to get his G.E.D.

We fast-forward to Sunday, June 20, 1999. Jeffrey Regan is graduating from Kempsville High School. Jeffrey is the first person with Down syndrome to receive a regular diploma in his school, part of a national trend. Elizabeth Simpson of the *Virginian-Pilot* talks with Jeffrey.

“I had to work really, really hard,” Jeffrey says, shoveling in bites of mashed potatoes. “All kinds of study, homework, tests, back to back.” He shakes his head. . . . “Your teachers say you’re very conscientious. That true?” He puts his fork down, pushes his hands in two directions, Egyptian-style, one at head level, one at his waist. “That’s me!” (Simpson, 1999, p. E1)

It is late August of 1950 in a small Texas town populated largely by immigrant farm workers from Mexico. The heat is sweltering as Juanita Garcia walks to enroll her son Lorenzo in school. Young Juanita has worried about Lorenzo ever since his birth. Her doctor says he has cerebral palsy and mental retardation (now known as a cognitive disability).

Together they walk down the hall to the principal’s office, Mr. Foster. “Come in, Mrs. Garcia,” he says briskly. “What can I do for you today?” “I have come to enter Lorenzo in school,” she says, looking down in respect, wishing her husband Juan were here. Mr. Foster shifts uncomfortably. Clearing his throat, he says cautiously but firmly, “I am sorry. I thought you knew that children like Lorenzo do not come to school. He should go to the institution in the city. I am surprised your doctor did not tell you.” Juanita is stunned. Indeed, the doctor did tell her, but her family felt that her child belonged with them. She leaves dismayed.

Lorenzo grew up without a day of schooling. Each morning he watched children get on the school

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Indeed, Jeffrey did work hard. He attended summer school and did homework every night for two hours. He was school basketball team manager, “drawing applause from the crowd by taking a jog around the court after collecting balls.”

At the Virginia Beach Pavilion, he stands amid a sea of blue graduation robes and straightens his tassel as he waits to walk in.... The moment arrives—“Jeffrey Thomas Regan”—and he strides across the stage to applause ... that’s as thunderous as any valedictorian or class president will receive. (Simpson, 1999, p. E1)

After finishing high school Jeffrey planned to attend classes in a technical program at Old Dominion University and to live in an apartment with his friend Ian (Simpson, 1999, p. E1).

Lorenzo and Jeffrey’s stories illustrate a dramatic change in schools and a struggle to open education to truly diverse children. As we’ll see in the following text, much and little has also occurred related to diversity in schools. For many, segregation is still a common practice. The stories also illustrate the substantial difference that socioeconomic status can make, for students who are members of minority groups or have parents of low socioeconomic status are still most likely to be educated in segregated classrooms. Yet the stories also show the potential for a new vision. How much has changed? How might we move toward a society in which more people have Jeffrey’s experience?



Dealing with Difference

The Opportunity to Build Community

If we seek to be inclusive teachers, we must commit ourselves to working toward a society in which people with differences value, support, and care about one another. We seek to build a school community that focuses on the strengths and gifts of each person, valuing people with differences as human beings. Across the world we see a picture of this type of *inclusive community* emerging. Segregation and discrimination based on race, culture, gender, and disability are now illegal. We see increasing numbers of caring relationships across these various categories of difference. People with disabilities, who have been the most segregated of all groups, are increasingly being included in schools as well as being able to work, have their own homes, and participate in community activities as full members.

However, it remains true that societies have difficulty dealing with those seen as different—with what sociologists call “the other” (Grabb, 1997). Norm Kunc (2000), a person who has cerebral palsy and is an international spokesperson for disability civil rights and social justice, identified four “stages” of responses to people with differences, each a step from barbarism to humanity (Figure 1.1). This four-stage framework helps us think about how people with differences are treated.

Extermination

The most extreme approach, of course, is to simply kill those considered different, or to cause such people not to be born at all. In early Rome, children with disabilities were left exposed to die (Kroll & Bachrach, 1986; Piers, 1978); in Germany in the 1940s, people with disabilities were the first sent to extermination camps (Disability Rights Advocates, 1999). In the early 20th century in the United States, states passed laws to sterilize people with disabilities to reduce numbers of undesirable individuals (Brantlinger, 1995). The

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FIGURE I.1

Four Key Stages in Human Responses to Others Perceived as Different

RESPONSES TO PEOPLE CONSIDERED DIFFERENT	RATIONALE AND EXPLANATIONS FOR THESE RESPONSES
<p><i>Stage 1: Extermination</i> People who are different are killed—by banishment, exposure, direct slaughter.</p>	<p><i>To protect society.</i> People who are different are considered a threat or menace, often not viewed as human.</p>
<p><i>Stage 2: Segregation</i> People who are different are segregated into “special places”—ghettos, inner cities, segregated schools, homes for aged.</p>	<p><i>To protect society.</i> People are isolated and segregated for the express and overt purpose of protecting the larger society from their harmful influence.</p> <p><i>To protect special people and allow them to be with “their own kind.”</i> People are isolated to protect them from harm in the larger society and to allow them the comfort of being with “their own kind.”</p> <p><i>To provide specially designed, professional services based on the unique needs of a group.</i> People are isolated so that they can be in specially designed places served by a professional trained in meeting the unique needs of this group of people.</p>
<p><i>Stage 3: Benevolence</i> People who are different are accepted into the community to be helped by their “betters,” to receive charity and assistance.</p>	<p><i>To provide special help to people who can’t function.</i> People are not considered to be capable of being real friends or to have skills or gifts to offer the community. Those providing the help have the opportunity to feel they are caring while at the same time having a position of power or superiority.</p>
<p><i>Stage 4: Community</i> People who are different are accepted as members of the community with the capacity to contribute as well as to receive.</p>	<p><i>To benefit everyone; everyone has a gift, and the community is less when such gifts are not recognized.</i> All in the community are recognized as having differences. Each difference contributes to the total, and all people are needed to make a strong community.</p>

issue lives on through assisted suicide, “do not resuscitate” (DNR) orders for children with significant disabilities, and genetic engineering practices that augur a growing devaluation of lives deemed imperfect.

Segregation

As societies decide that extermination of people with differences is inhumane, they typically develop segregated places for such people. As in the townships of South Africa or on the numerous reservations for Native Americans, entire geographical regions have sometimes been set apart. In the Deep South, segregation of Black and White people was enforced through separate water fountains, schools, places to sit, stores, and churches. For people with disabilities a host of separate places still exist—segregated schools, classrooms, workplaces, and living places (Heal, Haney, & Amado, 1988).

What is the rationale for segregation? One goal has been to protect the larger community from unwanted influences. Thus the Jewish ghettos in Europe (Prager & Telushkin, 1983), racial segregation in the United States in the 1800s and 1900s (Hacker, 1993), and the growth of institutions for persons with disabilities in the early 20th century (Katz, 1985) were all created to protect communities for the presumed negative impact of these individuals.

More recently, advocates of segregation argue that it is in the best interest of those being segregated, who need to be with others like themselves (Hacker, 1993; National Law Center on Homelessness and Poverty, 2000; Orfield, 2001). Some groups themselves argue for separation, often as a result of forced segregation. Examples include certain groups among the deaf community (Cogswell, 1984; Sacks, 1989) and some African Americans, who state that racial integration is not realistic and call for business, culture, and community by and for Black people (Hacker, 1993; West, 1993).

Finally, some say people with differences need segregated environments specifically designed for them, environments in which they receive services from trained professionals (Katz, 1985). In the 1970s, many states built schools for students with moderate to severe disabilities that featured swimming pools, accessible classrooms, and other specially designed services (Taylor & Searl, 1987). Similarly, proponents argue that specialists are needed for second-language learners and for students who are gifted and talented. A growing movement has also occurred in some minority communities to pull back from working toward integration given the lack of progress and focus only on members of their racial or cultural group.

Clearly, segregating individuals with differences because they are seen as inferior or evil is very different from segregating them in order to meet their needs. Many well-meaning, concerned people have established separate places for such individuals to learn, work, and live, often because other options were not clear.

For many, however, the issue of segregation is about values. Segregation presents questions regarding civil and human rights and the type of community in which we wish to live—one that separates people by characteristics of color, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, gender, sexual orientation, and ability, or one in which difference and diversity are valued.

Have you experienced segregation in your own life? How were you affected? Do you see segregation in your community? What do you think is the impact of segregation on children?

Benevolence

Benevolence occurs when people are tolerated but not considered as equals; treated patronizingly; or seen as lower in ability, status, and prestige. When people act benevolently, they are not cruel or rejecting. Rather, they seek to help. In so doing, however, the recipients of benevolence become people to pity; the recipients are not considered as potential partners or friends, do not share power, and are often not considered as contributing members. Benevolence thus can become another method of exclusion, a way of preventing real human interaction (Adam, 1978). Benevolence occurs, for example, when a teacher assigns students to help a classmate with a disability but never allows that classmate to help others, or when a wealthy community donates goods to a low-income community but does not enter into relationships with its members. Adam (1978) and Grabb (1997) found that benevolence often allows helpers to maintain a sense of self-esteem by seeming to confirm that they are “at least better than this person.”



Donald uses a wheelchair and can neither talk nor use his hands effectively. It's not clear how smart Donald is, though he sometimes seems to understand much. His eyes are alive and his laughter and enjoyment make others want to be around him. Some students in

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Donald's seventh-grade biology class have attended school with him since kindergarten. Visiting Clover Middle School, we assumed that Donald and other students spent time together outside school. "I like Donald a lot," said Jeremy as he put his hand on Donald's wheelchair. "I help him in class." "So what do you do together on the weekend?" we asked. Jeremy looked confused, and it became clear he had never asked Donald over. Later that year we talked with Donald and his class about their experience in building a community. They were enthusiastic, and we were happy to hear that Donald had begun to be involved socially with his fellow students.

Think about how benevolence can be hurtful, even with good intentions. How might this occur in a classroom? How do we teach children the difference between benevolence and friendship?

Community

Our goal, however, is to create a community in which all are valued, respected, and supported, an *inclusive community*. In our society building community is very difficult because, beginning in the late 19th century, powerful economic and social forces push people apart. Many people move from town to town as they obtain new jobs. Neighbors often do not know one another. Teachers typically do not live in the same area as the schools in which we teach.

Community, however, is very important for human well-being. We are made to be in social relationships with one another. When we are not we become lonely, isolated, and despairing. Such isolation affects all parts of our lives, our capacities to learn and be productive, our quality of life, even our physical health. Recognizing the importance of community, many are involved in growing efforts to intentionally rebuild and strengthen a sense of community.

As we attempt to strengthen community, we find that schools are a critical element in this process. Schools are major tools by which children are socialized and learn how to function as adults. In school, we have the opportunity and the responsibility to help children learn how to be caring, responsible members of communities in which they contribute to the common good. This is particularly important since belonging and emotional support are critical for academic learning. To build real communities, we must be committed to including all students in a learning community so that no one is left out and rejected. We will spend much time throughout this book seeking to understand strategies for creative inclusive learning communities in our classes.



Judith Snow's story powerfully illustrates how community can support people with substantive life challenges. Judith lives in Toronto. She travels throughout the world with colleagues, helping people struggle to overcome differences that separate human beings. She lives in a cooperative living apartment and has been particularly helpful in describing how circles of friends assist vulnerable people and how all grow stronger in the process. Judith also has a severe physical disability: She gets around in a wheelchair, which she directs with a "puff and sip" switch. She relies on paid assistants to bathe, dress, and move her; she has very limited capacity to move her arms and hands, and she cannot walk.

Judith's life shows what is possible when inclusion, community, care, and a willingness to challenge come together. Judith attended a typical school (unheard of at the time) and she had caring, nurturing parents. However, this did not stop Judith from almost dying. In her twenties she had to live in a nursing home to receive needed support services as she was going to college. The care was poor at the nursing home and Judith's health began to deteriorate. Her friends concluded that if something were not done, Judith would die. What could they do?

Visioning and Team Development to Promote Effective Inclusive Schooling



Rincon Middle School
925 Lehner Avenue
Escondido, CA 92026

In 1997 Rincon Middle School in Escondido, California, started a journey that led to the complete re-vamping of its pull-out and special class model of services to a team-teaching and consultative approach that allowed all students to be fully included in general education classes. How did this happen? Their experience followed the four-phase model for values-based change articulated by Villa and Thousand (1992): (1) *visioning*, (2) *introducing change*, (3) *expanding change*, and (4) *maintaining changes made*.

Ginny Sharp, then principal of Rincon, and Lisa Houghtelin, a parent of a child with disabilities and spokesperson for a growing number of families seeking inclusion, had the initial *vision*. Together they assembled a team that visited inclusive schools, articulated commitment to inclusive education, and drew in special education teachers to devise a model for getting services into, rather than students out of, general education classrooms.

Phase two, *introducing* the change, required the visionaries to create discomfort and a sense of urgency by helping staff understand that old solutions were no longer working. They had frequent personal dialogues with staff and used outside helpers to redesign options and address questions. For more than 6 months the core team met regularly and publicly to develop a collaborative approach. The principal secured time for teachers to plan together. The trust that teachers had developed over the years, together with support from “outside” helpers, enabled them to overcome initial fears and take the risk.

In phase three, *expanding* the change process, the goal was to obtain commitment from all staff to the new direction and support them in developing needed skills. The school was divided into village teams composed of four subject-area teachers (i.e., humanities, social studies, mathematics, and science) and at least one special education professional and paraprofessional. Ongoing in-service training and consultation were provided to these teams. Team members were recognized for their risk taking and innovation. Education leaders and other leaders visited the school. Teachers were given a public forum to voice concerns and to celebrate one another’s positive stories.

The fourth phase, *maintaining* changes, occurred as the school institutionalized this new approach. Despite the fact that the school has had three different principals since the inclusive model was conceptualized, the model is as strong as ever. At Rincon inclusive beliefs are key hiring criteria. Students with disabilities are scheduled first, not last, when it is time to match them with classes, teachers, and supports they need.

Advancing change and maintaining the change process requires that people understand that change is a journey, an ongoing process that engages every member of the community. At Rincon this is well understood and taken seriously.

By Jacqueline Thousand, professor, California State University–San Marcos, with Richard Villa, president, Bayridge Consortium; Sherri Zehnder, assistant principal; Lisa Houghtelin, parent; Terri Termath, sixth-grade humanities educator; Carolyn Zeisler, special educator; and Larry Welsch, seventh-grade humanities educator; also Ginny Sharp, former Rincon principal and instructor; and Janet McDaniel, professor, California State University–San Marcos. Edited by Michael Peterson.

They quickly formed a support group Judith dubbed the Joshua Committee, after Joshua in the Bible who led the Israelites around Jericho to conquer it. They convened to address a complex question: “How can Judith have the life she wants?” Judith slept exhausted as they met. Ultimately, Judith’s circle convinced authorities to provide individualized funding to

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hire people to provide support in her own apartment. Since then many people have received such supports. Judith was the first.

Judith's circle continues to meet to support her and to enjoy one another's company. The individuals have influenced many people, particularly the late Marsha Forest, a member of Judith's circle. It was Marsha who made famous the sayings that "together we are better," "inclusion means *with*, not just in," and "the only requirement for inclusion is breathing." (See www.inclusion.com/C-Marsha.Forest.Centre.html.) The lessons of Judith's story repeat themselves over and over: When people are supported in being part of the community, all benefit.



Toward Inclusive Schools for Inclusive Communities How People with Differences Have Fared in Society and Schools

So how are we doing in our society at including valuing all people across differences that sometimes divide? Let's explore this question. As you read, think about your community and school. How inclusive is it? Who is excluded? How? Why? What should be done to change this?

Many countries throughout the world have sought to establish democratic political processes where all have rights for equitable treatment. However, there has always been great tension between democracy for all and exclusion of some. From the beginning in the formation of the United States, for example, women could not vote and many Black people were enslaved. In all countries, the interests of the wealthy and others have often been in conflict. The struggle toward inclusion and equity for different groups has taken substantial effort, sometimes achieving positive outcomes, sometimes experiencing setbacks. We stand in the midst of history and our actions will help move us toward greater inclusion and justice or toward segregation and oppression. Let's consider where we've been, where we are, and where we might go.

Students from Diverse Races and Cultures

The move toward inclusive communities began and has been influenced by efforts to establish just relationships for people with racial and cultural differences. People of color have struggled for equal opportunities and valued social roles throughout the world. In the 19th century many, particularly those from Africa, were enslaved. The worldwide antislavery movement could be considered as one of the first struggles toward inclusive communities.

Equity for people of color, however, has been slow in coming. As slaves were freed in the United States and other countries, social conditions for Black people did not improve much. They were still segregated racially. Eventually, segregation became codified into "Jim Crow" laws mandating separate schools, separate places of eating, separate places to live, even separate water fountains. In other parts of the United States, racial segregation was not legally mandated. However, segregation occurred *de facto* and housing discrimination prevented racial integration.

In the 1960s the civil rights movement sought to address discrimination and these inequities. Through direct political action, such as sit-ins, marches, and other forms of protest, the leaders of the civil rights movement sought to change local practices and to push for policy changes. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 made discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin illegal and encouraged the desegregation of public schools. This law has inspired similar work on behalf of others.

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In the Deep South, separate schools had been established for Black children. As part of the civil rights movement, these practices were directly challenged in many cities, most prominently Little Rock, Arkansas, and New Orleans as parents sought to enroll Black children in previously all-White schools. These actions provoked angry, hostile resistance on the part of many White citizens and federal troops were brought in to protect the children. Similar direct action occurred in universities including the University of Mississippi.

In the landmark 1954 Supreme Court decision *Brown v. Board of Education*, “separate but equal” education was declared illegal based on its findings that segregated schools could never provide equitable opportunities and resources. The Court ordered the district to desegregate its schools. This action set an important precedent.

The Civil Rights Act of 1964 codified these court decisions into law. To receive federal education funds, states had to create plans to desegregate schools. Additional lawsuits resulted in court orders in which judges mandated desegregation plans. Increasing numbers of students from minority groups entered White middle-class schools. Many problems were reported and funds were provided from 1972 to 1981 to provide assistance racial desegregation initiatives and to conduct research in the Emergency School Fund Act. However, President Reagan ended this funding in 1981. Since that time no federal funds or resources have been provided to support racially inclusive education.

Important events have also reversed the movement toward racially integrated schools and created an increase in racial segregation (Orfield & Lee, 2005). In 1974 the Supreme Court overturned an earlier decision in *Milliken v. Bradley*, a case from Detroit that sought to desegregate schools across the metropolitan area. This ruling and the subsequent desegregation of Detroit exacerbated White flight from the city to the suburbs throughout the United States (Kozol, 1991). In 1983 a report titled *A Nation at Risk* provided impetus for the standards-based education reform movement. In this initiative, inequality, poverty, and segregation were ignored in favor of calling for high achievement on defined standards. Initially incorporated into Goals 2000: Educate America Act in 1993, standards-based reform was made more stringent under the demands of the 2001 No Child Left Behind Act which required that 100% of students pass state examinations by the year 2014. The law’s sanctions have penalized schools with high concentrations of students who are poor and are members of racial minority groups (Frankenberg & Orfield, 2007). Finally, in 2007, the Supreme Court struck down voluntary desegregation plans in Louisville, Kentucky, and Seattle, Washington, ruling that race could not be used as a criteria for assigning students to schools. Advocates perceived this to be a dramatic move away from a commitment to racial integration. U.S. schools are 41% non-White and the great majority of non-White students attend racially segregated schools in large cities (Orfield & Lee, 2007). In this context, recent efforts to improve schools have been based on the thesis that it is possible to have quality education in racially segregated schools, thus repudiating the argument of the Supreme Court in 1954.

Children of color are also identified as having disabilities and needing special education services at a much higher rate than other racial groups. In addition, a substantive gap in achievement and learning exists between children of color and other students. These two realities are clearly interactive. Numerous initiatives have been developed to provide more effective instruction to both reduce inappropriate placement in special education and enhance academic achievement. These initiatives use strategies consistent with inclusive teaching as described in this book.

Racial and cultural segregation, consequently, and the racism upon which they are based, are still very much with us. A critical part of our work as inclusive teachers will be to work toward creating conditions in which racially mixed students learn together and develop caring interpersonal relationships.

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Students Who Are Poor

Every community has children who are poor. In recent years, childhood poverty is again growing. These children have unique needs that often are not addressed by schools. Beegle (2003) noted that though “there has been some progress made in diminishing the educational barriers of race, gender, geography, and religion, poverty is the one barrier that has not been even partially overcome” (p. 11). Despite this, poverty has declined among children in the United States from 23% in 1964 to 16.3% in 2007, though poverty has begun to increase. In 2004, more than 35.9 million, or 12% of Americans including 12.1 million children, were considered to be living in poverty with an average growth of almost 1 million per year.

Historically, communities have had problematic responses to people who are poor. Often people who are poor are seen as irresponsible, lazy, and unintelligent. The degree our society has provided support and assistance to people who are poor has always been controversial. Many argue that no support should be provided at all; otherwise people will rely on such assistance and not work to solve their own difficulties. Early on, some people who were poor were considered *deserving* of assistance while others were not. In the 19th century, people who were poor lived in *poorhouses*, a conglomeration of the rejects of local communities. Those staying there had to work for their keep.

The last notable time in which poverty was addressed in the United States was in the War on Poverty legislation that the Johnson administration put into place. Numerous programs were aimed at reducing poverty. These included job training programs, community organizing, Head Start, assistance to schools with high incidence of low-income children, and more. Despite some important successes, these programs were never funded at substantive levels and efforts have occurred to scale back those modest efforts.

People who are poor typically live in substandard housing clustered together. Low-income housing programs created large housing complexes that totally segregated poor people rather than assisting them to live in typical homes. In recent times, small programs have provided support for people with low incomes to live in typical apartments and houses. There have also been a small number of efforts to build intentional communities that include people of very different socioeconomic status living next to one another.

In schools no real effort has been made to create learning communities where students from different socioeconomic backgrounds learn together. Rather, school improvement has been based on the thesis that schools could be improved without addressing socioeconomic segregation. Such efforts have included creating smaller higher schools or schools within schools, charter schools, and movements to create magnet schools. As efforts to integrate schools racially have slowed, the segregation of children in schools by socioeconomic status is a major reality in most communities. Wealthier students and poor students are clustered together in geographical areas and typically do not cross the wealth line when they go to school.

However, some communities are moving toward what has been called *economic integration* involving intentional efforts to mix children of different socioeconomic status in schools (Century Foundation, 2000). These initiatives, implemented in communities such as Cambridge, Massachusetts, La Crosse, Wisconsin, and Rochester, New York, hold great promise for moving toward higher academic achievement for poor children and increased racial and cultural integration (Kahlenberg, 2007).

To date, however, most children who are raised in families that are poor continue to remain poor as adults. This is a major challenge for us as inclusive teachers—to create conditions that will break this cycle. Most critical is helping children have a vision of a possible better life and confidence in their abilities to create such a new life. As we’ll

see, the strategies of inclusive teaching, thoughtfully used, can help students who are poor break this cycle.

Dominant-Language Learners

As countries throughout the world become increasingly diverse, the importance of addressing language diversity has grown. The United States has long simply assumed that all learning would be in English. However, language diversity has grown dramatically in the United States as well. In many schools, it is not unusual to have 30 languages or more represented.

Two primary philosophies and operational strategies of dealing with language diversity are apparent: (1) primary emphasis is on learning the dominant language; and (2) bilingual education may occur in which students learn first in their native language and gradually are also taught the dominant language. Within each of these general approaches, important differences exist.

Some in the dominant culture believe that only the dominant language should be allowed in public schools. Not too many years ago, students were not allowed to speak their native language on school grounds and could be expelled if they did so in some communities. This was during a time in which respect for racial and cultural diversity was not emphasized. Students were not provided assistance in learning the dominant language but were expected to do it on their own. Some continue to feel that “total immersion” programs are most effective in which students are immersed in classrooms in which only the dominant language is spoken.

As educators realized that prohibiting students using their native language was problematic, programs were designed to assist students in learning the dominant language. In English-speaking countries, these are known as **English as a second language (ESL)** programs. ESL programs are typically pull-out, separate classes taught by a teacher who does not necessarily know the native language of the student. The emphasis is on learning the dominant language rather than academic content.

Others believe that students should first be nurtured in their native language and then learn the dominant language through *bilingual education* (Cloud, 2004). Five types of bilingual programs exist: (1) developmental bilingual education where emphasis is placed on using the student’s native language to develop academic skills while slowly transitioning to all-English classes; (2) transitional bilingual education that provides academic instruction in the student’s native language but with greater emphasis on transition to all-English classes, typically limiting students’ participation to 2 or 3 years; (3) two-way bilingual education where language majority and minority students learn together and act as peer teachers for one another; (4) sheltered instruction in which teachers support students by modifying their teaching approaches that allow the student to engage in simultaneous learning of the second language and academic content—the curriculum is taught in both the majority language and the student’s native language; and (5) integrated bilingual education in which second-language learners are integrated with native speakers of the dominant language for one or more academic subjects during which the dominant language is used for instruction, though students may also use their native language (de Jong, 2006).

The Civil Rights Act of 1964 implied special educational support for students whose native language was not English, or **limited-English proficient (LEP)** students. In 1968, the Bilingual Education Act was passed which provided funds to assist schools in helping students overcome language barriers. In 1974 California advocates, concerned about overrepresentation of Mexican and Chinese children in special education, pursued litigation resulting in a decision that required assistance to second-language learners. The

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Supreme Court in *Lau v. Nichols* upheld this expectation. However, in recent years bilingual education has been attacked politically and efforts to revoke this law have occurred.

These different approaches vary in the degree to which they promote inclusive teaching. Traditional ESL and developmental and transitional bilingual education have students in separate classes where they are largely segregated from the rest of the student population. However, two-way bilingual education, sheltered instruction, and integrated bilingual education involve second-language learners and other students learning together. As inclusive teachers, we will draw strategies from these approaches. As we shall see, inclusive instruction for all learners has similar characteristics to sheltered instruction. These approaches are also useful to other students who have limitations in their language use, such as students with learning and cognitive disabilities.

Students Considered Gifted and Talented

Students who have high abilities and substantial talents have long provided a challenge for schools organized by age levels aiming to have students function on “grade level.” As students with cognitive disabilities have challenged that narrow framework with their lesser abilities, so students who are considered gifted and talented challenge this approach when they function four and five grades above their typical peers.

The launch of *Sputnik* by the Soviet Union in 1957 stimulated concern with education of students considered very bright. Schools soon increased efforts to identify students seen as gifted and provide enriched educational programs. In 1972, the U.S. Department of Education provided a definition of *giftedness* for the first time and identified needs of these students. In 1988 Congress passed the Jacob K. Javits Gifted and Talented Students Education Act to provide federal support to improve the education of students considered gifted and talented.



Educators have used a range of approaches with this group of students. Strategies that separate students who are gifted from their peers include separate accelerated classes in which students may skip grades or access early entrance to colleges; pull-out to a separate gifted class part-time and participating in a mixed-ability class; home schooling; and ability grouping within classes where students who are gifted work together.

Other strategies aim to challenge students who are gifted in the context of general education classes. Some approaches seek to challenge these students in the context of heterogeneous learning groups using a range of multilevel, differentiated instructional strategies that include multilevel lessons that allow students to work on the same content at different levels of sophistication; individual learning contracts; mentors and community-based experiences; and tiered assignments in which teachers develop lessons with different assignments for students having different abilities.

The debate between those promoting inclusive educational programs and those who advocate separate programs for students who are gifted has been very spirited. However, in recent years much work has been implemented in developing models that seek to challenge and support these students in general education classes while simultaneously supporting talent development in all students. Key approaches include (1) differentiated instruction (Tomlinson, 2004a,b); (2) depth and complexity instruction; and (3) the schoolwide enrichment model.

Students Who Are Gay

Gay students in schools are an invisible minority, a direct result of the ridicule, prejudice, and abuse that such students both fear and experience. Given that research indicates that around 10% of the population is gay, this presents a major challenge. Some Western countries have established legal safeguards for people who are gay. However, in the United States there is no federal legal protection for individuals who are gay, though several states and cities have passed such laws.

Students who are gay often have much difficulty. Antigay remarks and negative attitudes are frequent from both students and educators. These students are sometimes ridiculed, threatened with weapons, and even beaten or raped. Educators too often look the other way and do not protect gay students, thus indirectly encouraging these actions. Eighty percent of prospective teachers report negative attitudes toward gay students and a strong majority would not encourage class discussion of homosexuality or integrate this theme into the curriculum (Smith, 2008). As a result, gay students frequently cut class because they do not feel safe. Many problems are prevalent that include suicide, substance abuse, emotional isolation, low self-esteem, dropping out of school, and physical and verbal abuse (Smith, 2008).

However, many school districts are making efforts to change this oppressive treatment through four strategies: (1) support services for gay and lesbian students including support groups, counseling, student organizations and policies prohibiting harassment and discrimination; (2) discussion of homosexuality and the damaging impacts of prejudice in sex education programs; (3) staff development training; (4) and inclusion of gay and lesbian issues and information in their curriculum. There is no evidence that any of these efforts encourage or promote homosexuality (People for the American Way, 2008).

Clearly, if we are to be teachers who support students in becoming caring people and creating a supportive, inclusive community, we must work to ensure that students who are gay have our support. This begins with our taking a close look at our own attitudes and gaining information and understanding. As we discuss how to build a sense of care and community for all in later chapters, these strategies will particularly be important for gay and lesbian students.

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In this class all students pair at different times with the child with a severe disability. “We have learned so much by his being in our class,” several students said one day in a class discussion about diversity.

Students with Disabilities

Including students with disabilities has grown as an initiative in schools throughout the world. The concept of disability itself, however, is not simple. Some writers emphasize that disability, like race and culture, is socially constructed. This means that human beings make judgments regarding characteristics that are considered to be a disability as well as the meaning of disability in the culture. Typically, disability has been considered a deficit, an imperfection often carrying many additional negative connotations. However, such viewpoints involve social judgment rather than being given truths. This is made clear with the different types of language used for specific disabilities. For example, individuals who are identified today as having a cognitive or intellectual disability have, in times past, been known as an idiot, cretin, feeble-minded, and, more recently, mentally retarded. Additionally, countries throughout the world vary meaningfully in the types of disabilities identified. Most telling, some countries do not recognize the category of learning disabilities, a category that constitutes some 50% of students who have a labeled disability in the United States.

Disability as a social construct is also made apparent in the wide range of incidence in various school districts. In our own state of Michigan, we have known some schools that label only about 5% of their population as having a disability and other schools that labeled 25% of their students! These differences are not explained by objective differences in the children themselves but more in the perspective of the adults who provide the labels. The schools with lower incidence were using exemplary instructional strategies and support services in the general class, with the explicit goal of enhancing the success of students and reducing referrals to formal special education services.

Disability incorporates a wide range of conditions that affect cognitive, social-emotional, and sensory-physical functioning in complex ways. In the United States, the

following categories are identified as eligible for special education services (note that the largest disability category, attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder [ADHD], is not eligible for special education as the primary diagnosis):

- Autism
- Deaf-blindness
- Deafness
- Emotional disturbance
- Hearing impairment
- Mental retardation
- Multiple disabilities
- Deaf and hearing impaired
- Orthopedic impairment
- Other health impairment
- Specific learning disability
- Speech or language impairment

Adults and children with disabilities have been the most segregated of all people. In many ways, parents and advocates of individuals with disabilities are driving the conceptualization of inclusive schools and communities as they seek to create new options for students with disabilities.

In many earlier societies, when children with significant disabilities were born they were simply killed so as not to be a burden on the community. However, communities also tended to have individuals in their midst who were considered different but accepted. In many rural settings, individuals with cognitive disabilities were able to fill meaningful roles on the farm and in the community.

Much of this changed with the scientific and industrial revolution. Scientists began to develop tests to predict effectiveness in industry and the military. These tests increasingly were used to identify “feeble-minded” individuals. By the 17th century many forerunners of institutions were developed that housed people with cognitive or psychiatric disabilities. In the United States, however, these individuals were often placed in houses for poor people.

Early reformers, such as Dorothea Dix, believed that mixing people with disabilities with other social outcasts in poorhouses was problematic. They sought to develop special programs that would provide specialized training and care to help individuals develop skills and return to the community. Thus began the theory that segregation could benefit the person with a disability. The reality, however, has been that whenever segregated places are developed movement into the mainstream very seldom happens. Programs that began with beneficent goals ultimately became huge warehouses where individuals were kept in inhumane conditions.

By the early 20th century asylums had changed to huge edifices housing thousands of people. Their purposes shifted from training to custodial care and protection of the community from people viewed as menaces. This trend mushroomed as the **eugenics movement** in the early 20th century sought to promote a “pure” genetic strain. Beginning in Indiana in 1907, 17 states mandated involuntary sterilization of persons with disabilities (Katz, 1985; Rothman, 1990; Scotch, 1984; Shapiro, 1993a). Eugenics was discredited and died as a major movement after the Nazis killed millions of people in World War II in an effort to establish a pure master race. However, the thinking that underlies the eugenics movement has survived.

In the 1960s, reformers exposed shocking conditions in institutions. In 1966 Burton Blatt, accompanied by photographer Fred Kaplan with a hidden camera, toured back wards of institutions and published a pictorial exposé titled *Christmas in Purgatory*.

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This book graphically documented naked men and women herded in groups, standing in their own excrement (Blatt, 1966; Shapiro, 1993a). Similar exposés occurred elsewhere.

As abuses in institutions were exposed, the public was outraged. In court cases in New York, Pennsylvania, Alabama, and Michigan, judges found that conditions violated constitutional protections of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. Courts required improvements and established key legal principles:

1. *The right to treatment*: People's needs should be addressed through individual treatment plans.
2. *The right to services in the least restrictive environment*: People had a right to participate in the most typical setting possible.
3. *The right to due process*: Formal procedures designed to protect individual rights must be ensured.

Gradually, a controversial movement developed to move children and adults with disabilities out of institutions and into the community. Wolfensberger (1972) articulated an intellectual foundation for this movement through the concept of **normalization**, a highly influential philosophy that promoted the opportunity for people with disabilities to live normal lives. This view states that programs designed to benefit children and adults with disabilities should be as typical (or “normal”) as possible.

The Community Mental Health Facilities and Construction Act was passed in 1963 to assist states in developing community-based programs. From 1977 to 1992 the number of people living in institutions in the United States dropped from 149,681 to 77,618, with proportionate increases in community-based programs. Most community support programs, however, were smaller versions of institutions. For example, the number of sheltered workshops expanded dramatically. These are workplaces for only persons with disabilities where they typically engage in repetitive work such as assembling or disassembling parts. They are typically paid only pennies an hour. Similarly, community-based institutions housing 50 to 100 individuals or, at best, group homes housing 6 to 10 people provided housing for individuals with disabilities (Katz, 1985; Taylor & Searl, 1987). While some strive to make such programs “homelike,” they still remain segregated living places for people with disabilities where choice and engagement in the community typically are very limited.

Not surprisingly, little education was provided in large institutions. As more children with disabilities stayed in their homes and communities, parent groups began to advocate for education for their children and in 1975 were successful in mobilizing the passage of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (PL 94-142). This groundbreaking law provided rights, protections, and entitlements for students with disabilities requiring that students be educated in the **least restrictive environment (LRE)**—that is, with typical students to the greatest degree possible—with needed supplementary services. PL 94-142 made it illegal, for the first time, for school to refuse to educate any student with a disability.

Many years would pass, however, before clear options for inclusive schooling were understood. Resource rooms were established for students with mild disabilities who were pulled out of general education classes to receive special assistance. Students with moderate disabilities typically were in separate special education classes. Students with severe disabilities were placed in segregated special education schools (Allington, 1991, 1994; Moody, Vaughn, & Hughes, 2000; Spear-Swerling & Sternberg, 1998).

In the 1970s, following the lead of the civil rights movement, adults with disabilities, parents, and other allies pushed ahead on many fronts to provide greater access for children and adults with disabilities. The *independent living* movement was particularly influential. Ed Roberts and other friends with disabilities began this movement at the

University of California at Berkeley in 1962. Roberts had barely survived polio in high school, had quadriplegia, used a wheelchair, and needed much assistance in daily living tasks. With struggle and support, he obtained housing on campus and an electric wheelchair and requested funding for attendants to assist him in daily tasks. In 1967 twelve other students with significant disabilities lived with Roberts in a dorm. This program was the first of a network of university support services and centers for independent living for people with disabilities that promoted a new philosophy of independent living. Key elements of this philosophy include:

- People with disabilities can live independently with appropriate supports.
- People with disabilities should direct the organization of independent living services.
- Integration and social inclusion is an issue of social justice.
- Political activism is necessary.

By 1980 people with developmental disabilities were creating a different type of disability rights movement. Composed of people who in many cases had been in institutions, group homes, and sheltered workshops, the *self-advocacy movement* encouraged people often considered unable to direct their own lives to speak out for their rights. At one organizational meeting, for example, the group passed resolutions calling for the closing down of all state institutions for people with retardation; sick leave, vacation time, and holidays at job sites and sheltered workshops; and recognition of the right to have sexual relationships.

Numerous other efforts soon developed to support individuals with disabilities participating in typical community settings. *Supported community living* allowed individuals to live in typical apartments and home where they received needed support and assistance rather than in group homes or small institutions. In the 1980s advocates and innovators developed *supported employment* in which individuals with significant disabilities received intensive training and support on the job from job coaches. Recreation specialists developed strategies to include individuals in typical recreation and sports events rather than in separate programs only for individuals with disabilities such as Special Olympics or “handicapped swimming.”

In 1973, the first civil rights act for persons with disabilities was passed in Sections 503 and 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 (PL 93-112). **Section 504** prohibited discrimination against qualified persons with disabilities by any public organization receiving federal funds. In schools, Section 504 requires that all students with disabilities be educated in the least restrictive environment with reasonable accommodations. It covers students who have disabilities but are not eligible for special education, such as students diagnosed with ADHD and students in wheelchairs who need only assistance or adjustments in the physical environment.

The requirements of PL 93-112 were greatly expanded in 1990 with the passage of the **Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA)**. The ADA articulated rights in employment, public services, public accommodations, and telecommunications (Americans with Disabilities Act, 1990; Gostin & Beyer, 1993; Wehman, 1993). Employers cannot discriminate in the hiring process on the basis of disability. Disability could be considered in the hiring process only if it relates to a person’s ability to perform essential functions of a job with reasonable accommodations. Employers are required to provide reasonable accommodations, but these cannot pose an “undue hardship” (Gostin & Beyer, 1993). ADA also requires access to all public services such as public schools, mental health services, and welfare programs as well as privately owned businesses and offices open to the public.

Through the world, individuals with disabilities are being included in all aspects of community life with needed supports and assistance. Numerous models of support and

20 Part I: Foundations of Inclusive Teaching**Inclusive Teaching**

When we go somewhere and want to carry with us key but essential items, a backpack is often a great tool! But what shall we take? In each chapter, we'll provide a couple of relevant, online, rich resources to help you in your journey toward inclusive teaching. Here they are for Chapter 1.

Network for Inclusive Schooling The people who organized National Inclusive Schools week are forming an international network. You and your school can join. www.inclusiveschools.org/

Inclusion Solutions This site in the UK is packed with great resources for dealing with difficult situations in including students with differences. Photos illustrate practices. www.inclusive-solutions.com/research.asp

inclusion are in place. Despite this, however, many services and programs continue to be segregated in adult living services as well as in schools. In most locations, more funds are still provided for group homes rather than supported living, sheltered workshops still abound, and many students are educated in separate special education classes and schools. For sure, as we seek to be inclusive teachers we will have students with disabilities in our classes. We will be challenged to strengthen the movement toward inclusive education for these students.

**The Growing Movement to Inclusive Schools**
Welcoming the Children Home

Throughout the world, educators and community members are working toward creating and strengthening inclusive schools that welcome all children. A major effort has focused on racial, cultural, and linguistic differences. Others have focused on students who live in poverty and gay students. Yet others have focused primarily on inclusion of students with disabilities. On the one hand, the movement toward inclusive schools has been strengthened by this work. On the other hand, a focus on only one group, rather than on building schools and classrooms that address the needs of all groups, has often served to splinter the effort. For example, those concerned with students from racial minorities may or may not see common cause with those who advocate for students with significant disabilities. In the worst scenario, advocates actually work against one another and compete for resources. Yet, a growing number of leaders are increasingly recognizing the need to create schools and classrooms aimed at addressing the needs of all working together with representatives of all groups.

In dealing with multiple differences, similar dynamics have occurred in the movement from segregation to inclusive schooling. As we've already discussed, schools have often simply excluded students with differences. However, when they open their doors to educate students considered different, they have almost always initially created separate programs and places for these students. Thus, "separate but equal" schools were created for Black students in the southern United States. In the early days of immigration from other countries, separate classes were often established to "Americanize" children as well as adults. For students with disabilities, initial approaches separated special education schools and classrooms and resource rooms that provided services in separate



JOURNEY into the CLASSROOM

A Teacher Works to Provide Leadership

Malik started teaching at Stevens High School as an English teacher with a goal to be a good teacher. He was particularly committed to being an inclusive teacher, having become convinced in his student teaching placement that the segregation he observed in that school was harmful to the students. He was excited when the school principal told him that the school was “fully inclusive” and that he would be coteaching with a special education and bilingual support teacher. However, once he got to the school, he quickly discovered that only students with mild learning disabilities and emotional disturbance were included in general education classes. Students with cognitive disabilities were in “life skills” classes at the end of one wing in the school and students with severe disabilities went to a segregated school. He was also dismayed to find that his English classes were tracked (students were sorted into those with higher or lower abilities and clustered in classes based on their presumed ability). He had one section for students who had been identified as gifted who were in an honors program and another section for students at risk. However, Malik didn’t give up.

He decided to talk with the principal, Shandra, about his ideas of inclusive teaching. He wanted to know if the principal would support changes. In fact, Shandra was pretty surprised at Malik’s ideas. She was very committed to inclusive education and had worked to get coteaching and inclusion established in the building over the last 10 years. However, it had never occurred to her that students with cognitive disabilities could be included in general education classes. Malik explained some ways he thought this could work. When Malik asked, “Where do the other students who should come to this school go?” she was confused. Malik explained he meant students with more severe cognitive and physical disabilities. She had never even considered that some students who would typically attend Stevens were going elsewhere. Malik also suggested that they consider eliminating tracks in the school and develop a different approach to the honors program.

Malik and Shandra discussed ways they might involve the staff in considering these new ideas. Shandra agreed to read a book that Malik had used

in an inclusive teaching class at the university. True to her word, at the next staff meeting Shandra discussed the commitment of the school to inclusive education and the journey they had been on over the last few years. “However, it’s become clear to me that we still have a long way to go. I’d like to develop a working group of staff who could explore ways that our school can become truly inclusive” Shandra said. The staff had lots of questions. It was clear that a number of them were very uncomfortable with this new direction. However, 10 staff members representing various subject areas and support staff volunteered. Malik was both excited and a bit scared.

As it turned out, Jaclyn, a parent of Jady, a young man with a severe cognitive and physical disability, had been meeting with the director of special education for the district. She had advocated very hard to have her son fully included in general education classes. He was the only student with a severe disability to be included in the district. She was looking for a high school that would accept her son.

Over the next year Malik and others worked hard to develop a new, strengthened approach to inclusive teaching in the school. During that year the task force read materials, visited two other high schools that were trying to be inclusive, and attended two national conferences on inclusive education. By the end of the year, they developed a series of recommendations that included the following:

- Restructure the honors program. Eliminate the gifted-only class and develop a contract system where any student, not just those identified as gifted, could do extra, more in-depth work for honors credit.
- Eliminate all tracked classes. At the same time, make a commitment to learning new strategies for multilevel, differentiated instruction providing support for teachers to learn new skills.
- Obtain assistance from a consultant who could help the school move toward inclusive teaching and provide professional development and support. (The school contacted a professor at a local university who had written a book on inclusive education to work with the school.)

(continued)

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- Obtain professional development in sheltered instruction for bilingual staff and all general education teachers to assist second-language learners. Pilot a two-way bilingual program.
- Begin including students with cognitive disabilities, phasing them into general education classes. Use the list of “functional life skills” that was the basis of the present segregated special education program and look at ways that these skills could be obtained in high school courses and extracurricular opportunities.
- Enroll students with severe disabilities in general education classes. (Jady attended general education classes held by Malik’s interdisciplinary team.)

These were wonderful moves. The work had been hard. It was also clear to Malik and Shandra that they had much hard work ahead of them. However, a small group of teachers were angry at this direction and had begun talking with the union regarding whether this violated the union contract with the district. Yet, overall, the staff was supportive. Malik was proud that, as a new, young teacher, he had been part of helping create innovations.

Reflection: You might be thinking, “Well, Malik was lucky he had such a great administrator.” For sure, he was. However, the point of the story is we never know what will happen when we reach out and take a risk. It’s our challenge to find them and then figure how to make differences where we are.

locations. For students who speak a language different from the dominant language, educators have often created separate bilingual or ESL classes.

In all these cases, however, problems have been evident. Racial segregation has been shown to enhance racial discrimination and create poorer academic outcomes. Students of different races and cultures have often had limited opportunity to come to know one another and learn from and with each other. Separate programs for students with language differences isolate them from the rest of the student population, creating many social and academic problems. For students with disabilities, separate special education classes have prepared them for an entire lifetime of segregated living and working situations. As these problems have become more evident, educators concerned with different groups have pushed toward a similar outcome—creating inclusive schools and classrooms where students can learn together.

In recent years, advocates of individuals with disabilities have provided much leadership in articulating images of truly inclusive schools. Students with disabilities, of course, also possess other differences: race, culture, language, socioeconomic status, and sexual orientation. In the 1980s in the United States parents and professionals began to question the effectiveness of separate special education programs. Madeline Will (1986), assistant secretary of the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services (OSERS), herself the parent of a child with a disability, developed the federal **Regular Education Initiative (REI)** calling for special and general educators to share responsibility for the education of children with disabilities. One organizational model during this time was *class merging*, in which a whole special education classroom of students with mild disabilities merged with a regular education class where teachers cotaught (Lipsky & Gartner, 1997). Others began to create approaches of **integrated education**, in which students in a special education classroom in a regular school had opportunities for integration at lunch, recess, or “specials” (art, music, etc.).

In the late 1980s in the United States, President George H. W. Bush called a governors’ summit conference on education. This conference called for substantial restructuring (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983), for active learning approaches, and for the use of **push-in services** instead of **pull-out programs** for children at risk of educational failure. These ideas built on a growing base of research showing

the negative effects of tracking children in homogeneous ability groups (Lipsky & Gartner, 1997; Oakes, 1985; Ogle, Pink, & Jones, 1990; Wheelock, 1992).

In this fertile climate, inclusive education was developed. Initially championed by advocates, parents, and educators of children with the most severe disabilities, **inclusive education** heralded a new and very different paradigm:

1. Inclusion of *all* students, including those with mild to severe disabilities, in general education classes.
2. Provision of supports and services within the general education class for both teachers and students (push-in services).

As schools began to implement inclusive education, researchers found that all students were learning more effectively (LeRoy, 1990a, 1990b, 1995; Stainback, Stainback, Moravec, & Jackson, 1992). The federal government in the United States funded a series of systems change grants to states to help local schools implement inclusive education. Many other nations have engaged in similar initiatives, often in collaboration with the United Nations. Beginning in small states such as New Hampshire and Vermont in the mid-1980s, by the end of the 20th century inclusive education was implemented in some schools throughout the United States (Lipsky & Gartner, 1997).

The movement toward inclusive schooling has had opponents. For example, Fuchs and Fuchs (1994) have argued that “**full inclusionists**” do not pay adequate attention to the individual needs of children with disabilities, that general education teachers will not accept students with disabilities, that students with disabilities will hinder learning of other students, and that schools may use inclusive education as an excuse to reduce funding and legal protection for students with disabilities.

The movement toward inclusive schooling, however, continues. In a nationally acclaimed report for *Newsweek* magazine, Joseph Shapiro (1993b) discussed the rising cost of special education and segregation of children with disabilities and stated that “we are spending billions on special education which is having little impact” (p. 10). In recent years a panel was convened to consider several problems with special education including the overrepresentation of children of color in special education and the continued segregation of students with disabilities. They concluded that efforts should be renewed to include students with disabilities, including those with the most severe disabilities, in general education classes.

In the United States, in 2001 the No Child Left Behind Act required schools to work toward providing high academic standards for all students in a common curriculum. While this law has remained controversial, it has also fueled the movement toward inclusive schools in the United States. Educators understand that if schools are judged based on the degree to which students acquire skills in a common curriculum, it only makes sense for all students to learn this curriculum together.

A new movement is growing naturally out of inclusive education for students with disabilities in K to 12 schools—the inclusion of students with cognitive and other related disabilities in colleges and universities. Increasing numbers of programs are supporting these students in various ways including taking classes for credit, participating in classes without credit, engaging in student activities throughout the campus, working in jobs on the campus, and more.

The movement toward inclusive schooling is occurring in countries throughout the world. In 1994 a United Nations conference developed the Salamanca Statement (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], 1994), which outlined goals and strategies for inclusion of people with disabilities in school and society. With increased diversity of children in schools throughout the world, old models of separating students by various categories and labels have increasingly been seen as

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Four high school students bring flowers from a local shop that they will use in creating pictures incorporating dried flowers in their art class.

unfeasible and oppressive (Booth & Ainscow, 1998; Vitello & Mithaug, 1998). International projects sponsored by the United Nations have promoted growth of inclusive schooling in countries all over the world, including Belgium, Great Britain (Ainscow, 1999), Germany (Hinz, 1996), Italy (Balboni, Giulia, & Pedrabissi, 2000; Berrigan, 1994); various African nations (Miles, 1999; Naicker, 1999), India, and China (Booth & Ainscow, 1998). Italy has become recognized as a leader in inclusive education, and as early as 1977 Italy passed National Law 517 requiring inclusion of students with disabilities, elimination of classes tracked by ability, and team teaching by general and special education teachers (Berrigan, 1994). More recently, South Africa, a country in which apartheid has existed for many years, has begun implementing a national inclusive education initiative as part of its efforts to transform its postapartheid educational system (Naicker, 1999).

Numerous educational organizations have also developed papers and position statements supporting inclusive schooling. In 1994 the National Association of School Boards of Education (NASBE) published *Winners All* and called on school boards to embrace inclusive education.

Other organizations articulated similar statements of support, among them TASH, United Cerebral Palsy Association (1993), and the Council for Exceptional Children (CEC; 1993).



Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA)

In the movement toward inclusive schooling, law that governs educational services for students with disabilities is particularly important. In the United States, Congress passed the **Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA)** in 1997 as an update to PL 94-142 as passed in 1975. The most recent version of the law is PL 108-446, the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act of 2004. A summary follows of the key elements of the law as of 2008.

The law guarantees that all children with disabilities are entitled to a **free and appropriate public education (FAPE)**. All students with disabilities must be educated by public schools. All students with disabilities must have *access to the general education curriculum*. Education must be provided in the *least restrictive environment (LRE)*, which means that “to the maximum extent possible, children with disabilities must be educated with non-disabled children.” A *continuum of placement options* requires that a range of services be available to meet the needs of the student.

An **Individualized Education Plan (IEP)** must be developed based on the needs of each student. Schools must involve parents in educational decisions and development of the IEP. This plan is a legal contract between the school and the parents. A general education teacher must be on the IEP team if the student is participating in general education classes. The IEP must contain annual goals and services aimed at helping the student be successful in general education. For students with behavioral challenges, a meeting



called a “manifest determination” must be held to determine if the problems are related to the student’s disability. Functional assessment of behavior and behavior intervention plans must be developed based on need. Students also must be provided needed *supplementary and related services* to help students succeed in general education classes. Assistive technology must be considered in the IEP if needed by a student.

Early intervention services are provided to infants and toddlers with disabilities and those at risk through collaboration among human service agencies (this requirement was added in 1986 in PL 99-457). Services must be family centered and based on an **Individualized Family Services Plan (IFSP)**. The law encourages serving children in natural environments and utilizes a noncategorical approach. All this has laid the groundwork for encouraging such children to move into inclusive education as they grow older.

An **Individual Transition Plan** must be developed for students with disabilities starting at age 16. (Schools may start earlier if they wish, but are required to do so only at age 16.)

The law also established processes to handle disagreements regarding the IEP. If conflicts cannot be resolved at the IEP meeting, the parents and/or the school may take the case to an impartial hearing officer, often a lawyer or a university professor. Such officers are charged with hearing arguments and making a decision. Dissatisfied parties may appeal this decision to federal court. *Mediation* programs have been developed in which trained individuals attempt to work out solutions as the number of hearings and court cases have risen.



Teacher Leadership for Inclusive Schooling

Let’s now explore how, as teachers, we can be part of providing leadership for moving toward effective inclusive teaching.

One day we visited in a school that was working to be an inclusive school. The principal, Marleen, told us the story. It began with a lunch conversation one day. The teachers were talking about trying to get outside help. “Suddenly,” Marleen said, “it hit us! No

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one is coming to save us. We are the ones we are waiting for! If we want to make a better school, it is up to us.” For sure, if schools are going to become more effective in promoting caring, being places of belonging rather than segregation and isolation, the leadership of many people will be necessary. The leadership of teachers is particularly critical. We end this first chapter with a challenge for each of us to be the one for whom we are waiting, to be a leader in helping our school become an effective, inclusive school.

Many teachers are, in fact, leading. Here are a few examples we’ve seen:

- Teachers who collaborated with initiatives to develop partnerships between racially segregated inner-city schools and suburban schools to engage children in community learning together.
- A teacher who made sure that a student with mental retardation was placed in her room.
- A teacher working in a very segregated school who approached a special education teacher and invited her to include some of the special education students full-time in her class.
- A bilingual teacher who became a general education teacher and then worked to have both second-language learners and students with cognitive disabilities in his class.
- A teacher who challenged other educators to move away from negative statements, often overheard by students, regarding people who are gay.
- A teacher who taught a student with multiple, very severe disabilities and used this experience to question the existence of three separate special education classrooms in the school.

The Lessons of School Change: Not Easy but Worth the Trip

Schools are very difficult to change. The factory model of schooling has survived many efforts to reform it (Tyack & Cuban, 1995). However, when inclusive education becomes part of a school, it sometimes becomes the new reality and becomes equally resistant to change. So change is hard; but when good practices become part of the culture of a school, we have hope that they may last (Fisher, Sax, & Grove, 2000). In his book *Change Forces*, Michael Fullan (1997) describes eight key lessons for school renewal. Let’s discuss these.

First, *change cannot be mandated* except in those concrete, specific areas that require little thought. Important change requires shifts in people’s beliefs, skills, and behaviors. Moving toward inclusive teaching requires that educators explore beliefs about teaching, good instruction, and our hopes for the children we teach.

Second, *change is not linear*. Rather, we begin a journey, take the first steps, and reevaluate. We can’t know how to teach inclusively before we start. We can’t have an inclusive school *until* we start. We do the best we can and solve problems.

Third, *problems are our friends*. Inquiry, constant appraisal, analysis, and self-reflection on problems and solutions is critical. We expect that we will be confused and that conflict will occur but work toward creative solutions.

Fourth, *action and visioning must occur together*. Rather than the traditional “ready, aim, fire,” the order must be “ready, fire, aim.” In other words, only through action can we gain enough experience to create a vision and only through struggle can that vision be shared.

Fifth, we *balance individual and collaborative efforts*. These will remain in tension. On the one hand, we want shared vision and values. On the other hand, some of the worst atrocities in history occurred when groups decided to take oppressive courses of



CHAMPIONS OF INCLUSION

By Bill Henderson, Principal, O'Hearn Elementary School, Boston, MA

All across the country, individuals are being recognized for successfully promoting inclusive teaching in schools. These persons have helped make it more possible for students with a wide range of abilities, including students who have disabilities, to participate in meaningful ways with their peers in a wide range of activities. Although the quality of inclusion does indeed depend on many factors related to whole school change and improvement, it is important to acknowledge the people who really make it happen. In the Champions of Inclusion boxes featured in the text I will highlight some of the salient characteristics of these champions of inclusion. A few initial comments are in order, however.

First, most of the champions of inclusion I have highlighted do not depend upon advanced degrees and training. Although in many instances, special skills are certainly required, in most cases it is the accompanying positive beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors that are most significant. Indeed it is common for those who have been identified as champions of inclusion to state that what they are being recognized for is really quite ordinary.

Likewise it is important to note that many adults who have disabilities report that their impairments

were not as challenging to them in school as were the ways others related to their impairments. For many persons with disabilities, stereotypic beliefs, negative attitudes, and inappropriate behaviors were common experiences that impeded opportunities for meaningful participation. In order for successful inclusion in schools to become more the norm than the exception, changes in how people relate to students who have disabilities must also occur.

Champions of inclusion are people who exemplify first and foremost that they can connect, communicate, challenge, and collaborate appropriately when dealing with students who have disabilities. They are certainly also people who have developed and/or creatively implemented specialized skills, but they recognize that this expertise must be accompanied by appropriate beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors in order for the skills being utilized to prove most beneficial. Indeed what makes champions of inclusion extraordinary is that they are demonstrating on a regular basis how ordinary it can be for students with disabilities to participate successfully in a wide range of activities with their peers. *These champions make inclusion extraordinarily ordinary.* I hope you enjoy and benefit from reading about these champions of inclusion!

action. Individual thought, risk taking, and initiative are always key in challenges to the status quo. Yet building a community is also critical.

Sixth, *top-down and bottom-up strategies must both work together.* Each of us can and must initiate change as well as respond to change efforts coming from above. Teachers can begin and challenge administration to remove segregating practices and to put resources in our schools and classrooms.

Seventh, school improvement must be *connected to issues in our community and society.* We are not islands unto ourselves. Schools support community and social needs.

Finally, *every person must be a change agent.* School dynamics are simply too complex for those “in charge.” Fullan (1997) says that “every teacher has the responsibility to help create an organization capable of individual and collective inquiry and continuous renewal, or it will not happen” (p. 39).

Change Strategies for Moving Toward Inclusive Teaching

As the movement toward inclusive education has grown, several approaches to the change have emerged (Hoskins, 1996; Roach, Ascroft, & Kysilko, 1995; Villa & Thousand, 1996).

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One Student at a Time: Parent Requests. This route is most typical in districts where segregated schooling for students with disabilities is the norm. Parents request their children be included in general education classes. For real change to begin, these requests must increase over time. This pattern puts the onus on parents, who are often very frustrated. For example, a parent insisted that a student with severe disabilities participate in general education. This student's success in these classes led staff to begin asking why separate classes existed.

Forced Change: Legislation and Class Action Suits. For all areas of difference, except sexual preference, laws prohibit segregation. However, this has not prohibited the ongoing segregation of many students. Court orders related to racial desegregation have increasingly been abandoned and racial segregation in schools has again grown. Related to disability, several lawsuits have been successful and courts have ordered action toward inclusive education. In some cases, parents will take court action regarding their child. However, the efficacy of these efforts has been questionable. Force from the outside is never as successful as work to change the minds and hearts of the educators involved.

Teacher-Initiated Inclusion. In many schools, teachers have taken the initiative to move toward inclusive teaching. In one school, for example, a teacher in a special education classroom made arrangements for some of her students to go to another teacher's class one period per day. Eventually the two teachers worked out an arrangement to team-teach together. Teacher-initiated efforts can help get things going. The danger is that change will stop there. However, we can reach out to other teachers, expand partnerships, and gradually expand inclusive strategies across the building and grade levels.

Building-Based Systemic Change. An entire school can work systemically toward inclusive schooling. Teachers may develop a proposal to the principal and leadership team. In other cases a principal may be the prime initiator. Typically a planning group is formed to collect information, obtain input, and develop a plan.

Districtwide Systemic Change. Some school districts develop districtwide initiatives to move toward inclusive schooling. Such an initiative sometimes grows out of the impact of a model effort in one school; in other cases it is the result of a court order; in yet other cases it emerges in response to combined pressures from parents and leadership from school administrators. In a districtwide effort a planning committee is often convened and includes teachers, parents, and administrators.

Teacher Leadership and Action: We Can Make a Difference

As teachers we owe our first allegiance, and the vast bulk of our energy, to what we do in our own classroom. However, we quickly learn that policies can either enhance or seriously undercut our ability to teach children effectively. We must also become effective agents of change to help create conditions for best practices. However, this work is not for the fainthearted. We must have courage and persevere.

Parker Palmer (1998) describes the process by which teachers move from lonely despair to activism for positive change. We begin isolated and disconnected, often feeling beaten down by problems and issues. However, as we look for opportunities to make change, we soon discover others who feel similarly. Gradually we get together as a group—as a study forum, an online chat, a discussion group and form what Palmer calls

BUMPS IN THE ROAD

When Segregation, Expulsion, and Punishment Are Embedded in the Culture of the School

In some schools, we may find a pervasive punitive culture where students are treated with disrespect. This particularly occurs in schools that serve low-income children, often also children of color. Tension is pervasive, students seem “out of control,” and most educators don’t seem to know any strategy other than to use authoritarian, punitive approaches. Segregation of many types of students is the norm.

One such middle school we visited was this way. It had separate classes for dominant language learners and special education classes where two teams of four special education teachers taught all subject to students with learning disabilities, mild cognitive disabilities, autism, and more. These students were totally separated from the rest of the student body. They didn’t even get to go to assemblies (the principal said they would be disruptive), field trips, or eat lunch or take recess with the rest of the students. They also had tracked classes for “at-risk” youth who did not qualify for special education. June, one of the teachers in these classes, told us that the parents of these students did not know they were placed in this class.

We saw a class of six students with autism who were taking their recess together with three adults. They also were not allowed to be with other students at recess. The students were sitting on the ground on the basketball court as the adults talked with them.

We saw numerous instances where students were treated disrespectfully in our visits to the school. In each of the hallways we could hear a teacher literally screaming at the top of her lungs at some student. In one class, the teacher became frustrated at the small talk among students and told them they had to sit the last 10 minutes of class without moving. One girl rolled her eyes and the teacher put her livid face a quarter inch away from the student and screamed, “What are you saying?” At lunch a teacher was detaining a group of nine boys in the middle of the busy hallway. “They broke the rules and they have to sit here without moving during lunch this week,” said Ramon. He explained that his strategy at the beginning of the year is to “take on any student who challenges me. I show them I am willing to take them out if they

mess with me. This really keeps them in line!” Later in the day we saw the principal in the hall with a student, small for his age. Suddenly, we heard the principal say, “You aren’t going to talk to me that way young man,” and he proceeded to grab the screaming and crying boy by his arm and drag him down the hallway to his office.

Reflection: This was an incredibly difficult school to be in. Many images play themselves over and over in our minds. Remembering the students with autism at recess amazed us. These students’ main need is to learn how to interact with others. Yet, they were not allowed to do so. Even the educators related with them very little. When the principal dragged the student down the hall we were shocked. We were particularly struck that punishment, control, segregation, and tension formed a cohesive culture in this school.

What to do? Unfortunately, variations on this scene play out daily in schools. We don’t have magic bullet answers, but here are a few ideas from experiences of some great teachers we’ve seen struggle in schools like this.

- First, don’t lose your commitment to inclusive teaching. The tension between reality and your ideal is substantive. However, keep your goal clear and high. Otherwise, you will shortly become part of this dysfunctional school culture.
- Look for others who are concerned and willing to work toward inclusive teaching. In our experience, such people are always there. Look for teachers who seem to be particularly good at dealing with difficult children. As you go about the school look for evidence of activity-based learning and efforts to build community in the classroom. When you find someone, introduce yourself and get to know him or her. Go to lunch together.
- Work to make your own classroom a model of inclusive teaching. Get to know your students and help them learn to be a caring community. Design authentic multilevel lessons.

(continued)

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- Look for ways to get students out of segregated settings and into general education classrooms. If you are a specialist (special education teacher, social worker) look for general education teachers who might be willing to take one or more of your students part- or full-time into their classes. If you are a general education teacher, ask the bilingual or special education teachers if they would like to have one of their students join your class full- or part-time. Make arrangements to work together with that student.
- Look for other opportunities to make a difference. If a new principal is hired, talk with the principal soon after he or she arrives. Maybe you will be as fortunate as Malik in this chapter's Journey into the Classroom feature.

a “community of congruence.” Ultimately, our efforts lead us to create formal structures to support our community—structures that may range from a modest listserv to a collaborative center for teaching and research. At some point, we discover that our issues and the solutions we suggest have public importance. The group decides to go public—whether through conference presentations, demonstrations, articles in journals or letters to the local paper, creation of a newsletter, or other avenues. Finally, for a movement to prosper, alternative reward systems are critical. Institutions mete out their own rewards but activism for change can offer rewards of different kinds. We may experience connection, fellowship, and the support of others. As the effort grows and we have some impact, we feel rewarded and encouraged by seeing the fruits of our efforts. In the words of Palmer (1998).

I am a teacher at heart, and I am not naturally drawn to the rough-and-tumble of social change. I would sooner teach than spend my energies helping a movement along and taking the hits that come with it. Yet if I care about teaching, I must care not only for my students and my subject, but also for the conditions . . . that bear on the work teachers do. (p. 182)

How does this play out in our own work? What can we do? Here are a few strategies.

Seek to Be an Inclusive Teacher. First, we can begin in our own class. We seek to construct our teaching inclusively. We can teach in ways that engage all students at their own levels of ability; and we can think ahead about what we might do if the ability range broadened, if we had a student who was “severely gifted” or “severely disabled” in our class. When the opportunity presents itself (and it will), we will be ready. As we teach inclusively we may have a rippling impact in our school as people become aware of what we are doing. At best, we’ll form partnerships and develop a support network of teachers.

Know and Communicate a Philosophy of Inclusive Teaching. Most important is that we are able to articulate a philosophy of inclusive teaching to parents, other teachers, and our administrator. We should know that the inclusive classroom is based on research, law, and best practices. We’ll get clearer over time; but even in the early stages, we’ll be surprised at what impact we can have.

Welcome Students with Special Needs. Teachers can recruit students with special needs into our class. As we communicate to the special education teachers and parents that we’d like to have their children in our class, they will likely be surprised, grateful, and amazed. Here are some actions we might take.

1. Communicate to the principal, or other teachers, or the special education teacher that we’re interested in having heterogeneous students in our class.

FIGURE 1.2

Sample Letter from an Inclusive Teacher

Note: Underlined items will change depending on the school, teacher, and class.

To Whom It May Concern:

My name is Laura Johnson. I am a seventh-grade social studies teacher at Burbank Middle School. I am writing this letter to anyone who may be interested to let you know about my desire to have students with “special needs” in my class.

I believe that all students ought to go to school together. That’s where they develop friendships that will last them all their lives, where they learn how to deal with others and handle their frustrations and fears. I’d like to have a class with diverse students who have abilities ranging from gifted to severely cognitively impaired.

How will I teach such students? Well, please know that I am learning and that I expect to make mistakes. However, if we can work together, I know this can be a fun and valuable class for all my students. Students who can’t yet talk will find a place, as will students who are exploring complex or advanced problems.

Building a community in which students can help and support one another is very important in my class. We have many ways to help that happen—peer buddies, cooperative work groups, and more. My classroom community gives students ways to lean on one another. If your child has some problem behaviors, we’ll all be trying to understand what he or she feels and provide support.

I ask a few things. Here they are:

- That if you have a concern, you talk with me about it.
- That you be patient with me. I am learning.
- That students with special needs be the same age as my other students.
- That special education help will be delivered in my classroom and that I have some say in the type and extent of support I receive.
- That I not be sent *all* the students with special needs.

If you are a parent of a child with special needs, you may never have heard of a general education teacher who *wants* your child in her class. Trust me. I do.

If you are a student who they say has “special needs,” I look forward to having you in my class.

Sincerely,

Laura Johnson

2. Put this in writing as part of the welcoming letter to parents and students at the start of the year, as an open letter to parents to be distributed at the PTA open house, or as a proposal to the principal (see Figure 1.2).
3. Find out if our school automatically sends some students to a special school or class based on their label. Consider sending a copy of the letter to those children’s parents.

However, we’ll also want to spell out some commonsense ground rules: some expectations based on best practices and on the reasonable supports available under the law. What might these expectations include?

1. That the student(s) will be the same age as all our other students (not the presumed same “mental ability level”)
2. That special education services are provided in our class and negotiated with us

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3. That we have time to plan collaboratively
4. That there is adherence to natural proportions—students with special needs will be the same approximate percentage in our class as they are in the district student population

Model for and Support Other Teachers. As we welcome students with special differences into our class, our class can become a model for the school. Some other teachers may be interested and seek advice. If we are a “new” teacher, we should not let our inexperience keep us from providing leadership. It may seem strange, at first, to find ourselves mentoring older teachers; but if we are being true to our journey toward inclusive teaching, we will be learning strategies that other teachers have never considered.

Question Problematic School Practices. Pretty quickly, we will notice practices that concern us. For example, we might find that the special education resource teacher is busy all the time doing pull-out services and can’t help support a student in our class; there is no behavior support team; the school has a zero tolerance policy, so students are suspended for minor infractions; or students in special education attend a segregated class in the building. In each of these situations, we can question these practices. As we do so, we may become clearer about our own thinking and philosophy.

Form Alliances. On the one hand, we want to build a culture of community in the school. On the other hand, in any community differences exist—and we will want to identify who is likely to support authentic, inclusive teaching. As we build relationships, talking and engaging in dialogue will help us gain allies.

Support Change in Our School. A few of us will teach in schools where inclusive teaching is simply how work is done. In such a school, we will continue to learn and work with colleagues to improve practice. Many of us, however, will find ourselves in very segregated schools. Others will be in schools that have moved toward inclusive schooling but have stopped short of the goal. In all these situations, we have an important responsibility and an opportunity to seek ways to spur continued change. At best, we can get together with others. We might develop partnerships between general education teachers and teachers of special students—special education, ESL, and bilingual teachers; obtain videos or written materials to learn more about inclusive teaching; visit inclusive schools; develop plans for rearranging the roles of specialists and assigning students to classes; and find students who may be at a segregated school and work to invite them back to our school.

The leadership of the principal is critical. If a school is violating both the letter and the spirit of the law, administrators are usually well aware of this—and of their potential liability in the case of a lawsuit. We may be able to help them avoid lawsuits that would be harmful to all involved. Figure 1.3 reviews a few core targets that must be addressed as a school moves toward inclusion. As we and other teachers in our school teach inclusively, other educators may visit our school. This recognition can help strengthen our school’s commitment to inclusive teaching.

Be Involved in District Initiatives. As we work to make our school a better place for all children, we will inevitably run up against problems—and opportunities—that are tied to districtwide policies and practices. We can often find ways to confront these issues. For districtwide change we can mobilize strategies similar to those we employed

FIGURE 1.3

Key Areas of Focus for Schoolwide Movement Toward Inclusive Education

Welcoming all together: Commit to the idea that students of diverse abilities can learn well together. If opportunity presents itself, welcome a student with a severe disability into the school and class. Success with such students can provide a powerful model.

Instruction for all: Analyze methods of instruction. Does the curriculum require certain basal readers and texts that are at only one level? How can teachers teach at multiple levels, differentiating instruction? How might this teaching be improved?

Finding “lost” students: Many schools and districts send students with moderate to severe disabilities to special education programs without ever giving them the real chance to enter a regular school. We can identify these programs in our catchment area and find out

who is there. We can offer the parents the opportunity to have their children in our school.

Structuring in-class support: Develop strategies for shifting special services from a “pull-out” to a “push-in” model. Explore ways to assign the caseloads of special education teachers or related services personnel.

Building-based support team: Any school needs multiple support strategies for teachers and students. With a support team that meets regularly, we can ask for assistance and ideas when we are having difficulties with a student.

Community and positive behavioral supports: Both building a culture of community in the school and developing proactive ways of responding to behavioral challenges are particularly important.

in our own building. For example, we might develop relationships with other teachers and staff members. As we become effective in working with students of difference, we likely will find and be found by others who also are looking for allies. We can volunteer to serve on district committees; invite others to visit our class; offer to do presentations about how we teach, in collaboration with others; develop relationships with parents who would like to see inclusive education expanded, and offer to provide information about what we are doing; and work with others to present innovative proposals to the administration.

Traveling Notes

As we’ve discussed in this chapter, schools have made strides towards creating inclusive schools. However, many students are segregated or do not have a sense of belonging in schools. There is much work to be done. Here are key notes to remember from this chapter.

1. Historically, human beings have feared those considered different. The most typical responses have been extermination and segregation.
2. Initial movements toward including those considered different are often based on benevolence, still a pattern of inequality. Our goal is building an inclusive community where all are valued.
3. In our society schools provide the most important place for social development. Inclusive education is key to giving all students a valued role in our communities and society.

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4. However, we have a long way to go. Strides have been made toward inclusive schooling for students from various races and cultures. However, in the last 20 years schools have grown more racially segregated.
5. Most prevalent is segregation based on socioeconomic status. Students who are poor are the most isolated of children.
6. Students who are gifted and talented also are often segregated from other students. Particularly for these future community leaders it is critical that they learn how to deal with diverse people.
7. Students who are gay are seldom overtly segregated. However, there is a pattern of ridicule and abuse that causes great harm.
8. Important movements have occurred to include students who are dominant language learners. However, many approaches and programs still exist that separate these students from others.
9. Students with mild to severe disabilities remain the most segregated of students. The movement toward inclusive education fits in a long history moving from segregation to inclusion in school and community. Parents, people with disabilities, and their allies have struggled to move from segregated institutions, schools, and group homes to being part of inclusive schools and communities. Their struggle parallels the struggle of other groups for civil rights, integration, and equality.
10. Despite these problems, a strong movement toward including all students in learning together is operating in countries throughout the world. In most communities, there is at least some movement toward inclusive teaching.
11. Laws passed over the last 30 years provide a legal basis for civil rights and inclusion.
12. PL 94-142—passed in 1975, updated over the years, and renamed in 1990 as the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA)—guides the delivery of special education services in schools and mandates that students be educated in the least restrictive environment.
13. Teachers have both the opportunity and responsibility to provide leadership toward inclusive teaching in schools. Many teachers are doing so. Teachers can model for others, suggest educators in a school come together to plan for inclusive teaching, and be involved in district initiatives and policy discussions in their state.

Stepping Stones

Following are some activities that will help extend your understanding and actions you may take.

1. Consider what you really feel and believe about difference and inclusion in our society. What do you believe? How comfortable are you with students who have different disabilities and sexual orientation, who are from varied cultural and ethnic groups, who speak varied languages at home?
2. Visit an inclusive school. Talk with teachers about the roles that they played in helping the school become inclusive. What do they say? What patterns do you discern? Ask the general education teachers for their opinions about inclusive teaching. What do they see as their role in helping improve the school as a whole, and what do they think about having students with special needs in their classes? How do you interpret their responses?
3. Interview parents and students in your school in a small focus group discussion. What has been their experience? What do they feel about the school? What might make the school better? What role did they see teachers playing in making the school inclusive?
4. Write a letter setting forth your beliefs about teaching and about the inclusion of students with special needs. Share and discuss this letter with a small group of other teachers.

2

Introduction to Inclusive Teaching

Educating all Children Together Well

with contributions by Douglas Fisher

CHAPTER GOAL

Understand the research base for inclusive teaching and essential elements of inclusive teaching.





CHAPTER OBJECTIVES

1. Become knowledgeable concerning research about segregated and inclusive education.
2. Understand principles and practices of quality inclusive teaching and schooling.
3. Utilize response to intervention as a framework for developing individual differentiation and interventions for students with special needs.
4. Develop a mental picture of effective inclusive schools.

In this chapter we will begin to understand how teachers can teach, how schools can be, so that children with significant differences can learn together. We will leave behind the factory model of schooling moving beyond segregation and benevolence to community membership. We will visit classes, evaluate research on inclusive education, and visit effective inclusive schools. Let's pay careful attention to what we see.



What Is Wrong Here? The Frustrations of Coping with Diverse Children in a “Factory School”

We enter Lafayette Elementary School, where we'll be visiting several classrooms today. As we walk down the hall, we first observe Amanda, a child with a cognitive disability who attends a special education class in the morning and Head Start in the afternoon. Akira, the special education teacher, greets us; he introduces the paraprofessional, Jan, and the speech therapist, Anora, who is in the class once a week. These specialists have 14 children in three groups, each working on skills—learning colors, naming letters, cutting with scissors. Anora is working with Amanda one-on-one at a table. “She really needs individual attention,” Akira explains.

In the afternoon Amanda goes to Head Start. The teacher there, Zola, has activity centers at which her 24 children are engaged. We are intrigued as we watch other children pull Amanda into the center activities, helping her select colors of paper and cut. Curiously, we see Amanda attending and performing in ways that Akira and Jan thought not possible.

Next, we walk to the resource room at the end of the hall, a class for students with learning disabilities. We are warmly greeted by Gayle Horton. “Hi. Come in!” She is using reading and math worksheets with 10 students. After a while Gayle tells us about Robie, a student who “comes to me 2 hours each day for reading and math. I use a special curriculum so that he can have some success.” We ask if she helps Robie with the reading and math in his regular class. “No,” she says. “That is much too hard for him, and besides, there's no way I can keep up with all the different materials the different teachers are using.”

Gayle then expresses her frustrations and the pressures she feels. “They are on so many different levels!” she exclaims. “It's really hard to get to all the students. All are at different levels in every subject, and they are not able to help one another. So I do the best I can. It's really hard.” She goes on to explain that it is virtually impossible to coordinate with the six teachers who send her students. “They are all at different places in the curriculum, using different materials. I am in this class all day with students and have no time to work with them.” We ask Gayle what she thinks about having these students in the general education

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class full time. “Oh no!” she says. “They could never keep up. They would be lost and left behind! Also, the teachers would never want another teacher in their class.”

Finally, we visit Jim Bridges’s fifth-grade social studies class. The upper elementary grades are departmentalized, and Jim shares 75 students with two other teachers. He’s been quite bothered with Lamar, a student classified as “educable mentally retarded.” Lamar goes to Mrs. Horton’s resource room for 1 hour daily but is in Jim’s class the whole period. “Lamar can’t function in my class at all,” Jim says. “His academics are far too low, and he is always causing trouble. I have to spend so much of my time with this one child that I can’t give other children what they deserve.”

As we come in, Jim is passing out textbooks. “Turn to page 53 and begin reading about the Bill of Rights, then go to the questions on your worksheet.” We look around at the class. The children are seated at tables in groups of four or five. A few commercial posters about social studies are on the wall; the only books in the room are the textbooks.

Indeed, Lamar is acting upset. He looks at the book, fidgets, and goes over to the trash can and throws something in it. “Lamar, sit down!” says Jim. Lamar returns and stares at the book.

Jim keeps a watchful eye on Lamar. “See, he won’t do his work,” says Jim. We ask if Lamar is able to read the textbook. “No, that’s the problem. The textbook is at a fourth-grade reading level and Lamar is at a first-grade level.” We ask Jim if he has books at a lower level and if he’s paired Lamar with another student and let them read aloud together. Jim explains that he has no books Lamar can read and doesn’t have the money to buy any. He further observes that students must do their own work and that pairing students for work is a bad idea. “We’ve got to do everything we can to get the test scores up,” he points out. “So they need to do their worksheets on their own.”

We leave for the car, deep in thought. In the two special education classrooms teachers are working hard, but the situation creates dynamics that appear to directly hamper the learning of the children. In Jim’s class some obvious approaches that might help Lamar simply aren’t being tried. Unfortunately, we are aware that Lafayette Elementary is too typical. Can it be different?



Toward Inclusive Schooling

A Glimpse of Teaching Practices That Honor All Children

We take our questions to another school, Thomas Jefferson Middle School. This school has children from many different ethnic groups and from both low and high socioeconomic backgrounds. The district has adopted a focus on both inclusion and improvement of instruction. As we walk in, students in the hall are noisy but not loud. There is an engaged, excited hum and periodic jovial outbursts. The phrase “learning noise” comes to mind.



Our first class is Bob Stephen’s World Cultures class. At Lafayette Elementary the students were all seated at their desks, and the teachers put a lot of energy into keeping the students quiet and working. This class is different. Bob is discussing a project with a small group of students. The rest of the class is a buzz of activity—some students are standing, some sitting, some moving around the room, all engaged.

Bob points out a student to observe. Jonathan, he comments, has low reading and writing abilities and can be disruptive. However, he is very interested in learning and works very hard when he is engaged. He is also very good at singing and playing baseball.

The fourth-hour bell rings. Jonathan, restless, wanders to the back of the room, drumming his pencil on desks along the way. Bob watches Jonathan but says nothing. “Get in

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your work groups,” he says, and Jonathan and the other students gather in circles. Jonathan’s group is working on bartering; today he is the banker, tracking items his group receives in trade and money they have. He works very well and is totally engaged. Later we notice a paraprofessional working with Jonathan’s group. Bob walks throughout the class, helping, encouraging, and coaching students. At the end of the activity, Jonathan reports the money and items to his group. He beams with pride.

Bob has been teaching the World Cultures class for 8 years. He uses teaching strategies such as cooperative learning, simulations, lectures, computer, video, reading supplements, and text reading. For assessment he uses rubrics for research projects, reports, papers, essay tests, oral presentations, and group projects (Peterson, 1999).

We ask him how including students with learning challenges has affected his class. Bob admits it was difficult at first but concludes that it has benefited everyone. “I have the support of a great special education department,” he says. “The inclusion of students with special needs has really improved my teaching.”

We next walk down the hall to Annette Smith’s literacy class. Annette and her students are gathered in the rug area of the room. She is sitting in a chair reading a story to the students. The students listen intently. We wander around the room looking at learning projects: books read list; places we’ve been map; book recommendations (an envelope where students suggest books another student might like); personal “memoirs” projects (shoe boxes containing various personal archives and belongings that help explain students’ lives); published books (three-ring binders filled with poems and writings of students—and of some parents as well).

As the next class comes in, Annette asks them to gather on the carpet. She asks for two or three volunteers. She reminds the other students how hard it is to go first and quietly encourages them to be supportive. Annette then exclaims, “Ladies and gentlemen! We now present Sharon.” Sharon stands and faces the class, showing a picture drawn to illustrate a scene in the book she is reading. She explains what is happening in the scene. Two other students present scenes using characters made of paper or small dolls. Annette then passes out grading rubrics to all of the children. These have the key elements of the story scenes presentation: title, author, pages, presentation of setting, description of characters, the problem in the story, and how the problem was dealt with. She asks students to describe what they liked about the presentations and make suggestions for improvement. The presenting students call on those who raise their hands. We are amazed at their thoughtfulness.

Following a substantial amount of time on this activity and much clapping and appreciation, Annette directs the students to various projects—reading a “just right” book, working on memoirs, or doing group projects on the carpet. The children sort themselves with a bit of flurry but soon settle down to concentrate.

Annette talks with us and notes that among the students are children labeled ADHD, children diagnosed as learning disabled, and one child with severe brain damage. We are amazed that we simply did not notice these children in the classroom. The choices given, the requests for engagement that allowed for a range of ability levels, the respect for all children—all made the learning differences in this class invisible to us as outside observers.

We leave thoughtful and amazed. At Lafayette, even though teachers work hard, they don’t know how to meet the multiple styles, abilities, and challenges of their students. Therefore, many students are referred to special education. At Thomas Jefferson Middle School, in contrast, each of the teachers we have seen is using engaging, interesting learning activities that allow students to work at their own level and encourage students to help one another. Although what we have seen at Jefferson is not perfect, it does represent what is both possible and needed.

What made the difference in these two schools? Engaging teaching techniques? A commitment to educating diverse children together? Supporting children in regular classrooms rather than in separate special education classrooms? Collaboration of

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teachers and specialists in the classroom? School administrative policies that support teachers? In these two schools we saw the difference between effective inclusive teaching and some of the problems associated with segregated special education, themes we will return to many times on our journey.



Research and Inclusive Schooling

The Effectiveness of Inclusive Versus Segregated Education

What does research show regarding inclusive education? Does it work to have students of such differing characteristics learning together? Can schools and teachers implement effective inclusive schooling? Let's look at a synthesis related to these questions with various types of students.

Students from Diverse Races and Cultures

Since the 1950s, schools have not been allowed to segregate students on the basis of race, culture, or gender. The Supreme Court stated that schools that are racially segregated can never be equal in the 1954 *Brown v. Board of Education* ruling. However, after some movement toward racial integration following this landmark case, racial segregation of schools has again increased in recent years. Some 73% of Black students and 77% of Latino students attend schools where students of color are the vast majority and more than one third attend schools that have more than 90% of students of color (Orfield & Lee, 2005). Conversely, some 90% of White students attend schools in which more than 50% of the students are White. The move toward racial resegregation has raised many issues.

Academic achievement of students is directly related to racial segregation (Borman, 2004; Orfield & Lee, 2007), impacts that are associated with greater poverty of children of color. Numerous negative indicators are associated with racially segregated schools. In the United States, 50% of Black and Latino students concentrated in racially segregated schools drop out of school (Orfield, 2004). In a Florida study, the authors concluded that "attempts to resolve the achievement gap by funding equity or classroom size changes" will fail if segregation is not addressed (Borman, 2004, p. 605).

Some have expressed concern that racial integration posits that for a child of color to learn well he or she must sit next to White children. However, race and culture are connected with many other issues. A much greater proportion of people of color have lower incomes so that issues related to poverty and quality schooling are evident. Further, even middle-income minority families end up in neighborhoods with high concentrations of poverty and in schools with high percentages of poor students (Harris & McArdle, 2004). Racial prejudice and discrimination continue. Students of color are identified as having disabilities and needing special education services at a much higher rate than their incidence in the population. Some argue that this is, in part, a result of racial discrimination and low expectations by educators of these students. This has been particularly the case as boys of color are identified as having behavioral problems and labeled as having emotional disturbance or social maladjustment.

Students Who Are Poor

Research is very clear that when schools have high concentrations of poor students academic achievement goes down. Poverty has many impacts on learning and human development and clustering of poor students in segregated schools expands the impacts of

Multilevel Teaching and Support for Inclusive Teaching



Dailey Elementary School
3135 N. Harrison
Fresno, CA 93710

Dailey Elementary is a K–6 school in Fresno Unified School District, an urban district in the agricultural heart of California. The city ranks sixth in the nation in childhood poverty, and students speak 101 languages. Seventy-nine percent of the approximately 630 students qualify for the free/reduced lunch program. The population is culturally diverse: 49% of students are Hispanic, 32% White, 9% Asian, and 8% African American. Just over 20% have been identified as learners of English as a second language.

The school district is now working to have all children with special needs included in general education classes. Beginning in the 2000–2001 school year, students with special needs in self-contained classes returned to Dailey fully included in general education classrooms. Since that time the school has included children with autism, Tourette syndrome, Down syndrome, cerebral palsy, developmental delays, hearing impairment, emotional/behavioral problems, and learning disabilities.

In 14 of 28 classrooms, in a mix of multiage and regular graded classes, a resource specialist and special day class teacher serve approximately 40 children identified with special needs. The school has one full-time and two part-time paraprofessionals as well as a half-day assistant for a student with autism. Specialists provide weekly support: an adaptive PE teacher, an occupational therapist, a speech therapist, and a school psychologist. One day a week an

inclusion specialist observes children and helps teachers brainstorm solutions.

Although the teachers have concerns, they are working hard to differentiate instruction to accommodate all the children. Teachers use scaffolding, differentiated instruction, and multiple ways of knowing as a matter of course in many of the classrooms. Supported reading, choral reading, read alouds, interactive writing, reading and writing conferences, individualized spelling work, mini-lessons, and whole class discussions are all part of the picture. Some children use portable keyboards for writing. Others work on clipboards or use dry erase boards. Visual schedules, break cards, and individualized stories are used to help children who have difficulty staying on task or communicating with students or teachers.

Building community is important to the teachers at Dailey. Even before inclusion, several teachers insisted that I, a special education teacher, work with students with special needs in their classes. Because many teachers follow a workshop or inquiry model, I am able to work with individuals or small groups as needed. Instruction is more easily adapted to the needs of the students.

Our school's vision of inclusion continues to evolve as the general and special education teachers become comfortable with this new challenge, and as our student population ebbs and flows. There have been many positive experiences for the staff, parents, and students; and we continue to learn better ways to make everyone full members of the school community.

By Nancy Barth, inclusion teacher.

these difficulties. Children who are poor have much less exposure to language than middle school children. Families are often unstable, changing residence frequently and shifting their children from school to school. Neighborhoods are often considered unsafe and students frequently lack proper nutrition. Schools that have a high percentage of low-income students struggle to attract and retain good teachers and have higher rates of teacher turnover, often resulting in students having less able teachers. These schools also have a higher incidence of behavior problems, a high rate of dropouts, are most often racially segregated, and have large percentages of students whose first language is not

42 Part I: Foundations of Inclusive Teaching**Whole Schooling and Inclusion Press**

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the predominant language. In addition, within schools peers are very important. Studies have shown that the absence of strong, positive influence of peers related to education has substantially lowered academic achievement (Orfield & Lee, 2005; Orfield, Losen, Wald, & Swanson, 2004).

What has been the impact of economic integration initiatives in which districts seek to heterogeneously mix students who are poor with middle-class students? Consistently, when implemented effectively, the achievement of low-income students has been higher and no negative impacts on other students have been reported. Students are exposed to higher expectations and have more educational and career options in these efforts. However, school districts must be careful to ensure that the percentage of low-income students does not grow too large. If this occurs, a tipping point may be reached where the impacts associated with poverty resurface. Finally, some studies have shown that when districts work effectively toward economic integration, racial integration follows as part of this process (Boger, 2005; Orfield & Lee, 2005). Research makes it very clear, then, if students of color and those who are poor are to narrow the achievement gap with their wealthier, White peers, economic and racial integration are critically important.

Dominant-Language Learners

Students who do not speak the dominant language often are segregated many times over, increasing their isolation. Such second-language learners are often from poor families and attend schools with high percentages of low-income students. As noted, these schools are often racially segregated as well. However, the pattern typically continues as second-language learners are put in separate classes to learn the dominant language or be taught in their first language. Most Latino students, for example, attend school where more than 60% of students are Latino (Orfield & Lee, 2005). Latino and Asian second-language learners are more than three times as isolated as their peers (Lee, 2004). The research regarding racial and economic segregation applies directly to many of these students.

What does research say about including students whose language is not the dominant one in general education classes using two-way bilingual education and sheltered instruction versus separate classes for either bilingual education or education in the dominant language (English as a second language in English-speaking countries)? This is a difficult question to answer. The debate among researchers regarding this and related questions has been substantial. Conclusions that can be drawn from research reflect tensions between the need to include students who are second-language learners with the peers in school and the need to provide the most effective means of learning a second language and learning academic content (de Jong, 2006; Ma, 2002; U.S. Department of Education, 1995).

First, immersion in dominant-language classrooms without meaningful and thoughtful language support is ineffective. The theory upon which this approach is built,

that students will learn a second language more quickly if they are immersed in it full-time, simply hasn't worked. Quality instruction and time is more important. Languages take several years to learn fluently. Political efforts to eliminate bilingual education and institute full immersion programs have proven unsuccessful.

Second, researchers are clear that students need to learn using their native language where their culture is also honored. Programs that combine use of the native language with instruction in the dominant language are seen as effective.

Third, students also need to be integrated and educated with students who are fluent in the dominant language. Such inclusive educational approaches ensure that students develop relationships with others and feel a sense of belonging in the school that helps prevent social and emotional difficulties. Additionally, social integration with dominant-language speakers provides fluent role models in the use of language and does help students learn and apply language in ways that is not possible in a separate classroom.

Fourth, researchers have identified several characteristics of effective instruction of second-language learners that are applicable in both separate bilingual or ESL classrooms but particularly important in dominant-language classrooms. Particularly important is the need for teachers to “shelter” language demands using additional cues such as graphics, gestures, and pictures to enhance understanding and communication and reduce the demand on language alone. Instruction should also incorporate authentic learning that calls on higher cognitive abilities, engage student interest, offer student-directed activities, and make connections between school and home (Ma, 2002). Interestingly, these are exactly the type of supports that other students who have language difficulties (for example, children with cognitive disabilities) need.

While results are yet inconclusive, there is increasing evidence that inclusive, integrated approaches for students who are second-language learners can successfully incorporate all these findings. As noted in Chapter 1, two-way or dual-language bilingual education programs combined with sheltered instruction, an approach designed to incorporate key elements of effective instruction, and integrated bilingual education all provide options for inclusive strategies that have proven effective.

Students Considered Gifted and Talented

Much debate has occurred regarding whether students considered gifted and talented should be in separate programs or whether general education teachers should be trained to provide differentiated instruction to provide effective instruction for these students. In a comprehensive review of research, Oakes (1985) and Wheelock (1992) concluded that separate programs for high-ability students have only mild academic benefits but that they have negative impacts on average- to low-ability students. The removal of high-achieving classmates takes away role models whose work may strengthen learning for other students. Further, highly able students often feel isolated and cut off from their friends. Sapon-Shevin (1994b) found that such programs often promote elitism and break a sense of community. Most researchers agree that if teachers used multilevel, differentiated instruction segregated programs would be unnecessary (Clark, 1997; Cline, 1999; Kennedy, 1995; Sapon-Shevin, 1994a,b; Willis, 1995). Much work has occurred to develop programs and strategies for differentiated, multi-level instruction that provides a way to challenge all students at their ability level, including students considered gifted and talented using talent development of all students and consultation by gifted specialists with teachers (Kirschenbaum, Armstrong, Ciner, & Landrum, 1999; Stepanek, 1999; Tomlinson, 2004b; Tomlinson et al., 2002; Wilkes, 2000; Winebrenner, 2001).

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Students Who Are Gay

Gay and lesbian students are included in general education classes. Despite much prejudice and poor treatment of these students, students who consider themselves gay have not been segregated in public schools. As reported in Chapter 1, we know that the typical negative, hostile treatment of students who are gay impacts them in many problematic ways. However, research has also found that proactive efforts can make a difference. When gay–straight alliance groups are formed in schools, this is a particularly effective strategy for making schools safe, more accepting places not only for students who are gay but for all students as well. When this occurs, gay and lesbian students have different feelings about themselves and achieve better academic and social outcomes. Additionally, there are no data that suggest that homosexuality increases among other young people when students are accepted and supported (GLSEN, 2007; MacGillivray, 2004; Smith, 2008).

Students with Disabilities

The move to including students with disabilities who have traditionally been served by special education is the newest, and, for some, most controversial part of the movement toward inclusive teaching. So we review the research in some detail regarding inclusion of these students. Figure 2.1 summarizes research on comparative academic and social outcomes of students in special and general education classes. You'll note that Figure 2.1 does not have a column headed "Segregated Classes Best." This is because no research to date has found better outcomes when comparing segregated and inclusive education. Figure 2.2 provides a summary of academic and social outcomes of students with varied levels of disability in inclusive education.

Educators have thought that segregated special education classes with smaller class sizes and additional adult resources would allow teachers to individualize instruction and focus on the learning styles and needs of each student, thus leading to improved learning. However, research overwhelmingly indicates that this has not occurred. For example, when Vaughn, Moody, and Schumm (1998) and Moody and colleagues (2000) studied instruction in resource rooms, they found that these programs constitute "broken promises" and are a "setup for failure" for students with disabilities. In both of these studies teachers taught mostly through whole class instruction; gave the same level of reading materials to students at obviously different levels of ability; used basals as the primary source of reading material; and used very little individualized, small group, or differentiated instruction. Others have reviewed instruction in special education classrooms with similar findings (Allington, 1991, 1993, 1994; McIntosh, Vaughn, Schumm, Haager, & Lee, 1993).

Advocates of inclusive education have hoped that greater academic expectations, a richer learning environment, more effective teaching strategies, and modeling by more able peers would enhance learning. With few exceptions, the research strongly supports these hopes. Again, note that no research findings in Figure 2.1 indicate segregated education is more effective. As early as 1968, Dunn questioned separate special education classes (Dunn, 1968). Waldron and McLeskey (1998), summarizing research related to segregated special education programs, indicated that "there is some controversy regarding whether separate class placement is *ever beneficial* for students with mild disabilities." Carlberg and Kavale (1980), Wang and Baker (1986), and Baker (1994) each conducted a **meta-analysis**, a statistical procedure by which findings from different studies are combined, of 74 studies; results showed that students with disabilities had more positive academic learning in integrated settings. Likewise, several studies found that achievement of

FIGURE 2.1

Impacts of Inclusive and Segregated Education for Students with Disabilities

INCLUSIVE EDUCATION BEST	MIXED RESULTS
<p>Carlberg and Kavale (1980): Meta-analysis of 50 studies showed more positive academic learning in integrated settings.</p>	<p>Affleck, Madge, Adams, and Lowenbraun (1988): Study found no difference in academic performance; integrated education was more cost-effective.</p>
<p>Brinker and Thorpe (1984) and Hunt, Goetz, and Anderson (1986): Greater integration associated with more IEP goals met.</p>	<p>Baker and Zigmond (1995): 50% of students with LD made equal progress to classmates. Students with more severe LD made equal progress in both special education and general education classes.</p>
<p>Wang and Baker (1986). Meta-analysis of 11 studies showed more positive academic learning in integrated settings.</p>	<p>Marston (1996): 240 students with LD made better progress in partial pull-out than in full-time inclusion or pull-out only.</p>
<p>Cole and Meyer (1991): Children in inclusive settings showed greater social competence, spent more time with peers and less time alone.</p>	<p>Manset and Semmel (1997): Reviewed 11 studies but could not conclude that either segregation or inclusion was more effective. Recommended best practice teaching strategies in general education.</p>
<p>Baker (1994): Meta-analysis of 13 studies showed more positive academic learning in integrated settings. Hunt, Farron-Davis, Beckstead, Curtis, and Goetz (1994): Students with severe disabilities had more engagement, higher quality IEPs, and higher levels of social interaction in inclusive education.</p>	<p>Buyse and Bailey (1993) and Hundert, Mahoney, and Mundy (1998): Children with severe disabilities in segregated preschools showed less developmental progress than comparable children in integrated settings.</p>
<p>Fryxell and Kennedy (1995) and Kennedy, Shulka, and Fryxell (1997): Studies showed larger social networks, substantial social benefits, interactions with general education students.</p>	<p>Freeman and Alkin (2000): Comprehensive review of studies for students with mental retardation concluded that the more students were integrated, the higher were their academic performance and social skills.</p>
<p>Waldron and McLeskey (1998): Mild LD students gained in reading in inclusive class, were equal in math; those with severe LD made equal progress in both inclusive and segregated settings.</p>	

LD = learning disability.

FIGURE 2.2

Outcomes of Inclusive Education for Students with Disabilities

ACADEMIC	SOCIAL
Students with mild disabilities	<p>Students with mild disabilities make better gains in inclusive programs than in pull-out programs (Banerji & Dailey, 1995; Deno, Maruyama, Espin, & Cohen, 1990; Fishbaugh & Gum, 1994; Jenkins et al., 1994; National Center for Educational Restructuring and Inclusion, 1995).</p>
Students with moderate to severe disabilities	<p>There is more active student engagement (Saint-Laurent & Lessard, 1991). Students develop enhanced social competence and improved behavior more than in segregated classes (Baker, Wang, & Walberg, 1994; Cole & Meyer, 1991; McLeskey, Waldon, & Pacchiano, 1993; Saint-Laurent & Lessard, 1991). Students with mild disabilities are less often accepted and are more likely to be rejected because of their behavior than students without disabilities (Roberts & Zubrick, 1992).</p>
Students without disabilities	<p>The quality of Individualized Education Plans is improved (Brinker & Thorpe, 1984; Hunt & Farron-Davis, 1992; Hunt, Farron-Davis, Beckstead, Curtis, & Goetz, 1994; Hunt, Goetz, & Anderson, 1986; Kaskinen-Chapman, 1992). For students with moderate to severe disabilities, achievement is enhanced or at least equivalent in inclusive versus segregated settings (Cole & Meyer, 1991; Giangreco, Dennis, Cloninger, Edelman, & Schattman, 1993; National Center for Educational Restructuring and Inclusion, 1995; Ryndak, Downing, Jacqueline, & Morrison, 1995; Saint-Laurent & Lessard, 1991).</p>
Students without disabilities	<p>Friendships and social interactions for students with disabilities expand in school and carry over to after-school contexts (Fryxell & Kennedy, 1995; Hall, 1994; Hunt, Farron-Davis et al., 1994; McDonnell, Hardman, Hightower, & Kiefer-O'Donnell, 1991; Ryndak et al., 1995; Salisbury, Palombaro, & Hollowood, 1993; Staub, Schwartz, Gallucci, & Peck, 1994). Students with severe disabilities have many social interactions, though these are often assistive. Over the course of the year, the numbers of interactions decrease but become more natural. Teachers can facilitate increased reciprocal interactions between students with and without disabilities (Hunt, Alwell, Farron-Davis, & Goetz, 1996).</p> <p>Students view their involvement with peers with disabilities positively (Altman & Lewis, 1990; Helmstetter, Peck, & Giangreco, 1994; McLeskey et al., 1993; Pugach & Wesson, 1995; Stainback, Stainback, Moravec, & Jackson, 1992). There is an increased appreciation and understanding of diversity (Fisher, Pumpian, & Sax, 1998; Helmstetter et al., 1994; Peck et al., 1992; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1994). Self-esteem and behaviors improve. (Staub, Spaulding, Peck, Gallucci, & Schwartz, 1996).</p> <p>There is no evidence that academic progress is impeded in inclusive classes, and in some cases it consistently increases (Fishbaugh & Gum, 1994; Hunt, Staub, Alwell, & Goetz, 1994; Kaskinen-Chapman, 1992; Odom, Deklyen, & Jenkins, 1984; Saint-Laurent, Glasson, Royer, Simard, & Pierard, 1998; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1994; Sharpe, York, & Knight, 1994; Wang & Birch, 1984). Engaged time is not diminished (Hollowood, Salisbury, Rainforth, & Palombaro, 1995; McIntosh, Vaughn, Schumm, Haager, & Lee, 1993; Peck, Carlson, & Helmstetter, 1992; Pugach & Wesson, 1995). Problem-solving skills are acquired (Biklen, Corrigan, & Quick, 1989; Salisbury, Palombaro, & Hollowood, 1993).</p>

IEP goals was stronger in inclusive education (Brinker & Thorpe, 1984; Hunt, Farron-Davis, Beckstead, Curtis, & Goetz, 1994; Hunt, Goetz, & Anderson, 1986; Kaskinen-Chapman, 1992). Freeman and Alkin (2000) conducted a comprehensive review of research over the preceding 25 years concerning integration of children with mental retardation; they concluded that studies showed that the more time these children spent in general education, the more their academic growth improved.

A small number of studies (see Figure 2.1) have been less clear. Affleck, Madge, Adams, and Lowenbraun (1988) and Manset and Semmel (1997) found neither segregated nor inclusive education to be more effective. Baker, Zigmond, and colleagues (Baker & Zigmond, 1995; Zigmond, Jenkins, & Fuchs, 1995) showed that some 33 to 64% of students with mild learning disabilities in inclusive classes in three states made gains comparable to those of their general education peers. For those with more severe learning disabilities, however, progress was minimal and no differences in progress existed between general and special education. The researchers concluded that “general education settings produce achievement outcomes for students with learning disabilities that are neither desirable nor acceptable” (Zigmond et al., 1995, p. 539). Waldron and McLesky (1998) replicated the research and found similarly that 48% of students with learning disabilities made gains comparable to those of their general education peers. However, Waldron and McLesky saw the glass as half full: They were quite encouraged that approximately half of these students made progress equal to that of students without disabilities, and they suggested that the criterion for success cannot be “cure” but should be progress in learning. In fact, if achievement of students with learning disabilities is approximately equal, according to these two studies, in full-time general education and pull-out, separated services, ethically there is no reason that these students should be pulled out at all as evidence is clear that social and emotional problems occur when students are separated from their peers.

One final point is worth noting. Studies that compared inclusive and segregated education, for the most part, have made no attempt to evaluate the *quality of instruction* students are receiving. In other words, studies show that inclusive education is at least as effective as pull-out services whether or not the student is receiving quality instruction. If, as proposed in this book, teachers systematically used effective inclusive teaching approaches, we could reasonably expect that results would be much more positive.

Socially, the promise of segregated special education classes has been twofold. On the one hand, parents and educators have sought a place to protect students with cognitive and physical disabilities from feared ridicule or direct harm. On the other hand, segregated programs for students with behavioral difficulties have allowed greater control and promised more nurturing environments in which trained specialists can help students improve emotionally and socially.

Those calling for inclusive education, however, have been concerned about the isolation of children with disabilities from their neighborhood communities. Students in special education classes often go to a different school than neighborhood children, limiting opportunities for relationships. Parents of children in special schools typically come from a wide geographical area, making development of mutually supportive relationships difficult. Advocates of inclusive education hope that attending regular education classes, with needed support, will help children develop relationships, become a meaningful part of their community, and improve their self-esteem.

For students with behavioral problems, inclusive educators have been concerned that schools do not build a supportive learning community when students are removed—and that the self-esteem of such students is severely damaged. Kauffman, Lloyd, and Baker (1995) argue that general educators are not prepared to meet the behavioral challenges of students with emotional disturbances and that separate

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programs staffed by specially trained professionals are needed. However, problems in outcomes of segregated programs for students with emotional and behavioral problems are clear. Follow-up data indicate that once students are placed in a segregated program, the chances that they will drop out of school, be arrested, be imprisoned, and/or be unemployed all increase (Berg, 1989, p. 10B; Cheney & Harvey, 1994; Garbarino, Dubrow, Kostelny, & Pardo, 1992; Kay, 1999; Lantieri & Patti, 1996; Zions, 1997). Researchers in this field hope that schools will work to develop nurturing communities that help prevent emotional problems and will use proactive strategies to help children learn social skills when problems do occur. Guidelines for practice resulting from research and demonstration efforts have been documented (Cheney & Muscott, 1996; Knoff & Batsche, 1995; March & Sprague, 1999; Meadows, 1996; Reavis & Andrews, 1999; University of Oregon, 1999; Zions, 1997).

For students with academic and physical challenges, the social and emotional results of inclusion have been particularly positive. Inclusive education provides many more opportunities for interactions, development of relationships, and social skill enhancement (Fryxell & Kennedy, 1995; Hall, 1994; Hunt, Farron-Davis et al., 1994; McDonnell, Hardman, Hightower, & Kiefer-O'Donnell, 1991; Ryndak, Downing, Jacqueline, & Morrison, 1995; Staub, Schwartz, Gallucci, & Peck, 1994).

Research has also documented challenges and questions. With students who have more severe disabilities, typical students may provide help and assistance rather than playing or socializing (Salisbury, Palombaro, & Hollowood, 1993). Not surprisingly, students with disabilities, whether mild or severe, often have poorer social skills and are less often accepted and more often rejected (Freeman & Alkin, 2000; Salend & Duhaney, 1999), particularly because of behavioral problems, than students without disabilities. Studies have also shown, however, that teachers and other staff can facilitate relationships as part of community building, and that problem solving, conflict resolution, and social skills development can be effectively integrated into classes across the grade levels (Freeman & Alkin, 2000; Hunt, Alwell, Farron-Davis, & Goetz, 1996).

Research and Change

Many studies make it clear that proactive efforts to create an inclusive school can be effective, even invigorating for students and teachers. Some researchers, however, argue that educators are neither willing nor able to develop the innovative practices necessary to make inclusive teaching successful; these researchers have documented problems that include (1) poor planning and preparation, (2) inadequate supports for students and teachers, and (3) negative and adversarial attitudes of educators (Baines, Baines, & Masterson, 1994; McGregor & Vogelsberg, 1998; Salend & Duhaney, 1999; Zigmond & Baker, 1995).

Although change is always slow, increasing numbers of schools are successfully moving toward inclusive schooling. When change efforts involve faculty training, administrative leadership and support, in-class assistance, and other special services, the attitudes of teachers are positive (Phillips, Alfred, Brulli, & Shank, 1990; Villa, Thousand, Meyers, & Nevin, 1996; Werts, Wolery, Snyder, & Caldwell, 1996). Some teachers see inclusive schooling as building on positive teaching practices they already have in place (Fisher, Sax, Rodifer, & Pumpian, 1999; Rainforth, 1992). Teachers may fear having students with severe disabilities at first—but as teachers have come to know these students, they have engaged them and have been willing to have them again (Giangreco, Dennis, Cloninger, Edelman, & Schattman, 1993).

Despite the fact that much segregated education still exists, many schools are gradually moving toward inclusive education, as several comprehensive studies have

documented. Among these are O’Hearn Elementary School in Boston (Henderson, 2000), Souhegan High School in New Hampshire (Jorgensen, 1998), and Purcell Marion High School in Cincinnati (Bauer & Myree-Brown, 2001). The National Center for Educational Restructuring and Inclusion (1995) conducted a national study of hundreds of schools throughout the United States that were implementing inclusive education.

Implications of Research. Research to date provides a solid foundation on which to expand inclusive schooling. Legally and ethically, students should not be segregated unless there is clear evidence of superiority for segregated classes and programs. The most important research questions for the future are not *whether* we should seek to build inclusive schools but *how* we may do so well. Clearly, as Zigmond and Baker (1995) state, for inclusive teaching to be successful, “business as usual” is not possible.



What Is School For?

To make sense of talking about whether schooling and teaching are being effective and how to create good schools and be a good teacher, we must ask a very fundamental question: “What are schools for?” Said a different way, “What do we hope that children will be as a result of schooling?” Peterson and Tamor (2009) discussed two clear options.

Two primary opposing views exist regarding the purpose of schools. Some, such as the Business Roundtable (Ryan, 2004) and Achieve (Achieve, 2004), an organization created by governors and business leaders, believe that the primary purpose of schools should be to *create workers* who have skills and personal styles to fill and perform available jobs. Others believe this outcome is too narrow (Freeman, 2005; Goodlad, 1984b; Hodgkinson, 2006; Postman, 1996). For them schools should seek to develop active *citizens*, helping children develop their own capacity for personal achievement and contributing to society as active citizens for democracy.

Relatedly we might consider these two goal statements for schools:

1. Children should learn to compete so they can be successful in business and work, become wealthy, and do better than others. They should focus on their own needs even to the detriment of others.
2. Children should learn to do their best and should take responsibility for themselves, their family, and others in their community. We would hope they would work to make their communities better, more caring places in which to live.

When we look at these two related options (training workers versus educating citizens; creating competitors or caring contributors), most people would opt for the second option. In fact, if you review mission statements of most public schools, you will often see clear statements that relate to option two. However, the way we evaluate the efficacy of schools and the way schools and classrooms are often organized promotes exactly the opposite.

In this context, three approaches to learning are apparent: (1) competition, (2) individualization, and (3) cooperation. When competition rules in schools and classrooms we are actively teaching children that what matters is not how good you are, how much you know, but whether you win. Winning, of course, is for the few; losing is for the many. When we use competition as the basis for learning we are also teaching children that their goal is to put others down so they can win. It is not surprising that in such environments children are often uncaring and create problems. We are actively teaching them to do so! We can also focus on individualistic learning approaches where students are expected to

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learn on their own based on their own goals. While this moves in a positive direction, when we use this approach we are teaching children that only they matter, that they have no responsibility to others. Finally, however, when we use cooperative, collaborative learning we actively teach children that all people are interdependent, that the success and quality of life of each individual is interactive with and related to the success of others and the existence of an effective community of people working together.

Unfortunately, too seldom do educators and community members clearly address this fundamental question and establish mechanisms for evaluating how well schools do. What schools, for example, assess students regarding their caring for others and their contributions to the community? What schools aggregate such information and report it to the community?

Despite these problems of evaluation, we believe that most people really do want schools that educate children to be caring citizens. If this is our goal, then it only makes sense that we create inclusive schools where all are valued. It's an inevitable part of meeting this mission and purpose of schooling.



Evaluating Success in Learning and Achievement Toward Personal Best Learning

If we are to have schools that are effective in promoting learning and achievement for all students, we must have a clear picture of how we will determine if schools are successful. Three different approaches are evident: (1) traditional, (2) standards-based, and (3) personal excellence (see Figure 2.3). Let's briefly discuss these important concepts. (This information has been adapted from Peterson & Tamor, 2009.)

First, the **traditional model** posits that we teach all students the same content in the same way. We *expect* some to do well and some to fail and consider this the problem of the student, not of the educator. This approach has been problematic in that some students have poor learning outcomes and there have been no expectations that it will be otherwise. This has been particularly problematic related to students of color, students with low incomes, and students with disabilities.

More recently, throughout the world, **standards-based reform** (Koski, 2001; Silver, 2004) has established minimal standards of performance, typically as a score on a standardized test, which all students are expected to achieve. In this system, a student who is considered highly gifted and a student with a cognitive disability are expected to achieve at the same level. Schools, then, are evaluated based on their ability to achieve such *equal outcomes for all students, typically in a small subset of skills*.

The problems with this model, however, are substantial. Having one standard for all ensures that some students, the most capable, learn beneath their capacity and that other students, even though they work hard and learn a great deal, will be considered failures. It's hard to understand, for example, why we would expect the same learning outcomes of a student who is gifted and a student with a cognitive disability. Students who are gifted often can achieve expected outcomes without ever even attending school. They may skate through classes putting out minimal effort and learn little in school. For students with cognitive disabilities, expected outcomes may be far beyond their capacities, even when they put forth great effort and progress significantly. The standards-based movement, with its emphasis on standardized testing in selected curriculum areas, is being shown to deemphasize a focus on the whole child and the importance of building a social-emotional foundation in the culture of the school (Bull, 2006; Duttweiler & McEvoy, 2001).

FIGURE 2.3

Differing Approaches to Learning Goals and Evaluation of Schools		
TRADITIONAL EDUCATION	STANDARDS-BASED EDUCATION	PERSONAL EXCELLENCE
Same Teaching for All	Same Standard for All	Different Standards
<i>Accept different outcomes</i>	<i>Expect same outcomes for all</i>	<i>Based on personal excellence</i>
Develop curriculum strands across subjects guiding curriculum content.	Establish expectations of academic facts and knowledge for every age and grade level organized around traditional academic subjects—reading, writing, math, social studies, science.	Develop outcome goals for students that reflect the overall purpose of schools—citizenship, academic skills, social-emotional abilities, character. Develop strands for curriculum content linking subjects.
Provide the same instruction for all students.	Expect students to achieve these standards irregardless of ability, background, or prior knowledge.	Expect students to make ongoing growth and progress, starting with present understanding and deepening and widening.
Assessment is based on the ability of the school to provide equal educational experiences to all students.	All students take a standardized test as a measure of identified skills and content knowledge.	All students will be assessed to determine individual progress. Schoolwide reporting systems are developed to reflect this.

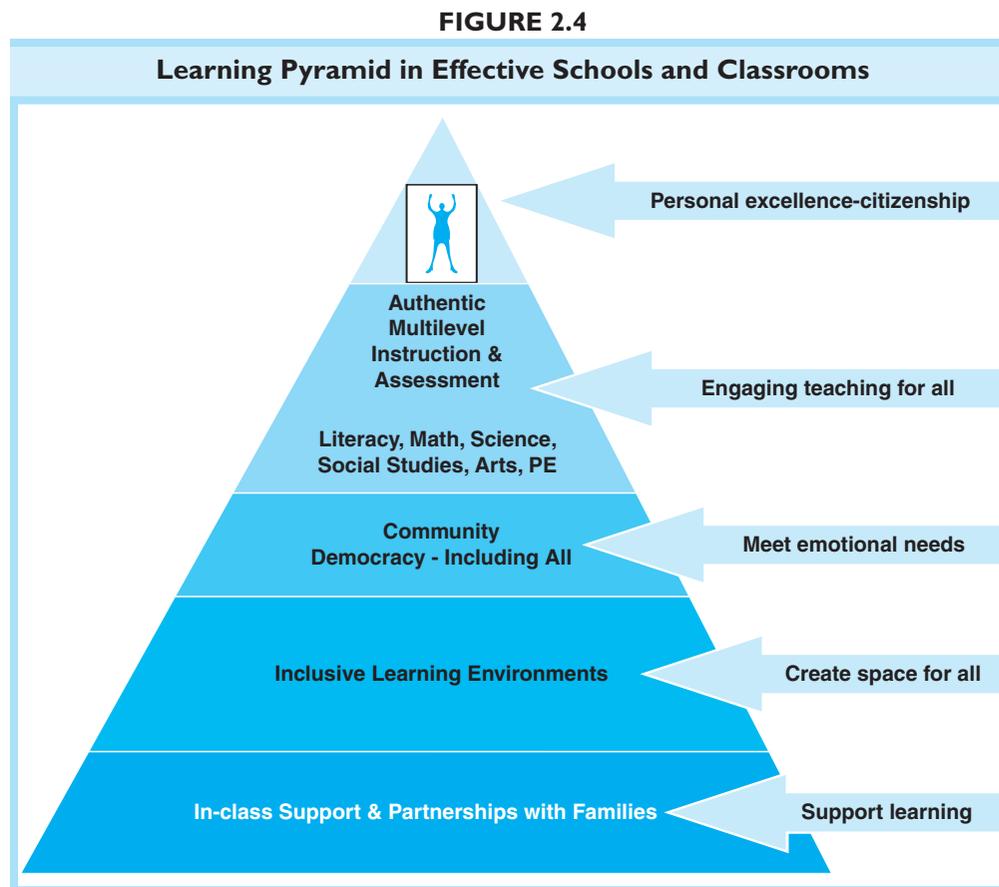
Source: From Peterson and Tamor (2009).

The next model we call **personal excellence**. In this model, we expect all students to achieve at their *personal best level* and for ongoing instruction to recognize where students are and engage them in learning using multiple modalities, approaches, and supports to move to the next level. In this scenario, a student would be considered successful if she were making progress and meeting learning goals. We would have very different expectations of students who are highly gifted and students with cognitive disabilities in, say, biology class though they may be working on similar content. In this scheme, we would evaluate schools based on (a) their ability to create instructional environments that support personal best and just right learning challenges without segregating students by ability, race, culture, language, or other variables; (b) the achievement of higher learning outcomes appropriate for each student; and (c) the evaluation of student learning on a holistic profile based on the stated purpose of the school district.



Key Elements of Effective Inclusive Teaching

Based on the research, what would an effective **inclusive school** look like, one designed to work toward personal excellence for all students? We'll sketch a picture of an inclusive school and inclusive teaching practice. Figure 2.4 shows how practices build on one another. (The following is adapted from Peterson & Tamor, 2009.)



Provide Support for Teachers, Students, and Parents (Chapters 4 and 5)

Supporting teachers in working with students at multiple ability levels, students who have emotional and social challenges in their lives, or students with sensory–physical differences is critical. Just as children need to feel safe and comfortable, so do adults. Teachers who are used to teaching at only one level sometimes have difficulty teaching to multiple levels and need help learning new ideas.

At most schools a range of specialists are available to deal with special needs and problems of children—social workers, special education teachers, bilingual teachers, psychologists, nurses, occupational therapists, speech therapists, and others. In a traditional school most of these people work on their own, with limited consultation from others, pulling children out of class for services. In an inclusive school, however, specialists work to support the general education classroom teacher as part of a *team*. Students are heterogeneously grouped in all classes and not ability grouped within classes. Support staff and the general education teacher work together with the whole class, and students with special needs are not taught at the side or at the back of the class.

Support teams often meet weekly to discuss the needs of children with special problems and brainstorm ideas for handling the issues, and planning meetings are scheduled at least every 2 weeks between the general education teacher and specialists who support



CLEARING A PATH
FOR PEOPLE WITH SPECIAL NEEDS
CLEARS THE PATH FOR EVERYONE!

the classroom. Special education teachers and other specialists—Title I teachers, speech therapists, occupational therapists—collaborate and support general education teachers in their classes. Teachers or **paraprofessionals** work with all the students in the class while ensuring that the students with special needs receive the help they need; such teachers often supervise small groups of children with mixed abilities who are engaged in different projects—centers, inquiry projects, and more. Teachers meet regularly in book study groups to learn new strategies.

Partner with Parents and the Local Community (Chapter 6)

Parents of children with special needs have typically gone through much. In traditional schools, such parents receive frequent negative feedback. However, we know that strong parent support is critical. Therefore, in an inclusive school we turn this pattern around through the following types of actions:

- Parents are *immediately* invited to have their children in inclusive classes.
- We meet with parents and listen carefully to their thoughts about their children, seeking to understand each child's gifts, strengths, needs, and interests from the parents' perspective, as well as to identify strategies that work with the child.
- We invite parents into the school and into class, making them feel welcome and a part of the school family and community.

In an inclusive school family members are often seen in the building. They read to classes, help during writing time, cut out materials, and demonstrate things they have learned in their career. Even parents whose work does not give them the flexibility to join the class during the day are often willing to do something at home for the class. They can read and record books on tape, put together books from a publishing center, or

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arrange for a field trip that involves touring their workplace. Family fun nights allow children and parents to engage in learning activities together in the evening. In an inclusive school parents are allies, discuss concerns freely and often, and see themselves as working as a team.

Create Space for All in Learning (Chapter 7)

In inclusive schools, whether newly constructed or older buildings, we do our best to take into account the multiple needs of children and staff in the way we use physical space and resources. We work to create places of beauty, peace, and fun; spaces where all have a place to belong and that respond to the different learning styles of children. Technology plays a key role in providing children expanded tools for learning and sources of information. In all this, we use **assistive technology**, whether simple devices such as nonskid desk pads that help a child with cerebral palsy place materials on his desk, software that reads words aloud or provides spelling and writing assistance, or more sophisticated electronic communication devices.

Empowerment, Leadership, and Democracy (Chapters 9–13)

Given the amount of segregation in our society based on race, class, culture, and ability, it is not surprising that building an inclusive school is a very challenging task and must be intentional, requiring a different way of thinking about teaching children. It takes a staff commitment that all students will be welcomed. For this commitment to become part of the culture of the school, the total staff must see inclusion as a value for children, must be able to articulate the reasons for their belief, must be willing to defend their work to those voicing concern, and must be willing to struggle when the inclusive approach doesn't seem to be working for a particular child. Effective inclusive schools, then, are also models of democratic practice. In them teachers and parents, supported by administrators, take responsibility both for leading and for listening, involving children in creating a school and classes where children learn together (Apple, 1995; Banks, 1990; Edelsky, 1999; Kozol, 1991).

Build Community and Meet the Needs of Children with Behavioral Challenges (Chapters 9 and 10)

If children are to learn, they must feel safe, secure, and cared for. When they don't, learning diminishes or ceases. Yet many children are at risk in our society. Teachers and schools are challenged to fill this void by providing comforting support structures. *Building community* in the school is critical, and intentional tools and strategies are needed. This is a complex process, however. Its many dimensions may include:

- Cultivating collaborative, supportive, respectful relationships among staff, parents, and the community—creating study groups, school teams that focus on different issues, team teaching, and so on.
- Building structures among children in the classroom so students can help one another—peer partners; circles of support; conflict resolution; and sharing of lives and feelings in conversation, writing, the arts, class meetings, and more.
- Giving children choices and teaching them responsibility—for example, letting children go to the bathroom on their own (rather than lining up a whole group); offering selection among several classroom activities; allowing students to sit, stand, move around, lie on the floor, and so on as they study or work together.

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In an inclusive classroom, children are amazing in the way they know the strengths and problems of everyone in the classroom and are willing to share their own strengths and be guided in overcoming their challenges. They learn to share feelings with one another: “Please don’t do that. It hurts me.” Teachers help students learn how to brainstorm cooperative play activities so that some do not feel left out and how to include all in both play and academic work. Children are quick to point out positive attributes of their peers and have strategies for dealing with a classmate who is having a bad day. Students know if peers are upset and can request that the teacher call a class meeting to address their concerns. Students learn it is safe to take risks and to try more difficult work, knowing that others will not laugh at them and the teacher will not give them a bad grade for not getting it right. They know that all behavior involves choices and that they can make peaceful ones.

In such classes, behavior problems are much less frequent. Children know they belong; they have choices and do not feel constrained, yet are systematically taught responsibility. Of course students still cause problems. However, staff respect children and work to develop proactive solutions, involving the children in the process.

As inclusive teachers, we must consider carefully the way in which we approach problem behavior. Too often, in attempts to eliminate misbehavior without considering the underlying causes, schools actually *create* behavior problems. As inclusive teachers we work to foster a culture that meets students’ needs. They understand that *all behavior communicates a message*. When a child acts out, this is his or her way of telling staff about a need. Teachers understand that motivation must come from inside the child—must be what psychologists call *intrinsic motivation*—rather than constantly being controlled by external forces through punishments or rewards (*extrinsic motivation*). Teachers in inclusive schools know that they must seek to understand the needs of the child and must identify and teach alternative strategies for helping the child meet his or her need in a positive way. Together with parents they ask questions: “What occurs before, during, and after the problematic behavior?” “What is going on in the child’s life?” Together with the child and parents, staff then design strategies to meet the child’s needs in positive ways. The aim is to help the child understand that the behavior is not good; that people care, but that there are other ways for a person to get what he or she needs.

Most centrally, inclusive teachers and their colleagues do their very best to avoid the use of rewards and punishments; and they do their very best to keep a child in their



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school and classroom, resisting the frequent pressure and temptation to send children with behavior problems to separate classes or schools. They work hard to build a caring culture, help children support one another, learn about their own needs, and devise positive behavioral strategies for meeting them.

Include All in Learning Together (All chapters!)

For us, inclusive teaching is quite simple: We seek to educate *all children together well*. For us, “all” really does mean “all.” As inclusive teachers, committed to the growth and development of all children, we see a quality school as a school that combines a focus on excellence and equity; that sees excellence and equity as mutually reinforcing, not as mutually exclusive. For us, teaching all children *together* is a cornerstone of good teaching and schooling.

In most schools a move to inclusive teaching will mean shifting students with special education needs, who are gifted, at-risk, and other students from separate classes into



JOURNEY into the CLASSROOM

Inclusive Teaching in a High School Government Class

As soon as the bell rings, Adalina Benini, the general education social studies teacher, asks all the students to get out their amendment reading packets. Ginger Kerby, the special education teacher, coteaches the fourth-hour Introduction to Government class with Adalina. The class is studying the major amendments of the constitution. Jonathan, a student with severe multiple impairments, has a bright smile on his face as Masa, one of his peers, gets out his reading packet for him. John, a student with a learning disability, has his packet out and is ready to go. Adalina divides the room in half. Students on the two sides of the room read the text aloud together. Bill stands in front of one group of students, and Ginger stands in front of the other group. Ginger explains the objectives of the class and then the students read chorally. She raises her hand to cue her group to read. When she puts her hand down, Adalina raises her hand to signal his group to read. The class alternates in this fashion until the reading packet is finished. Adalina follows along and reads aloud the words he knows. Jonathan’s eyes follow the words on each page, and Devin, another peer, turns the pages for him.

After the class has completed the packet, Adalina goes to the board and uses graphic organizers to discuss prohibition and poll taxes. She invites students to come to the board as well to add to the ideas. After the graphic organizers are complete, he announces the

variety of options available to complete the next assignment. John joins a group of four students to work on acting out the passage and removal of the prohibition amendment. Shelly and Devin invite Jonathan to join them in creating a song reflecting the meaning of the major amendments because they know how much he likes music. When they ask Jonathan if he would like to join their group, he responds by pushing “yes” on his communication board.

As the groups begin working, Ginger circulates the room and monitors Adalina’s involvement in his group. He is participating actively by sharing his ideas and volunteering to act out certain parts. She also checks on Jonathan’s progress with his group. Shelly and Devin are working well with him. As they test melodies to use for the song they wait for Jonathan to respond “yes” or “no” with his communication board to indicate if he likes the melodies or not. Soon the bell rings and Bill tells students to get into groups at the beginning of the next class so they can continue to work on their assignments.

Reflection: In this example, we see Adalina and Ginger working together effectively as coteachers supporting students with a wide range of abilities in a multilevel lesson that incorporates active learning.

Adapted from Brooks, Clarke, Green, Kerby, and Riley (2003).

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general education; identifying students now in separate schools for special education or giftedness who would typically attend our school and inviting them back; and redesigning the roles of specialists to provide support for inclusive teaching.

Rather than separating children by abilities or other characteristics in special education classes, clustering them in general education classes, or grouping them according to ability within a class, inclusive teachers intentionally seek to have children of very different cultures, languages, and academic, social-emotional, and sensory-physical abilities learn *together*. Staff members are committed to **heterogeneous grouping** across and within classes. Fewer students are referred for special education services because teaching and individual support structures are in place and available to all students, based on their needs, consequently reducing the stress of referral and evaluation and freeing up more resources to provide direct assistance to children.

Inclusive schools spend much time putting in place practices in the classroom and schoolwide supports and instructional practices to make this possible. What are these practices? Here's a brief summary:

- Reaching out to parents of all children; paying particular attention to helping parents of children with special needs to know that their children are welcome and are part of the school community.
- Providing support for teachers and children in general education classes.
- Offering authentic, multilevel instruction specifically designed to engage children in meaningful activities in which they learn together at different ability levels; this may involve making adaptations and modifications in academic instruction.
- Building a community among children, staff, and parents: a community in which all feel welcome, all belong, emotional intelligence and social skills are taught, and relationships are nurtured. Part of building this community is responding proactively to the needs of children who have behavioral and emotional problems and challenges.
- Designing the physical environment of the classroom and school to promote learning and growth among children with diverse sensory and physical characteristics; adapting the environment and using assistive technology to help children learn more effectively.
- Demonstrating leadership and learning through dialogue and democratic decision making.

Does inclusive teaching mean that we *never* have students in separate classes or ability groups? We believe the evidence is clear that schools can and must work toward including all students in heterogeneous learning groups, in classes for all children. At the same time, we recognize that sometimes we just can't figure out how to make it work with a child. We recognize that when this happens, we've failed to create the type of school community to which we are committed, and we realize that our failure may have a negative impact on this child's life. Sometimes, however, that's the best we can do. In other situations, we may well find a school where the instruction in general education classes is ineffective for all students—and where the instruction in the segregated special education class is wonderful. In such a situation, we know we have a school that is not working for many of the children, a school that needs great improvement. For the time being, however, we may agree that a particular child would be better off, this semester, in the special education class. Yet, rather than negating the goal of inclusive teaching, these situations underscore the importance of working to improve it.

What about ability grouping or clustering students who are gifted in one class? Do we never do this? Our goal is that we meet the needs of all our students. We intentionally group children heterogeneously across classes; students labeled as gifted or having a

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disability are not grouped or clustered in a class. We use ability groups only for short-term, nonrecurring groupings for mini-lessons for specific skills or activities. We are very careful that such groupings are not stable ability groups but rather are flexible and have constantly shifting membership or methods of organization—by interest, topic, or type of project. No student in our class should be able to identify who is in the “low” group and who is in the “high” group.

In an inclusive school, literally every type of child attends and learns with other children. Inclusive schools follow both the spirit and the letter of IDEA: The general education classroom is the first choice for all students, and such classrooms are designed to meet the individualized educational needs of all students as they learn together. For example, activities in an inclusive classroom might include the following:

- A student of the highest ability works on a project involving a study of the polar ice caps in a small group that includes a student with severe mental retardation. Each of the students contributes to the total project at their own ability level; each is benefiting based on individual needs.
- A student who uses a wheelchair partners in science lab with a student who has immigrated recently from another country.
- A child who is blind intrigues his classmates with talking software on his laptop. A student who is deaf is aided by a signing interpreter; 90 students join the Sign Language Club, and the music teacher incorporates sign language into school musical productions.
- Students with social and emotional problems get help and support from a staff committed to helping them learn social skills, develop relationships, and know they are cared for and belong.



CHAMPIONS OF INCLUSION CONNECT

with students who have disabilities as individuals who are contributors first

There are still many who when dealing with a student with a disability focus on the limitations first. These folks start to think or talk about the impairment and the things that the individual cannot do. Sometimes these perceived inabilities are correct and sometimes they are incorrect or falsely magnified. What is significant though is that their first consideration is on deficits.

Champions of inclusion are:

- The classmates who describe Victoria as a good friend who has started skiing and who drives a cool wheelchair
- The English teacher who depicts Johnny (who has learning disabilities) as a kid who writes great stories using that special computer program
- The teacher aide who brags about how terrific a job Chuck (a boy with cognitive delays) has done combining geometric shapes

- The music specialist who relates how fantastically Ashley (who has autism) sings during performances
- The cafeteria worker who shares how helpful Diana (who has emotional disorders) has been cleaning up during the lunch period
- The special education teacher who points out to the physics teacher how Willy (who has ADHD) can fix all kinds of car problems
- The secretary who comments on how much more clearly Irma (who has speech and language delays) is communicating when she runs an errand to the office
- Maria (a girl with Down syndrome), who informs everyone that she is a fifth-grade super star because of all the books that she has read

By Bill Henderson, Principal, O’Hearn Elementary School, Boston, MA.

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- Circles of support meet for different types of students throughout the school—one for a little boy who does not understand English, another for a child who just lost both parents in a car accident, another for a child who was abused in the past and has many emotional and behavioral problems.

Utilize Authentic, Multilevel Instruction (Chapters 11–13)

A seventh-grade boy spends his time in English class struggling to read at a beginner's level. A girl at a nearby desk with her nose in a book could tackle a Harvard literature class. Seated in between is a youngster who's a whiz at math, but takes a whole period to write three English sentences because he is much more comfortable writing sentences in his native Spanish. (McAdamis, 2001, p. 48)

Schools are typically structured by grade levels and teach using standardized materials aimed at a middle ability level. However, we know that children of the same age do not necessarily learn at the same rate or level. In fact, any class, whether attempting to be inclusive or not, contains children functioning three to six grade levels apart. Therefore, inclusive teaching means designing for diversity from the beginning, rather than thinking of each type of special student as a separate challenge. Inclusive teachers use the growing understanding of differentiated instruction and universal design to:

- Design lessons at multiple levels
- Challenge students at their own level
- Provide support to push children ahead to their next level of learning
- Engage children in learning via activities that relate to the real world—to their lives at home and in the community
- Engage the multiple intelligences and learning styles of children so that many pathways for learning and demonstrating achievement are available
- Involve students in collaborative pair or group work in which children draw on each other's strengths

Many exciting methods of teaching may easily accommodate many levels of ability. These methods are part of what we call **multilevel teaching**: good teaching practices that actively engage children in real-world, problem-based projects. For example, a teacher may teach writing by having all students write about the same topic, but at different levels, expecting very different results from different children. The teacher helps students edit their work and provides specific instruction in needed skills via mini-lessons with individuals or with small groups that have similar needs cropping up in their writing. Instead of everyone's reading the same book, children choose books at their personal level, not too hard and not too easy. They read with a partner who is reading a similar book, or sit near a student who is at a higher level for ease of help with words. Teachers read with individual learners or sit in on a discussion group.

Teachers also help children draw from the knowledge and skill of their peers. The children know whom to ask for spelling advice, guidelines on quotation marks, or funny ideas for stories. They know who will allow them to practice reading out loud and always give positive feedback. Everyone, no matter what his or her ability level, has a needed role. Children who are gifted grow in their relationships with others through working with special education students, and lower functioning students may encourage a gifted but underachieving friend to improve his or her work. Students with mental retardation have models and a rich learning environment, picking up much by incidental learning yet benefiting from explicit, systematic instruction on needed skills. As children are expected to recognize each person's strengths and needs and to help one another achieve their goals, they rise to the occasion.

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Four middle school students conduct a science experiment. A lowered table allows the student in a wheelchair to participate fully.

Use Authentic Assessment to Promote Learning (Chapter 11)

Effective inclusive schools resist the temptation to center the entire curriculum and student learning experiences around mandated standardized tests. Rather, teachers focus on effective instruction and curriculum-based assessment in which teachers maintain an ongoing assessment of important student skills and abilities. Teachers go far beyond typical ineffective classroom tests such as multiple choice and fill-in-the-blank, choosing instead assessment strategies that provide more authentic and engaging methods of assessing student skills while also providing multiple ways that students can use their multiple intelligences to demonstrate abilities. Teachers select products that students develop for learning assignments that demonstrate competencies. Options include creating physical models of content, writing in journals, creating fact and analysis papers, using art and drama, and student-developed posters, videos, or other graphics presentations of learning. **Assessment** is used to guide instruction and designed to meet the key goals of effective assessment: understanding what students know, identifying what students want to learn, and exploring how students best learn (Fairtest, 1995; Peterson, 2001a; Wormeli, 2006).



Designing Inclusive Instruction and Response to Intervention

These practices provide some very useful guidelines for us for structuring our teaching practice. Throughout the rest of this book, we will build on this introduction and explore many practical strategies for using these practices on a daily basis. Figure 2.5 illustrates how one teacher used these ideas to develop a sketch, an overview of how he wanted to teach his social studies this year. How will our class be laid out and organized? What learning resources do we have that accommodate different learning styles and abilities? When we ask such questions, constantly revising and seeking to do better, we will gradually develop good ideas and specific plans. Similarly, how will we deal with interactions of students? How can we build a sense of connection, community, or care in the class? Do we

FIGURE 2.5

Sketching Out Inclusive Teaching Strategies

WHAT ARE MY STRATEGIES FOR GRADE 9 SOCIAL STUDIES?

Academic Learning for All

Weekly journals to one another regarding personal life or news event.
 Study project with seniors about issue in the community—identify, research, interview community people, prepare presentation and portfolio for class.
 Weekly discussion and dialogue groups.
 Assignments—optional. Reading, doing Internet research, listening to tapes of books, going to community meetings or conferences, interviewing community experts.

Social–Emotional–Behavioral Issues and Building Community

Cooperative work groups—teach how to work collaboratively.
 Peer group “peacemakers” training for student leaders.
 Circles of support—teach students how circles work and encourage participation; include in reflective journals.

Learning Environment

Room arranged in tables of 4.
 Computers for Internet, graphics, and word processing next to wall.
 Corner for small group and one-to-one conferencing and conflict resolution sessions.
 Space to move around.
 Music available—classical, jazz, rock, blues, folk. Use this to highlight periods.
 Art examples from places and periods we are studying.

Collaboration with Parents and Specialists Working in My Classroom

Consult with gifted and bilingual specialist for multilevel teaching ideas.
 Coteach with special education teacher and speech therapist including them in lesson design.
 Develop positive relationships with parents by inviting them to the classroom and asking their opinions.

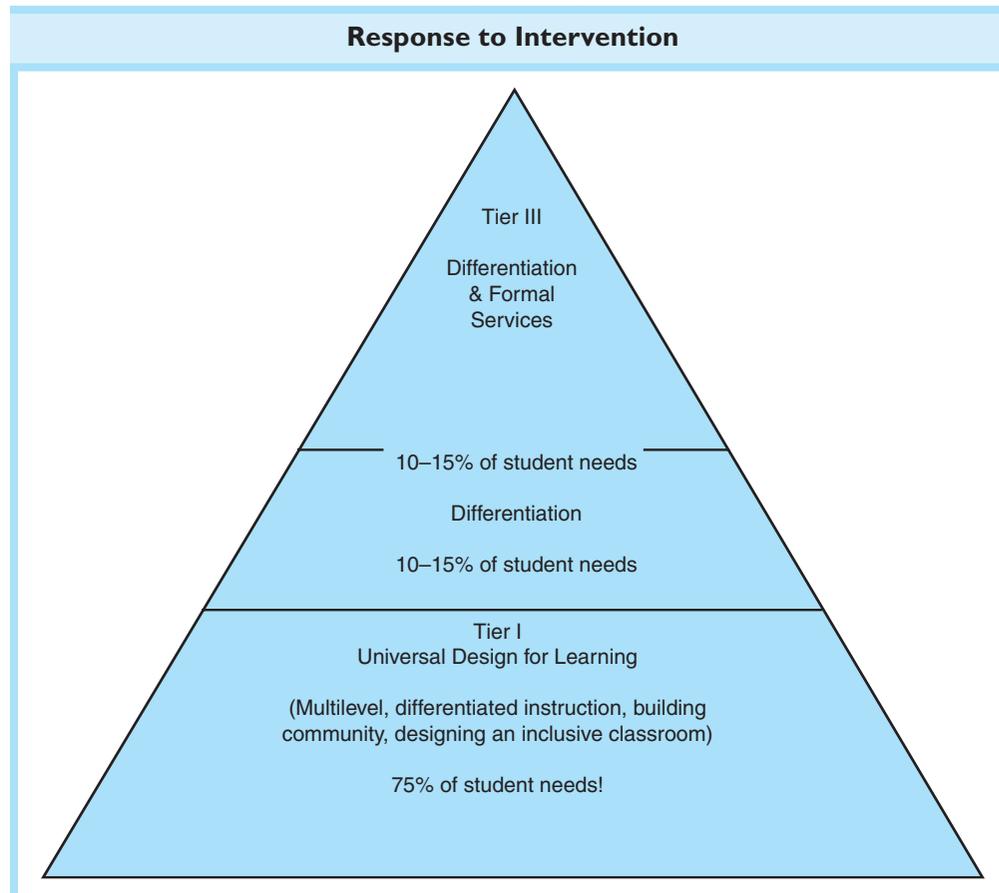
try to build community in the class, or do we see the students as “on their own”? What happens when students become angry or act out? What gets students in trouble? What strategies should we use to respond? Finally, what is our general approach to teaching? Will we use primarily lectures with some lab work? Community-based projects organized around themes?

When we use these strategies, we will find that we naturally help most of our students to be successful. However, we’ll also find that some students continue to struggle. We’ll want additional help. A multi-tiered approach is needed where we have ways of focusing more specifically on the needs of some students and providing strengthened interventions and services. The recent concept of **response to intervention (RTI)** provides a helpful way of organizing such a process. In 2004 federal legislation in the United States required a process of response to intervention as a new way of diagnosing students having learning disabilities. The law calls for provision of individualized interventions prior to formal referral for special education services. The framework, however, provides a useful tool that can be used for all students needing additional help.

Figure 2.6 illustrates graphically a response to intervention framework that is composed of three tiers. In *Tier 1* we use effective practices we described previously to support learning of all students together. Of course, no matter how well we do, some students will have difficulties. For some, they will have difficulty learning math, reading,

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FIGURE 2.6



social studies, or other academic content. Some will have difficulties managing their feelings and relating to others. Yet others may have difficulties with physical health and physical limitations and disabilities. We will work to identify ways to respond to individual student needs in *Tier II*. For example, when students learn much more than we anticipated, we develop learning activities that stretch them to go farther and deeper. When students have difficulty understanding, we give them simpler tasks, a reduced amount of work, and additional help. For students who bring emotional stress from home and act out or fight, we use positive approaches, seeking to understand them, listening, giving them alternative ways to express themselves, and helping build support systems for them. For a child who is blind or partially sighted, we obtain a computer with talking software. Note that these interventions may also be described using different terms in the educational literature. These include *curriculum adaptations or modifications* and *individualized differentiation of instruction*.

In inclusive schools where specialists provide push-in, rather than pull-out, services we can expect to have access to individuals who can help us think about the needs of students and strategies we might try with them. Note that such Tier II assistance can be expected to adequately address the needs of an additional 10 to 15% of our students.

Some students, however, will continue to have significant difficulties and we will want to provide additional assistance—*Tier III*. Here is where formal referral for services occurs for school programs. These include special education, bilingual education, gifted and talented, at-risk services, and services of community agencies. Federal law governs special education

services and procedures for referral, eligibility, and individualized education programs must be followed. We'll discuss these in this Chapter 4. However, in an inclusive school such services will be implemented using a push-in approach so that specialists may already be working with a student in either Tier I or II. We've estimated that formal services may help meet the needs of some 10 to 15% of students. However, it is clear that the more effectively we implement Tier I and II strategies, the lower will be the number of students referred for formal services. We will suggest specific strategies for each of these tiers in subsequent chapters.

When we design individual interventions, we will always want to evaluate how effective they are and consider whether these strategies might be incorporated into instruction for all our students. For example, we read aloud to a student whose reading abilities are low—but then realize that reading to all our students would be beneficial; we come to see that a circle of friends used to provide assistance to a student with cerebral palsy is a powerful tool for other students; having purchased talking software for a blind student, it becomes clear we can use it with many students.

As we use this framework, we do so in three key areas: sensory-physical, social-emotional-behavioral, and academic. Figure 2.7 illustrates how each of these domains may interact in Tiers I to III. We will use these domains to organize sections III, IV, and V of this book. In Section III, we'll focus on how to use space and physical resources to create learning environments for all students. In Section IV, we focus on developing a sense of community and care in our classrooms where students' social and emotional needs are met, and where we respond proactively to behavioral challenges. Finally, in Section V we explore how to design lessons where students with very different levels of ability can learn well together. We think this is the way we most often think about our teaching—organizing and arranging our class, building community and responding proactively to behavior challenges, and using authentic, multilevel, differentiated instruction. As we proceed on our journey, we encourage you to revisit the concepts of designing teaching for all and response to intervention introduced in this chapter.



Visiting Two Inclusive Schools

Let's now visit an effective inclusive elementary school and high school. What is their experience related to the principles and practices of inclusive schooling we have outlined? How do they deal with the issues identified in research?



Gilman Elementary School

Gilman Elementary School is located in a small rural community. Many students ride buses a significant distance in order to attend school. Many people in Gilman have very limited incomes. There are few resources to assist families in the community. In recent years racial tensions have risen among White people, Native Americans who live on reservations, and a growing number of Asian American immigrants. Despite the idyllic and beautiful countryside, community life in this rural area can be both challenging and isolating for children and their families.

Despite these barriers, Gilman Elementary School is known as an effective inclusive school. Inclusive education began at Gilman Elementary in 1989 when the principal, Al Arnold, began a principal's math challenge class. The group needed space in the building, but the only space available was the special education resource room. On the first day of the challenge class, Al noticed that the children were very reticent. They did not want to sit and would not touch anything in the classroom. "What is going on?" Al asked. With a bit of questioning, he discovered that students were afraid because this was the special education room. Al was shocked. That evening he received phone calls from parents concerned that

FIGURE 2.7

Universal Design and Individual Interventions: Three Key Domains			
	SENSORY-PHYSICAL	SOCIAL-EMOTIONAL	ACADEMIC
	Key elements (Chapter 2): <i>Designing space for all</i>	Key elements (Chapter 2): <i>Democracy, including all, building community</i>	Key elements (Chapter 2): <i>Multilevel, differentiated instruction; assessment for learning</i>
	Key elements: <i>Support for Learning</i> (Chapter 6) <i>Partnership with Families and the Community</i> (Chapter 5)		
	<i>Chapter 7</i>	<i>Chapter 9</i>	<i>Chapters 11–13</i>
Universal Design for Learning (Tier I)	Implement heterogeneous grouping Provide space for wheelchairs Use multiple learning modalities Design space for authentic teaching Obtain a talking computer for a blind student	Build community Promote caring Encourage friendships Teach social skills and “emotional intelligence” Identify interests	Promote authentic learning Use project learning Build a microcommunity Recognize multiple intelligences Devise multilevel lessons
	<i>Chapter 8</i>	<i>Chapter 10</i>	<i>Chapters 11–13</i>
Individualized Differentiation (Tiers II & III)	Rearrange books so a student in a wheelchair can reach them Set aside areas to be alone or to get help	Understand needs and communication Provide positive alternatives Encourage peer support Create a circle of friends to assist student	Offer advanced projects Reduce difficulty Use drama to teach social studies Provide additional help and support Read stories to students with reading difficulties
Evaluate and Revise	Use talking computers for all students	Use circles of friends to build community	Read stories to all students Incorporate drama and art in all subjects

their children were being placed in special education. Al felt he had to take action: “If this is how general education students feel about a special education classroom, how do they feel about their classmates with disabilities?” He and a few teachers developed a school vision and plan in which all students could learn within the general education classroom.

As we walk into Gilman Elementary today, children with and without disabilities are learning together in the same classrooms. There are no special education rooms. The special education teacher, paraprofessionals, and other related service personnel teach in general education classrooms. As we walk around the school with Al, we notice that children are engaged in very exciting learning activities. There is a positive, busy atmosphere about each class and a comfortable, relaxed sense of respect between the principal and the teachers, children, and parents with whom we come in contact.

Al talks with us about how inclusive schooling is being implemented at Gilman Elementary. “Inclusion for us at Gilman,” he says, “has several parts. First, we seek to deliver

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instruction to all students in a manner that meets individual needs and gives students the opportunity to develop to their full potential, academically and socially. Second, we do this by utilizing the team teaching of general and special teachers, who work together using diverse teaching strategies. We seek to respond to diverse learning styles, using individualized instruction and flexible grouping.”

“To make these goals a reality,” Al continues, “the school is using five key strategies to provide support to students and teachers.” First, the staff designed a structure in which one specialist is assigned to each grade-level team as a support to all students with special needs. The specialists include a Title I teacher, gifted coordinator/reading specialist, guidance counselor, speech/language therapist, and one special education teacher (with cross-categorical experience). These specialists team-teach every day for a minimum of one-half day per week in each class.

Second, teams composed of two general educators and one specialist provide support to students. Each team member has equal responsibility for every student at their grade level. In essence, these three teachers are individually and collectively responsible for approximately 50 to 60 students. The grade-level teaching team is responsible for the success of their students with disabilities and all other students.

Third, the teaching staff redesigned the schoolwide schedule in order to create a daily block of “*sacred time*” during which there are absolutely no interruptions. During sacred time the grade-level classrooms have 100% of their students for 100% of the time. No music, art, physical education, or computer classes are scheduled. Sacred time is for grade-level teaching teams to go full speed ahead in teaching the core subject material without interruptions.

The fourth program feature involves *planning time* for grade-level teaching teams and the team of specialists. Thanks to the creation of the block schedule, each grade-level team now has 90 minutes of planning time each week, *in addition to* the designated amount of preparation time each teacher receives as specified in his or her teaching contract. Specialists also have a weekly 60-minute planning block in which they meet as a team to discuss specific students’ needs, goals, and progress.

Fifth, to guarantee that students will never again identify a classroom as stigmatizing, Al explains, Gilman Elementary has implemented a system of flexible instructional grouping and utilization of instructional space. The staff change instructional groupings continually to eliminate the possibility of stigma becoming associated with a group. Similarly, all students work with each of the three teachers, so no stigma is associated with special teachers. The same is true of space usage. There is nothing unusual about a student’s learning in any particular room or space, as all students work in those rooms at one time or another. The three teachers rotate and teach in each of the rooms (including the specialist’s small room or office) so that the students will not associate a certain teacher with any specific room or space. (Figure 2.8 summarizes these five strategies.)

FIGURE 2.8

Inclusive Strategies in an Elementary School

- A specialist, drawn from several categorical programs, is assigned to each grade-level team to provide in-class support for teachers.
- Teachers and specialists work together as a team to assist all children at a grade level.
- “Sacred time” is established to create uninterrupted academic learning.
- A 90-minute planning block is set aside for grade-level teams and an additional 60-minute planning block with specialists each week.
- Flexible instructional groupings ensure heterogeneous grouping and prevent stigmatization of students.

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As we finish our tour, Al leads us to a classroom at the end of the hall. There we see a general and special education teacher leading a rehearsal for a play students will present in an assembly for parents in the coming week. We see a child who typically experiences significant behavioral outbursts at the center of a small group of children singing a song. They are all holding hands, and the child smiles, making everyone in the room laugh. The teachers wave. We walk to our car wishing we could stay. (Account adapted from Arnold, 1998, and Beloin, 1998.)

BUMPS IN THE ROAD

Segregating Students Within the Classroom

Fields in education have been created to help respond to the needs of students with special needs. These include special education, bilingual education, second-language learning (English as a second language in English-speaking countries), and gifted education. Many professionals in these fields have been trained in approaches that separate students for instruction. We may well find that, for example, special education teachers and gifted education specialists are not interested in promoting inclusive teaching and only know how to work with students by pulling students into separate rooms or working with them individually or in small homogeneous groups at the back or side of the class.

For example, we visited a third-grade class where the teacher, Sheryl Harms, was working hard to include and educate a wide range of students—gifted, students representing six languages spoken in the home, students from eight different ethnic groups, a student with autism, and two students with cognitive disabilities. She was often frustrated, however, in dealing with the gifted specialist and special education teacher who worked with students in her class. She could certainly use their help. However, the special education teacher didn't seem to know how to work with her curriculum in the general education classroom. She constantly was pulling students off to the side keeping them there a long time. At other times she actually interrupted them in their work asking if they needed help. The gifted specialist, likewise, wanted constantly to pull out two gifted students. Sheryl tried to get both to help in her lessons but she also found that their philosophies about teaching were very different. Some days it seemed as if these well-meaning specialists caused more difficulty than providing help.

What do we do when we find ourselves in a situation like the one facing Sheryl? Here are some suggestions for both the general education teacher and specialist:

Strategies for general education teachers

- Be clear about your expectations and ask specialists to work with you in designing multilevel, differentiated instruction that will help all students. Explain that you would not like to see students pulled out since they will miss important experiences in class when they do.
- Initiate a conversation with specialists (as a group if, as with Sheryl, you are dealing with several people) regarding roles you'd like them to take in developing multilevel, differentiated instruction. Ask them about ideas for instruction that will help the students to whom they are assigned. As you work with specialists identify and use their strengths showing appreciation.

Strategies for specialists (special education teachers, gifted specialists, etc.)

- Examine your belief system carefully. Get help from the general education teacher to understand the curriculum and teaching strategies that are used.
- Think about the needs of your students and how these may be met in engaging, multilevel, differentiated lessons. Talk with the general education teacher about these ideas. Work to develop a collaborative working process where you can contribute your skills and knowledge.



Graham High School

“Urban high school”—in our mind’s eye we picture security gates, metal detectors, graffiti, and gangs. However, we understand that Graham High School has developed an exemplary program for meeting the needs of all students, and we have been looking forward to visiting the school.

A junior named Thuy Nguyen greets us and tells us he will be our guide. Walking across the campus, we notice a group of students in the courtyard, one of whom is using a wheelchair. Thuy says they are ninth graders working on a science project, creating their own measuring system. They are using Paulo’s wheelchair as their measuring system, they explain: A full rotation of the wheel counts as one unit, and they are measuring the perimeter of the school.

We ask Thuy to introduce us to the special educators at the school. Again he looks puzzled; he says he doesn’t know any special educators. We describe teachers who team-teach or who help students with disabilities in their classes. “Oh, you mean the resource teachers,” he says. Then he asks, “for which department?” “English,” we reply, feeling that this would be a safe bet in a high school. Thuy responds, “Do you mean humanities?”

Following more awkward interactions in which we discover that traditional stereotypes don’t necessarily apply here, we meet Greg Allen, a member of the science team who coaches football and is the “advocate” for 27 students with disabilities. Graham High serves some 2,200 students and is organized into knowledge base groups, and all teachers in a knowledge base work together on curriculum and instruction. One member sits on the school curriculum council to negotiate schoolwide instructional themes and essential questions (see Jorgensen, 1998). All categorically funded teachers (special education, Title I, bilingual education, reading specialists, and migrant education), Greg explains, are called “resource teachers” and are members of knowledge base groups.

The school is organized into two divisions. Division I encompasses 9th and 10th grade and provides all students with a core curriculum. Classes are 90 minutes long on the block/quarter system. Division II is organized into curricular clusters: business, technology, engineering, communicative and fine arts, and human services. Within each cluster, students have classes that cover many disciplines.

We ask Greg about his role with students who have disabilities. He tells us that in addition to his role as a support teacher in science, he communicates regularly with each student and his or her family and chairs (or cochairs with the student) the IEP meeting. “I do not see all my students every day. If one is not in science this term, I may not see him or her very often. I rely on colleagues to provide support. I know the science curriculum quite well, and I support every student who has a disability in his or her science class. My colleagues support students in humanities, technology, communicative and fine arts, and other areas.”

Greg says that every student with a disability who lives in the school catchment area attends Graham and that each student with a disability receives all special education supports and services within the general education classroom. Students with disabilities are not grouped by category, and no teacher has advocate responsibilities for a specific type of student disability (e.g., blindness, mental retardation).

We continue our tour and Thuy takes us to the technology cluster area where he attends class. We enter the humanities class for the Division II technology group and find two teachers and 35 students—a diverse group in terms of ethnicity, gender, age, and language background. Both adults look up from their tables and smile.

We talk with Felicia Conway, one of the two resource teachers in the humanities knowledge base. “I spend time 2 days a week with Ginger Ferrara working at learning centers, providing all students feedback and instruction on their writing.” Four students in this section of humanities have IEPs, and every class in the school has a natural proportion of students with and without disabilities. Approximately 10% of the students in any class receive special education services. Felicia tells us that the school decided on this approach “many years ago, to avoid the idea that

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These students are working as a group to investigate organisms in a local water sample. They are recording information and looking up tables they can use to make comparisons with other communities.

there were just a few ‘inclusion classes’ in which special education teachers and aides spent their time.” We ask her what it took to ensure that all teachers were ready to teach all students. She shows us a list of interview questions used for all new teachers. Several of these questions make it clear that the ability to teach an inclusive, diverse group of students is a prerequisite for faculty. “I am a member of the professional development committee, and our staff development efforts focus on differentiating instruction,” Felicia continues. Interestingly, she tells us that they have never done an “inclusion training.” All staff development providers are selected based on their ability to share information about quality instruction for all students.

Our tour guide introduces us to his girlfriend, Jessica, who tells us about her fourth-block class. During that 90-minute period, Jessica is a peer tutor in a math class; she does not get math credit for the period but does receive an elective credit. “I provide assistance to any student in the class who needs it,” she says. For example, Anthony “learns a bit different, moves his eyes to communicate, and uses a switch to talk. He has modified work that I help with, but mostly I make sure that he’s involved with peers and stuff.” Jessica tells us that she is in the technology cluster because she wants to be a teacher and knows that technology will be very important for teachers.

As we leave the technology cluster, we ask Thuy about how students get extra help if they need it. He tells us about the learning center. Thinking we’ve found the special education

Sights TO SEE



The Schools Our Children Deserve

The Schools Children Deserve: This is an enjoyable video that helps us think about what we want for children in schools that goes nicely with this chapter. www.youtube.com/watch?v=V1K_8jfXuTo

O’Hearn Elementary School: This school is a fully inclusive, high-achieving, multicultural school in Boston that implements the practices in this book. A nice video overview of work in the school. www.youtube.com/watch?v=Mnj7ZURXj20

FIGURE 2.9

Inclusive Practices in a High School

- Every student can access teachers—general and special education—for assistance, mentoring, or conflict resolution.
- Special education teachers provide in-class support and assistance for all students.
- Classes are structured to encourage peer support and a spirit of collaboration and collegiality among students.
- Special education and other categorical services are organized according to the overarching school governance structure (e.g., departments, knowledge base groups, academic families, academies).
- Class time is longer (90 minutes), allowing students to process information more deeply and ensuring that teachers get to know students well.
- Curriculum is planned and organized for all students, and accommodations and modifications are provided for those students who need them.
- Teachers are provided with the professional development resources they need to be successful.

room, we walk into the learning center—a room off the library/media center—and see students tutoring other students and teachers working with individuals and small groups of students. Students come in and out of the learning center.

Barbara Samimi coordinates the learning center. She is also the “coordinator of family and community involvement” for the school. Title I funds are used to support the learning center. Barbara is a bundle of energy, and every student seems to know her. We first ask her about attendance. She tells us that teachers “do all kinds of activities in their classes, and sometimes students just need a place to go and get caught up. The learning center is here for that.” She adds that students come before or after school “to do homework without the pressure or to make sure that they’re getting it done right.”

We inquire about students with disabilities, asking her if, as happens in other schools, the learning center becomes a dumping ground for students the teachers don’t want in their classrooms. Barbara looks troubled by our question. “A dumping ground? The learning center is not there for that! We are a place for students to get help; anyone can get help; not just students who have special needs. About your teachers not wanting kids. . . they shouldn’t be teachers. Graham High School is a school for everyone—we figure it out and make sure that every student is provided the opportunity to be successful.”

As we leave we consider the successes experienced by the students at this school. Figure 2.9 provides an overview of the inclusive practices at Graham High School, which typify exemplary approaches used in both middle and high schools. We realize that these practices are good for all students and serve to ensure that students feel welcomed and respected within the school walls.



Onward in Our Journey

The Sun Is High, the Road Is Wide

As we have begun our journey together, we have visited real schools and classrooms to see how an inclusive classroom and school looks; we have looked at the research and have introduced the principles and practices on which inclusive teaching is based. We hope that you are beginning to see how inclusive education can work and are excited about the possibility of being an inclusive teacher. Now, more than ever, in the midst of

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social change, children and families need good schools and effective education. Most of all they need caring teachers who reach out and welcome all children.

A former university student said this about a teacher who was working with students with special needs in her math class:

The teacher sincerely believes that every student in her classroom has the ability to be successful and to learn. Her obligation is to discover how each student learns best and use that information to the student's advantage. . . . Her secret joy is defying visitors to correctly identify the "included" students. (Ceifetz, 1997, p. 5)

Before we continue, we invite you to reflect a few minutes. Think about your images of schools, families, and children with differences. Think about your own experiences as a young child and as a student. Think about your experiences with people who are different from you. Think about the possibilities of a school where all learn, all achieve, and all value one another. Think about the roles you might play in teaching in such a school and even in helping create one.

Traveling Notes

As we work to become effective inclusive teachers, we need key "big ideas" on which to hang the many details of our daily work. First, of course, we must be clear about our commitment to inclusive teaching. We now know that research validates the importance and positive impact of inclusive teaching. However, we also know from research that among the biggest hindrances to creating inclusive schools for all students are the attitudes and belief systems of many educators. Once we commit to being an effective inclusive teacher we can work toward practices introduced in this chapter. We can:

1. Intentionally design our classroom and our use of space to respond to a range of learning needs ensuring that students may work alone, in pairs, or in small groups with materials available at their own level of challenge.
2. Work to create a sense of care and community in our class, providing opportunities for democratic decision making and responsibility among our students.
3. Seek to understand the needs of students who have challenging behaviors, centering our approach on helping them know we care while expecting them to learn responsible behavior. We will be aware of students at the margins of our class and facilitate their developing positive relationships and a sense of self-worth.
4. We will welcome all students into our class and work to foster respect for all in the class. We will particularly seek out having students with heterogeneous characteristics and needs aiming to be known in our school as a teacher who works effectively with diverse, sometimes challenging students.
5. We will collaborate with specialists developing effective and positive coteaching relationships. We will work to use specialists in designing and implementing community and differentiated, multilevel instruction.
6. We will partner with parents, always seeking to understand their needs and gain their input into most effective ways to teach their children. We will work to make parents feel comfortable in our class, developing a trusting relationship.
7. We will work to design our lessons using principles and practices of authentic, multilevel instruction. We will avoid stable ability grouping and work to challenge all students at their own level of learning.
8. We will also use authentic assessment that allows us to document student learning at various levels of ability using a range of strategies and giving students options.

9. Response to intervention (RTI) provides a helpful framework to think about both universal design for learning and individualized interventions for students. In the foundation, Tier I, we seek to design our instruction and classroom culture to support diverse students. As students have special needs and require more assistance or support, we develop individualized interventions, adapting and modifying lessons as needed (Tier II). If students need more assistance we can refer them to a variety of formal services including bilingual education, gifted education, and special education. In inclusive schools, such services are provided in collaboration with teachers in the general education classroom.

The journey toward effective inclusive teaching is a lifelong quest. Most importantly, we'll plan for an enjoyable, challenging, thoughtful journey aiming to build a community of colearners in our school as partners on the way!

Stepping Stones

Following are some activities that will help extend your understanding and actions you may take in your journey toward becoming an inclusive teacher.

1. Visit a general education classroom that includes children from different races, cultures, and a range of disabilities. Observe the teaching and support provided in the regular classroom. Interview educators including the general education teacher and specialists such as special education teachers, paraprofessionals, and bilingual teachers. Ask them what their feelings are about what is happening in the classroom. Again, think about the reasons behind their responses. How do your two observations compare?
2. Interview a parent of a child with a special need who is being included and supported in a general education classroom. Ask about the parent's experiences with the child, the professionals, and the schools. Ask about his or her own experience in inclusive education—what is working and what is not. Again, explore the reasons for the answers the parent gives. What do these responses tell you?
3. Download a copy of the tool Quality Teaching for All: Self-assessment for Teachers at www.wholeschooling.net/WS/WSToolKit/Quality_Tch_for_ALL.doc. Use this tool to assess yourself as a teacher. Share it with other teachers and use the tool to assess skills of your team. What did you learn? How might you work to improve your skills as an inclusive teacher based on your self-assessment?
4. Sketch ideas for how you might teach students with wide ranges of ability this year. Think about Tiers I, II, and III and how you may see implementing these.
5. It all starts with one teacher who cares enough about all children to say, "I want to have a student with special needs in my class. I think they belong here and I want to learn how." Is there one student in your school who is in a special education class that you could take into your class, perhaps part-time at first and building on this as you, the child, and the special education teacher feel comfortable?

3

Diverse Students in the Classroom

How Students Are Different and the Same

CHAPTER GOAL

Understand multiple dimensions of diversity and explore how using inclusive teaching instructional strategies can help meet very different needs.





CHAPTER OBJECTIVES

1. Understand key needs of various groups of students with special needs and how these relate to exemplary inclusive teaching practices.
2. Understand the definitions and descriptions of various labels attributed to students.
3. Know how to consider strengths and needs of students in teaching that are related to multiple sources of diversity.



An Inclusive Middle School Language Arts Class: The Key Is—Teach Individuals, Not Groups

When we enter Aiyana Kitchi's Grade 7 Language Arts class, students are writing at desks, writing on the floor, or sitting at the back table working on editing with their peers. Kendrick has a moderate intellectual disability, Aiyana explains; he reads at a second-grade level, and the physical act of writing is difficult for him. However, he is writing many words. Although they are hard to read (many misspellings and letters run together), he is very busy. "What are you writing about?" Aiyana asks. Kendrick reads what he has written, and she quickly jots down his thoughts on the facing pages of the journal. "Kendrick, that's an interesting story. You have written a lot!"

Aiyana then walks over to Patrick, an extremely bright child who qualified for the gifted and talented program but wanted to stay with his friends. He is working on writing gripping beginnings and picturesque details. His language is amazingly sophisticated, with images and story lines that could have been created by a college student. As Patrick works, he periodically encourages Kendrick and spells words for him. Aiyana explains that they are good friends.

Shortly, Doria, a fifth-grade student who has autism, stands in the doorway as if she is paralyzed. The students say hello as she enters the room, but her face is frozen in a blank panicked stare, her hands twitching in response to the class noise. Aiyana watches as another student comes over and looks directly at Doria, not touching, and asks if she wants to sit down. She goes to her special place in the corner and sits on the cushions. She reads a book for the first 10 minutes of class. After a few minutes, some other kids come over and ask her to join them in working on a project. She does.

Aiyana explains that her classroom is filled with diversity of many forms—abilities, cultural and language diversity, socioeconomic status, the nature of families.

As you've seen already, students range in general abilities from pre-first grade to college in my class. I have students from a range of countries and cultures. These include three students from the Middle East (Iran and Afghanistan), one from Eastern Europe, two from Mexico, and one from Japan. The first language of six of my students is not English. We're working lots on helping them learn the language as well as the content of the class! In addition, some of our students are well off economically but 60% are from low-income families. My students come from all sorts of families as well. Four live with single parents while another four live in households with extended families. Two live with their grandmothers. It's a great class!

At break we ask Aiyana, "How do you manage with such diverse abilities, cultures, and characteristics?" She responds, "The key is learning how to teach to individuals, not

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groups.” “I learn the strengths of each student and where they need to be pushed. The teaching activities I use allow students to work at different levels. I constantly ask myself, ‘What is the best next step for this student?’ instead of the traditional ‘What should a seventh grader be able to do?’ For example, look at Kendrick’s writing,” she says, pulling out his writing workshop folder. “He is writing simple ideas, spelling basic words, adding periods, and spacing letters. But these are huge steps for him.”

She then shares how her students have learned to complement one another’s strengths and needs. “They spell words for each other, listen for content, and edit each other’s papers. When Amanda gets frustrated, her friend Christine listens and gets her past a tough spot. When Kendrick is staring at a blank page, Patrick asks what he is writing and gets him started. Patrick enjoys helping Kendrick. Sometimes Patrick even asks Kendrick for ideas to write about. These kids learn each other’s goals, and they work to make sure that their friends are learning. I could not manage without them.”

“Aren’t there days you would rather teach children all on the same level?” we ask. She shakes her head “no,” laughing. “Life would be too boring!” As we leave, we think about the concerns some people have that students with “special needs” and differences will hinder other students’ learning. That doesn’t happen in Aiyana’s class. In fact, the different abilities in her classroom community seem to propel each student forward.

How are students different? What strategies can we use to teach students with a wide range of differences? We’ll explore these questions in this chapter seeking to understand the needs of students with different types of characteristics. We encourage you to think how you might use this information to design instruction in ways that meets the needs of all students in the ways that we discussed in Chapter 2. Let’s start by considering the notion of being both the same and different.



Special Needs and Good Teaching

Good Teaching Addresses Many Specific Needs

Often special needs of students are considered category by category. We might for example ask: “How can I best teach students of African descent?” Or “How can I best teach students who have a cognitive disability or students who are learning the primary language of my country?” Several tensions exist in these questions. First, the questions assume that students in a given category are enough alike that the question makes sense. However, this assumption and approach has the potential of stereotyping students and separating them from others in the school. For example, if teaching strategies for students of African descent are substantially different from other students, some might argue that separate classes for these students are needed. That same argument has been used often for students with various disabilities.

On the one hand, it makes sense to consider needs driven by characteristics such as disability, race, sexual orientation, and more. On the other hand, we have to understand that individual students may vary dramatically. Similarly, there is much overlap of recommended practices designed to meet needs of various groups with special needs. Said another way, if we use effective teaching techniques, we will go a long way toward meeting individual needs of students from various groups.

We’ll explore these tensions in this chapter. We will introduce you to key needs of various categories of students and then provide strategies that have been found effective. In Chapter 2, we introduced you to strategies organized by the eight principles of whole schooling. You’ll see those same strategies here. For example, promoting democracy and

building community in a classroom are primary strategies in dealing with students from various cultural, ethnic, and lifestyle groups as well as students with social-emotional challenges. Similarly, multilevel differentiated instructional strategies are important for students who are second-language learners and students whose academic abilities are significantly above or below the average. We encourage you to seek to understand the needs of groups, think about needs of individual students, and recognize connections to exemplary teaching strategies.



Label Jars, Not People

Seeing Children as People First

In exploring issues related to student differences, we will encounter many labels given to children. Too often we forget that labels are attached to *people*. We hear students called “retards,” “POHIs,” LD students, or “the gifted.” The starting point for labeling children is often the question, “What is wrong with this student?”—a *deficit-driven* approach—or its cousin, “Is this student smarter than others?”—a potentially *elitist* perspective. Both questions reflect the same underlying philosophy, the idea that inherent differences in children set them apart. This philosophy can lead to harmful attitudes. Students with presumed deficits may feel stupid and not worthy. Those with advanced skills can become isolated, compensating through attitudes of superiority. Students then *become* their labels. However, a student with a cognitive disability is mostly a child—happy, moody, fond of singing songs. A high school senior who is gifted is mostly an adolescent with dreams and fears like other teenagers. Using **people-first language**—speaking of a student *with* a cognitive disability, for example—helps us keep these truths in mind. We must be careful to see students with labels as children and students first.

With these cautions, let’s now explore how students may differ and some ideas regarding how to address the needs of students.



Students from Diverse Cultural, Racial, and Ethnic Groups

Increasingly throughout the world, nations are becoming more racially and culturally diverse. How we respond to this diversity is very important. In the United States, a major focus of the civil rights movement in the 1960s was the elimination of enforced racial segregation. However, racial segregation has been again on the rise in the last 20 years. Despite this fact, schools and communities are increasingly diverse on many dimensions. As a key tool of socialization, schools provide a place where children can learn to accept, value, and interact with those who are different from them.

In our daily conversation we often speak of individuals being from different racial or ethnic groups having common cultures. However, a closer look reveals that these commonsense ideas are much more complex than it seems at first. **Race** largely has to do with genetics and certain physical characteristics that individuals hold in common. However, there has long been much interconnection between various racial groups so that, according to the American Association of Physical Anthropologists (AAPA), “pure races, in the sense of genetically homogenous populations, do not exist in the human species today, nor is there any evidence that they have ever existed in the past (AAPA, 1996). An **ethnic group** is a broader term referring to people who perceive a common

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bond based on a variety of factors including ancestry, genealogy, common beliefs, language, religion, and culture. The famous sociologist Max Weber (1978) once said, however, that “the whole conception of ethnic groups is so complex and so vague that it might be good to abandon it altogether” (p. 389).

Cultural differences are closely connected with race and ethnicity as cultural variations are often associated with these two concepts. On the other hand, culture can vary dramatically within specific ethnic groups and a common culture may unite people across racial and ethnic differences. Culture involves many elements. One definition indicates that culture refers to “the beliefs, customs, practices, and social behavior of a particular nation or people” (Microsoft, 2008). Pang (2005) indicates that culture has three layers: (1) language, symbols, and artifacts; (2) customs, practices, and interaction patterns; and (3) shared values, norms, beliefs, and expectations. She further discusses the relationship between a particular cultural group and the dominant culture. Those considered *traditional* “follow the ways, beliefs, and patterns of the cultural group much of the time and continue to speak the native language” (p. 43). *Bicultural* members retain many of their cultural values but also have adopted practices and beliefs of the dominant culture, moving in and out of both cultures. Those who have *assimilated*, however, have largely rejected their original culture and adopted the beliefs and practices of the dominant culture. The concept of a **minority group** relates to individuals from various racial, ethnic, or cultural groups who may act in ways that are different from the predominant culture. Immigrants, for example, often bring the cultural values and practices from their home country that may be different or even in conflict with the culture of their new country.

Increasingly our classes will be filled with students who have a very wide range of racial and ethnic identities, backgrounds, and cultural perspectives. Most critical in working with students from differing racial, ethnic, and cultural groups is the building of a supportive and caring community within the classroom where students are taught explicitly how to value and support one another and to value and benefit from the differences that students bring.

Following are key strategies for responding to cultural, racial, and ethnic diversity in our classes (Burnette, 1999; Gross, 2008; National Council of Teachers of English, 2005). Note that these strategies, with minor modification, may be applied with all students in our class. In implementing these strategies, we will work with specialists and knowledgeable professionals who understand the culture of our students.

Promote respect for students’ culture, race, and ethnic identity

- Recognize any biases or stereotypes you have.
- Positively acknowledge and validate individual, cultural, and lifestyle differences.
- Convey equal respect and confidence in all our students.
- Develop an understanding of diverse cultural practices and rituals.
- Choose texts and other learning materials that reflect cultural and ethnic diversity.
- Invite diverse parents into the classroom to share their expertise or tell about their family life and cultural traditions.
- Invite students to bring in materials that relate to various cultures and ethnic groups.
- Directly challenge racism.
- Be a role model to students for how to treat diverse individuals.

Promote respect for and understanding of each student as an individual

- Don’t make assumptions based on stereotypes.
- Build relationships with your students and learn about their lives outside the school.
- Get a sense of how students feel about your classroom.

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- Consider students' needs when assigning evening or weekend work.
- Avoid singling out a student as a spokesperson for his or her race, culture, or ethnic group.
- Observe and learn how students best learn. Seek to understand how their culture, race, language, or lifestyle affects learning.
- Use a variety of instructional strategies and learning activities.

Learn how to critique and challenge social injustice

- Develop sustained contact in the local community.
- Develop projects on different cultural practices.
- Encourage students to develop critical perspectives through community-based research and action projects.
- Use classroom approaches that empower students socially and academically.

Ensure that students are accepted and valued, have a sense of belonging, and develop friendships

- Suggest that students form study teams that meet outside of class.
- Assign group work and collaborative learning activities.
- Advise students to explore perspectives outside their own experiences.
- Provide opportunities for all students to get to know each other.
- Be a teacher in whom students can confide and in whom they can trust.



Students from Extreme Poverty

Perhaps one of the biggest challenges in building inclusive schools is teaching students who are extremely poor. By and large, parents and students who are very poor are judged and punished for their poverty and difficulties. The stereotype is that people who are poor are lazy, make bad choices, and are not motivated or intelligent. Yet studies find very different realities (Beegle, 2000; Danziger & Haveman, 2001). The fact also is, however, that most children who are raised in very poor families themselves will remain very poor. Many factors come together to make it difficult, though possible, for children who are poor to improve their lot in life. What's also clear, however, is that teachers have the potential to help break this cycle. The key is what we do and how we treat children who are poor.

We need to understand the life of people who are very poor. First, parents who are very poor are constantly in survival mode. On a daily, hour-by-hour basis, they are seeking food for the day, shelter, and other basic necessities. What is it like to be poor? People who are poor are humiliated, feeling that other people blame them for their poverty. They feel judged because of their appearance. One young woman stated that “no one wanted



Urban and Cultural Diversity

National Center for Culturally Responsive Educational Systems NCCRESt works with schools to develop culturally responsive educational practices. Great information and resources. www.nccrest.org/

National Institute for Urban Inclusive Education This organization works with urban schools to encourage and facilitate inclusive schooling. Many excellent materials are at this site. urbanschools.org/index.html

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us around” because “our hair was dirty and stringy, and most people made us feel like we didn’t belong” (Beegle, 2003, p. 14). Their experience provides little understanding of professional jobs and ways to move toward higher incomes. Finding a place to live is always a problem due to poor housing conditions. Another person stated that “I could never bring anyone home to our dump” (Beegle, 2003, p. 14). Children may live in very messy conditions with many people in a small space, some even living in a car. Having enough food is often a problem and is often of poor quality. Many of these children come to school hungry. Families and children typically feel that there is literally nothing they can do to make their situation better. All is beyond their control.

As teachers we may feel these parents do not care about their children because they never come to school. However, they care very much but they have only so much energy. Beegle (2003) stated that “my mother . . . never went to a school conference. She’d say, ‘I ain’t going in there and make a fool of myself,’ yet I have the most caring mother you could ever want” (p. 19). We also have to understand that education is not seen as important for many families who are poor. They are literally in a daily struggle for survival and often feel their children should be helping rather than doing schoolwork. Jobs most often pay minimum wage, not enough to live on. So the notion that children should study so that they can get a job doesn’t make sense to them. They often have little understanding that education can help their children lead a more secure life.

Children who are poor often feel that teachers do not care about them and don’t know how to respond to them. They and their parents often even feel that teachers are part of the “enemy,” another group of people in power who humiliate and disrespect them. Too often teachers don’t take the time to understand the lives of these children. Consequently, they often feel that they do not belong in school.

How does all this affect children and their behavior in school? First, because of low self-confidence and shame, students will often be silent and very quiet. This does not mean, however, that they understand the lesson. Also, children living with daily insecurity where basic needs are not met feel anger, have negative attitudes, and tend to be “smart alecks.” Students may come to school with dirty bodies and clothes. They will often have great difficulty doing schoolwork at home and have difficulty keeping track of materials sent home.

What can we do to help children and youth who are very poor? Beegle (2003) has recommended the following:

- Show and tell students that they are special.
- Make extra efforts to ensure understanding of the material being covered.
- Ensure that the school and the classroom are safe, both emotionally and physically. Protect students from ridicule.
- Address social class as part of the curriculum and fight classism. Create learning opportunities for exploring structural causes of poverty.
- Examine our own attitudes related to people from generational poverty. Seek to understand and learn. Visit the children where they live, whether in the back of a truck or in a homeless shelter. Talk to the parents about their concerns.
- Work with others to ensure a school environment in which peers, teachers, and administrators try to understand and appreciate parents and children who are poor.
- Explore whether problematic behavior is related to conditions of poverty and find ways to respond to meet student needs.
- Connect students with mentors.
- Build a network of support with others who are working to address poverty issues and link students and families to them.
- Create incentives and motivators that are effective for all children who are poor. Ask students, “If you get knocked down, what are five things you would get back up for?” This will help us understand what really motivates a student.



Two students are involved in a service learning project where older students are paired with younger students. They have become best buddies in the process.

- Work to eliminate homework or create homework that could be reasonably done by children who have unstable home situations. Clearly understand the purpose for which we want to assign homework. Find ways to achieve this during the school day or in after-school tutoring programs.
- Bring in speakers, take field trips, and talk about career possibilities. Make sure there is time for the students to hear personal stories of how professionals came to be educated or obtained their jobs.
- Suspend judgment of parent/guardian behavior. Express appreciation of parenting efforts, even if the efforts are not what you might expect from a middle-class parent.



Students Who Are Gay

Students may also vary in their sexual orientation, heterosexual or gay. This will be particularly important in high school. However, actions toward gay and lesbian students are highly influenced by attitudes and information provided by teachers and other adults. Wood (1997) indicates that 10 to 30% of students are either gay or lesbian, or have an immediate family member who is. As with other differences, it is very important that we provide emotional support and acceptance of these students. Wood claims that “silence on these issues communicates values just as loudly as responding would. The values that should be taught are ones that encompass respect for one another and caring about one another’s feelings, regardless of differences” (p. 2).

Students who are gay need particular understanding and support from us as teachers. These students need to know that ridicule and cruelty will not be tolerated in the class and that we will be working actively to create a caring classroom community. Most critically, they need to be able to trust and talk openly to us and know we will help them be accepted in the class. Wood (1997) suggested the following strategies:

- Make no assumption about sexual preference. Use neutral language such as, “Are you seeing anyone?” instead of “Do you have a boyfriend?” Additionally, do not assume that a female student who confides a crush on another girl is a lesbian.
- Have something gay-related visible in your office that will identify you as a safe person to talk to.

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- Support, normalize, and validate students' feelings about their sexuality. Let them know that we are there for them.
- Work on our own biases by reading, learning, and talking to people.
- Do not advise youth to “come out.” This is their decision to deal with in their own time. Many gay youth are forced to leave their home after they tell their parents. Help them figure out what makes sense for them.
- Guarantee confidentiality with students.
- Challenge homophobia immediately.
- Connect students with role models. Gay and straight students benefit from having openly gay teachers, coaches, and administrators.



Students with Differing Academic Abilities

All teachers know that their students vary dramatically in the level of skills and abilities in the classroom. Inclusive teachers intentionally plan for having students with a wide range of abilities ranging from students considered gifted and talented to those with significant cognitive disabilities. Here we will consider students who vary in their academic and cognitive abilities.

Peer Tutoring at an Inclusive High School



Santana High School
9915 Magnolia Avenue
Santee, CA 92071

Santana High School is located in Santee, in Southern California. Students considered having moderate and severe disabilities are enrolled in general education classes. They attend classes according to their grade level, not according to their disability, and have done so since the early 1990s.

This high school provides a variety of supports to students with disabilities. The most essential is peer tutoring. Students from Grades 9 through 12 may enroll in a peer tutoring course that counts as an elective toward graduation credit. They tutor students who have moderate to severe disabilities and attend the general education classes with the student to provide academic and social support.

Special education teachers train them and provide support through five formal trainings throughout the 18-week term. These trainings focus on information

pertaining to inclusion, curriculum modification, support strategies, the use of people-first language (e.g., “a person with a disability,” not “a disabled person”), and forms of communication. Major emphases of training are on respecting and empowering the student with a disability. Students learn to strive for social justice for people with disabilities and to celebrate human diversity.

Although the objective of the peer tutoring course is to provide support to students with disabilities who are included in general education courses, many other benefits also have evolved. Students and teachers have increased opportunities to interact with people at a variety of ability levels. Students discover the commonalities they share with people who have disabilities. Peer tutors also increase their own knowledge of the subject matter of classes as they provide tutoring. Friendships are developed; academics are effectively taught; and, most importantly, individual needs are being met in a supportive, inclusive environment.

By Rebecca Bond and Liz Castagnera. Edited by Michael Peterson.

Gifted and Talented

Parents of children with high abilities have been very concerned regarding the education of their children. In 1988 Congress passed the Jacob K. Javits Gifted and Talented Students Education Act to provide federal support to schools aimed at improving the education of gifted and talented students. In the 1994 reauthorization of PL 103-398, Title XIV:

The term “gifted and talented” . . . means students . . . who give evidence of high performance capability in areas such as intellectual, creative, artistic, or leadership capacity, or in specific academic fields, and who require services or activities not normally provided by the school in order to fully develop such capabilities. (PL 103-398, Title XIV, p. 388)

Two points are noteworthy about this definition. First, a student can be “gifted” and also possess another label—such as “learning disabled” or “second-language learner.” Second, this definition describes regular classrooms as being unable to challenge these students adequately. This description, however, is more an assumption and is based on traditional, one-level teaching practice.

How can students who are highly gifted and students with severe mental retardation or learning disabilities learn successfully together? The answer is that we can use techniques from gifted education to benefit all students. Strategies that use multiple intelligences and differentiated instruction can create classes aimed at the highest levels, in which the brightest students bring others along, yet structured so that students can begin where they are, however low or high their abilities. In addition, we must be concerned about the emotional well-being of students who are highly gifted. Do they feel set apart? When we build a strong community while providing opportunities for students to engage in learning at their own level, these students can be supported emotionally as well as academically.

A few examples may be helpful. We would expect students who are gifted to play leadership roles in class discussions, sharing their learning and extending issues to higher levels of complexity. As this happens, these students raise the level of understanding of all students. Teaching strategies that support students who are gifted and talented are expansions of multilevel teaching, introduced in Chapter 2 and discussed in detail in Chapters 11–13. Useful strategies include the following (Cline, 1999; Kronberg, 1999; Tomlinson, 2004a):

- *Curriculum compacting*: Pre-assess students to avoid teaching what they already know, and allow advanced students to pursue enrichment activities or explore units in additional breadth or depth.
- *Tiered lessons*: Structure lessons that allow students to move ahead as they are able and interested. Provide a range of activities students may select from at various levels of difficulty. Allow and teach students to choose their own activities at their own level.
- *Open-ended assignments*: Give assignments in which students can explore complexity, assignments that have open-ended rather than finite responses. Instead of saying, “Read this and answer the multiple-choice questions,” we would say, “Read and write about how Columbus came to America.”

Students who are gifted need scaffolds—technology, resources, and human help—to push and support them as they move to the next level. **Mixed-ability groups** can be structured as microcosms of the total class, mixing students of different ability levels, genders, and social, cultural, and ethnic backgrounds. We should aim to have at least

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two students with higher abilities in such groups. Some useful group learning approaches include:

- *Social action research projects*: Students investigate an area of concern in their community and take action (Cline, 1999; Sapon-Shevin, 1994a, 1999; Willis, 1995).
- *Literacy circles*: These are structured as cross-ability groups. A student with mental retardation listens to the book on tape while a student who is gifted reads the book and other resource information to enrich the discussion. The gifted student may help the student with mental retardation draw from his or her own perspective to interpret the story, a process that can increase interpersonal and leadership skills (Daniels, 1994).
- *Multiage grouping*: Multiage classes offer reciprocal benefits, as when an experienced 10-year-old with learning disabilities stimulates a bright 8-year-old. Also, mixing classes across age groups can be valuable, as in projects involving elementary and high school students or reading buddy programs mixing upper and lower elementary students (Banks, 1995; Hindley, 1996; Schiller, 1998).
- *Flexible grouping*: If we group kids flexibly and have students move in and out of groups, some short-term ability grouping can work in ways that do not undermine classroom community. However, we must be careful. Such groups should not last more than one day; also, different students should be in such groups around different subjects so that we don't have certain students clustered consistently in either high or low groups (Clark, 1997; Cline, 1999; Kennedy, 1995; Peterson, Tamor, Feen, & Silagy, 2002).
- *Collaborative pairing*: Students work together in pairs. We teach students to work together collaboratively, helping them understand how their differences can be interesting and powerful sources of learning (D. Cohen, 1990; Putnam, 1993; Tarrant, 1999a, 1999b).

Some fear that teachers will be tempted to say to gifted students, “Jennifer, tutor John”—and go off to grade their papers. Instead, we can, with the very same activity, say to our student who is gifted, “Jennifer, you know that John has difficulties learning to read. This is a very big issue in helping people learn and grow. I think John could benefit from your help. However, you may want to learn more about the controversies surrounding reading strategies as you work with him. Would you be interested?” Jennifer may spend extra time with John, reading to him, helping him develop webs, and working on collaborative projects that use language, all the time learning through other investigations about what researchers say about learning to read. Of course, collaborative cross-ability learning does not necessarily focus on the nature of difference. Almost any topic allows for expanding a knowledge base to help others.

Dominant-Language Learners

A growing number of students are attending our schools whose primary language is different from the predominant language and who are limited in their abilities to use oral or written in that language. Many schools have scores of languages represented (Peterson et al., 2002). Faltis (2000) suggests the term *second-language learners* refers to students who do not speak the language of the majority culture. In addition, some students may speak the language but use a dialect at home. Black English, or ebonics, has been much discussed, but numerous other nonstandard dialects exist—such as those spoken by Whites in the Appalachian region or other ethnic groups (Polish, Italian, German, etc.). We should not tell students that their home language is

“incorrect.” Rather, explain that we use language for different purposes in different places and that standard English is used in school, business, and many other settings. This helps us respect students’ cultures while helping them learn the “language of power” (Delpit, 1995).

People disagree regarding whether students should be taught in pull-out bilingual classes or should learn in the general education class with a specialist providing collaborative support. Once again, we will see that good practices for second-language learners are based on good practices for all students, and that second-language learners enrich our class (Faltis, 2000; Miller-Lachmann & Taylor, 1995; Moore, 1999).

Faltis (2000) described four strategies for language learning:

1. *Recounts*: Students retell information known to both teacher and student: “What happened today when we visited the zoo, Juanita?”
2. *Accounts*: Student shares new information—a special event, weekend activities.
3. *Eventcasts*: Students talk about an event in process; for example, they might explain how to do an activity while it is being demonstrated.
4. *Stories*: Students read and write fictional accounts.

We must be aware of potential cultural mismatches of language use in the school and the home. In some families, for example, children are expected to listen and are not allowed to talk with adults. When such children are asked to talk with adults in school, they may have difficulty. Similarly, some cultures emphasize cooperation and group work over individual achievement. In classes in which children have frequent daily opportunities to use language, cultural mismatches become less problematic than in situations in which teachers do most of the talking (Faltis, 2000; Moore, 1999).

Faltis (2000) suggested the following strategies for second-language learners:

- High incidence of two-way communicative exchanges between teacher and students and among students;
- Social integration of second-language students with other students in all learning activities;
- Thoughtful integration of second-language acquisition principles with content instruction so that as students learn new subject matter knowledge, they develop language as well;
- Involvement and participation of second-language students’ home community in classroom and school activities;
- Promotion of critical consciousness to oppose social stratification and promote equity; and
- Collaborative work with second-language learner specialists and paraprofessionals who can provide support and assistance within our class.

Learning Disabilities

Many students are intelligent yet have trouble with reading, writing, math, or related subjects—students with learning disabilities. The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) defines a **learning disability** as

a disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using language, spoken or written, that may manifest itself in an imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell, or to do mathematical calculations. The term includes such conditions as perceptual disabilities, brain injury, minimal brain dysfunction, dyslexia, and developmental aphasia. The term does not apply to children who have learning problems which are primarily the result of visual, hearing, or motor

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disabilities, of mental retardation, of emotional disturbance, or of environmental, cultural, or economic disadvantage. (Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act [IDEA], 2004, p. 118)

When describing the characteristics of students with learning disabilities, professionals list many learning problems. These include hyperactivity or hypoactivity, distractibility, perceptual processing deficits, difficulty with social skills, confusing letters, comprehension difficulty, keeping work neat, writing their own thoughts, remembering math facts, and more. Often these statements are so general it is difficult to know what they mean. In addition, such characterizations treat student differences as deficits, often ignoring significant student strengths. Some researchers suggest that it is more effective to describe students in terms of their abilities to engage in learning tasks—such as their ability to frame questions while reading, trouble converting written print to words and sentences, difficulty understanding words that are “read,” or difficulty in understanding mathematical calculations (Englert et al., 1995; Englert, Mariage, Garmon, & Tarrant, 1998; Spear-Swerling & Sternberg, 1998; Tarrant, 1999a).

From a multiple intelligences perspective, every individual possesses a profile of varied abilities. However, we focus only on selected areas as worthy of serious attention. For example, if a child is tone deaf and has difficulty succeeding in music, this is often noted but not treated as an issue of great concern. We certainly don’t refer such a student for special education for learning disabilities in music. However, we could. If we think about it this way, almost everyone has some sort of “learning disability” (Armstrong, 1994; Gardner, 1993).

Until 2004, IDEA required that students have a severe discrepancy between achievement and intellectual abilities in at least one of seven areas: basic reading skill, reading comprehension, listening comprehension, oral expression, written expression, mathematics calculation, or mathematics reasoning. This approach was a “wait to fail” model since it required that students get more behind before they could be declared eligible for services. In 2004 the law *allowed* school districts to eliminate this requirement and Congress recommended that schools use a “response to intervention” model in which student responses to high-quality, research-based instruction are considered when diagnosing students with learning disabilities.

The response to the intervention model provides an approach to early intervening services. Response to intervention strategies involve tiers of assistance that begin with identifying student needs and then use a range of instructional strategies that may provide assistance to students. These strategies are consistent with those outlined in this book. Following are some key strategies that may be helpful for students with learning disabilities.

- Have positive expectations while affirming that students have different learning styles and rates of learning.
- Use authentic, activity-based learning that draws on multiple intelligences. (We’ll find that students with learning disabilities often have strong abilities in art, physical movement, etc. These can be used as strengths and routes to typical academic abilities.)
- Seek to reduce stress and discouragement, providing experiences in which the students can be successful. We can do this by providing reading materials at their level of ability.
- Use assistive technology such as text to speech software, materials on tape or CD, software that provides writing assistance, speech to text software (see Chapter 8). When students with learning disabilities use these tools to gain meaning from text we help them have success, enjoy involvement in literacy, and function. It may be as important to help them learn to use these tools as to read in a conventional way!

- Provide scaffolding to help the student participate with support. Scaffolding support can come from the teacher (using read alouds, writing dictated stories), from other students (buddy reading, group reading), and from classroom volunteers.
- Help students learn to organize materials using calendars, organizers, story maps, and methods of filing.
- Provide student assignments ahead of time (perhaps on Friday) and send them home to parents so they and the student can prepare for the coming week.
- Give students social and emotional support. Value their contributions and help them deal with frustrations.

Cognitive Disabilities

Students with **cognitive disabilities** (previously referred to as mental retardation) have limitations in their intellectual and cognitive abilities as well as their abilities to engage in social and practical adaptive abilities of daily living. Students with intellectual disabilities will learn much slower than other students. There will be some skills they will never learn. For example, many students with cognitive disabilities may never develop reading skills higher than first- or second-grade level. Until recently, the term used for cognitive disabilities or intellectual disabilities was *mental retardation*. However, over the years that term has gained very negative connotations, as occurred with previous technical terms—*moron*, *idiot*, and *feeble-minded*. In 2006, the American Association of Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities (AAIDD) changed its terminology from *mental retardation* to *intellectual disability*, which it defines as a “disability characterized by significant limitations both in intellectual functioning and in adaptive behavior as expressed in conceptual, social, and practical adaptive skills. This disability originates before age 18” (American Association of Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities, 2007).

IDEA still uses the term “mental retardation” but the definition uses similar language:

“Mental retardation” means significantly sub-average general intellectual functioning existing concurrently with deficits in adaptive behavior and manifested during the developmental period that adversely affects a child’s educational performance. (IDEA, 2004, section 300.7)

Intellectual abilities are measured by an individual intelligence test such as the Wechsler Intelligence Scales for Children (WAIS). Adaptive behavior is typically measured by a rating of functional and adaptive skills. Historically, IQ scores falling within certain ranges have defined the following levels of mental retardation: borderline (IQs of 70–85), mild or *educable* (55–70), moderate or *trainable* (40–55), *severe* (25–40), and *profound* (below 25).

Students with intellectual disabilities are among the most segregated and isolated of children. Despite the inclusive schooling movement, children with mental retardation often attend segregated schools or classes. Adults with intellectual disabilities are often segregated throughout their lifetimes, living either with their parents or, as explained in Chapter 1, in group homes (Braddock, Hemp, Bachelder, & Fujiura, 1995; Hill & Lakin, 1984). They often work in sheltered workshops (Murphy & Rogan, 1995; Weiner-Zivolich, 1995).

In recent years parents and people with mental retardation have rejected these limited options, demanding that children be included in general education and that adults be given support so they can live in their own homes, work in real jobs, marry, and participate in the community (Jupp, 1994; O’Brien, O’Brien, & Jacob, 1998; Schaefer, 1997; Schleien, Ray, & Green, 1997).

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When we use good teaching strategies, students with intellectual disabilities learn much more than anyone thought possible (Beloin, 1997; Freeman & Alkin, 2000; Hunt, Staub, Alwell, & Goetz, 1994; Logan, Bakeman, & Keefe, 1997; McDonnell, Hardman, Hightower, & Kiefer-O'Donnell, 1997; Ryndak, Morrison, & Sommerstein, 1999). The strategies useful with students with learning disabilities are directly applicable to students with cognitive disabilities. Other useful strategies include the following:

- Facilitate supports for students to include circles of friends and peer buddies and helpers.
- Use paraprofessionals to work with students with cognitive disabilities. However, we often find they are not needed if we are using multilevel instruction (see Chapters 11–13). We want to ensure that a paraprofessional does not hover over students with cognitive disabilities and separate them from other students.
- Ensure that students are involved in age-appropriate activities. While we work with these students from their level of ability, we don't treat a 13-year-old, for example, as a 6-year-old even though the student may be functioning on the first-grade level.
- Use authentic, multilevel, and tiered instruction to involve students in the same topics and learning activities as other students but at their level of ability. Connect learning to real skills needed in life. We can use catalogs of life skills to connect these to academic instruction for all students such as “life-centered career education” (Brolin, 1993) and the “activities catalogue” (Wilcox & Bellamy, 1987).
- Provide students the opportunities to make choices and learn the skills of self-determination. Students with cognitive disabilities too often are given little opportunity to learn how to advocate for themselves. We can incorporate this into any class.
- Provide books at multiple levels of difficulty with good graphics and illustrations.
- Break complex activities into smaller, simpler parts (task analysis). However, take care not to overdo this.
- Promote connections of skills across home and school. For example, use similar labeling schemes for certain objects both at home and in school, or have books read at home that reinforce information at school.

Traumatic Brain Injury

In many ways, learning challenges faced by individuals who have a traumatic brain injury (TBI) are similar to those faced by individuals with learning disabilities and cognitive disabilities. A major difference is that these challenges are brought on suddenly. Thus, emotional reactions are of great concern. In terms of official definitions, IDEA states the following:

“Traumatic brain injury” means an acquired injury to the brain caused by an external physical force, resulting in total or partial functional disability or psychosocial impairment, or both, that adversely affects a child's educational performance. Traumatic brain

Sights TO SEE



Peanut Butter and Micah in High School

Peanut Butter and Jelly Lesson The teacher “skillfully interweaves hands-on activities, rich language development dialogue, and writing practice to help her students learn.” crede.berkeley.edu/research/crede/products/multimedia/pbj.html#

Micah: Senior Year in High School This site shares information about Micah Fialka Feldman's inclusion in high school. Includes video in classrooms, interviews of teachers, and Micah running a 200-meter race. www.wholeschooling.net/WS/Video/Micah.html

injury applies to open or closed head injuries resulting in mild, moderate, or severe impairments in one or more areas, such as cognition; language; memory; attention; reasoning; abstract thinking; judgment; problem solving; sensory, perceptual and motor abilities; psychosocial behavior; physical functions; information processing; and speech. Traumatic brain injury does not include brain injuries that are congenital or degenerative, or brain injuries induced by brain trauma. (IDEA, 2004, section 300.7)

Traumatic brain injuries are caused by injuries to the head. These include traffic injuries, sports accidents, and gunshot wounds. Auto accidents are frequently associated with alcohol consumption; gunshots with aggression, robberies, and gang wars; and blows to the head with child abuse (North et al., 1995). Students may have had serious problems in their lives prior to their injury that affect how they adjust.

Because the brain controls so many functions, the impacts of TBI can vary greatly. These may include (1) physical impairments such as speech loss, hearing loss, seizure disorders; (2) cognitive impacts such as reading and writing skills, concentration, memory, judgment, and communication; and (3) emotional responses that may include fatigue, depression, anger, mood swings, and low self-esteem. Some students will be able, with effort, to regain significant abilities. Others will not.

Students with TBI need support. They will likely be receiving ongoing medical attention, sometimes necessitating their missing school (Begali, 1992; Bell, 1994; North et al., 1995). At first, students' stamina may be limited and they may attend school a shorter day. We can help by having a place where the student can rest. Because impacts can be so variable, we pay close attention to academic performance and emotional responses. Given the devastation of loss, students need to capitalize on their strengths; similarly, we need to use these strengths as avenues to reach areas of weakness (Cohen, 1991; Gerring & Carney, 1992).

Strategies for Students with Differing Academic Abilities

Following are key strategies for students with different academic abilities. While it's helpful to think of strategies associated with each specific group, it's even more helpful to think about strategies to design instruction to accommodate students with various academic abilities. We will explore these in greater detail in later chapters.

- Have positive, high, but reasonable expectations coupled with emotional support.
- Expect all students, especially those with higher abilities, to play leadership roles in class discussions, sharing their learning and extending issues to higher levels of complexity.
- Have reading and instructional materials available that are high interest but are at wide-ranging levels of ability; picture books to highly technical materials on a particular subject, for example.
- Use multilevel, differentiated instruction to allow students to function at varying levels of ability in lessons. Expect performance that fits the ability level of each student. (See Chapters 11–13.)
- Use authentic and activity-based learning linking various subjects around key themes that are important and interesting to students.
- Identify and draw on the strengths of students (rather than emphasizing deficits). Use multiple intelligences to find areas of strength.
- Reduce stress and pressure concerning areas of student deficit by using authentic, multilevel teaching and celebrating their successes and growth.
- Provide scaffolds and supports to help students be able to participate in more complex activities than they could do alone and to challenge and support all students in learning at their own level.
- Help all students organize their materials and monitor their scheduling and completion of learning activities.

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Three teachers are congratulating a student with special needs regarding his writing a poem related to the social studies unit on diversity. One teacher is a special education teacher who provides support in the general education classroom. The other two are English and social studies teachers who are collaborating on this unit.

- Mix groups heterogeneously giving all students opportunities to support other students in their learning, rather than just asking high-ability students to do this. Remember that teaching someone else deepens understanding.
- Help students connect with one another and develop relationships. Avoid stable ability grouping.
- Work collaboratively with other teachers and specialists, such as special education teachers, gifted specialists, speech therapists, psychologists, social workers, and others to design lessons that meet the needs of all students and to provide in-class support to students in learning.
- Resist the temptation to send students out to special education resources rooms, gifted classes, or other separate programs when it is difficult to figure out how to use multilevel, differentiated instruction.



Students with Behavioral and Emotional Challenges

Working with students who have emotional and behavioral issues will often challenge our commitment to being an inclusive teacher. When students cause disruptions, we may feel insecure in our own abilities. We may also be concerned for the safety of other students. It's also clear that schools don't do a very good job of dealing with the needs of students who exhibit challenging behaviors. The typical response is punishment or isolation—responses that make the problems worse, not better. Figure 3.1 identifies common emotional and behavioral difficulties, which are briefly described in the following text.

Attention Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder

In recent decades a literal explosion has occurred in the number of students who are labeled as having attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) (G. Breggin, 2000; Diller, 1998). The term used in the most recent version of the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM)*, the fourth edition, text revision (*DSM-IV-TR*;

FIGURE 3.1

Emotional and Behavioral Disorders	
EXTERNALIZING DISORDERS	
■	Attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD)
■	Oppositional defiance disorder (ODD)
■	Conduct disorder
■	Pervasive developmental disorders (PDDs)
INTERNALIZING DISORDERS	
■	Substance abuse
■	Feeding and eating disorders
■	Anxiety and social withdrawal
■	Depression
■	Schizophrenia and psychosis

American Psychiatric Association, 2000), is ADHD. Several subtypes are identified: (1) *inattentive* (previously thought of as “ADD” without hyperactivity); (2) *impulsive and hyperactive*; and (3) *combined type*—exhibiting all three behaviors of concern.

The diagnostic criteria for ADHD are listed in Figure 3.2. For a child to be diagnosed as ADHD, he or she must exhibit at least six of the nine symptoms before age 7 in at least two situations (such as school or home). Behaviors must also cause significant problems in functioning and cannot be better explained by another diagnosis. Breggin and Ross-Breggin (1994) and Diller (1998) indicate that there is much overdiagnosis of students as ADHD with physicians often simply checking off criteria based on an interview with parents without adequately delving into the child’s life. Stress, family dynamics, lack of time with teachers and parents, or simply boring instruction are seldom adequately considered. There is no evidence that ADHD has a biological cause (Coles, 1987, 1998).

Inattention. In ADHD, students shift between inattention and distractibility and bursts of “hyperfocusing” (Nelson, 1996, 1998).

Type 1: Hypofocus: Some students struggle to sustain concentration. They are kinesthetic learners who need movement and intense experiences.

Type 2: Hyperfocus: These students focus intensely blocking out other sources of input. Their minds race with ideas, and they are often physically overactive. They may need help to focus *less* so that they can switch to other activities. Such students may amaze teachers with their creativity.

Type 3: Mixed Focus: These children are inattentive one hour, overattentive the next, often mixing inattention with physical underactivity. The student may seem “spacey,” prone to too much thinking and too little action.

Impulsivity. Students may jump from one idea to another and say what comes to mind. Such a student may hear something and run to the window (Bender, 1997). Yet impulsivity can be very valuable. Rather than hesitating, these students “act on instant decisions” with the “willingness to explore new and untested areas” (Hartmann, 1996, p. 24). They may be highly creative and stimulate lively discussion but need help in channeling this energy.

FIGURE 3.2

DSM-IV-TR Criteria for ADHD

INATTENTION

- Often fails to give close attention to details or makes careless mistakes in schoolwork, work, or other activities.
- Often has difficulty sustaining attention in tasks or play activities.
- Often does not seem to listen when spoken to directly.
- Often does not follow through on instructions and fails to finish schoolwork, chores, or duties in the workplace (not due to oppositional behavior or failure to understand instructions).
- Often has difficulty organizing tasks and activities.
- Often avoids, dislikes, or is reluctant to engage in tasks that require sustained mental effort (such as schoolwork or homework).
- Often loses things necessary for tasks or activities (e.g., toys, school assignments, pencils, books, or tools).
- Often is easily distracted by extraneous stimuli.
- Often is forgetful in daily activities.

HYPERACTIVITY

- Often fidgets with hands or feet or squirms in seat.
- Often leaves seat in classroom or in other situations in which it is inappropriate (in adolescents or adults, may be limited to subjective feelings of restlessness).
- Often runs about or climbs excessively in situations in which it is inappropriate.
- Often has difficulty playing or engaging in leisure activities quietly.
- Often is “on the go” or often acts as if “driven by a motor.”
- Often talks excessively.

IMPULSIVITY

- Often blurts out answers before questions have been completed.
- Often has difficulty waiting turn.
- Often interrupts or intrudes on others (e.g., butts into conversations).

Source: Adapted from the American Psychiatric Association (2000), pp. 92–93.

Hyperactivity. Some students are full of energy and movement. According to the National Institute of Mental Health (2001), “people who are hyperactive always seem to be in motion. . . . They may roam around the room, squirm in their seats, wiggle their feet, touch everything, or noisily tap a pencil” (p. 1).

Ritalin and Related Drugs. Use of drugs to control ADHD behavior has grown dramatically. Drugs with three different names all use the same chemical, methylphenidate: Ritalin, Ritalin SR, and Concerta. Psychiatrists report that many parents come specifically to obtain prescriptions, and “Ritalin mills” have sprung up. A growing number of researchers and practitioners, however, are questioning drug use, analyzing both impact and side effects, and suggesting alternatives for both parents and teachers (Armstrong, 1997; Breeding, 1996; Breggin, 2001; Diller, 1998; Stein, 1999).

Ritalin does help students focus for a short time and helps moderate impulsivity. Ritalin has similar effects on those who are and are not considered to have ADHD (Diller, 1998). However, Ritalin has several potential side effects that can include increased blood pressure, convulsions, psychosis, depression, dizziness, headache, insomnia, nervousness, loss of appetite, nausea, vomiting, stomach pain, dry mouth, weight loss, growth suppression, blurred vision, and more. It tends to sap children of their spirit, creating a “zombie” demeanor. In addition, the **rebound effect**, typical withdrawal responses that can last up to 10 days after ingestion, may make a child’s behavior worse than before. When this occurs, people often think that increased dosages are needed. Dependence on the drug shields children and adults from having to work through conflicts. Children on Ritalin tend to see their success as based on a drug rather than their own effort (Breggin, 2001).

Although ADHD is not a special education category, students with ADHD can qualify under the category of “other health impaired” if they need special education services (Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services, 1991). Many students labeled ADHD also are considered learning disabled. Even if they do not receive special education services, they are covered under Section 504 and schools must provide reasonable accommodations.

There is evidence that a combination of social supports, effective instruction, and reasonable drug use can be effective (Breggin, 2001; Monastra, 2004; Pierangelo & Giulani, 2007; Rief, 2005). With good teaching practice we should expect substantial reductions in the use of Ritalin and related drugs.

Labels of Serious Emotional Disturbance

The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) defines “serious emotional disturbance” as

a condition exhibiting one or more of the following characteristics over a long period of time and to a marked degree that adversely affects a child’s educational performance:

- A. An inability to learn that cannot be explained by intellectual, sensory, or health factors.
- B. An inability to build or maintain satisfactory interpersonal relationships with peers and teachers.
- C. Inappropriate types of behavior or feelings under normal circumstances.
- D. A general pervasive mood of unhappiness or depression.
- E. A tendency to develop physical symptoms or fears associated with personal or school problems.

The term includes schizophrenia. The term does not apply to children who are socially maladjusted, unless it is determined that they have an emotional disturbance. (IDEA, 2004)

This definition has caused much concern among professionals because the language is extremely vague. The number of students who are labeled as emotionally disturbed varies dramatically across districts and states. Some use the requirement that a student’s difficulties “adversely affects a child’s educational performance” to not qualify students who have emotional problems but who are making good grades (Kauffman, 2008). The term *socially maladjusted* is even more problematic. In the law it was not defined. Much effort has gone into efforts to distinguish between social maladjustment and emotional disturbance. Most often socially maladjusted students are considered not truly disabled. Rather, they “engage in deliberate acts of self-interest to gain attention or to intimidate others, while experiencing no distress . . . about their behavior” (RESA, 2004). Montgomery (2008) stated that conduct disorder, by definition, is social maladjustment. However, many professionals consider

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these ideas “incomprehensible. A youngster cannot be socially maladjusted . . . without exhibiting one or more of the five characteristics (especially B or C) to marked degree and over a long period of time. Neither logic nor research supports the discrimination between social maladjustment and emotional disturbance” (Kauffman, 2008, p. 30). If students truly have no conscience and engage willfully in bullying and hurting others, this should be considered a significant emotional disability. Clearly, schools using a punitive model have used this distinction to deny services and protection of the law to these difficult but troubled students (Kauffman, 2008; Merrell & Walker, 2004).

Five labels are used to describe students who “externalize” their difficulties via disruptive behaviors. ADHD and social maladjustment were discussed previously. Students with **oppositional defiance disorder (ODD)** exhibit negative, hostile behavior lasting at least 6 months in which they frequently do four of the following: lose temper; argue with adults; defy or refuse to comply with adults’ requests; deliberately annoy people; blame others; and/or act touchy, angry, resentful, and spiteful. **Conduct disorder** involves persistent rule breaking and aggressive behavior such as defiance, fighting, and bullying. These students frequently are also diagnosed with other conditions such as ADHD, learning disabilities, anxiety disorders, and depression (American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, 2008). In practice it is difficult to differentiate among these conditions (American Psychiatric Association, 2000; M. K. Cohen, 1994; Nelson, 1992; Skiba & Grizzle, 1992).

“Internalizing” disorders are those in which the impact of emotions is directed inward. These include the following (American Psychiatric Association, 2000):

- Substance abuse.
- Feeding and eating disorders—students with anorexia nervosa, bulimia, and related conditions.
- Anxiety and social withdrawal.
- Depression—signs typically include sad, lonely, or apathetic behavior; avoidance of social contacts; chronic problems with sleeping, eating, or elimination; fear of being with others in public places; and talk of suicide.
- Schizophrenia and psychosis—schizophrenia is diagnosed when two or more of the following symptoms are present: delusions, hallucinations, disorganized speech, disorganized or catatonic behavior, and problems in the ability to think logically or make decisions.

Unfortunately, we are failing to support these children whose lives are often very difficult. Research (Cullinan, Epstein, & Sabornie, 1992; Office of Special Education Programs, 1999; Wagner, 1995) indicates that students labeled emotionally disturbed are disproportionately likely to be:

- Male
- African American
- Economically disadvantaged
- In secondary school
- Living with one parent, in foster care, or in another alternative living arrangement

Boys are more likely to be aggressive and disruptive in the classroom (Boggiano & Barrett, 1992; Gresham, MacMillan, & Bocian, 1996). Young women are more likely to exhibit internalizing behaviors (Zahn-Waxler, 1993). Also, some teachers expect Black students to be problematic (Horowitz, Bility, Plichta, Leaf, & Haynes, 1998; Metz, 1994). No biological causes have been established for emotional disturbance. All of the

following are significantly associated with emotional disturbance: poverty, malnutrition, homelessness, family conflict, divorce, inconsistent child-rearing practices, and child and sexual abuse (Eber, Nelson, & Miles, 1997; Kauffman, 2008). Fifty-five percent of students labeled emotionally disturbed drop out of school (Wagner, 1995). Black males from poor families are the most likely to be segregated and the least likely to receive counseling and graduate from high school (Osher & Osher, 1996). On leaving school, 73% of dropouts and 58% of graduates are arrested within 5 years (Wagner, 1995; Wagner, Blackorby, Cameto, Hebbeler, & Newman, 1993).

Treatment of students with emotional disturbances sometimes seems designed to exacerbate their problems. These students need “more security, more trust, more love” (Breggin & Ross-Breggin, 1994, p. 192). However, these students are most often (1) separated and isolated from other students, (2) punished, and (3) medicated (Lewis, Chard, & Scott, 1994). Schools often focus on controlling students instead of building on student strengths, and they frequently shift students from place to place (Kortering & Blackorby, 1992; Mayer, 1995; Osher & Hanley, 1996). Punishment may strengthen aggression when it causes pain, when there are no positive alternatives to the punished response, or when punishment provides a model of aggressive behavior. These dynamics play out in many schools where children, mostly low-income males, are not given support and modeling for new behaviors but are punished for aggression. Sometimes boys literally learn from family and teachers how to be aggressive and violent (Kauffman, 2008).

Clearly new directions are needed to help support students with emotional disturbance, including particularly those who are considered socially maladjusted. Students need opportunities to learn positive social behaviors from adults who care about them. For students considered the most difficult, it is particularly important that we help them develop prosocial behaviors. We must reach out to get through to these students helping them to know we care for them. One key element is central in every study that has documented strategies for moving students from violence to positive behaviors: a relationship with just *one* adult. We can be that one adult.

Autism (Autism Spectrum Disorder)

IDEA defines **autism** as

a developmental disability significantly affecting verbal and nonverbal communication and social interaction, generally evident before age 3, that adversely affects a child’s educational performance. Other characteristics often associated with autism are engagement in repetitive activities and stereotyped movements, resistance to environmental change or change in daily routines, and unusual responses to sensory experiences. Autism does not apply if a child’s educational performance is adversely affected primarily because the child has a serious emotional disturbance. (IDEA, 2004, section 300.8)

Autism is a neurological disorder that interferes with the development of reasoning, social interaction, and communication. Five behaviors are common in many persons with autism, all related to these individuals’ difficulty understanding and relating to social interactions (Koegel & Koegel, 1995; Wagner, 1999):

- *Deficits in language development:* At one point 50% of people with autism did not develop language; today, however, most learn to communicate via language or other tools such as communication boards. This process has led to a reduction in behavioral problems.
- *Self-stimulation:* Repetitive behaviors such as hand flapping, twirling of objects, body rocking, or staring at lights can be subtle or obvious.



JOURNEY INTO THE CLASSROOM

The Class Community Deals with a Fight at Recess

One day in Sue's first-grade class two children, Ramone and Vista, got into a huge fight at recess. Students came in telling her, "They started hitting each other and calling each other names, Ms. Sue!"

Sue was very concerned. She had spent a lot of time working to build a sense of community in her classroom since the beginning of the year. Every day they sat in a circle and greeted one another, using a different language each week. Each morning one child was able to take the floor and share something important to him or her. She had students help one another in their work and used cooperative group projects often.

Sue knew that how she handled this problem was important. She could model positive responses; if she was harsh and uncaring, however, students would begin to understand that all her talk about care, respect, and community was just a cover to keep students under control.

"OK, class, let's get in our circle and talk!" says Sue. Her 26 students come to the area of the room that Sue had covered with soft rubber squares that fit together to form a comfortable base on which students could sit. They are quiet and subdued, uncomfortable with the anger and tension that had exploded on the playground.

"So, tell us what happened," Sue asks. "I wanted to play with Ramone and the others but he told me that I couldn't play. I felt left out," responds Vista. Sue replies, "I heard a feeling right there. You said, 'I felt left out.' What is the need that she is feeling?" Virginia, a cute little girl whose family had just moved from Appalachia to the city, says, "Love and belonging!" "Yes," says Sue. "She was not feeling that need being met. What could have happened?" Suzanne raises her hand and responds, "Ramone could have given Vista an 'I message.'" "Vista, did you walk up to Ramone and give him an 'I message'?" Sue asks. "No," says Vista. "What might have happened right then if you had done that?" Sue asks. "They might have told me that I could play with them," Vista responds.

Sue asks the children, "What can you do to make this better the next recess?" "We will be nice," says Ramone contritely. "But what will make it nice?" Sue queries. "Should we have a rule that you can't say to someone, 'You can't play with us'?" The rest of the students then begin to discuss this question. "Clearly both Vista and Ramone got their feelings hurt. But people respond in different ways to hurt feelings. Some people cry. Some get angry. But both have the same feeling. Ramone and Vista, do you think that the two of

you can talk together and come up with some ways to prevent this happening again? Can you think of games where everyone can play, where everyone can belong?"

Ramone and Vista indicate that they can walk off together to the side of the class. For the next 20 minutes the two children work together on clipboards talking and writing down ideas. "Look here," says Ramone to Vista showing her his clipboard.

Shortly afterward, it is time for the daily reading of a book by the teacher to the children. "Look at what book I have here," Sue says laughing. The book's title is *You Aren't My Best Friend Anymore*. "How lucky is that," says Sue in amazement. "Molly and Ben were best friends . . ." she reads. Sue reads the book, stopping now and then to ask children questions and talk about what is happening in the story.

After the reading, Vista and Ramone get their list of games and stand in front of the class that is still sitting on the floor in the circle area. "Hide and go seek," says Vista. "Dances," says Ramone as they take turns reading their list of games.

After lunch the class meets on the carpet again. "OK, Ramone and Vista, how was lunch?" They sit next to each other, obviously friends again. "We played together and had fun," says Ramone. "I noticed that you were sitting together at lunch and talking," says Sue. "Class, do you have any questions for Vista and Ramone?" Courtney asks, "Can you tell us what games you played?" "Duck Duck Goose," says Vista. "I think that really improved your relationship," says Degas. "I think so too," Sue concludes. She then directs the class to the math center where she has manipulatives ready for them. "Now for math," thinks Sue contentedly.

Reflections: As Sue's story well illustrates, teaching children how to care for one another, improving their "social skills," is not a separate part of the curriculum but interwoven into every minute of the teaching day. It also requires flexibility. Sue had an important math lesson planned. Instead, she took the time to help her children solve a problem that was important to them. Had she not done so, she might have "gotten through" her math lesson but tension, anger, and hurt would have reigned. In these conditions, students would have learned little. Note also that these were two "labeled children," one as gifted, the other as having a cognitive disability. Sue paid attention to the needs and abilities of each child but in a way that was respectful to each person.

- *Self-injurious or aggressive behaviors:* These may include “skin cutting, skin burning, self-hitting, . . . and bone breaking” (Kauffman, p. 517).
- *Preoccupation with certain objects or a routine:* Individuals may become very upset if a routine is changed.
- *Poor social/communicative gestures and utterances:* Individuals with autism may be unable to make eye contact, acknowledge smiles, or return handshakes. They often use language only to obtain things, not for social interaction.

The incidence of autism has risen dramatically in recent years (Bertrand et al., 2001; Koegel & Koegel, 1995; Varin, 1998). Young children who have symptoms similar to those of autism are often classified as having pervasive developmental disorders (PDDs).

Two programs have been predominantly used with people with autism, each built on a very different philosophy. Lovaas (1987) developed an intense program involving intensive behavior modification techniques known as **applied behavior analysis (ABA)**. This controversial, expensive treatment takes place over 3 years and continues some 40 hours per week, 365 days per year. Some researchers have questioned the validity of claimed results; they have further expressed the concern that the program virtually demands a segregated setting (Gresham & MacMillan, 1997).

Other approaches rely on strategies for teaching positive behaviors using a range of tools in typical settings. **Treatment and Education of Autistic and Related Communication-Handicapped Children (TEACCH)** develops an individual program based on a child’s skills, interests, and needs. Teachers organize the physical environment, create schedules, use visual materials, and make expectations very clear. This program seeks to foster independence by encouraging the development of skills to the point where the child can use them without adult prompting. This approach has been successful and is conducive to inclusive teaching (Varin, 1998).

Often people with autism do not understand their own feelings, as if their inner self is trapped behind fear and they are able to respond only by mimicking learned behaviors, such as motions or phrases they have been taught or seen on TV. Breaking out of this cage by communicating what they feel is a traumatic, intense experience. Basic things that are automatic processes for many people, such as knowing what food we like, holding someone’s hand, or talking to new people, are extremely difficult for people with autism (Williams, 1994a,b).

Inclusive schooling is critical in helping students with autism develop social skills and become part of their communities. By sheer repetition of appropriate modeling, direction, and practice, children’s social responses become more comfortable and their ability to think through a problem becomes more easily accessed (Wagner, 1999). Children with autism have strong visual skills, excellent ability to recognize details, and an amazing memory. These can become the basis for a successful life and can add to a classroom community.

Strategies for Students with Behavioral and Emotional Challenges

Following are key strategies for students who present behavioral, social, and emotional challenges. We will explore these in greater detail in later chapters.

- Commit ourselves to engaging, supporting, guiding, and teaching students with emotional and behavioral challenges and in working to develop relationships where we communicate that we care for them.

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- Teach with creative and engaging activities to help provide a positive, meaningful school experience.
- Provide options and choices that respond to individual needs and learning styles. These include varied places to work (table, desk, floor, in the hall), places to be alone and comfortable (cushions, headphones, underneath the teacher's desk), varied lighting, and so on.
- Provide positive outlets for student energy—opportunities for movement and creative expression.
- Help all students organize their materials and monitor their scheduling and completion of learning activities.
- Develop class structures for emotional support through circles of support, peer partnerships, and class meetings.
- Develop predictable class routines and help students understand changes that may occur.
- Form a personal relationship with students.
- Build community and provide emotional support letting students know we are available to help.
- Help develop a place for supervised support where students can go to cool off, obtain academic assistance, or problem solve with an adult.
- Integrate social skills learning into all academic lessons on a moment-by-moment basis. Use a range of strategies to help students learn needed social skills including social stories that help a student rehearse behavior in a difficult situation and picture schedules.
- Use positive behavior supports strategies that affirm students' needs, explore the reasons for behaviors, and work to help students have their needs met in new ways and develop effective social skills.
- Help students understand their own needs and proactive ways to have those needs met.
- For students with seriously challenging behaviors, work with an interdisciplinary team to develop an intensive behavioral support plan.
- Use professional supports and services such as individual and group counseling, consultation with a psychologist or social worker, and support groups for students and families.
- Facilitate support for ourselves via informal and formal consultation with other teachers, behavior specialists, and other professionals.



Students with Differing Communication, Physical, and Sensory Abilities

Students also come to us with a wide range of disabilities that are based on physical functioning. These include communication, hearing, seeing, physical movement, and health and well-being. Here we'll introduce you to common disabilities we will see in the classroom.

Severe and Multiple Disabilities

Some children have severe disabilities that impact many areas—academic and physical abilities, adaptive skills, cognitive functioning (Meyer, Peck, & Brown, 1991, p. 19). The bodies—arms, legs, face, trunk—of many of these students are shaped very differently from those of other children, resulting in an appearance that seems disfigured to many people.

Traditionally these students were placed in separate schools or classes along with students with other severe disabilities. At first this makes sense, in light of their intense and specialized needs. However, observing such classes, even with the very best teachers and equipment, leads to other conclusions. Typically, a teacher might have 6 to 9 children in a

class with two paraprofessionals. That's a ratio of 1:3. However, because these students need one-to-one attention, they sit waiting two thirds of the time. But when they are in a general education class, using learning activities based on the general curriculum yet adapted to their ability level, there is much ongoing interaction with other students that enhances communication, a key need of these students. Inclusive classrooms offer these students the equivalent of 24 teachers. Many studies have demonstrated the positive impact of inclusion for these students (Berrigan, 1994; Cole & Meyer, 1991; Hunt, Farron-Davis, et al., 1994; Janney & Snell, 1997; Meyer, Peck, & Brown, 1991; McGregor & Vogelsberg, 1998).

Communication Disorders

IDEA defines a **communication disorder** as “stuttering, impaired articulation, a language impairment, or a voice impairment, that adversely affects a child’s educational performance” (IDEA, 2004, section 300.7). Children can become frustrated and humiliated when they have difficulty understanding others and expressing themselves. Some 7 to 10% of school-age children receive speech services. The vast majority of students with communication disorders also have another disability that is considered more significant (McCormick, Loeb, & Schiefelbusch, 1997).

Language disorders involve difficulty or delays in using oral and written symbols such as using words inappropriately and having difficulty learning grammatical patterns, distinguishing speech sounds, and comprehending. **Articulation disorders** occur when students have trouble articulating sounds, maintaining fluent speech rhythms, and controlling their voice (McCormick, et al., 1997).

Speech therapists (also called speech pathologists) work with students to improve their communication abilities. **Augmentative and alternative communication (AAC)** specialists are typically trained as speech therapists (McCormick et al., 1997). In the field of speech therapy, there is a growing movement toward “naturalistic” services (McCormick et al., 1997; Office of Special Education Programs, 2001) in observing language and providing services in natural environments, such as their classroom or homes. In inclusive schools speech therapists often come into the classroom to engage students in individual or group learning activities designed to improve both articulation and language development.



A teacher helps a student focus on strengthening the voice and interest in his lead sentence for a short story he is writing in a language arts class.

**BUMPS
IN THE ROAD***Rejecting Students with Differences*

Sometimes teachers and other educators in your school will outright reject students with differences. While this has largely become unacceptable behavior related to students from various racial and cultural backgrounds, such rejection of students with disabilities and students who are gay is typically tolerated, sometimes overtly encouraged. Of course, racial discrimination often exists in more subtle ways.

One high school we visited was, for the first time, planning to fully include a student with severe, multiple disabilities. The student, Shawn, was in a motorized wheelchair. He did not have the strength or dexterity to propel himself and was unable to communicate verbally, but he did have a reliable sign with his hands for yes and no. He also had medical complications including a condition that made his bones very brittle. Shawn had been fully included in elementary school and middle school and many students knew him, some of whom had been in his circle of friends.

Shawn's parents had been anxious about his coming to the high school because the educational program there was rather rigid, rather than the flexible and student-centered experiences they had in elementary and middle school. The 9th-grade team that had agreed to work with Shawn had been very positive, however, so they felt more comfortable at the beginning of the year. But as classes started, two of the general education teachers suddenly became very resistant and angry. They approached the union representative complaining that teaching a student like Shawn was not in their contract. Jennifer, the special education coteacher, tried to talk with them but they remained hostile. She actually thought they might hit her! Phillip, one of these teachers, made the comment that really hurt: "Why is he in here? He can't do anything. He's just a vegetable!" It took some very hard work to get through this. Eventually Shawn was moved from this team to another 9th-grade team and his year progressed well after that.

This is but one example of many that we might encounter. Although this example related to a student

with a severe disability, we've been aware of angry, hurtful comments about students who are gay, who have mild learning disabilities, or who are poor. Oftentimes we'll find that when educators reject children who belong to one category they do the same for other types of differences.

What do we do when we encounter such attitudes? As always, we don't have magic answers. Intolerance, discrimination, and hurtful comments are an unfortunate part of the human condition. However, here are a few suggestions:

- First, as you can't let your students harm others, neither can this action be tolerated by staff members. If we don't challenge such actions, we are actually encouraging this behavior. It's helpful to bring it back to questions like: "What do we want for our students? Do we want our students rejected? Do we want to commit to teaching all or just some students?"
- Second, don't draw away from a relationship with the person. Be there to talk through feelings. It may well be that if such people can be confronted while at the same time given opportunities to explore their feelings and emotions, they may change their perspective.
- On the other hand, it's clear that some people are so committed to intolerance that we may not be able, at this point at least, to help them. It's important that we not spend all our energy on these individuals. Rather, we seek to contain the harm they cause people and work around them, connecting with those who are more positive and with whom we can work. Over time, as we are successful and others sign on to the effort, those with negative attitudes will see they are in the minority and, at minimum, check their hurtful responses.

You might think about experiences you have had where educators rejected children. Why do you believe they did this? When you encounter such behavior again, what might you do?

Deafness and Hearing Impairment

IDEA defines these two conditions in the following way:

“Deafness” means a hearing impairment that is so severe that the child is impaired in processing linguistic information through hearing, with or without amplification, and that adversely affects a child’s educational performance. “Hearing impairment” means an impairment in hearing, whether permanent or fluctuating, that adversely affects a child’s educational performance but that is not included under the definition of deafness in this section. (IDEA, 2004, section 300.7)

Students who are **deaf** cannot use their hearing to understand speech, even with amplification. Students who are **hearing impaired** have a loss of hearing but they can often understand speech. Hearing loss can be slight (27–40 decibels) that causes difficulty in hearing faint or distant speech to profound (loss of 91 or more decibels) that results in ability to hear only occasional very loud sounds. Loss of the ability to hear speech profoundly influences social interactions (Gething, 1992; Hardman, Drew, & Egan, 1996; D. Smith, 1998; Vaughn, Bos, & Schumm, 1997).

We may come into contact with several types of professionals who specialize in dealing with individuals who are deaf or have a hearing impairment:

- *Audiologists* assess hearing loss and prescribe tools to improve hearing, such as hearing aids.
- *Sign language interpreters* translate spoken words into sign language. As the deaf person signs back, the interpreter speaks the signed words to other parties.
- *Augmentative hearing specialists* develop and prescribe devices such as hearing aids and speech augmentation tools.
- *Special education teachers* are certified to teach students who are deaf or hard of hearing.

Students who are deaf or hard of hearing will need assistance in being part of the class and in overcoming the isolation that can occur because of problems in receiving information. In addition, students who are deaf often struggle to develop academic language skills—both oral and written. Students who are deaf or hearing impaired have challenges both in *expressing* themselves and in *receiving* information. When communicating with students who are deaf or hearing impaired, the key is to be natural. What we *don’t* want to do is yell or talk very loudly. This typically distorts our voice. Nor do we want to exaggerate our facial gestures. We will find many of the strategies for students with different academic abilities useful with students who are hearing impaired. Tools that are specific to hearing loss include the following:

- *Use alternative modes of communication.* **Sign language** involves signals using the hands and fingers. Signs are produced for each word using standard English syntax in **signed English**, a cumbersome process. **American Sign Language (ASL)** uses its own syntax. Signs may abbreviate or contain multiple words to allow more efficient communication. Many deaf adults prefer ASL. **Finger spelling** occurs when words are spelled using finger signs for each letter (Beukelman & Mirenda, 1992). When sign language is used in the classroom, an interpreter is often available. **Speechreading** occurs when a deaf person learns to understand by watching another person speak. Speechreading is an extremely difficult skill used by a small percentage of people who are deaf.
- *Use technology to enhance communication.* **Hearing aids** can help students with mild hearing losses. However, the hearing aid amplifies all sounds, not just speech, making sounds louder but not necessarily clearer. An **FM unit** is a device in which the teacher

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SAM'S TEACHER IS DIAGNOSED WITH A
"TEACHING SPECTRUM DISORDER."

wears a wireless microphone and the student wears a wireless receiver. The unit amplifies the teacher's voice 12 to 15 decibels over the rest of the classroom noise.

- *Use sound field amplification.* The teacher wears a wireless microphone and the sound comes out of speakers placed around the room. A **cochlear implant** is surgically implanted inside the ear and picks up sounds from a microphone electrically stimulating the auditory nerve (Gething, 1992; Hardman, et al., 1996).
- *Use visual materials in instruction.* Use a range of tools and materials that do not rely on hearing for effectiveness. These can include written and pictorial directions, and written materials that use pictures and graphics along with the written word at various levels of ability. Also, using cooperative learning, experiments, learning projects, and other authentic learning strategies is very helpful. *Provide copies of notes* taken by another student (Banks, 1994; Vaughn, Bos, et al., 1997).

Visual Impairment and Blindness

The definition of **visual impairment** in IDEA is pretty simple and straightforward:

Visual impairment including blindness means an impairment in vision that, even with correction, adversely affects a child's educational performance. The term includes both partial sight and blindness. (IDEA, 2004, section 300.7)

Visual problems are related to either (1) visual acuity or (2) field of vision. **Visual acuity**, or sharpness of vision, is measured based on the distance from which an object can be recognized. Perfect acuity is described as 20/20 vision. This means that an individual can see an object clearly at 20 feet. However, if an individual is able to read at 20 feet only what a person with 20/20 vision could read at 200 feet, we would describe that person's visual acuity as 20/200. **Visual field** refers to the angles from which the eye receives sensory input. Some individuals have narrow visual fields or *tunnel vision*, as low as 10 degrees. Others have limited vision in the center of the visual field but have *peripheral vision* (Gething, 1992).

The word **blindness** to most people means the inability to see at all in any functional way. However, many people considered blind still perceive some light or shapes. People who have low vision or who are partially sighted are considered *legally blind* when their visual

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acuity is better than 20/200 but not better than 20/70 in the best eye after correction or when their visual field is less than 20 degrees (Vaughn, Bos, et al., 1997). For clarification, simply ask the student how well she can see—in terms of light, shapes, acuity, and visual field.

Several professionals provide assistance to people who are blind or visually impaired, some of who—may assist us when blind or visually impaired students come to our class.

- *Ophthalmologists* are physicians who specialize in diseases, treatment, and functioning of the eye.
- *Optometrists* prescribe corrective lenses for visual difficulties.
- *Low-vision specialists* help individuals use tools to use their existing vision.
- *Rehabilitation teachers* help persons with blindness learn adaptive methods to function including Braille, taped books, and how to organize materials.
- *Assistive technology specialists* assist in identifying and helping students to use low and high tech assistive technology tools.
- *Orientation and mobility specialists* teach people how to use canes, sighted guides, and guide dogs. They orient a person to a new area—school grounds, a work site.
- *Special education teachers* provide instruction related to academic learning.

Following are specific strategies for assisting students who are blind or visually impaired:

- Provide learning activities that rely on senses other than sight, including groups working together, hands-on projects, and learning by doing. We give students with visual disabilities opportunities for obtaining input via touch, sound, even smell in ways that deepen and strengthen their learning (D. Smith, 1998).
- Learn how to be a good *sighted guide*. We should *not* take the student's hand and lead her around. Instead, have the student put a hand on the back of our elbow or arm. As we go through a narrow space, we walk first, putting our arm behind us so that the person can hang on. If there are overhanging obstacles, such as a low-hanging tree limb, warn the student. When we come to stairs, we stop and say, "Stairs," then proceed up or down at a smooth pace.
- Orient the child to the classroom by walking with him around the room explaining what is there, giving him an opportunity to feel with his hands—to touch the table, the globe, and so forth. For example, "Your pencil is right in front of you, about 1 foot" or, "The globe is at 45 degrees left." We might also use the numbering system on a clock face, as in "Your mashed potatoes are at twelve o'clock on your plate, and your steak is at nine." Also, if we change the layout of the room during the year, tell the student about these changes.
- Utilize an orientation and mobility specialist to help students learn to use these tools for getting around safely: (1) Use a *cane* by swinging it in front of the student from side to side to feel obstacles or dropoffs; barriers above waist level cannot be detected. If we see a student about to walk into an overhanging barrier, warn him or her. (2) Use a *guide dog*. The student and the dog learn to work as a team. However, the student is in charge and guides the general direction of the dog. The dog should not be petted when it is working.
- Use touch tools to access written materials. Touch-based strategies include *braille* and optacon. **Braille** uses six raised dots that represent different letters. Reading braille is much slower than visual reading and is difficult to learn. We can get books brailled through the Library of Congress and through local groups. In addition, brailers (braille typewriters) and braille printers for computers are available. We work with specialists to consider how a student will learn braille. This may occur on a pull-out basis or be incorporated into our class. Many students attend programs

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outside of school where they learn braille. An **optacon** or similar tool scans text and converts the letters into vibrating tactile replicas.

- Use auditory tools to access written materials. These include software that speaks written words on a computer; a **Kurzweil scanner** that scans text and converts it to synthesized speech; tape-recorded words such as directions for activities; recorded books and other materials (many blind people use variable-speed tape recorders that allow them to listen to text at different paces to increase their “reading speed”); and sighted readers, which can include other students in the class or people who are paid to assist the student. Additionally, reading services could be provided by a teacher or a paraprofessional.
- Use large print for partially sighted students. Included are large-print books; low-vision aids: handheld magnifiers, desktop magnifiers, and devices designed to be used with computers: computer software and enlarged printouts: software is available that will increase the size of text and graphics on the monitor screen and will print enlarged text; and closed-circuit television (CCTV): a camera is pointed at printed text and magnifies it on a television screen.
- Use alternative methods to support students in writing using these tools: recording student work on a tape recorder or computer; type work on a typewriter or word processor; a sighted person takes dictation, then transcribes the material; and software that allows an individual to dictate responses, which are recorded in a word processor and printed.
- Help students organize and access materials. Use brailled tabs or other tactile tabs on materials so they can be identified via touch and organizing of materials where they are kept in routine locations.
- Help students participate in all class activities. Watch for visual information that other students are receiving. Sometimes we can give tactile (touch) alternatives. Often we will need to explain in words what is going on.
- Measurement devices. Many measuring devices are available that have either tactile markers or synthesized speech.

Orthopedic Impairment

Many states have grouped students with orthopedic and other health impairments under a category they label “physical and other health impairments (POHIs)” in their special education services. This section will discuss common orthopedic disabilities. IDEA defines orthopedic disabilities as follows:

“Orthopedic impairment” means a severe orthopedic impairment that adversely affects a child’s educational performance. The term includes impairments caused by congenital anomaly (e.g., clubfoot, absence of some member, etc.), impairments caused by disease (e.g., poliomyelitis, bone tuberculosis, etc.), and impairments from other causes (e.g., cerebral palsy, amputations, and fractures or burns that cause contractures). (IDEA, 2004, section 300.7)

One condition we will likely see is **cerebral palsy**, a neurological condition that affects the portions of the brain that control motor movements. Students with cerebral palsy often have other disabilities that may include intellectual disability, seizure disorder, and visual and/or hearing impairment (Gething, 1992). However, many people with cerebral palsy have normal intelligence and have distinguished themselves in their social contributions. An interdisciplinary team of specialists is often involved that may include physical therapists, occupational therapists, and assistive technology specialists (Bigge, 1991; Gething, 1992; Hardman et al., 1996; Orelove & Sobsey, 1987; Stolov & Clowers, 1981).

Spinal cord injuries occur when the spinal cord is damaged or severed. Essentially, the higher on the spinal cord the injury, the more disabling the effects. In addition, spinal

cord injuries often occur together with damage to other body parts. Three general terms are used for individuals with different types and levels of injury:

- *Paraplegic*: The person's legs are immobilized but there is full use of the upper body and arms.
- *Quadriplegic*: Both legs and arms, as well as the upper body, are affected.
- *Hemiplegic*: The arm and leg on one side of the person's body are paralyzed.

Spinal cord injuries are traumatic events. Typically, young, active, athletic people must learn a new life. In the hospital physicians work to stabilize the spine, often with patients held in a special device that rotates them periodically. In the rehabilitation process individuals must learn new ways of managing their lives, using adaptive equipment and wheelchairs and moving from the wheelchair to a bed or couch.

In **spina bifida** an abnormal opening in the spinal column occurs at birth. Severe spina bifida often results in weakness or paralysis in the legs and lower body and an inability to control the bladder or bowel. The most serious form often involves other orthopedic difficulties, such as club feet or dislocated hips. About 90% of children with severe spina bifida also develop **hydrocephalus**, an excessive accumulation of cerebral fluid in the brain. Untreated, hydrocephalus will result in an intellectual disability. However, physicians perform surgery to install a shunt, in which a tube is inserted between the ventricles of the brain and distributes fluids to an absorption site in the child's abdomen. Although students with spina bifida have little if any control over bowel or bladder, medical professionals assist them in learning to use a catheter to manage this process (Bigge, 1991). Spina bifida does not affect intellectual abilities, and most students have traditionally been in general education classes.

The muscles of students with **muscular dystrophy** will gradually degenerate, and they slowly lose their ability to walk and/or to use their arms and hands effectively. With this condition fatty tissue actually replaces muscle tissue over time. By age 20 individuals with muscular dystrophy use a wheelchair for mobility; they typically die in their twenties or thirties. Medicine has no cure, so the primary treatment consists of aiding the individual in maintaining functioning as long as possible, then providing supportive devices such as walkers, braces, and surgical corsets.

Other Health Impairments

Children have many health-related disabilities that IDEA calls "*other health impairments*." These involve limitations in

strength, vitality or alertness, including a heightened alertness to environmental stimuli, that results in limited alertness with respect to the educational environment; that is due to chronic or acute health problems such as asthma, attention deficit disorder or attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, diabetes, epilepsy, a heart condition, hemophilia, lead poisoning, leukemia, nephritis, rheumatic fever, and sickle-cell anemia; and adversely affects a child's educational performance. (IDEA, 2004, section 300.7)

Not too many years ago, children died of serious diseases that physicians today can treat if not cure. If they lived, they would stay at home visited weekly by a special teacher for the "homebound" and later go to a separate school. However, many students with other health impairments are now returning to their school community. Common chronic health impairments include asthma, cystic fibrosis, diabetes, pediatric cancer, lead poisoning, and sickle-cell anemia.

Epilepsy and seizure disorder include a range of disorders in which abnormal neurochemical activity in the brain produces seizures. Although seizure disorders may occur

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alone, they also are frequently associated with other disabilities. About half of individuals with seizure disorders experience an “aura,” a physical sensation that a seizure may soon occur—numbness, dizziness, or slight abdominal discomfort.

Tonic-clonic seizures (once known as *grand mal* seizures) cause a loss of conscious awareness, as the body goes rigid and convulsively jerks. If the person is standing, he or she will likely fall. Seizures typically do not last more than a few seconds. Once a seizure is over, the student will be tired and sometimes confused. **Absence seizures** (previously known as *petit mal* seizures) occur almost exclusively in young children and students often outgrow them. In these seizures students briefly lose consciousness where they appear to stare with slow rhythmic blinking of the eyes. Such seizures are difficult to notice at first. However, if students are “blinking out” many times an hour, they will have difficulty attending to the flow of learning. If we see these patterns occurring, talk with the school nurse and parents to facilitate a medical examination. **Psychomotor seizures** are so called because a part of the brain that controls physical activity is activated. However, psychomotor seizures are rare in children (Stolov & Clowers, 1981).

When a seizure occurs, or if the person has an aura, do the following (Gething, 1992; Hardman et al., 1996; Stolov & Clowers, 1981):

- Ease the student to the floor, preventing the student from falling and clearing an area to prevent banging against harmful objects. Put a pillow or jacket under the student’s head and loosen tight-fitting clothes at the neck.
- Turn the student on the stomach with the head to the side to drain excess saliva.
- When the seizure has stopped, cover the student and let her rest.
- If the seizure lasts more than 10 minutes, contact a health professional. However, this is very rare.

We *should not* place anything in the student’s mouth. This can result in the student’s choking, cracking teeth, or even injuring us, as their biting movements are very powerful during the seizure. (Despite popular myths, it is not possible for people to swallow their tongue!) We will teach students in the class what to do as well so they can assist as needed. The pattern for seizures varies.

We will want to talk openly with the student and parents and get information about what happens and how best to respond.

- How often do your seizures typically occur?
- How long do they last?
- Are there stimuli that help set off the seizures? (Heat, stress, and light patterns can all have this effect.)
- How do you act when you have a seizure? What is best for us to do?
- Do you need or want to rest after seizures? For how long?
- What else should we know?

We engage our class in planning ahead for seizures and promote discussion in a calm manner. However, we want classmates to be able to share their feelings about the seizures in supportive ways. Sharing helps students with seizures feel accepted and helps other students obtain complete information.

Seizures are controlled through drug use in some 80% of people (Cornelius, 1980). However, medication can have some side effects—drowsiness, skin problems, or interactions with other drugs. Sometimes drugs are able to only partially control seizures.

Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS)

In recent decades perhaps no health condition has caused so much concern as acquired **immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS)**. **Human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)** and AIDS involve several stages over a number of years. For many years there may be no sign of the disease at all. At some point, however, the immune system will begin to break down and the person will be susceptible to infections and illnesses. Eventually the immune system collapses and the person dies of infections or tumors.

Most schools have established policies for inclusion of students with HIV. Information about a student's HIV status does not have to be disclosed. It is important that we maintain confidentiality regarding a student. Depending on their status and the stage of the disease, students with HIV/AIDS may be absent because of illness and medical problems. Their energy level may be low, and we may need to make adaptations by reducing their workload or finding other ways to reduce stress. These students may have difficulty with feelings of depression and be concerned about death. Our efforts to support them will be important.

Strategies for Students with Orthopedic and Other Health Impairments

Key considerations and strategies for students with orthopedic and other health impairments include:

- Organize the classroom so there is room for the student to traverse the room and arrange materials so that students can reach them easily.
- Use assistive technology to assist students. For example, use augmentative communication devices and adaptive equipment for computers such as keyboard guards, hardware, and software that will allow text to be scanned and read aloud via a computer and that will allow students to speak words into a microphone where they are translated into written text.
- For students in wheelchairs we will want to have tables at a slightly raised height so that the wheelchair can fit under the table.
- Some students will have difficulty grasping pencils or reaching for books, as well. Use low-tech strategies such as nonslip pads to help stabilize materials.
- Arrange assistance for going to the restroom or in eating, utilizing both the services of a paraprofessional as well as encouraging other students to assist if they are interested and willing. These could be same-age or older students. The paraprofessional or special education teacher may need to provide training for students. You may also want to inform and get approval of these students' parents.
- Ensure that these students are included in our class and the school, including field trips and extracurricular activities.
- Some students with serious conditions may die. We can help students who face death and the rest of our class process and deal with their fears and concerns through journal writing or having the student talk to the group, if he wants. We also can have students learn about the condition of the student with special needs with the student's and parents' permission.



Dealing with Real Diversity in the Classroom

In this chapter, we've viewed our classrooms from the eyes of students who have dramatic differences. We've thought about the needs and challenges of these students. We hope that you continue to see how the overall perspective of building a classroom designed for diversity applies to these students. Inclusive teaching is very different from

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teaching separately for each student, an impossible task even with a small number of students. Rather, we design classroom structures to incorporate ways of dealing with diverse abilities. Figure 3.3 illustrates a chart that may be a useful tool where you can make notes regarding special needs of each of your students and indicate possible helpful strategies. When you complete this, look down the right-hand column of strategies for the many common points that will occur. Here you will see connections of the needs of many of your students and how you can meet the needs of several students all at once!

If you find yourself feeling a bit overwhelmed, stop a minute. Take a deep breath. Try to capture for yourself a picture of a classroom that can incorporate diverse students. Don't feel that you need to have all the details worked out. If you have a philosophy, understand patterns, and have some beginning specifics, you can use this book and references to make it work. And it will!

FIGURE 3.3

Designing for Classroom Diversity Tool: Some Students in a Fifth-Grade Classroom

NAME	CULTURE	LANGUAGE	DIVERSITY CATEGORY				STRATEGIES
			COGNITIVE ABILITY	EMOTIONAL NEEDS	SENSORY PHYSICAL	SEXUAL ORIENTATION	
Jawan	African American	English	2.5-grade level Learning disability	Gives up easily	Wears glasses—farsighted	Mild seizures	Daily encouragement Hourly report to mom
Paul	Multiracial	English	7th-grade level Gifted	Often acts bored			Independent study Lead math lessons in small groups
Sari	Middle Eastern	English/Arabic	4th-grade level	Very strong social skills	Hearing loss in right ear		Invite to share about religion and language Use Arabic greeting at morning meeting
Shauna	African American	English	1.5-level grade level Cognitive disability	Easily upset with friends Hard time reading feelings	Visually impaired		Braille lite, 3-D maps, talking calculator Paired with partner to reexplain activities Partner read with Jawan
William	African American	English	5th-grade level	Loner, social outcast		Poor dexterity	Teased for being gay Has gay family member Circle of support Counseling with social worker
Beth	Caucasian	English	4th-grade level	Cries easily Overreacts Retained in previous year			Pair with Colleen and Dane Suggest lunch club to hang out and work with them

Traveling Notes

As we seek to be inclusive teachers we will also become a real student watcher, learning daily about their individual strengths, needs, and unique characteristics. We'll continue to learn how best to teach them each as individuals and how to build a true learning community. Here are a few notes about our discussion in this chapter. Do well!

1. An inclusive class will, over time, have students with many different types of challenges. We should seek to understand the needs and characteristics of each individual student and connect these with best practices for inclusive teaching.
2. We should see students as individuals and people first, rather than a member of a group or having a particular label.
3. We will work with a range of specialists who can provide assistance in supporting diverse students in our class, rather than pulling them out of class to provide support and services.
4. We should seek to build a caring community in our classroom where diverse students are respected and supported—including students from various racial, cultural, and ethnic groups; students who are poor; students who are gay; students with a range of academic abilities, social and behavioral needs, and sensory and physical disabilities.
5. We will seek to teach using differentiated, multilevel instruction that allows students to learn together but at their own level of ability. We'll have learning materials on a subject at very different levels of ability and strategies for designing multilevel instruction.
6. When students have behavioral challenges, we will commit to having them in our class, learn how to respond to their needs, and teach them to understand themselves and learn to meet their needs in prosocial ways.
7. For students with sensory and physical disabilities, we will work to ensure that the school and classroom environment and materials are accessible to them. We will help them use assistive technology and other tools that can help them function in the class and learn. We will ensure that they are full members of the class.

Stepping Stones

Following are some activities that will help extend your understanding and actions you may take in understanding special needs of students you may teach.

1. Gather information about separation of students by race, language, and socioeconomic status in your area. What efforts have occurred to create more inclusive communities and schools? Journal the impact you think this has on learning and life success of students? How does your thinking fit with research?
2. Interview a student who attended a separate, special program and another individual who was integrated in a general education class. Ask them to describe their school experiences. What happened? How did they feel about the value of their learning and their experiences?
3. Investigate what happens with students who have significant disabilities in your community. Where do they go to school, work, live? What type of support is available to help them take part in community life?
4. Visit an inclusive school. Observe students with the differences discussed in this chapter in class. What type of instructional approaches are used, and how do these compare with best practices? What happens with these students? Talk with teachers. What do they do differently with these students, and how do they feel about having such students in their classes?
5. Interview parents of students with any of the labels in this chapter. What opinions do the parents have about what occurs in school? What is working and what is not for their child, and why?