TED 2000 FOUNDATIONS OF EDUCATION



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TED 2000 Foundations of Education (Dr. Ashanti M Bryant-Foster)

Prince George's Community College



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Glossary

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

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1.1: What do great teachers do differently?

ICEBREAKER

Think about your favorite teacher – a teacher that you learned a great deal from, who helped you to develop your potential or who made you feel at home in the classroom. What characteristics did this teacher have which allowed you to learn, be comfortable, or grow?

Think about your least favorite teacher – a teacher who you simply could not learn from, who interfered with your personal growth, or who created a sense of unease in the classroom. What characteristics did this teacher demonstrate which shut down your learning, stunted your personal growth, or made you uncomfortable?

In a short descriptive paragraph, compare the characteristics of your favorite teacher with the characteristics of your least favorite teacher. Prepare to share with others.

Guiding Questions

1. How do great teachers act?
2. What do great teachers do?
3. How do great teachers present themselves professionally?
4. How does a great teacher make you feel?
5. What is special about a great teacher?

Self Reflection

1. Does this describe the person I am?
2. What would I need to do to be this person?
3. Do I want to be this person?

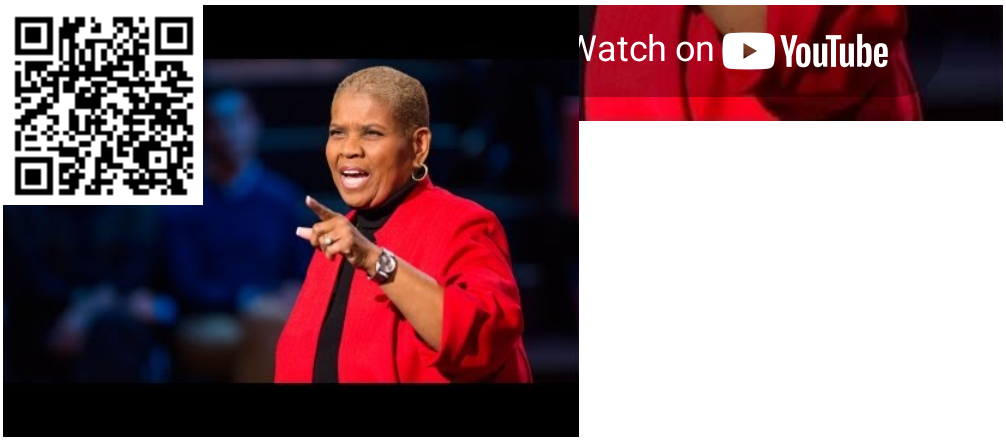
DISCUSSION QUESTIONS: WHY TEACH?

- Why Teach?
- Why do people teach?

As we examine the characteristics of good and bad teachers in our school experience, it is likely we will see correlations between the student-teacher relationship (STR) and our performance or lack of ease in the classroom. As we look at teaching through this lens, we come to understand that teaching content is only one aspect of the teacher role. Creating an emotionally caring and educationally supportive environment in our classroom can give us an advantage in engaging students for learning.

The following TED Video is presented by Ms. Rita Pierson. Ms. Pierson is an inspiring former teacher who has a philosophy that all students can learn, and that a teacher can lift students to heights they never thought they could achieve. This presentation focuses on practical success and failure resulting from classroom relationships. Often pre-service teachers believe that they are preparing for a career that will require them only to teach the content. However, as teachers, we cannot shy away from the fact that we also teach complex human beings.





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1.2: Teaching Philosophy

Philosophy:

There are many different ways to teach, varying circumstances to take into account, and philosophies to apply to each classroom. And what better way to have a positive impact on the world than to offer knowledge for consumption? The term 'teacher' can be applied to anyone who imparts knowledge of any topic, but it is generally more focused on those who are hired to do so (teach, n.d., n.p.). In imparting knowledge to our students, it is inevitable that we must consider our own personal philosophies, or pedagogies, and determine not only how we decide what our philosophies are, but also how those impact our consumers.

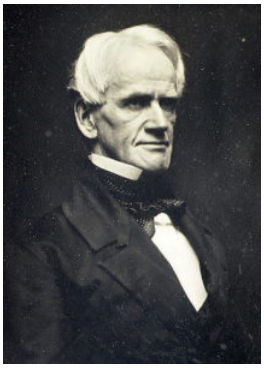
DISCUSSION QUESTIONS: TEACHING PHILOSOPHIES

- Why is content important?
- How might a philosophy shape the way a teacher delivers content?

Reading Activity:

- Read the following article written by Horace Mann

Horace Mann, from Report of the Massachusetts Board of Education (1848)



Horace Mann (May 4, 1796 – August 2, 1859) was an American educational reformer known for his commitment to promoting public education.

Without undervaluing any other human agency, it may be safely affirmed that the common school, improved and energized as it can easily be, may become the most effective and benignant of all the forces of civilization. Two reasons sustain this position. In the first place, there is an universality in its operation, which can be affirmed of no other institution whatever. If administered in the spirit of justice and conciliation, all the rising generation may be brought within the circle of its reformatory and elevating influences. And, in the second place, the materials upon which it operates are so pliant and ductile as to be susceptible of assuming a greater variety of forms than any other earthly work of the Creator. . . .

According to the European theory, men are divided into classes-some to toil and earn, others to seize and enjoy. According to the Massachusetts theory, all are to have an equal chance for earning, and equal security in the enjoyment of what they earn. A republican form of government, without intelligence in the people, must be, on a vast scale, what a mad-house without superintendent or keepers would be on a small one. . . . However elevated the moral character of a constituency may be, however, well-informed in matters of general science or history, yet they must, if citizens of a republic, understand something of the true nature and functions of the government under which they live. . . .

The establishment of a republican government, without well-appointed and efficient means for the universal education of the people, is the most rash and foolhardy experiment ever tried by man. . . . It may be an easy thing to make a republic, but it a very laborious thing to make republicans; and woe to the republic that rests upon no better foundations than ignorance, selfishness, and passion! . . .

Such, then, . . . is the Massachusetts system of common schools. Reverently it recognizes and affirms the sovereign rights of the Creator, sedulously and sacredly it guards the religious rights of the creature. . . . In a social and political sense, it is a free school

system. It knows no distinction of rich and poor, of bond and free, or between those, who, in the imperfect light of this world, are seeking, through different avenues, to reach the gate of heaven. Without money and without price, it throws open its doors, and spreads the table of its bounty, for all the children of the State. Like the sun, it shines not only upon the good, but upon the evil, that they may become good; and, like the rain, its blessings descend not only upon the just, but upon the unjust, that their injustice may depart from them, and be know no more.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS: HORACE MANN

- What might be Mann's underlying philosophy, or purposes, for education?
- What is the historical context for Mann's argument for educating a citizenry?
- In what ways has Mann's philosophy changed since 1848?
- What has not changed since 1848?

In order to develop a teaching philosophy, a teacher should examine and continuously reflect on the following:

- Creation of an articulated philosophy that can become a foundation upon which an individual's life work can be built.
- Consideration of how your attitude is a function of who you are, how it affects your philosophy towards education, and how it shapes who you are as a teacher.
- Formulation of a teaching style that integrates teaching strategies with one's own personality and philosophy.

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1.3: Teachers' Purposes and Beliefs

One of the main charges to teachers is to convey content to their students. Teachers need to express why the content they teach is important to learn. For elementary teachers, the necessity for students to learn how to calculate, read, and write is a given, but the answer is not as clear for other subjects: music, science, physical education, history, and art. Many parents do not see the need for their children to study a subject past a certain point. In order to ground why content is important, reflection and creation of a personal philosophy is essential.

In conveying content, teachers need to use the most effective strategies available. Different content might require a variety of approaches. Another factor to consider is if technology will enhance student understanding. Teachers with a good grasp of strategies along with a wide variety of ways to instruct students during a lesson will be more successful.

Students' mindsets indicate how well and how much they are able to learn. Psychologist Carol Dweck, (2008) defines a growth mindset as the increase in ability to learn when a learner accepts that they may improve, and this improvement will lead to increased ability to learn more. Effort is valued because effort and self-efficacy lead to knowing more and therefore having more ability to learn. Individuals with a growth mindset also ask for help when needed and respond well to constructive feedback. In contrast, individuals with a fixed mindset assume that some people naturally have more ability than others and nothing can be done to change that. Individuals with a fixed mindset often view effort in opposition to ability ("Smart people don't have to study") and so do not try as hard and are less likely to ask for help since they believe that asking questions indicates that they are not smart. There are individual differences in students' beliefs about their views of intelligence. However, teachers' beliefs and classroom practices influence these students' perceptions, behaviors, and willingness to adopt a growth mindset.

Teachers with a growth mindset believe that the goal of learning is mastering the material and figuring things out. Assessment is used by these teachers to understand what students know so they can decide whether to move to the next topic, re-teach the entire class, or provide remediation for a few students. Assessment also helps students understand their own learning and demonstrate their competence. Teachers with these views say things like, "We are going to practice over and over again. That's how you get good. And you're going to make mistakes. That's how you learn" (Patrick, Anderman, Ryan, Edelin, & Midgley, 2001, p. 45).

In contrast, teachers with a fixed mindset are more likely to believe that the goal of learning is doing well on tests – and especially outperforming others. These teachers are more likely to say things that imply fixed abilities such as, "This test will determine what your math abilities are," or stress the importance of interpersonal competition, "We will have speech competition and the top person will compete against all the other district schools and last year the winner got a big award and their photo in the paper." When teachers stress competition some students will be motivated; however, there can only a few winners so there are many more students who believe they have no chance of winning. Another problem with competition as an assessment is that the focus can become winning rather than understanding the material.

Teachers who view assessment as promoting and developing learning rather than as a means of ranking students, or awarding prizes to those who did very well, or catching those who did not pay attention, are likely to enhance student willingness to identify and correct gaps in learning and understanding.

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1.4: Teacher Knowledge

Content Knowledge, Pedagogical Content Knowledge, And Curricular Knowledge

If teaching is the highest form of understanding as Aristotle claims, then what are the forms of understanding and how might we develop a framework for articulating this understanding?

This complex understanding is part of the foundational requisites of teacher knowledge. According to Gudmundsdottir & Shulman (1987), there are three main foci that form the foundation of teacher knowledge: Content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, and curricular knowledge.

Content knowledge: Teachers need to understand the truth claims of the discipline and interpretive community (professional organization) as well be able to explain why these accepted truth claims are warranted. For example, a Family and Consumer Science teacher would be able to explain what effective resume would look or appropriately tailor a cover letter.

Pedagogical Content Knowledge: Teachers need to understand the teachability of the content. Teachers need to be able to articulate the core topics of the discipline as well as the best examples (and worst) of the key concepts being taught. In addition, teachers should understand when illustrations and representations of key concepts of the discipline will be useful. Teachers need to understand which topics are easier or more difficult for students to learn. Moreover, teachers need to also understand the developmental appropriateness of the topic in relation to their students. For example, an English Language Arts/Reading teacher should be able to evaluate the readability and appropriateness of a certain novel selected for a class and then be able to provide appropriate accommodations for supporting students' comprehension of the text.

Curricular Knowledge: Teachers need to describe the range of programs designed to teach a particular topic or subject at a particular level. Teachers should be able to identify and evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of the instructional materials used to teach particular subjects or topics. For example, math teachers should be able to describe possible concepts that could be on the New York State Regents exam.

In addition to these three foci, a teacher needs to develop a philosophy, or purpose, in which they have an established opinion on the conditions of student learning, their goals for student learning, and how these goals are realized in the classroom. The development of and adherence to a self-identified philosophy of teaching and learning serve as a teacher's guidelines for curricular choices, classroom management strategies, and relationship with students as well colleagues.

Possible Discussion Activity:

- Choose a grade-level content area, explain what would be the best way to teach the content you chose (pedagogical content knowledge)
- Webquest: Go to **EnageNY.org**
    - Research and locate instructional materials for the grade and content you chose for the first discussion that may be used to deliver instruction. Evaluate the possible strengths and weaknesses of the instructional material. Do these correspond to your developing stances on education? If so, why? If not, why? (curricular knowledge)

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1.5: Communication

To teach is to communicate. One cannot be an excellent educator if they do not possess strong communication skills. According to Silver (2018),

> *Teaching is all about communication – listening, speaking, reading, presenting and writing. Teachers who hone their communication skills are prepared to instruct, advise and mentor students entrusted in their care. Additionally, teachers must communicate well to effectively collaborate with colleagues and update administrators on student progress. Frequently, parents call, visit or email, so teachers must be adept at answering questions verbally and in writing.*
>
> ***-Freddie Silver***

As noted above, teachers are engaged in communication with many different people. While much of a teacher's day is spent with their students, they must also interact with other teachers, paraprofessionals, administrators, parents, and community members. Many first-year teachers are surprised by how many different forms of communication they must engage in each day. Because of this, it is good to have a basic understanding of these different types of communication.

Communication with Students

Communication in a classroom is very different from communication in other aspects of life. Rarely is the teacher engaged in communication with one student while others wait patiently to be heard. Many interactions are happening concurrently. Disruptions happen frequently. It can be very confusing, to say the least. In classroom communication, you will find that it is helpful to understand its various functions. It helps to be aware that classroom communication serves three purposes at once: content, procedures and behavioral control (Wells, 2006).

Classroom events are often so complex that just talking with students can become confusing. It helps to think of the challenge as a problem in communication—or as one expert put it, of "who says what to whom, and with what effect" (Lasswell, 1964). In classrooms, things often do not happen at an even pace or in a logical order, or with just the teacher and one student interacting while others listen or wait patiently. While such moments do occur, events may sometimes instead be more like a kaleidoscope of overlapping interactions, disruptions, and decision—even when activities are generally going well. One student finishes a task while another is still only halfway done. A third student looks like she is reading, but she may really be dreaming. You begin to bring her back on task by speaking to her, only to be interrupted by a fourth student with a question about an assignment. While you answer the fourth student, a fifth walks in with a message from the office requiring a response; so the bored (third) student is overlooked awhile longer. Meanwhile, the first student—the one who finished the current task—now begins telling a joke to a sixth student, just to pass the time. You wonder, "Should I speak now to the bored, quiet reader or to the joke-telling student? Or should I move on with the lesson?" While you are wondering this, a seventh student raises his hand with a question, and so on.

One way to manage situations like these is to understand and become comfortable with the key features of communication that are characteristic of classrooms. One set of features has to do with the functions or purposes of communication, especially the balance among talk related to content, to procedures, and to controlling behavior. Another feature has to do with the nature of nonverbal communication—how it supplements and sometimes even contradicts what is said verbally. A third feature has to do with the unwritten expectations held by students and teachers about how to participate in particular kinds of class activities—what we will later call the structure of participation.

Communication with the Community

Since teachers have public personae that extend beyond the classroom, it is critical teachers are able to communicate effectively to multiple community stakeholders who may be invested in local, statewide, or national educational policies and decision making. There is a multitude of social contexts where teachers will be required to communicate and represent themselves, their students, and their schools. This poses a unique challenge to educators as they navigate these disparate communicative contexts.

As representatives for their schools and students, teachers may be asked opinions on various educational policies. Teachers need to be critically aware that these opinions will not be interpreted as entirely personal opinions, but rather their opinions could be seen as representing an official school or school board policy.

Teachers may also need assistance from outside agencies, media, and others to aid in building robust educational activities for their students. It is important, then, for teachers to consider the intended audience and purposes for their communication and ensure that the teachers' intentions can be easily discerned and that they fall within the legal confines of their position.

QUICK WRITE

- Think of one context in which teachers would need to communicate to the community.
- Describe the context including interlocutors and other intended audiences
- For what purposes is the communication intended?
- In what ways might the teacher represent the school? Students? The community? Self?
- What considerations, if any, should the teacher think about before any correspondence?

Teachers, as well as students, need to think critically and carefully about the public nature of social media–both in terms of affordances and perils. Teachers should curate their own professional learning networks (PLNs) using social media, i.e., Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, Blogster, etc… There are many excellent PLNs for pre-service, early career, and veteran teachers that support teachers and celebrate our profession:

- Bad Ass Teachers (**http://www.badassteacher.org/**)
- Save Our Schools (**https://www.facebook.com/OnTheMarchToSaveOurSchools/**)
- Edutopia (**https://www.edutopia.org/**).

Teachers also need to ensure that texts chosen to be made public are thought of critically with respect to the audience, purpose, medium, and possible consequences of the text. The following blog, written by a teacher, (Knoll, 2017) and the article from the NEA (Simpson, 2010), provide a guided discussion on the affordances and possible dangers of public, social media communication:

- We are teachers (**https://www.weareteachers.com/dos-donts-social-media-for-teachers/)**
- National Education Association (**www.nea.org/home/38324.htm)**

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. What are some rules you will follow as a teacher about how you will communicate using social media?
2. Why should teachers celebrate our profession? What are some appropriate ways we can share and celebrate our teaching?
3. Why is medium just as important as the message? For example, why would a teacher blog be a more apt medium to write about educational policies and pedagogies than a Facebook post?

Communication with Colleagues

The colloquial isolated teacher in his/her classroom defies the collaboration that oftentimes takes place within and across grades levels and departments. Some teams of teachers collaborate to plan, including lesson planning and learning activities. This sharing of ideas makes teaching stronger and fosters a sense of collegiality. Lessons may be improved upon when a number of teachers incorporate their knowledge and expertise. Even new teachers have a voice within this environment and can have meaningful suggestions on what should be included.

Collective autonomy within a school is encouraged and bolstered by the administrative leader. As a result, morale is often more positive when the interaction between teachers is strong and positive. Teacher leadership affects the way the school performs, and the way school policies are carried out. Having an opinion and voicing that opinion helps the faculty come to a consensus.

Secretaries and custodians are colleagues also and should be treated with respect. Secretaries are key to gaining access to school officials while they are a great resource for filling out forms to procure a variety of items. Custodians work hard to keep rooms clean and respond to emergencies that occur on any given day.

Communication with Administration

Advocating for the great ideas a teacher wants to incorporate into lessons is one reason to plan on communicating well with the administration of the school. At times, a teacher needs to request additional money for a crucial program of essential equipment. Presenting a strong, well-planned argument is paramount in making any headway in changing funding or adding activities into the curriculum.

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1.6: Lifelong learning and professional development

Teachers engage in the process of lifelong learning as a way to meet the needs of their students, respond to best practices in the literature and research and try to integrate the newly acquired approaches to support student learning. Some examples of lifelong learning, also known as professional development, may be attendance at a conference, mentoring (either as the mentee or mentor), joining a professional organization and conducting research. As an undergraduate student pursuing your Bachelors Degree in education you are immersed in a constant environment of learning.

New York state has teacher induction requirements for first-year teachers. As a first-year teacher in New York State, you will be assigned a mentor in your district who will serve to support and guide you through the challenges, questions, and joys that your first year of teaching will offer. Strong mentor-mentee programs increase the development of a new teacher's connection to the school community and reduce isolations (NYSED, 2013).

ACTIVITY: THINK IT, INK IT

Think it, Ink it (5 minutes) and divide into groups of 4-5 students and share your answers.

1. As a first-year teacher what personal qualities would you hope for in a mentor?
2. What specific type of information do you want your mentor to provide you with?
3. How will you advocate for your needs as a first-year teacher/ mentee?

Report out to the class the results of the group's conversation.

Resources for professional development and learning

At some level reflection on practice is something you must do for yourself, since only you have had your particular teaching experiences, and only you can choose how to interpret and make use of them. But this individual activity also may benefit from the stimulus and challenge offered by fellow professionals. Others' ideas may differ from your own, and they can, therefore, help in working out your own thoughts and in alerting you to ideas that you may otherwise take for granted. These benefits of reflection can happen in any number of ways, but most fall into one of four general categories:

- talking and collaborating with colleagues
- participating in professional associations
- attending professional development workshops and conferences
- reading professional literature

Many teacher education preparation programs follow the INTASC Standards developed by the Council of Chief State School Officers. Standard nine outlines professional learning and ethical practice. Below you will find the exact excerpt from Standard 9. Notice Some of the relevant aspects are using data and evidence to support and evaluate classroom practices. Another key component to lifelong learning is engaging in ongoing reflective practice. Reflection is a hallmark of instructional leaders and assists teachers in meeting a diverse range of student needs.

Standard #9: Professional Learning and Ethical Practice

The teacher engages in ongoing professional learning and uses evidence to continually evaluate his/her practice, particularly the effects of his/her choices and actions on others (learners, families, other professionals, and the community, and adapts practice to meet the needs of each learner.

PERFORMANCES

9(a) The teacher engages in ongoing learning opportunities to develop knowledge and skills in order to provide all learners with engaging curriculum and learning experiences based on local and state standards.

9(b) The teacher engages in meaningful and appropriate professional learning experiences aligned with his/her own needs and the needs of the learners, school, and system.

9(c) Independently and in collaboration with colleagues, the teacher uses a variety of data (e.g., systematic observation, information about learners, research) to evaluate the outcomes of teaching and learning and to adapt planning and practice.

9(d) The teacher actively seeks professional, community, and technological resources, within and outside the school, as supports for analysis, reflection, and problem-solving.

9(e) The teacher reflects on his/her personal biases and accesses resources to deepen his/her own understanding of cultural, ethnic, gender, and learning differences to build stronger relationships and create more relevant learning experiences.

9(f) The teacher advocates, models, and teaches safe, legal, and ethical use of information and technology including appropriate documentation of sources and respect for others in the use of social media.

ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE

9(g) The teacher understands and knows how to use a variety of selfassessment and problem-solving strategies to analyze and refl ect on his/her practice and to plan for adaptations/adjustments.

9(h) The teacher knows how to use learner data to analyze practice and differentiate instruction accordingly.

9(i) The teacher understands how personal identity, worldview, and prior experience affect perceptions and expectations, and recognizes how they may bias behaviors and interactions with others.

9(j) The teacher understands laws related to learners' rights and teacher responsibilities (e.g., for educational equity, appropriate education for learners with disabilities, confi dentiality, privacy, appropriate treatment of learners, reporting in situations related to possible child abuse).

9(k) The teacher knows how to build and implement a plan for professional growth directly aligned with his/her needs as a growing professional using feedback from teacher evaluations and observations, data on learner performance, and school- and systemwide priorities.

CRITICAL DISPOSITIONS

9(l) The teacher takes responsibility for student learning and uses ongoing analysis and refl ection to improve planning and practice.

9(m) The teacher is committed to deepening understanding of his/her own frames of reference (e.g., culture, gender, language, abilities, ways of knowing), the potential biases in these frames, and their impact on expectations for and relationships with learners and their families.

9(n) The teacher sees him/herself as a learner, continuously seeking opportunities to draw upon current education policy and research as sources of analysis and reflection to improve practice.

9(o) The teacher understands the expectations of the profession including codes of ethics, professional standards of practice, and relevant law and policy

Activity: How do you plan to integrate reflection into your practice as a teacher? How does reflection connect to teacher induction and mentor programs?

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1.7: The reflective practicitioner

In her role as the Director of the Sofia Center for Professional Development at Bosque School, Sheryl Chard hosts workshops, seminars, and retreats for Bosque School faculty and other educators in the community that are heavily informed by feedback from countless educators. These innovative professional development opportunities allow teachers to connect with local experts and other educators, explore their roles in education through art and personal expression, and provide teachers with opportunities to grow in a professional environment that recognizes the indispensable role they hold in our society.





> *The experience in reflective teaching is that you must plunge into the doing, and try to educate yourself before you know what it is you're trying to learn.*
>
> *—Donald Schön*

Donald Schön (1987), a philosopher and educational researcher, makes an important observation: learning to teach often means making choices and taking actions without knowing in advance quite what you need to learn or what the consequences will be. The problem, as we have pointed out more than once, is that classroom events are often ambiguous and ambivalent, in that they usually serve more than one purpose. A teacher compliments a student's contribution to a discussion: at that moment she may be motivating the student, but also focusing classmates' thinking on key ideas. Her comment functions simultaneously as behavioral reinforcement, information, and expression of caring. At that moment complementing the student may be exactly the right thing to do. Or not: perhaps the praise causes the teacher to neglect the contributions of others, or focuses attention on factors that students cannot control, like their ability instead of their effort. In teaching, it seems, everything cuts more than one way, signifies more than

one thing. The complications can make it difficult to prepare for teaching in advance, though they also make teaching itself interesting and challenging.

The complications also mean that teachers need to learn from their own teaching by reflecting (or thinking about the significance of) their experiences. In the classrooms, students are not the only people who need to learn. So do teachers, though what teachers need to learn is less about curriculum and more about students' behavior and motivation, about how to assess their learning well, and about how to shape the class into a mutually supportive community.

Thinking about these matters begins to make a teacher a reflective practitioner, a professional who learns both from experience and about experience. Becoming thoughtful helps you in all the areas discussed in this text: it helps in understanding better how students' learning occurs, what motivates students, how you might differentiate your instruction more fully, and how you can make assessments of learning more valid and fair.

Learning to reflect on practice is so important, in fact, that we have referred to and illustrated its value throughout this book. In addition, we devote this entire appendix to how you, like other professional teachers, can develop habits of reflective practice in yourself. First, we describe what reflective practice feels like as an experience, and offer examples of places, people, and activities that can support your own reflection on practice. Then we discuss how teachers can also learn simply by observing and reflecting on their own teaching systematically, and by sharing the results with other teachers and professionals. This is an activity we mentioned in this book previously; we call it teacher research or action research. As you will see, reflective practice not only contributes to teachers' ability to make wise decisions, but also allows them to serve as effective, principled advocates on behalf of students.

Concluding activities (check for understanding)

ACTIVITY

1. Make a list of the five most important characteristics of an excellent teacher.
    - Do you possess these characteristics?
    - If not, what steps can you take to add the characteristic(s) to your teaching profile?
2. Write a paragraph of your teaching philosophy.
    - Why content is important?
    - Best way to teach?
    - What will your style be?
    - What are your goals as a teacher?

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1.8: Why Teach

Why Do Teachers Teach?

By Alyschia Conn

Why Teach?

Why do teachers teach? It is a rather simple question, however the question, what is a teacher, must be addressed first. Merriam-Webster's definition of a teacher is "one whose occupation is to instruct" (Merriam-Webster, 2008, para. 1). That is a rather one dimensional definition of a teacher, as teachers these days, offer so much more to the class than just the information. They offer themselves. A collective definition of a teacher, is someone who "yearns to help children learn, watch them grow, and make a meaningful difference in the world" (Teacher Support Network, 2007, para. 2). This definition must be the main reason as to why individuals pursue teaching as a career. Generally the pay is low to fair, but the overall rewards are much greater, for as a teacher one can touch the hearts of the young and open their minds in order to tap their thirst for knowledge.

The Long Road

Becoming a teacher is a lengthy process obtained by numerous routes, such as night school or attending a four year college. Regardless of the process it is important to obtain at least a Bachelors degree in the desired teaching area, as well as a teacher certification which should include clinical experience (Lewis, L., Parsad, B., Carey, N., Bartfai, N., Farris, E. & Smerdon, B., 1999, para. 3). The average starting salaries were about $31,704 in the year 2003-04, whereas the average teaching salary was about $46,597 for the year 2004-2005 (Pearson Education Inc, table). Compare this to the average cost of living in the United States today which is continually rising (Boskey, para. 3).

Teacher's Salaries Across the US

Teaching is not a pocket cushioning job, but one with long hours and a flat rate of pay. The income of course, depends on where the teacher is instructing. Private schools generally pay their teachers less for they do not need to have proper credentials, whereas schools located in urban areas pay more for those with proper credentials (Vedder, 2003, Public vs. Private, para. 1). Despite the lower pay for private school teachers, it is the students, the teacher's indivdiual commitment to faith, and the freedom provided by not being governmentally run that attracts teachers (Vedder, 2003, Public vs. Private). Considering the figures above, it is clear that teaching is not a lucrative profession. It is the perogative of these individuals to choose a career in teaching, and often they have a strong motive behind their decision. Perhaps teachers teach for personal gain, or they have the desire to spread knowledge, or to watch children reach their full potential beneath their instruction. Regardless of the reason, the reward must be substantial to compensate for the lack of monetary reward.

Passion

There are multiple factors in deciding to become a teacher. For one, it is a healthy alternative to other professions as the TDA's research has found that about twice as many teachers truly enjoy their work, as opposed to those who have careers in marketing, IT and accounting (TDA, In Summary, para. 1). Although work is not truly, work, if it is enjoyed. For example, Beth Ashfield, a math teacher, spoke of her job with passion "I love my subject, but I know it's not socially acceptable to say that… in school, I can be as enthusiastic as I want to be. I'm able to convey that enthusiasm to the students, to allow them to become confident and creative in their approach to the subject" (TDA, Beth Ashfield, Maths teacher, para. 1). Becoming a teacher was important for her, due to her great love of a particular subject, and the desire to share it with others in hopes that they might discover the same for themselves. As a teacher one is always learning, whether it is of one's content material, or something new from a pupil. Being a teacher requires an open mind, for the teacher is always the student. A teacher guides his or her charges on a path to self discovery where they learn about the world, and ultimately, themselves.

Love

Beyond passion, another reason that teachers teach is simply for the love of teaching. As stated by (Liston & Garrison, 2003) Love is a "creative, critical, and disruptive force in teaching and learning." A teacher who loves his or her job will be a better teacher and have a greater impact on the students he or she influences. Classroom efforts to manage, instruct, and direct groups of twenty to

thirty students frequently requires a feelings for others and an intuition that connects teacher to student and to subject matter. (Liston & Garrison, 2003) For the new teacher that multiple tasks entailed in this activity can be overwhelming. (Liston & Garrison, 2003) For the experienced teacher they can seem almost unconscious. (Liston & Garrison, 2003) This connection between students and teachers can sometimes be a form of love and concern for the well being of other human beings. A teacher must have a strong desire to see the well being of young students is advanced and know that at the end of the day they have played a small part in the bettering of these students. Most teachers truly have passion for what they do, but they also have a love for it as well.

The Challenge

There are points when teaching becomes a challenge, but it is those that thrive on the challenge of reaching kids who are truly the most effective. Though they may seem under appreciated, the individuals who instruct in our country's challenge-schools, or schools located in poor urban areas, are very important. Laura Hendrickson conducted a study that looked into high-challenge urban schools, and how good teachers affect the students education. It was obvious that with three years of quality teaching the students performed almost nearly as well as those who were not situated in a high challenge school. Often teachers leave such places due to their struggles with reaching the children in those areas however, those that stayed had the following reasons; "relationships with students, rewards, instructional focus, collegiality, feeling needed and a desire to help others, challenges and parents" (Morris, 2007, Abstract para. 4). The teachers took their responsibility to not merely be educators, but also to provide different avenues of understanding so that all students could "master basic learning objectives" (Cotton, 2001, para. 3). These objectives were acquired through the encouragement and support of the teachers who established the connection between the student's effort and his or her outcome, as opposed to luck or good fortune. The effort of these teachers was remarkable as they faced the challenges of the student's unstable and sometimes uneducated backgrounds and found ways to reach the children by being flexible with their teaching style and creative with rewards (Cotton, 2001, para. 5).

Creativity Is Key

Beth Anders, once a physical education teacher, now heads the coaching faculty of the field hockey team at Old Dominion University. Her view on teaching was similar to that of Beth Ashfield, for she loves to teach and develop people. "Life is learning and to be part of people developing and acquiring knowledge. Every person is unique and the challenge is to find fun ways to guide individuals to learn and understand what they are interested in learning" (B. Anders, personal communication, February 2, 2008). There are many ways to be creative in the classroom, whether it is using projects, videos, and presentations, but what if the creativity stemmed from the teacher?

Being creative is important in teaching, for the students are the audience. No one knows this better than entertainers, who are creative and use their ingenuity to bring to life rather dull aspects of education. This in and of itself is talent, and there are those who devote themselves to that. Paul Keogh, a Modern Languages teacher had always aspired to be an entertainer, however, he chose teaching as his profession instead. He does not regret this choice for, he's always got someone to perform for. He equated teaching to entertainment, but more importantly he remarks, "I love to see them growing personally, socially and academically" (TDA, Paul Keogh, Modern Languages teacher, para. 3). This statement itself encompasses the point of education, for there cannot be growth without learning, and learning stems from observing from someone of an educated status higher than one's-self.

The Rewards

The rewards received by being a teacher are different than those received by someone like a salesman for example. If a salesman is doing well, he makes his quota, and he then earns his monetary bonus. It is possible that he receives a plaque to hang behind his desk stating that he was the number one salesman for this period in time. Teacher's rewards are not so tangible, but rather, "they are rewarded more by witnessing their students succeed and follow their dreams than by any plaque " (Daily Egyptian, 2005, para. 7). A group of school teachers who had participated in a study that looked into why teachers taught in high challenge schools, jointly agreed that what their students achieve under their instruction was reward enough for all the time that they devote to their students. "Student achievement was another reward the teachers discussed as a reason for staying. When their students were successful, the teachers felt incredibly rewarded." (Morris, 2007, pg 58). The reward teachers receive is a feeling, and feelings are more special and memorable than gold and silver plaques hung stoicly on a wall proclamming an individuals success. For teaching, it is not

about what the teachers can achieve, but what they can get their students to aceive, and through their students, reflects a teacher's greatest achievement.

In Conclusion

Ten Reasons to Become a Teacher

Review Questions To address the opening question, why do teachers teach? The answer is simple, "they teach for the love of children and to contribute to the well-being of all of us" (Teachers are Important, 1998, para. 4). It is something inside them. It is a drive, a force, a passion, a talent that they wish to dispel upon his or her students in order to watch them succeed. Choosing to be at teacher is not for the money, as a teacher's monetary compensation is hardly adequate given all that they give to their students. Becoming a teacher is almost like heading a calling. It is not for the light at heart, but rather, for those who love children and people, who have a passion for education, and who love to share in that passion. Teachers yearn to see the burning desire to learn, and love to see the excitement of discovery, and that, is why teachers teach.

1) How does the average salary of a teacher compare to that of a teacher who is just beginning?

A. greater

B. less

C. much greater

D. much smaller

2) Beth Ashfield speaks animately about why she teaches. What emotion shows through when she speaks of her reasons?

A. Interest

B. Concern

C. Passion

D. Aggression

3) Explain what the teachers of 'high-challenge' urban schools provide to the students that they teach?

A. compassion and advice

B. encouragement and direction

C. encouragement and support

D. safety and security

4) The classroom can become a platform for leanring and growing for students, and teachers can bring their own flair to the class. What flair did Paul Keogn bring to the class, and did the students respond well to it?

A. Singing; the students loved it

B. Singing; the students hated it

C. Entertaining; the students hated it

D. Entertainging; the students loved it

5) What feedback rewards teachers the most?

A. Support from the PTA

B. Teacher Appreciation Week

C. Plaques and signs of honor

D. Witnessing students succeed

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Answer Key

1) A 2) C 3) D 4) D 5) D

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1.9: Is Teaching a Profession

Is Teaching A Profession?

By Jessica M. Vasiliou

Table of Contents

Introduction

Teaching as a profession has become a huge concern in our society. I would think all parents would want their children to be taught by a professional. However, teaching as a profession is the question that remains to be answered clearly. The academic society needs to spell out a sense of professionalism in order to ease this concern. “Unlike other professions where you make ‘machines’ work, this profession allows one to deal with the most complex phenomena on earth. Ranging from most studious to most mischievous students, the teachers need to maintain a balanced attitude and approach in transforming them to mature individuals” (Kishore, 2000, paragraph 4). Professionalization of the teaching workforce is a major concern that needs to be addressed because it is a field of significant knowledge. The process of teaching can influence the lives of many students.

The Definition of Profession

Eliot Freidson, author of Professional Powers (1986), cautions, “a word with so many connotations and denotations cannot be employed in precise discourse without definition” (Freidson, 1986, p. 35). In trying to break down the debate about teaching as a profession, we must first look at the concept of “profession.” Originating from the Latin, *professio*, profession originally meant “the declaration of belief in or acceptance of religion or a faith” usually related to religious beliefs (Dictionary.com). However, by the sixteenth century, this rather narrow meaning expanded to include “body of persons engaged in some occupation” (Dictionary.com). The meaning of profession seems to be very unclear which is why people still cannot determine if teaching can be known as a profession.

The noun profession, referring to an occupation, also dates back to at least the sixteenth century, and is equally vague. Profession as a noun is defined as “a vocation requiring knowledge of some department of learning or science” (Dictionary.com). It is compared to a “learned profession” such as that of medicine and law (Freidson, 1986). “Inherent within this context is the elite and prestigious connotation many hold of ‘the professions’ to this day” (Freidson, 1986, p. 3). As Freidson said, “the original professionals addressed each other and members of the ruling elite who shared some of their knowledge and belief in its virtues. They did not address the common people or the common, specialized trades. So it is our time” (Freidson, 1986, p. 3).

If we as teachers are going to be “professionals” in our occupation, we need to realize that professionalism is for the most part a state of mind. Preparation is vital in the teaching world in order to provide every student with a proper education. Hence, one who calls themselves a professional teacher would want to conduct their classroom with character and dignity. A professional teacher would take the time to produce an intellectual exchange within their classroom. Professionals in education would want students to learn from the methods, ideas and lessons presented in their classroom.

A Professional Teacher

> “I believe I am a professional because I am a master at what I do, I love what I do and I make a living at what I do. I engage in this activity known as teaching so much that it is what I live for. Therefore, I believe that I am a professional” (Brown,2008, January 28).

It is not easy to find someone who is opposed to the concept of teacher professionalism. Juliane Brown, a teacher in Lancaster, Pennsylvania said, “I believe I am a professional because I am a master at what I do, I love what I do and I make a living at what I do. I engage in this activity known as teaching so much that it is what I live for. Therefore, I believe that I am a professional.” Teachers are no longer being seen as people who simply transport packages of knowledge. Rather, teachers are evolving in a way that they are seen as information-holders and knowledge-makers, possessing much skill, which newcomers to the world of teaching must strive to obtain through experience, study, thought and reflection. Professionalism of teachers will insure our students with the finest education yet.

Teaching-Not a True Profession?

Some people have concluded that teachers need more training. For example, a Bolton-born education expert claims, “Teaching should not be considered as a profession because not enough training is given to those who go into it” (Bolton-born education expert, Teaching not true profession, 2005, paragraph 1). Possibly to get to the point of teaching being a true profession more in depth education may be needed. Many think that teaching cannot compare to that of a career in medicine and law in terms of professionalism because it “has a shorter qualification route” (Phil Revell, Teaching not true profession, 2005, paragraph 2). Perhaps in the future more years of education will be needed to become a teacher.

Professional Versus Non-professional

A professional could be said to be a person who has an extremely developed talent or skill (Buijs, 2005). All professionals whether it be a professional dancer or doctor receive pay for what they are doing. On the other hand, a non-professional or amateur may not receive pay (Buijs, 2005). A more significant contrast is that “being a professional conveys the connotation, not only of a high level, but of a consistent level, of performance. Professional athletes or professional entertainers, for instance, can be counted on to perform in diverse, and sometimes adverse, circumstances; they can, and often do, perform regardless of personal mood, motivation, or even injury. Neither the expectations nor the level of performance of a professional is demanded of an amateur” (Buijs, 2005, p. 331). What is trying to be explained here is the fact that there is a certain standard of performance for professionals that should be met, but does not have to be met by that of an amateur or a non-professional.

What is the American Government Doing?

The American government is very involved in improving the education systems (Denlinger, 2002). However, the government may not be concerned with the right issues when it comes to teacher professionalism. “Instead of looking at the real problem-poor working conditions and low salaries- the government is arguing that we need to become tougher on our teachers, demand more in terms of work, and do more testing to see if teachers are doing their jobs” (Denlinger, 2002, p. 116). Low wages is the true dilemma in this field, which our leaders are refusing to admit (Denlinger, 2002). “Bush has proved this by his approach to another, similar problem: low morale in the armed forces. To cure that problem, has he argued that we need to demand more of our soldiers? No… Instead, Bush has decided that we need to increase the salaries of our armed forces” (Denlinger, 2002, p. 116). Denlinger went on to say, “His business logic is self-evident; the only way to draw the best talent is to pay the best wages. It’s not that the talent isn’t there to staff our armed forces-they’ve just chosen to go where the pay and appreciation matches the job’s demands” (Denlinger, 2002, p. 116). This is happening with our college graduates who are graduating with a teaching degree. These graduates choose to enter a higher-paying job and a career that they will have competitive wages, are appreciated and gain rewards. If the salaries became more competitive in education perhaps there would not be such a scarcity of teachers and “the quality of education would improve markedly” (Denlinger, 2002, p. 117).

Conclusion

In the world of education, teachers are a guiding light to students. I think teachers are miracle workers when it comes to trying to get every student to pass a test. Do doctors get all their patients to pass their tests in terms of being healthy and physically fit? If they did, I would consider doctors miracle workers as well. Teachers are also knowledge workers, transporting much knowledge while shaping the minds of our youth and thus have a responsibility and image to uphold. In today’s work force, there are many options available and college graduates are choosing careers simply because of the pay rather than choosing something that they love to do. Whether looked at as a profession or not, teachers should be respected for what they are doing just as doctors and lawyers are. In order to maintain some structure of professionalism in the educational environment, education systems need to take steps to make sure they handle this task efficiently.

According to Valeri R. Helterbran, EdD, an associate professor in the Department of Professional Studies in Education at Indiana University of Pennsylvania, Indiana, “identifying and engaging in professional strategies to develop one’s own level of professionalism is important to the overall understanding of this topic and may be the lynchpin that makes the difference in determining whether or not a teacher is a professional. Teachers must decide who they are and how they want to be perceived in the classroom. Becoming increasingly professional implies a commitment to change, to strengthen, and to grow as a person and as an educator. It is equally apparent that it is imperative for teachers, individually and collectively, to consider what they can do to ensure that they are practicing the art and craft of teaching in a manner that is of service to children’s achievement and society. A

more thorough understanding of the attributes of professionalism can serve as an introduction for preservice teachers and a reminder to both novice and seasoned teachers to ensure that they conduct themselves as professionally as possible. Professionals take ownership of their job responsibilities, assignments, and personal conduct. Being a professional is a matter of personally emulating and modeling the qualities we demand of our students and colleagues as scholars, contributors, and owners of personal destiny. (Valeri R. Helterbran, Professionalism: Teachers Taking the Rein, 2008, p. 126)”

Multiple Choice Questions

1.Many times people do not see teaching as a profession because of?

A. Low wages

B. Poor training

C. Summers off

D. Teachers not communicating

2. Angela loved to dance. She especially liked ballet and knew she wanted to concentrate on that style of dance while she was growing up. When she became old enough she tried out for the American Ballet in New York City. She got the role as Victoria

Page in the famous ballet *The Red Shoes.* Angela gets a weekly salary for what she loves to do most in life, which is ballet dancing. According to the Wikibook article, Angela is now considered a person who has

A. An exciting pass time

B. A neat hobby

C. A job performing ballet

D. A professional career

3.Profession as a noun is defined as?

A. A person who teaches or instructs useful information.

B. A vocation requiring knowledge of some department of learning or science.

C. A person or thing that leads and develops ideas and skills.

D. A person who speaks about what they are educated in.

4.Instead of entering a career in education, many colleges graduates are choosing to enter a _____ and a career that they

will have competitive wages and gain rewards.

A. Higher-paying job

B. Job that involves traveling

C. Job that involves working with animals

D. Job that involves traveling

5.Education systems as well as teachers should take steps to handle the responsibility of teachers being professional in the classroom. Which answer listed below is not one of these steps?

A. Pay teachers adequately

B. Maintain schools properly

C. Treat teachers with respect

D. Give good benefits

Answers 1.A 2.D 3.B 4.A 5.D

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

2: Choosing Teaching as a Profession

2.1: The Joys of Teaching

2.2: Building a Resume

2.3: Professional Organizations (Joining a Larger Community)

2.4: References

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2.1: The Joys of Teaching

Why be a teacher? The short answer is easy:

- to witness the diversity of growth in young people, and their joy in learning
- to encourage lifelong learning—both for yourself and for others
- to experience the challenge of devising and doing interesting, exciting activities for the young

There is, of course, more than this to be said about the value of teaching. Consider, for instance, the "young people" referred to above. In one class they could be six years old; in another they could be sixteen, or even older. They could be rich, poor, or somewhere in between. They could come from any ethnic background. Their first language could be English, or something else. There are all sorts of possibilities. But whoever the particular students are, they will have potential as human beings: talents and personal qualities— possibly not yet realized— that can contribute to society, whether as leaders, experts, or supporters of others. A teacher's job— in fact a teacher's privilege— is to help particular "young people" to realize their potential.

Another teacher reflects: Nathan paused for a deep breath before speaking to me. "Lt's not like I expected it to be," he said. "I've got five kids who speak English as a second language. I didn't expect that. I've got two, maybe three, with reading disabilities, and one of them has a part-time aide. I've had to learn more about using computers than I ever expected— they're a lot of curriculum materials online now, and the computers help the kids that need more practice or who finish activities early. I'm doing more screening and testing of kids than I expected, and it all takes time away from teaching. "But it's not all surprises. I expected to be able to 'light a fire' under kids about learning to read. And that has actually happened, at least sometimes with some children!"The joys of teaching

"But it's not all surprises. I expected to be able to 'light a fire' under kids about learning to read. And that has actually happened, at least sometimes with some children!"

As a teacher, you will be able to do this by laying groundwork for lifelong learning. You will not teach any one student forever, of course, but you will often work with them long enough to convey a crucial message: that there is much in life to learn— more in fact than any one teacher or school can provide in a lifetime. The knowledge may be about science, math, or learning to read; the skills may be sports, music, or art— anything. Whatever you teach, its immensity can be a source of curiosity, wonder and excitement. It can be a reason to be optimistic about life in general and about your students in particular. Learning, when properly understood, is never-ending, even though it often focuses on short-term, immediate concerns. As a teacher, you will have an advantage not shared by every member of society, namely the excuse not only to teach valuable knowledge and skills, but to point students beyond what they will be able to learn from you. As an old limerick put it (before the days of gender-balanced language), "The world is full of such a plenty of things, I'm sure we should all be as happy as kings."

Jennifer Fuller, a third teacher reflects: "OK", suddenly getting businesslike in her tone. "Here's my typical day teaching tenth grade: I get up at 6:30, have a quick breakfast, get to school by 7:45 if the traffic's not bad. Then I check my email— usually there's a little stuff from the principal or some other administrator, maybe one or two from parents concerned because their child is doing poorly in one of my classes, maybe one or two from students— "I'm going to be sick today, Ms Fuller!"— that sort of thing. Now it's 8:15 and I have two hours before my first class— this term I teach only biology, and I only teach periods 2, 3, and 5. Maybe I have marking to do before class, or maybe I have to get a lab demonstration ready. Or maybe we all have to troupe down to the library for a staff meeting (groan...). Whatever I don't finish in the morning, I have to finish after school. But that's also when I meet with the Ecology Club (I'm the faculty advisor), so I might have to finish stuff in the evening. I try not to do it then, but a lot of times I have to. But I always quit by 9:00— that's always when I watch TV for an hour, or just "vegetate " with a book."

Whatever you teach, you will be able to feel the satisfaction of designing and orchestrating complex activities that communicate new ideas and skills effectively. The challenge is attractive to many teachers, because that is where they exercise judgment and "artistry" the most freely and frequently. Your students will depend on your skill at planning and managing, though sometimes without realizing how much they do so. Teachers will need you to know how to explain ideas clearly, to present new materials in a sensible sequence and at an appropriate pace, to point out connections between their new learning and their prior experiences. Although these skills really take a lifetime to master, they can be practiced successfully even by beginning teachers, and they do improve steadily with continued teaching over time. Right from the start, though, skill at design and communication of curriculum is one of the major "perks" of the job.

The very complexity of classroom life virtually guarantees that teaching never needs to get boring. Something new and exciting is bound to occur just when you least expect it. A student shows an insight that you never expected to see— or fails to show one that you were sure he had. An activity goes better than expected— or worse, or merely differently. You understand for the first time why a particular student behaves as she does, and begin thinking of how to respond to the student's behavior more helpfully in the future. After teaching a particular learning objective several times, you realize that you understand it differently than the first time you taught it. And so on. The job never stays the same; it evolves continually. As long as you keep teaching, you will have a job with novelty.

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2.2: Building a Resume

Building a resume is an important task as you join any professional community, teaching or otherwise. A resume is a quick and professional introduction to you and your skills. It allows potential employers and collaborators get to know you. A resume should tell a good story. A *teaching* resume should tell a good story about your professional education and experiences that shape your stance as a qualified educator. It is important to begin shaping your professional teaching resume early in your teacher preparation program. You may then continue adding to and revising the resume as you gain valuable professional experiences by completing and documenting field experience opportunities in the program.

Discussion Questions

What are the conventions of a teaching resume?

In what ways do resumes tell a story?

What makes an educational resume different than other professions?

Sample Resume

BEA A. TEACHER

Local Street Address,

City, State Zip

Permanent Street Address, City, State Zip phone

number • email

OBJECTIVE

To obtain a teaching position at the elementary level in the Oneonta City School District

EDUCATION

Bachelor of Science, Early Childhood/Childhood Education (B-6), Concentration in Biology Month Year

State University of New York (SUNY), College at Oneonta, Oneonta, NY NCATE Accredited

Advanced Regents Diploma Month Year

Burnt Hills-Ballston Lake Senior High School, Burnt Hills, NY

RELATED EXPERIENCE

Teacher, School Name**,** City, State Month Year – Month Year

- Work with 25 students, K-12, and all ability levels
- Instruction in reading, writing, math, and study skills
- Effectively manage average classroom of 20 students
- Met with parents regarding student classroom behavior

Student Teacher – Kindergarten, School Name, City, State Month Year – Month Year

- Used centers for math, science, social studies, health, and writing
- Implemented a positive discipline plan and phonics instruction with small groups
- Developed thematic unit on plants/gardening around major instructional goals

Student Teacher – Fourth Grade, School Name, City, State Month Year – Month Year

- Created and implemented literature units on density
- Developed and taught writing unit on “why” stories
- Used teacher’s manuals as guideline for teaching math and science
- Modified lesson plans to meet students’ needs required for 504/IEP plans
- Adapted units for time, money, geometry, and weather

Program Assistant, School/Organization Name**,** City, State Month Year – Month Year

- After school program sponsored by XYZ Central School
- Supervised and managed groups of 15-20 children grades K-5

FIELD EXPERIENCE

Observation/Participation – 200 Hours Year – Year

- Kindergarten Participation, Unadilla Valley Central School, New Berlin, NY
- Pre-Kindergarten, Head Start/Early Head Start Day Care, Oneonta, NY
- Fourth Grade, Commack Road Elementary School, Islip, NY
- First Grade, Wing Elementary School, Islip, NY

OTHER EXPERIENCE

Support Staff, Company Name**,** City, State Month Year – Month Year

- Various clerical responsibilities, including developed proficiency in all Microsoft Office products

Sales Clerk, Department Store, City, State Month Year – Month Year

- Provided exceptional customer service to approximately 40 individuals each day
- Utilized creativity to design two store displays each month
- Responsible for additional duties in manager’s absence

VOLUNTEER EXPERIENCE

St. Vincent Elementary School, St. Vincent, NY Month Year – Month Year

- Coordinated after school program for 25 children, ages 5 to 8
- Maintained a safe and conducive learning environment

ACTIVITIES

Leadership Institute, SUNY Oneonta, Oneonta, NY Month Year – Month Year

Elementary Education Club, SUNY Oneonta, Oneonta, NY Month Year – Month Year

Professional Memberships

Professional Education Council, SUNY Oneonta, Oneonta, NY Month Year – Month Year

Association for Teachers, SUNY Oneonta, Oneonta, NY Month Year – Month Year

Skills

Foreign Language: Spanish Fluency

Computer Programs: MS Word, Excel, PowerPoint, Access Classroom Technology: ELMO, SmartBoard

MM 08/17

Figure 1. Sample Resume Adapted from Template (All Business Templates, 2017)

Many resources exist on the campus of SUNY Oneonta to assist you in building your resume. The Career Development Center (2019) is available to provide guidance concerning the necessary components and steps for building your resume.

The document is provided by the Career Development Center, specifically for students who are beginning to build their professional resume.

Career Development Center
110 Netzer Admin. Building
(607) 436 -2534

10 Steps to Building A Solid Resume

Students often ask: what should I be doing now to prepare to write my resume when the time comes? Here are some steps that you can take today to make sure that yours will be a resume that will gain the attention of potential future employers:

1. **Establish solid relationships with professors and employers**. Don't be afraid to talk to your professors. They can provide a wealth of information and assistance as you determine your career path. You can also learn a great deal from work supervisors, even in part-time and summer jobs. Some day you will be asking these people to write or give a verbal reference for you; the better they know you, the more qualified they will feel to speak about your skills and abilities.
2. **Set career goals.** As soon as you are ready to do so, it is better to start off in a direction, even if you may need to alter that direction later on. Do some research– talk to professors, advisors, career counselors, professionals in fields of interest, etc.– and then weigh the information you have collected. The suggestions in the remainder of this article will help you as you evaluate your plans and goals.
3. **Join clubs and participate in activities related to your career goals.** There are many clubs and organizations on your campus; some relate to academic majors, others to interest areas. Participating in any of these groups can help you to gain insight into a particular field or investigate your interests and skills. Working with fellow students, faculty advisors, and others you encounter can also provide extremely valuable experience in building teamwork and communication skills, both of which are vital to almost any career you may pursue.
4. **Be selective about part-time and summer employment.** While any job can provide valuable experience, employers are often looking for someone who can demonstrate as many of the necessary skills as possible for their available position. The more relevant experience you have, the better prepared you are for a position in your chosen field. You can also use part-time and summer jobs to "test drive" a career choice you are considering.
5. **Volunteer with an organization or agency where you can gain skills related to your career goals.** Volunteering is another a great way to meet people, gain skills, and find out if a certain career is really a good "fit" for you. There are many wonderful opportunities for volunteering in most communities; showing that you had the initiative to take advantage of this type of experience can be very impressive to future employers. This step is especially important for those students who are limited in their choices of summer and part-time jobs.
6. **Do an internship**. What better way to familiarize yourself with the inner workings of a prospective career field than to do an internship with a company or organization in that field? For many internships, academic credit is obtained through the student's major department. Contact your academic advisor for more information and, if encouraged to locate your own internship, you can contact your college career center for further assistance.
7. **Get good grades**. In almost any career you can imagine, employers are looking for the best and brightest graduates to fill their company's openings. Whether you plan to be a teacher, an accountant, a stockbroker, or a psychologist, the better you have performed in your past "job" (as a student), the better your prospective employers can expect you to perform for them. And if you plan to attend graduate school, a high GPA may be an entrance requirement.
8. **Determine skills and abilities needed to succeed in your career and take every possible opportunity to strengthen them.** Flexibility? Communication? Computer literacy? Initiative? What are the skills you will need to succeed on the job? Look at job descriptions, talk to employers, professors, and those currently employed in your field of choice to find out what you will need to do to succeed in your chosen career. Skills do not magically appear your first day on the job (or during your interview!) but take time and effort to build. Start now with your "job" as a student and practice, practice, practice! Be on time for class, initiate questions or discussions, gain computer skills, and make sure that all work you submit shows your best possible effort.
9. **Start planning early**. As you can see from steps #1 – 8 above, planning and preparing for a career is not something that can be done well during the last semester of your senior year. You can write your resume during that time, but if you want some good,

quality information to put on it, the earlier you start, the better off you'll be.

10. **Visit your college career center**. For the most current information about almost any career field you can imagine, your college career center is the first place you should check. If you need any assistance at all in determining what your career path might be, staff members will be willing to take the time to answer your questions. And when you are ready to write your resume, many career centers offer workshops, written materials, and/or a resume critiquing service to help ensure that your resume is the best possible tool for marketing your skills to employers.

ADDITIONAL RESOURCE

Northland University (2019) has created an excellent guide to creating a resume. This guide is geared toward new educators who wish to build their resumes in order to highlight experience during their programs. This guide is available at https://my.northland.edu/wp-content/uploads/sites/2/2015/07/Education-Majors-Resume-Guide.pdf

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2.3: Professional Organizations (Joining a Larger Community)

Professional organizations are essential contributors in assisting educators in developing, building, and sustaining teachers' professional learning networks.

Discussion Questions

Consider the following questions:

- What are your professional organization's belief statements or position statements on teaching
- What journals do your organization publish for practicing teachers?
- What resources do your professional organization provide teachers?
- What special events does your organization hold for teachers?

Professional organizations are important to ongoing professional development and growth. Teachers take advantage of conferences, meetings and opportunities to both mentor and be mentored through the professional organizations for their content areas and/or interest areas.

All professional organizations have web sites that assist in understanding their content, the activities and opportunities they provide to their members, and any publications that the organization may publish for its members. In addition, most professional organizations offer a student rate that can assist in building your resume and networking with like-minded educators. A list of national professional organizations adapted from Masters in Education (2019) appear below.

Professional Organizations by Subject/Concentration Area

- National Council of Teachers of English – NCTE www.ncte.org
- National Science Teachers Association – NSTA www.nsta.org
- National Council for the Social Studies – NCSS http://www.socialstudies.org/
- American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages – ACTFL www.actfl.org
- American Association of Family and Consumer Science – AAFCS www.aafcs.org
- International Literacy Association – ILA http://literacyworldwide.org
- National Council of Teachers of Mathematics – NCTM www.nctm.org/
- Professional Organizations for birth-6th grade practitioners
- Association for Childhood Education International www.acei.org
- Teachers First https://www.teachersfirst.com/proforgs.cfm
- Association of American Educators https://www.aaeteachers.org/
- Council for Exceptional Children (CEC), Division for Early Childhood (DEC) http://www.dec-sped.org/
- National Association for the Education of Young Children http://www.naeyc.org/

In addition to those on the national level, most states will also have professional organizations for various contents and grade levels. These are an excellent way to make contacts with other educators in your state.

Suggested Activities

3.1 Describe the process of becoming a teacher in New York State

3.1 Think – pair – share; outline, discuss and then create a potential timeline for completing your teacher certification process over the next four years.

3.1 In small groups discuss the aspects of the certification process which seem most easily accomplished and those that seem most difficult.

3.2 Create New York State TEACH account

3.3 Write a draft of the pre-service teacher resume

3.4 Identify professional organizations according to content and grade level specialties

1. Locate, research, and join either a local or national organization, preferably related to your content concentration or major that supports students, pre-service, and/or beginning teachers.

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

3: History and Philosophy of Education

3.1: Educational Philosophy Defined
3.2: Major Theories and Models of Learning
3.3: 19th Century
3.4: Teacher Education
3.5: Purpose
3.6: Cooperation
3.7: Intelligence
3.8: Teaching Is Different From In the Past

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3.1: Educational Philosophy Defined

What are Education Philosophies?

by Dionne Nichols

Introduction

What makes a teacher? Teaching is like a salad. Think about it. If you were to attend a party for any given holiday, the number of and variations to each salad recipe that might be present for consumption could outnumber those present at the party. There are so many different ways to teach, varying circumstances to take into account, and philosophies to apply to each classroom. And what better way to have a positive impact on the world than to offer knowledge for consumption? The term 'teacher' can be applied to anyone who imparts knowledge of any topic, but it is generally more focused on those who are hired to do so (teach, n.d., n.p.). In imparting knowledge to our students, it is inevitable that we must take into account our own personal philosophies, or pedagogies, and determine not only how we decide what our philosophies are, but also how those impact our consumers.

An analogy is one of a teacher's most useful tools. It helps the instructor relate a difficult concept to something the students will already have the infrastructure for, thus enabling the students to cement the ideas in their mind.

Lessons in Pedagogy

Early teacher education classes frequently separated the concept of philosophy into separate schools (Roberson, 2000, p. 8). "Philosophy has been taught in the theoretical realm rather than the practical sense," meaning that the ideas were placed before the teachers without the scaffolding to create a bridge into the classroom (Roberson, 2000, p. 7). The teachers, as students, were given a body of thought and expected to translate that into lessons for their own students. Once you have the idea, how do you apply it to teaching?

What, exactly, are education philosophies? According to Thelma Roberson (2000), most prospective teachers confuse their beliefs with the ideas of teaching (p. 6). Education philosophies, then, are not what you want to do in class to aid learning, but why you do them and how they work. For example, Roberson's students state they "want to use cooperative learning techniques" in their classroom. The question posed is, why? "[I]s cooperative learning a true philosophy or is it something you do in the classroom because of your belief about the way children learn?" (Roberson, 2000, p. 6). Philosophies need to translate ideas into action – if you want to use certain techniques, then you need to understand how they are effective in the classroom to create that portion of your education philosophy. It helps to have an overview of the various schools out there.

Philosophies of Education have traveled down a tree of branches. The first four support branches of philosophy are the Idealist school, the Realist school, the Pragmatist school, and the Existential schools of thought (Ornstein, 2003, p.99). It might help to look at the tree and its individual branches rather than read about them…

- Idealism – focuses on a subject-matter curriculum emphasizing the great ideas of the culture. You must ponder ideas to make them whole (Ornstein, 2003, p.99).
- Realism – A subject-matter curriculum stressing objective knowledge and values. Reality is objective, meaning everyone should obtain the same results regardless of what he does or how he consider concepts (Ornstein, 2003, p.101)
  - Perennialism – Focuses on human concerns that have caused concern for centuries, revealed through 'great works' (Ornstein, 2003, p.110)
  - Essentialism – Rooted partially in Idealism, as well – Emphasizes skills and subjects that demonstrate the cultural heritage and contribute to society (Ornstein, 2003, p.110)
- Pragmatism – Instruction is organized around problem-solving following the steps of the scientific method – emphasizes the need to act on concepts by testing them (Ornstein, 2003, p.104).
  - Progressivism – Instruction features problem solving and group activities – The instructor acts as a facilitator as opposed to a leader (Ornstein, 2003, p.110)
  - Social Reconstructionism – Instruction that focuses on significant social and economic problems in an effort to solve them (Ornstein, 2003, pg.110)

- Existentialism – Classroom dialogue stimulates awareness – each person creates an awareness gleaned from discussion and encourages deep personal reflection on his or her convictions (Ornstein, 2003, p.108).

Perennialism

Perennialists are instructors who feel that the knowledge that has been passed through the ages should be continued as the basis of the curriculum, like the classic works of Plato and Einstein. Perennialists base their teachings on reason, logic, and analytical thought. Only information that stood the test of time is relevant. They do not illicit student input. The classes most likely to be considered under this approach would be history, science, math, and religion classes (Educational Philosophies in the Classroom, pg.1).

Positivism

The instructors whose teaching philosophies are based on documented facts and tangible truths are normally those who would be in the math and science departments. These teachers do not feel that religion and the supernatural should be a part of the thinking process. The idea of uncertainty and the unknown is considered illogical (Educational Philosophies in the Classroom, pg.1).

Behaviorism

Behaviorists believe in rewards and punishments as an approach to controlling the teaching environment due to their belief in the intrinsic nature of humans to react to internal or external stimuli. This teacher-centered system ultimately allows the students to be controlled by the educator, who makes the environment pleasant or unpleasant depending on the students' behavior (Foundations of Education, pg.1).

Essentialism

Essentialists believe that there is a universal pool of knowledge needed by all students. The fundamentals of teaching are the basis of the curriculum: math, science, history, foreign language, and English. Vocational classes are not seen as a necessary part of educational training. Classrooms are formal, teacher-centered, and students are passive learners. Evaluations are predominately through testing, and there are few, if any, projects or portfolios. These instructors easily accept the No Child Left-Behind Act because test scores are the main form of evaluation (Foundations of Education, pg. 1).

Progressivism

This is a student-centered form of instruction where students follow the scientific method of questioning and searching for the answer. Evaluations include projects and portfolios. Current events are used to keep students interested in the required subject matter. Students are active learners as opposed to passive learners. The teacher is a facilitator rather than the center of the educational process. Student input is encouraged, and students are asked to find their interpretation of the answer (Educational Philosophies in the classroom, pg.1).

Reconstructionism

This student-centered philosophy strives to instill a desire to make the world a better place. It places a focus on controversial world issues and uses current events as a springboard for the thinking process. These students are taught the importance of working together to bring about change. These teachers incorporate what is happening in the world with what they are learning in the classroom (Educational Philosophies in the Classroom, pg.1).

Constructivism

Active participation is the key to this teaching style. Students are free to explore their own ideas and share concepts with one another in nontraditional ways. "Hands on activity […] is the most effective way of learning and is considered true learning" (Educational Philosophies in the Classroom, pg.1).

Humanism/ Existentialism

Also a student-centered philosophy, this educational method is based on the idea that the students should be presented with choices about the learning process. The student is engaged in all aspects of learning and works together with the teacher and her peers to

develop a curriculum and evaluation system that allows for individual interests and abilities (Educational philosophies in the Classroom, pg.1).

> Your philosophy of education is what you believe about education and the way children learn." – Roberson pg 4

In addition, the 'constructivist' school of philosophy, rooted in the Pragmatic pedagogy and branched off from the 'Social Reconstructivist' school, has gained much popularity. Around the turn of the century (early 1990s), many teachers felt the rote memorization and mindless routine that was common then was ineffective, and began to look for alternate ways to reach their students (Ornstein, 2003, p.111). Through the constructivist approach, "students "construct" knowledge through an interaction between what they already think and know and with new ideas and experiences" (Roberson, 2000, p. 8). This is an active learning process that leads to deeper understanding of the concepts presented in class, and is based on the abilities and readiness of the children rather than set curriculum guidelines (Ornstein, 2003, p.112). Constructivism "emphasizes socially interactive and process-oriented 'hands on' learning in which students work collaboratively to expand and revise their knowledge base" (Ornstein, 2003, p.112). Essentially, knowledge which is shaped by experience is reconstructed, or altered, to assist the student in understanding new concepts (Ornstein, 2003, p.112). You, as the teacher, help the students build the scaffolding they need to maintain the information even after the test is taken and graded.

Four Philosophies in Assessment

Once you know how you want to lead your classroom, it is important to consider how to assess your students' progress. And when we think of school, we automatically consider the threesome subjects, Reading, Writing, and 'Rithmatic. In all aspects of learning, however, the ability to communicate comes to the forefront. Communication is used in class discussion as well as unit test short answers. Writing is present in almost all subjects in some form, and writing translates to communication. Richard Fulkerson (2000), in his article "Four Philosophies of Composition," questions whether "a […] set of four philosophies of composition might exist, each one stressing a different element in the communicative transaction" (p. 3). Fulkerson's schools of communicative philosophy fall into the following categories:

- **Expressionism:** a way of writing that demonstrates the students' thoughts and can be lead by "non-directive teachers, some of whom insist that one neither can nor should evaluate writing" or more hands-on teachers who "design classroom activities to maximize student self-discovery" (p. 5). This school of thought emphasizes the student.
- **Rhetorical:** this school states that good writing is adapted to achieve a specific reaction from the audience (p. 6). This is focused on the connection between goal and process in completing assignments, and it emphasizes the audience.
- **Mimesis:** states that "a clear connection exists between good writing and good thinking" and focuses on logic and reason as exemplified in the completion of assignments (p. 5). This school emphasizes a well-rounded student in that, research, prior knowledge, and the ability to recognize both sides of an argument are necessary for success (p. 6).
- **Formalism:** this school focuses primarily on the form of the assignment – it disregards content to the extent that poor grammar can distract the audience from absorbing the content, and therefore, the work is judged "primarily by whether it shows certain internal [mistakes]" (p. 4).

While most teachers fall primarily into one school of composition pedagogy, Fulkerson (2000) points out that it is necessary to hold on to them all when he states "they are not mutually exclusive" (p. 6). The trick is to learn when each is applicable and to what extent it should be employed.

Hooked on Phonics?

So, you know how you want to lead your class, and you have an idea as to which kind of 'grader' you are. What next? Another area where teachers have struggled is simply in helping their students learn to or improve their reading. How do we teach reading? The two battling schools of thought are between those who support Whole Language, and those who support Phonics. "The disputes have been dubbed the Reading Wars, and the participants call them 'vicious'" (Collins, 1997, n.p.). Several states have even intervened and enacted laws mandating one or the other.

But what are they? Just as their names state, the difference is in how the words are read. Phonics was taught primarily in the 1970s (Collins, 1997, n.p.) and study the individual components of each word, called 'phonemes,' which are the "smallest meaningful sounds in a language" (Collins, 1997, n.p.). "Cat, for example, has three: "kuh-aa-tuh" (Collins, 1997, n.p.). A reader needs to understand how the words are broken up and that each letter has its own sound in order to read (Collins, 1997, n.p.). Phonic

teaching focuses on code learning. Once the students understand the 'code,' and how the words phonemes are put together, they are supposed to be able to understand the entire word.

Whole language advocates disagree with the process of breaking each word down. They feel readers cannot focus on every letter in a word, or every word in a text (Collins, 1997, n.p.) and made their opinions known during the 1980s (Collins, 1997, n.p.). If they did, "and if they tried to translate what they saw into sounds, reading would be much too cumbersome" (Collins, 1997, n.p.). Instead, whole language teachers instruct their students in 'skipping strategies' – ways of guessing which word comes next to fill in any blanks (Collins, 1997, n.p.). Overall, reading is considered an organic process by which the students learn phonics "only when a question about phonics comes up in the course of reading" (Collins, 1997, n.p.). Whole language focuses on the meaning behind the words.

Which is better?

Just as in many other walks of life, statistics and studies show that one philosophy of teaching will prevail over another. The National Assessment of Educational Progress, as stated in J. Collin's article (1997), claims that "from 1971 to 1980 there was a steady improvement in the reading comprehension of nine-year-olds. However, during the 1980s…the scores did not improve and rather declined" (n.p.).

The 1990s brought the topic full circle. It was then that Marilyn Adams, a cognitive psychologist, wrote a book describing the best methods to teach learning. "Programs that combined systematic phonics instruction with meaning emphasis seemed to work best of all" (Collins, 1997, n.p.). The key to reading is that words need to be recognized so the brain can interpret the meaning behind it (Collins, 1997, n.p.). Thus, putting the two methods together was necessary for correct comprehension of the concepts presented.

What else do I need to know?

We've discussed the accepted definition of pedagogy, varying schools of thought for assessment, and the difference between reading philosophies. Your salad components are increasing by number exponentially. But what toppings to you add to your thought salad? What else do you need to consider when you are setting up your classroom, your teaching styles, and your lessons?

Teaching is the hardest job you can have. You are in a position to touch hundreds of lives over the course of a career, and yet, how do you succeed? The fact remains that "when a teacher and his/her students face each other in the classroom they must truly work with each other" (Cadenas, 1999, n.p.). How else can you ensure that the students are learning what you are teaching?

> [You] may spend as much as 60 hours a week creating lesson plans, teaching, advising students, grading, supervising extracurricular activities and meeting with colleagues and parents" Valerie Marchant – *Time*

The first thing to keep in mind is your own knowledge basis. Cadenas (1999) recommends that you "renew and refresh your knowledge of the subject matter" (n.p.) to stay on top of changes and help you incorporate them in to your lessons. Our world changes so rapidly that to stay on top of technology, your field of expertise, or even other areas that can be integrated into your subject matter, it is necessary to take a class or attend a seminar every once in a while (Cadenas, 1999, n.p.).

Next, "prepare interesting, colorful, captivating lesson plans and deliver then with gusto" (Cadenas, 1999, n.p.). An entertaining teacher will help cement information into a student's memory with much more ease than one who is monotone or inactive (Cadenas, 1999, n.p.). The more entertaining you are, the deeper a connection you will make with your students, as well.

In addition to the captivating lesson, make sure "it [is] a number one priority to ensure that your student can follow the lesson" (Cadenas, 1999, n.p.). This will assist all your students in grasping the information you are placing before them in class, and will help you reach students of all learning styles (Cadenas, 1999, n.p.). You don't want to end up teaching only to the auditory learners and leaving the visual learners to fend for themselves!

Last, "help your students to put their learning to use immediately" (Cadenas, 1999, n.p.). Show them how the lessons you are teaching are applicable to them so they feel like school is worth an investment of time and energy (Cadenas, 1999, n.p.). If nothing else, have them help each other out in class to reinforce the lesson!

Conclusion

You are ready to graze at a Fourth of July picnic. You walk over to the table, and you see an array of salads ready for you to dive in to them. How do you pick which ones you want to sample now or save for later? How do you narrow the choices down?

Educational philosophies are as abundant as salads at any holiday spread. And even though the difference between one potato salad and the one next to it is an addition of mustard, the two are by no means exactly alike. Your classes will be just as diverse. You will have students from all economic classes, with differing levels of English language ability, and all bringing various and beautiful experiences to your class. How do you reach each individual?

Knowing who you are as a teacher before you enter the classroom will help significantly. Teaching is so much more than just the content. Teaching is a learning curve on philosophy that will never be finished. Just as your classroom will change every year, continue to alter your philosophies. See what works for you and your students on a collaborative level.**In the words of J. W. Apps, "a working philosophy is never completely developed the ultimate working philosophy never reached. We're always moving toward, hopefully, a more complete, and thus more useful, working philosophy." (The Educational Philosophies of Training and Development Professors, Leaders, and Practitioners, pg. 1)**

Study Questions

1. Amy is working with her third grade class to improve their reading skills. She is asking them to write the words on a specific list down and break them apart based on their syllables and then combine them back into their original words. Amy is making use of which theory for reading?

a. Whole Language

b. Phonics

c. A combination of the two

2. Lou asks his students to critique their formal essays for APA formatting and grammar. He then asks them to write him an informal letter explaining their thought process on the formal essay, and how they thought they did overall on it. Lou is implementing which two schools of philosophy of assessment?

a. Formalism and Mimesis

b. Mimesis and Rhetorical

c. Rhetorical and Expressionism

d. Expressionism and Formalism

3. A student who is writing her formal pedagogy paper for class expresses an interest in incorporating technology into her history class. She then lists several ways she will consistently make use of technology in her classroom. In order to ensure technology is part of her pedagogy, what does this student need to do?

a. Develop the reason behind why she wants to use technology, including an explanation for what she hopes to accomplish

b. Develop her lesson plans fully so she has alternatives in case the electricity goes out, her LCD projector blows a bulb, etc.

c. Research statistics that show pros and cons to using technology in the classroom

d. Interview experienced teachers to hear what they have to say about using technology in the classroom

4. A student receives his paper back from his teacher and on it is written a comment, "Where is the opponent's viewpoint?" This student's teacher is focusing on which philosophy for assessment?

a. Rhetoricism

b. Mimesis

c. Expressionism

d. Formalism

5. Adam has been teaching for 11 years and needs to complete his recertification points to maintain his licensure. He signs up for a conference on reaching students with learning disabilities. Which step is he taking to help him stay focused on his original purpose of teaching?

a. Applicability to real life

b. Ensuring all students can participate

c. Refresh his pedagogical knowledge

d. Preparation of lesson plans

Answers: 1(b); 2(d); 3(a); 4(b); 5(c)

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3.2: Major Theories and Models of Learning

Several ideas and priorities, then, affect how we teachers think about learning, including the curriculum, the difference between teaching and learning, sequencing, readiness, and transfer. The ideas form a "screen" through which to understand and evaluate whatever psychology has to offer education. As it turns out, many theories, concepts, and ideas from educational psychology do make it through the "screen" of education, meaning that they are consistent with the professional priorities of teachers and helpful in solving important problems of classroom teaching. In the case of issues about classroom learning, for example, educational psychologists have developed a number of theories and concepts that are relevant to classrooms, in that they describe at least *some* of what usually happens there and offer guidance for assisting learning. It is helpful to group the theories according to whether they focus on changes in behavior or in thinking. The distinction is rough and inexact, but a good place to begin. For starters, therefore, consider two perspectives about learning, called behaviorism (learning as changes in overt behavior) and constructivism, (learning as changes in thinking). The second category can be further divided into psychological constructivism (changes in thinking resulting from individual experiences), and social constructivism, (changes in thinking due to assistance from others). The rest of this chapter describes key ideas from each of these viewpoints. As I hope you will see, each describes some aspects of learning not just in general, but as it happens in classrooms in particular. So each perspective suggests things that *you* might do in *your* classroom to make students' learning more productive.

Behaviorism: changes in what students do

Behaviorism is a perspective on learning that focuses on changes in individuals' observable behaviors— changes in what people say or do. At some point we all use this perspective, whether we call it "behaviorism" or something else. The first time that I drove a car, for example, I was concerned primarily with whether I could actually do the driving, not with whether I could describe or explain how to drive. For another example: when I reached the point in life where I began cooking meals for myself, I was more focused on whether I could actually produce edible food in a kitchen than with whether I could explain my recipes and cooking procedures to others. And still another example—one often relevant to new teachers: when I began my first year of teaching, I was more focused on doing the job of teaching—on day-to-day survival—than on pausing to reflect on what I was doing.

Note that in all of these examples, focusing attention on behavior instead of on "thoughts" may have been desirable at that moment, but not necessarily desirable indefinitely or all of the time. Even as a beginner, there are times when it is more important to be able to describe how to drive or to cook than to actually do these things. And there definitely are many times when reflecting on and thinking about teaching can improve teaching itself. (As a teacher-friend once said to me: "Don't just *do* something; *stand* there!") But neither is focusing on behavior which is not necessarily less desirable than focusing on students' "inner" changes, such as gains in their knowledge or their personal attitudes. If you are teaching, you will need to attend to all forms of learning in students, whether inner or outward.

In classrooms, behaviorism is most useful for identifying relationships between specific actions by a student and the immediate precursors and consequences of the actions. It is less useful for understanding changes in students' thinking; for this purpose we need theories that are more *cognitive* (or thinking-oriented) or social, like the ones described later in this chapter. This fact is not a criticism of behaviorism as a perspective, but just a clarification of its particular strength or usefulness, which is to highlight observable relationships among actions, precursors and consequences. Behaviorists use particular terms (or "lingo," some might say) for these relationships. One variety of behaviorism that has proved especially useful to educators is operant conditioning, described in the next section.

Operant conditioning: new behaviors because of new consequences

Operant conditioning focuses on how the consequences of a behavior affect the behavior over time. It begins with the idea that certain consequences tend to make certain behaviors happen more frequently. If I compliment a student for a good comment made during discussion, there is more of a chance that I will hear further comments from the student in the future (and hopefully they too will be good ones!). If a student tells a joke to classmates and they laugh at it, then the student is likely to tell more jokes in the future and so on.

The original research about this model of learning was not done with people, but with animals. One of the pioneers in the field was a Harvard professor named B. F. Skinner, who published numerous books and articles about the details of the process and who pointed out many parallels between operant conditioning in animals and operant conditioning in humans (1938, 1948, 1988).

Skinner observed the behavior of rather tame laboratory rats (not the unpleasant kind that sometimes live in garbage dumps). He or his assistants would put them in a cage that contained little except a lever and a small tray just big enough to hold a small amount of food. (Figure 1 shows the basic set-up, which is sometimes nicknamed a "Skinner box.") At first the rat would sniff and "putter around" the cage at random, but sooner or later it would happen upon the lever and eventually happen to press it. Presto! The lever released a small pellet of food, which the rat would promptly eat. Gradually the rat would spend more time near the lever and press the lever more frequently, getting food more frequently. Eventually it would spend most of its time at the lever and eating its fill of food. The rat had "discovered" that the consequence of pressing the level was to receive food. Skinner called the changes in the rat's behavior an example of **operant conditioning**, and gave special names to the different parts of the process. He called the food pellets the **reinforcement** and the lever-pressing the **operant** (because it "operated" on the rat's environment). See below.

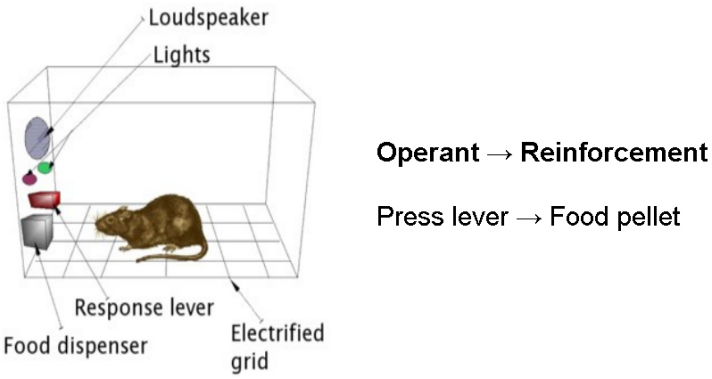


Figure 1: Operant conditioning with a laboratory rat

Skinner and other behavioral psychologists experimented with using various reinforcers and operants. They also experimented with various patterns of reinforcement (or **schedules of reinforcement**), as well as with various **cues** or signals to the animal about when reinforcement was available. It turned out that all of these factors—the operant, the reinforcement, the schedule, and the cues—affected how easily and thoroughly operant conditioning occurred. For example, reinforcement was more effective if it came immediately after the crucial operant behavior, rather than being delayed, and reinforcements that happened intermittently (only part of the time) caused learning to take longer, but also caused it to last longer.

Operant conditioning and students' learning: Since the original research about operant conditioning used animals, it is important to ask whether operant conditioning also describes learning in human beings, and especially in students in classrooms. On this point the answer seems to be clearly "yes." There are countless classroom examples of consequences affecting students' behavior in ways that resemble operant conditioning, although the process certainly does not account for all forms of student learning (Alberto & Troutman, 2005). Consider the following examples. In most of them the operant behavior tends to become more frequent on repeated occasions:

- A seventh-grade boy makes a silly face (the operant) at the girl sitting next to him. Classmates sitting around them giggle in response (the reinforcement).
- A kindergarten child raises her hand in response to the teacher's question about a story (the operant). The teacher calls on her and she makes her comment (the reinforcement).
- Another kindergarten child blurts out her comment without being called on (the operant). The teacher frowns, ignores this behavior, but before the teacher calls on a different student, classmates are listening attentively (the reinforcement) to the student even though he did not raise his hand as he should have.
- A twelfth-grade student—a member of the track team—runs one mile during practice (the operant). He notes the time it takes him as well as his increase in speed since joining the team (the reinforcement).
- A child who is usually very restless sits for five minutes doing an assignment (the operant). The teaching assistant compliments him for working hard (the reinforcement).
- A sixth-grader takes home a book from the classroom library to read overnight (the operant). When she returns the book the next morning, her teacher puts a gold star by her name on a chart posted in the room (the reinforcement).

These examples are enough to make several points about operant conditioning. First, the process is widespread in classrooms—probably more widespread than teachers realize. This fact makes sense, given the nature of public education: to a large extent,

teaching is about making certain consequences (like praise or marks) depend on students' engaging in certain activities (like reading certain material or doing assignments). Second, learning by operant conditioning is not confined to any particular grade, subject area, or style of teaching, but by nature happens in every imaginable classroom. Third, teachers are not the only persons controlling reinforcements. Sometimes they are controlled by the activity itself (as in the track team example), or by classmates (as in the "giggling" example). This leads to the fourth point: that multiple examples of operant conditioning often happen at the same time. A case study in Appendix A of this book (*The decline and fall of Jane Gladstone*) suggests how this happened to someone completing student teaching.

Because operant conditioning happens so widely, its effects on motivation are a bit complex. Operant conditioning can encourage **intrinsic motivation**, to the extent that the reinforcement for an activity is the activity itself. When a student reads a book for the sheer enjoyment of reading, for example, he is reinforced by the reading itself, and we we can say that his reading is "intrinsically motivated." More often, however, operant conditioning stimulates *both* intrinsic *and* extrinsic motivation at the same time. The combining of both is noticeable in the examples in the previous paragraph. In each example, it is reasonable to assume that the student felt intrinsically motivated to some partial extent, even when reward came from outside the student as well. This was because *part* of what reinforced their behavior was the behavior itself—whether it was making faces, running a mile, or contributing to a discussion. At the same time, though, note that each student probably was also **extrinsically motivated**, meaning that another part of the reinforcement came from consequences or experiences *not* inherently part of the activity or behavior itself. The boy who made a face was reinforced not only by the pleasure of making a face, for example, but *also* by the giggles of classmates. The track student was reinforced not only by the pleasure of running itself, but *also* by knowledge of his improved times and speeds. Even the usually restless child sitting still for five minutes may have been reinforced partly by this brief experience of unusually focused activity, even if he was *also* reinforced by the teacher aide's compliment. Note that the extrinsic part of the reinforcement may sometimes be more easily observed or noticed than the intrinsic part, which by definition may sometimes only be experienced within the individual and not also displayed outwardly. This latter fact may contribute to an impression that sometimes occurs, that operant conditioning is really just "bribery in disguise," that only the *external* reinforcements operate on students' behavior. It is true that external reinforcement may sometimes alter the nature or strength of internal (or intrinsic) reinforcement, but this is not the same as saying that it destroys or replaces intrinsic reinforcement. But more about this issue later!

Key concepts about operant conditioning: Operant conditioning is made more complicated, but also more realistic, by several additional ideas. They can be confusing because the ideas have names that sound rather ordinary, but that have special meanings with the framework of operant theory. Among the most important concepts to understand are the following:

- extinction
- generalization
- discrimination
- schedules of reinforcement
- cues

The paragraphs below explain each of these briefly, as well as their relevance to classroom teaching and learning.

Extinction refers to the disappearance of an *operant behavior* because of lack of reinforcement. A student who stops receiving gold stars or compliments for prolific reading of library books, for example, may extinguish (i.e. decrease or stop) book-reading behavior. A student who used to be reinforced for acting like a clown in class may stop clowning once classmates stop paying attention to the antics.

Generalization refers to the incidental conditioning of behaviors similar to an original *operant*. If a student gets gold stars for reading library books, then we may find her reading more of other material as well—newspapers, comics, etc.–even if the activity is not reinforced directly. The "spread" of the new behavior to similar behaviors is called generalization. Generalization is a lot like the concept of transfer discussed early in this chapter, in that it is about extending prior learning to new situations or contexts. From the perspective of operant conditioning, though, what is being extended (or "transferred" or generalized) is a behavior, not knowledge or skill.

Discrimination means learning **not** to generalize. In operant conditioning, what is **not** overgeneralized (i.e. what is discriminated) is the operant behavior. If I am a student who is being complimented (reinforced) for contributing to discussions, I must also learn

to discriminate when to make verbal contributions from when not to make them—such as when classmates or the teacher are busy with other tasks. Discrimination learning usually results from the combined effects of reinforcement of the target behavior and extinction of similar generalized behaviors. In a classroom, for example, a teacher might praise a student for speaking during discussion, but ignore him for making very similar remarks out of turn. In operant conditioning, the **schedule of reinforcement** refers to the pattern or frequency by which reinforcement is linked with the operant. If a teacher praises me for my work, does she do it every time, or only sometimes? Frequently or only once in awhile? In respondent conditioning, however, the schedule in question is the pattern by which the conditioned stimulus is paired with the unconditioned stimulus. If I am student with Mr Horrible as my teacher, does he scowl every time he is in the classroom, or only sometimes? Frequently or rarely?

Behavioral psychologists have studied schedules of reinforcement extensively (for example, Ferster, et al., 1997; Mazur, 2005), and found a number of interesting effects of different schedules. For teachers, however, the most important finding may be this: partial or intermittent schedules of reinforcement generally cause learning to take longer, but also cause extinction of learning to take longer. This dual principle is important for teachers because so much of the reinforcement we give is partial or intermittent. Typically, if I am teaching, I can compliment a student a lot of the time, for example, but there will inevitably be occasions when I cannot do so because I am busy elsewhere in the classroom. For teachers concerned both about motivating students and about minimizing inappropriate behaviors, this is both good news and bad. The good news is that the benefits of my praising students' constructive behavior will be more lasting, because they will not extinguish their constructive behaviors immediately if I fail to support them every single time they happen. The bad news is that students' negative behaviors may take longer to extinguish as well, because those too may have developed through partial reinforcement. A student who clowns around inappropriately in class, for example, may not be "supported" by classmates' laughter every time it happens, but only some of the time. Once the inappropriate behavior is learned, though, it will take somewhat longer to disappear even if everyone—both teacher and classmates—make a concerted effort to ignore (or extinguish) it.

Finally, behavioral psychologists have studied the effects of **cues**. In operant conditioning, a cue is a stimulus that happens just prior to the operant behavior and that signals that performing the behavior may lead to reinforcement. In the original conditioning experiments, Skinner's rats were sometimes cued by the presence or absence of a small electric light in their cage. Reinforcement was associated with pressing a lever when, and only when, the light was on. In classrooms, cues are sometimes provided by the teacher deliberately, and sometimes simply by the established routines of the class. Calling on a student to speak, for example, can be a cue that *if* the student *does* say something at that moment, then he or she *may* be reinforced with praise or acknowledgment. But if that cue does *not* occur—if the student is *not* called on—speaking may *not* be rewarded. In more everyday, non-behaviorist terms, the cue allows the student to learn when it is acceptable to speak, and when it is not.

Constructivism: changes in how students think

Behaviorist models of learning may be helpful in understanding and influencing what students do, but teachers usually also want to know what students are *thinking*, and how to enrich what students are thinking. For this goal of teaching, some of the best help comes from **constructivism**, which is a perspective on learning focused on how students actively create (or "construct") knowledge out of experiences. Constructivist models of learning differ about how much a learner constructs knowledge independently, compared to how much he or she takes cues from people who may be more of an expert and who help the learner's efforts (Fosnot, 2005; Rockmore, 2005). For convenience these are called **psychological constructivism** and **social constructivism** (or sometimes **sociocultural theory**). As explained in the next section, both focus on individuals' thinking rather than their behavior, but they have distinctly different implications for teaching.

Psychological constructivism: the independent investigator

The main idea of psychological constructivism is that a person learns by mentally organizing and reorganizing new information or experiences. The organization happens partly by relating new experiences to prior knowledge that is already meaningful and well understood. Stated in this general form, individual constructivism is sometimes associated with a well-known educational philosopher of the early twentieth century, **John Dewey** (1938–1998). Although Dewey himself did not use the term constructivism in most of his writing, his point of view amounted to a type of constructivism, and he discussed in detail its implications for educators. He argued, for example, that if students indeed learn primarily by building their own knowledge, then teachers should adjust the curriculum to fit students' prior knowledge and interests as fully as possible. He also argued that a curriculum could only be justified if it related as fully as possible to the activities and responsibilities that students will probably have *later*, after leaving

school. To many educators these days, his ideas may seem merely like good common sense, but they were indeed innovative and progressive at the beginning of the twentieth century.

Another recent example of psychological constructivism is the cognitive theory of **Jean Piaget** (Piaget, 2001; Gruber & Voneche, 1995). Piaget described learning as interplay between two mental activities that he called *assimilation* and *accommodation*. **Assimilation** is the interpretation of new information in terms of pre-existing concepts, information or ideas. A preschool child who already understands the concept of *bird*, for example, might initially label any flying object with this term—even butterflies or mosquitoes. Assimilation is therefore a bit like the idea of *generalization* in operant conditioning, or the idea of *transfer* described at the beginning of this chapter. In Piaget's viewpoint, though, what is being transferred to a new setting is not simply a behavior (Skinner's "operant" in operant conditioning), but a mental representation for an object or experience.

Assimilation operates jointly with **accommodation**, which is the revision or modification of pre-existing concepts in terms of new information or experience. The preschooler who initially generalizes the concept of *bird* to include any flying object, for example, eventually revises the concept to include only particular kinds of flying objects, such as robins and sparrows, and not others, like mosquitoes or airplanes. For Piaget, assimilation and accommodation work together to enrich a child's thinking and to create what Piaget called **cognitive equilibrium**, which is a balance between reliance on prior information and openness to new information. At any given time, cognitive equilibrium consists of an ever-growing repertoire of mental representations for objects and experiences. Piaget called each mental representation a **schema** (all of them together—the plural—were called **schemata**). A schema was not merely a concept, but an elaborated mixture of vocabulary, actions, and experience related to the concept. A child's schema for *bird*, for example, includes not only the relevant verbal knowledge (like knowing how to define the word "bird"), but also the child's experiences with birds, pictures of birds, and conversations about birds. As assimilation and accommodation about birds and other flying objects operate together over time, the child does not just revise and add to his vocabulary (such as acquiring a new word, "butterfly"), but also adds and remembers relevant new experiences and actions. From these collective revisions and additions the child gradually constructs whole new schemata about birds, butterflies, and other flying objects. In more everyday (but also less precise) terms, Piaget might then say that "the child has learned more about birds."

Exhibit 1 diagrams the relationships among the Piagetian version of psychological constructivist learning. Note that the model of learning in the Exhibit is rather "individualistic," in the sense that it does not say much about how other people involved with the learner might assist in assimilating or accommodating information. Parents and teachers, it would seem, are left lingering on the sidelines, with few significant responsibilities for helping learners to construct knowledge. But the Piagetian picture does nonetheless imply a role for helpful others: someone, after all, has to tell or model the vocabulary needed to talk about and compare birds from airplanes and butterflies! Piaget did recognize the importance of helpful others in his writings and theorizing, calling the process of support or assistance social *transmission*. But he did not emphasize this aspect of constructivism. Piaget was more interested in what children and youth could figure out on their own, so to speak, than in how teachers or parents might be able to help the young figure out (Salkind, 2004). Partly for this reason, his theory is often considered less about learning and more about *development*, or long-term change in a person resulting from multiple experiences that may not be planned deliberately. For the same reason, educators have often found Piaget's ideas especially helpful for thinking about students' *readiness* to learn, another one of the lasting educational issues discussed at the beginning of this chapter. We will therefore return to Piaget later to discuss development and its importance for teaching in more detail

Exhibit 1: Learning According to Piaget

Assimilation + Accommodation → Equilibrium → Schemata

Social Constructivism: assisted performance

Unlike Piaget's orientation to individuals' thinking in his version of constructivism, some psychologists and educators have explicitly focused on the relationships and interactions between a learner and other individuals who are more knowledgeable or experienced. This framework often is called **social constructivism** or **sociocultural theory**. An early expression of this viewpoint came from the American psychologist **Jerome Bruner** (1960, 1966, 1996), who became convinced that students could usually learn more than had been traditionally expected as long as they were given appropriate guidance and resources. He called such support **instructional scaffolding**—literally meaning a temporary framework like the ones used to construct buildings and that allow a much stronger structure to be built within it. In a comment that has been quoted widely (and sometimes disputed), Bruner

wrote: “We [constructivist educators] begin with the hypothesis that any subject can be taught effectively in some intellectually honest form to any child at any stage of development.” (1960, p. 33). The reason for such a bold assertion was Bruner’s belief in scaffolding—his belief in the importance of providing guidance in the right way and at the right time. When scaffolding is provided, students seem more competent and “intelligent,” and they learn more.

Similar ideas were independently proposed by the Russian psychologist **Lev Vygotsky** (1978), whose writing focused on how a child’s or novice’s thinking is influenced by relationships with others who are more capable, knowledgeable, or expert than the learner. Vygotsky made the reasonable proposal that when a child (or novice) is learning a new skill or solving a new problem, he or she can perform better if accompanied and helped by an expert than if performing alone—though still not as well as the expert. Someone who has played very little chess, for example, will probably compete against an opponent better if helped by an expert chess player than if competing against the opponent alone. Vygotsky called the difference between solo performance and assisted performance the **zone of proximal development** (or **ZPD** for short)—meaning, figuratively speaking, the place or area of immediate change. From this social constructivist perspective, learning is like *assisted performance* (Tharp & Gallimore, 1991). During learning, knowledge or skill is found initially “in” the expert helper. If the expert is skilled and motivated to help, then the expert arranges experiences that let the novice to practice crucial skills or to construct new knowledge. In this regard the expert is a bit like the coach of an athlete—offering help and suggesting ways of practicing, but never doing the actual athletic work himself or herself. Gradually, by providing continued experiences matched to the novice learner’s emerging competencies, the expert-coach makes it possible for the novice or apprentice to **appropriate** (or make his or her own) the skills or knowledge that originally resided only with the expert. These relationships are diagrammed in Exhibit 2.

Exhibit 2: Learning According to Vygotsky

Novice → Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) ← Expert

In both the psychological and social versions of constructivist learning, the novice is not really “taught” so much as simply allowed to learn. But compared to psychological constructivism, social constructivism highlights a more direct responsibility of the expert for making learning possible. He or she must not only have knowledge and skill, but also know how to arrange experiences that make it easy and safe for learners to gain knowledge and skill themselves. These requirements sound, of course, a lot like the requirements for classroom teaching. In addition to knowing what is to be learned, the expert (i.e. the teacher) also has to organize the content into manageable parts, offer the parts in a sensible sequence, provide for suitable and successful practice, bring the parts back together again at the end, and somehow relate the entire experience to knowledge and skills meaningful to the learner already. But of course, no one said that teaching is easy!

The teacher’s role in Psychological and Social Constructivism

As some of the comments above indicate, psychological and social constructivism have differences that suggest different ways for teachers to teach most effectively. The theoretical differences are related to three ideas in particular: the relationship of learning and long-term development, the role or meaning of generalizations and abstractions during development, and the mechanism by which development occurs.

The relationship of learning and long-term development of the child

In general psychological constructivism such as Piaget emphasize the ways that long-term development determines a child’s ability to learn, rather than the other way around. The earliest stages of a child’s life are thought to be rather self-centered and to be dependent on the child’s sensory and motor interactions with the environment. When acting or reacting to his or her surroundings, the child has relatively little language skill initially. This circumstance limits the child’s ability to learn in the usual, school-like sense of the term. As development proceeds, of course, language skills improve and hence the child becomes progressively more “teachable” and in this sense more able to learn. But whatever the child’s age, ability to learn waits or depends upon the child’s stage of development. From this point of view, therefore, a primary responsibility of teachers is to provide a very rich classroom environment, so that children can interact with it independently and gradually make themselves ready for verbal learning that is increasingly sophisticated.

Social constructivists such as Vygotsky, on the other hand, emphasize the importance of social interaction in stimulating the development of the child. Language and dialogue therefore are primary, and development is seen as happening as a result—the converse of the sequence pictured by Piaget. Obviously a child does not begin life with a lot of initial language skill, but this fact is

why interactions need to be scaffolded with more experienced experts— people capable of creating a zone of proximal development in their conversations and other interactions. In the preschool years the experts are usually parents; after the school years begin, the experts broaden to include teachers. A teacher's primary responsibility is therefore to provide very rich opportunities for dialogue, both among children and between individual children and the teacher.

The role of generalizations and abstractions during development

Consistent with the ideas above, psychological constructivism tends to see a relatively limited role for abstract or hypothetical reasoning in the life of children—and even in the reasoning of youth and many adults. Such reasoning is regarded as an outgrowth of years of interacting with the environment very concretely. As explained more fully in the next chapter ("Student development"), elementary-age students can reason, but they are thought to reason only about immediate, concrete objects and events. Even older youth are thought to reason in this way much, or even all of the time. From this perspective a teacher should limit the amount of thinking about abstract ideas that she expects from students. The idea of "democracy," for example, may be experienced simply as an empty concept. At most it might be misconstrued as an oversimplified, overly concrete idea—as "just" about taking votes in class, for instance. Abstract thinking *is* possible, according to psychological constructivism, but it emerges relatively slowly and relatively late in development, after a person accumulates considerable concrete experience.

Social constructivism sees abstract thinking emerging from dialogue between a relative novice (a child or youth) and a more experienced expert (a parent or teacher). From this point of view, the more such dialogue occurs, then the more the child can acquire facility with it. The dialogue must, of course, honor a child's need for intellectual scaffolding or a zone of proximal development. A teacher's responsibility can therefore include engaging the child in dialogue that uses potentially abstract reasoning, but without expecting the child to understand the abstractions fully at first. Young children, for example, can not only engage in science experiments like creating a "volcano" out of baking soda and water, but also discuss and speculate about their observations of the experiment. They may not understand the experiment as an adult would, but the discussion can begin moving them toward adult-like understandings.

How development occurs

In psychological constructivism, as explained earlier, development is thought to happen because of the interplay between *assimilation* and *accommodation*—between when a child or youth can already understand or conceive of, and the change required of that understanding by new experiences. Acting together, assimilation and accommodation continually create new states of cognitive *equilibrium*. A teacher can therefore stimulate development by provoking cognitive dissonance deliberately: by confronting a student with sights, actions, or ideas that do not fit with the student's existing experiences and ideas. In practice the dissonance is often communicated verbally, by posing questions or ideas that are new or that students may have misunderstood in the past. But it can also be provoked through pictures or activities that are unfamiliar to students—by engaging students in a community service project, for example, that brings them in contact with people who they had previously considered "strange" or different from themselves.

In social constructivism, as also explained earlier, development is thought to happen largely because of scaffolded dialogue in a zone of proximal development. Such dialogue is by implication less like "disturbing" students' thinking than like "stretching" it beyond its former limits. The image of the teacher therefore is more one of collaborating with students' ideas rather than challenging their ideas or experiences. In practice, however, the actual behavior of teachers and students may be quite similar in both forms of constructivism. Any significant new learning requires setting aside, giving up, or revising former learning, and this step inevitably therefore "disturbs" thinking, if only in the short term and only in a relatively minor way.

Implications of constructivism for teaching

Whether you think of yourself as a psychological constructivist or a social constructivist, there are strategies for helping students help in develop their thinking—in fact the strategies constitute a major portion of this book, and are a major theme throughout the entire preservice teacher education programs. For now, look briefly at just two. One strategy that teachers often find helpful is to organize the content to be learned as systematically as possible, because doing this allows the teacher to select and devise learning activities that are better tailored to students' cognitive abilities, or that promote better dialogue, or both. One of the most widely used frameworks for organizing content, for example, is a classification scheme proposed by the educator Benjamin Bloom, published with the somewhat imposing title of *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: Handbook #1: Cognitive Domain* (Bloom, et

al., 1956; Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001). **Bloom's taxonomy**, as it is usually called, describes six kinds of learning goals that teachers can in principle expect from students, ranging from simple recall of knowledge to complex evaluation of knowledge. (The levels are defined briefly in Error: Reference source not found with examples from Goldilocks and the Three Bears.)

Bloom's taxonomy makes useful distinctions among possible kinds of knowledge needed by students, and therefore potentially helps in selecting activities that truly target students' *zones of proximal development* in the sense meant by Vygotsky. A student who knows few terms for the species studied in biology unit (a problem at Bloom's *knowledge* and *comprehension* levels), for example, may initially need support at remembering and defining the terms before he or she can make useful comparisons among species (Bloom's *analysis* level). Pinpointing the most appropriate learning activities to accomplish this objective remains the job of the teacher-expert (that's you), but the learning itself has to be accomplished by the student. Put in more social constructivist terms, the teacher arranges a zone of proximal development that allows the student to compare species successfully, but the student still has to construct or appropriate the comparisons for him or herself.

Table 1: Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives: cognitive domain

Category or type of thinking	Definition	Example
Knowledge	Remembering or recalling facts, information, or procedures	List three things Goldilocks did in the three bears' house.
Comprehension	Understanding facts, interpreting information	Explain why Goldilocks liked the little bear's chair the best.
Application	Using concepts in new situations, solving particular problems	Predict some of the things that Goldilocks might have used if she had entered your house.
Analysis	Distinguish parts of information, a concept, or a procedure	Select the part of the story where Goldilocks seemed most comfortable.
Synthesis	Combining elements or parts into a new object, idea, or procedure	Tell how the story would have been different if it had been about three fishes.
Evaluation	Assessing and judging the value or ideas, objects, or materials in a particular situation	Decide whether Goldilocks was a bad girl, and justify your position.

A second strategy may be coupled with the first. As students gain experience as students, they become able to think about how they *themselves* learn best, and you (as the teacher) can encourage such self-reflection as one of your goals for their learning. These changes allow you to transfer some of your responsibilities for *arranging* learning to the students themselves. For the biology student mentioned above, for example, you may be able not only to plan activities that support comparing species, but also to devise ways for the student to think about how he or she might learn the same information independently. The resulting self-assessment and self-direction of learning often goes by the name of **metacognition**—an ability to think about and regulate one's own thinking (Israel, 2005). Metacognition can sometimes be difficult for students to achieve, but it is an important goal for social constructivist learning because it gradually frees learners from dependence on expert teachers to guide their learning. Reflective learners, you might say, become their own expert guides. Like with using Bloom's taxonomy, though, promoting metacognition and self-directed learning is important enough that I will come back to it later in more detail (in the chapter on "Facilitating complex thinking").

By assigning a more active role to expert helpers—which by implication includes teachers—than does the psychological constructivism, social constructivism may be more complete as a description of what teachers usually do when actually busy in classrooms, and of what they usually hope students will experience there. As we will see in the next chapter, however, there are more uses for a theory than its description of moment-to-moment interactions between teacher and students. As explained there, some theories can be helpful for planning instruction rather than for doing it. It turns out that this is the case for psychological constructivism, which offers important ideas about the appropriate sequencing of learning and development. This fact makes the

psychological constructivism valuable in its own way, even though it (and a few other learning theories as well) may seem to omit mentioning teachers, parents, or experts in detail. So do not make up your mind about the relative merits of different learning theories yet!

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3.3: 19th Century

Educational Milestones of the 19th Century

LEARNING TARGETS

1. Students should be able to identify the Common School Period and its goals.

2. Students should be able to identify two of the major innovators of education in the 19th century.

INTRODUCTION

The 19th century encompassed many changes in America. One change in particular that influenced our education system was the beginning of the public school system. This movement made education available to the masses. Reformers and education innovators of the time worked tirelessly to make education public instead of private, free, and state maintained. In this article we will review the era of educational history known as the “common school movement, or the “common school period”. We will also discuss two of the major educational innovators that were integral in developing the first public schools, or common schools and their curriculum.

THE COMMON SCHOOL PERIOD

The years 1830 until 1872 are known as the “common school movement” or the “common school period.” During this period in history, great changes were made in public schooling in nearly every state of the union. The goals of the common school movement were to provide a free education for white children, to train and educate teachers, and to establish state control over public schools (Church, 1976). Prior to common schools, the closest thing to public schools were the schools that existed in some of the northern British colonies. They often only lasted for 10 -12 weeks per year, favored boys, and were not free. As a result, race, gender, and family wealth greatly influenced education (Stone, 2001). There were many arguments in defense of the common school. As the immigrant population grew in the northern states during this period, the common school was used to “Americanize” all foreigners (Payne). Yet another argument for common schools was from advocates like Horace Mann. Mann believed that a common education for all meant that society in general would be more productive and prosperous. He once wrote that education “can raise more abundant harvests, and multiply the conveniences of domestic life;…it can build, transport, manufacture, mine, navigate, fortify;…a single new idea is often worth more to an individual than a hundred workmen” (Church, 1976, p.66). A typical day in a common school would begin around 8:45 a.m. and last until 4 p.m. Usually breaks were taken for recess and for lunch. The children learned from textbooks such as *McGuffey Readers* and Webster’s *American Spelling Book*. A teacher might receive $25 a month as salary and would stay with families in the surrounding areas (Huntington, 2005).

TO VIEW A PICTURE OF A COMMON SCHOOL AND ITS STUDENTS GO TO:http://www.pbs.org/kcet/publicschool/photo_gallery/photo1.html

HORACE MANN

Horace Mann was born in Franklin, Massachusetts in 1796. His education began in a one-room schoolhouse and continued until he reached Brown University. He later studied law and found himself in the political arena. He was soon appointed to the newly formed Massachusetts State Board of Education in the position of Secretary. He served as Secretary from 1837 until 1848 (Sass, 2008). Mann became known as the “Father of the Common School” (Stone, 2001). He believed that education was a universal right for all. Everyone should have the opportunity to attend school no matter what their social class or income may be. Mann also advocated for a longer school year and the funding of schools to be the responsibility of the state instead of the individual. He helped establish laws for compulsory attendance and these laws were in every state by 1918 (Payne). Mann also advocated for a more trained and professional teacher. Training institutions called normal schools were established for teachers. The first public normal school was opened in 1839 (Church, 1976). Mann knew that the key to elevating the standard of learning was to elevate the standards in which the teachers were trained. He sought to make teaching a profession (Stone, 2001).

PROFESSOR WILLIAM HOLMES MCGUFFEY

One of the key problems for educational reformers during the 19th century, was the creation of a curriculum. A small publishing company called Truman and Smith played a vital role in the first textbooks for American children. Truman and Smith wanted to sell textbooks, but first they had to find someone to write these books. Their search ended with William McGuffey (Payne, The McGuffey Readers). McGuffey had already published his first reader in 1841 that introduced children to his ethical code. The book contained fifty-five lessons and the child modeled in this book was prompt, good, kind, honest and truthful (Payne, The McGuffey Readers). The child depicted in the McGuffey Readers was white and Protestant. The second reader appeared almost simultaneously with the first. It had eighty-five lessons, sixteen pictures, and one hundred sixty pages. There were lessons on a multitude of topics. Children learned about history, biology, and even table manners (Payne, The McGuffey Readers). The secular tone of the McGuffey Reader was unlike any of the other Puritan texts from that era (Sass, 2008). Reformers believed that the moral training of children occurred hand in hand with their academic training. The McGuffey Readers provided the necessary lessons in conjunction with a moral undertone. McGuffey Readers were called “eclectic readers” because they were written from a number of sources. They were considered remarkable literary works and had great influence (Payne). The McGuffey Readers have sold over 100 million copies since 1836 (Church, 1976).

TO SEE A PICTURE OF A MCGUFFEY READER GO TO:http://mcguffeyreaders.com/pics/1stmgreaderhb.jpg

“The following stanza is copied from page 61 of the edition of 1844 to illustrate the method of presenting words:
I like to see a lit-tle dog, And pat him on the head; So pret-ti-ly he wags his tail When-ev-er he is fed.”

CONCLUSION

The 19th century was a turning point in American education. The beginning of public schools, school reform and state funding were just a few of these changes. Innovators and reformers sought to make education available to the masses and not just to the wealthy and privileged. Innovators and reformers like Horace Mann and William Holmes McGuffey made it possible for common schools to establish themselves as the first public schools in the nation. This era and its innovators paved the way for our public school system as we know it today.

MULTIPLE CHOICE

1. What was the 19th century called in reference to educational reform?

a. The Old School Movement

b. The New School Movement

c. The Common School Movement

d. The High School Movement

2. Who was considered the “Father of the Common School”?

a. Horace Mann

b. William McGuffey

c. Thomas Jefferson

d. John Joseph Hughes

3. Who wrote one of the first textbooks or readers ever used in public schools?

a. George Washington

b. Thomas Jefferson

c. William McGuffey

d. Horace Mann

4. Education reformers such as Horace Mann wanted to make school_____.

a. fun, creative, and worthwhile

b. attainable, religious, and moral

c. free, public, and state maintained

d. expensive, private, and secular

5. One of the three goals of reformers who supported common schools was_____.

a. to get rich

b. to educate teachers

c. to be famous

d. to make school only for the elite

AnswerS

1. C, 2. A, 3. C, 4. C, 5. B

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3.4: Teacher Education

History of Teacher Education

by Rebeca Coleman

Learning Targets

Students should be able to understand the beginnings of teacher education, starting in the ancient times.

Students should understand the progression from few requirements to many requirements to teach.

Introduction

Teacher education has changed quite a bit over the last few hundred years. Teachers have gone from scholars to men and women in a schoolroom to trained educators from specific schools. Over time though, the gift of being able to teach stayed true in those teachers.

Before the Seventeenth Century

In earlier times, priests and prophets taught noble and wealthy children skills that were needed to excel in business and politics. Priests were treated well because of their great knowledge. The first private teacher was Confucius in the fifth century BCE. In Ancient Greece, knowledge was considered very sacred and the same ideology passed through the time of Christianity. Education was not very popular among lower classes of people until after the Middle Ages. The Roman Catholic Church took responsibility and created centers of learning, which eventually became the great universities of Europe, including Cambridge (John's 2003).

The Beginnings of Specific Training

> "Children are guilty of unpardonable rudeness when they spit in the face of a companion; neither are they excusable who spit from windows or on walls or furniture." St. John Baptist de la Salle (de la Salle, 1695)

Specific teacher training originated in France in 1685 by St. John Baptist de la Salle (Teacher 2007). The training spread through Europe through the monitorial system, which is the method of education where there are number of students at a bench, a monitor (older student) who is instructed by the teacher and then instructs the younger students, and then the teacher (Teacher 2007). It spread through Europe thanks to August Hermann Francke and Johann Pestalozzi. It came to the United States in the early 1800s through this system (Teacher 2007). Schools could be a student's room in a wealthy household or a one-room schoolhouse for poorer groups of children.

Teacher Education Moves to the United States

Teachers were predominantly male before the early 1800s. Men were taught to read and write from the early days of language, and women were not taught very widely until the nineteenth century. This made it very difficult for them to teach. If a person could read and write, that person was basically qualified to teach. Teachers were chosen based on their moral quality by the local government (John's 2003).

In the 1820s, teacher training became important in the universities and academies in the United States. Women could only be taught in teacher training academies, while men could be taught in universities (History 2007). Samuel Hall created the first private normal after-high school teaching school which taught teachers in 1823. The first government funded normal school was created in Massachusetts in 1837 (John's 2003). Henry Barnard and Horace Mann helped the spread of more normal teacher-education schools (Teacher 2007). More and more universities then began to take note and included teaching schools within them. By the end of the eighteenth century, there were 127 state-supported normal schools and a larger number of private normal schools (Angus 2001 p. 6).

Teachers were starting to be required to be certified in the late nineteenth century (Angus 2001 p. 4). Pennsylvania was the first state in 1834 to require tests to show general knowledge of arithmetic, writing, and reading (Ravitch 2003). And by the middle of the nineteenth century, most other states required this sort of testing. This was a huge development because before this testing came

about on the state level, teachers only had to prove themselves to the cities and counties and that usually rested upon a teacher's morality. By mid-century, the test also started to require history, spelling, grammar, and geography (Ravitch 2003).

Teaching Styles and Schools

There were two different types of teaching styles-eastern and western. Eastern normal schools mainly taught to young women with no prior teaching experience, and aimed at teaching them for elementary education. The western normal schools taught mainly older students, especially more men, and the teaching was aimed at getting young women better jobs and then young men better administrative jobs (Angus 2001). This difference in teaching led to a change from normal schools to teaching schools in the late 1800s. There also became more requirements to attend teaching schools.

The first two graduate schools in education were established at New York University (1887) and then Teachers College, Columbia University (1888), and since then graduate programs have increased exponentially (Teacher 2007). Graduate schools gave the idea to teachers to consider themselves as a profession, which became a very controversial idea in the twentieth century, and continues to remain one today.

The Twentieth Century

By the beginning of the twentieth century, there came about the idea to make teaching more of a profession, with specific standards for certification. At this point, every state had different standards. There also was dispute because, since the creation of graduate programs, teachers wanted to be considered a profession, just like law and medicine, but they were not considered such to the professional world. This was mostly because it was such a new idea for it to be a profession, and also there were no specific standards yet. So the American Council on Education established a National Teacher's Examination in the 1930s (Ravitch 2007). This was very controversial. There was a large setback with this test because of World War II. There was a teacher shortage, and school systems did not have the luxury of caring if a teacher was properly certified or not. After World War II, though, it became more received. The requirements for having the testing became more rigorous (Angus 2001 p. 21).

Arguments

Some people argue that teachers should better themselves and should learn the latest teaching research to stay on top of everything, much like in the medical field with new medical advancements (Ravitch 2007). People like this argue that teaching cannot become a viable profession until such measures are taken to learn from history and continue to learn from research. Some people question the competency of teacher's policy analysis (Martinez 2008).

My Beliefs

> "What is nobler than to mold the character of the young? I consider that he who knows how to form the youthful mind is truly greater than all painters, sculptors and all others of that sort." St. John Chrysostom (Chrysostom)

I believe that teaching is a profession in itself. I think it is important along with law and medicine in the professional field. Where would doctors and lawyers be without the teachers who taught them? I believe that teachers should educate themselves and keep up-to-date on current research and ideas. Technology is wonderful and should be integrated into classrooms, especially with younger generations now growing up entirely in a technologically advanced world.

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Questions

1. Who is considered the first private teacher?

(A) St. John Baptist de la Salle

(B) Samuel Hall

(C) David Angus

(D) Confucius

2. Where was the first graduate school for education established?

(A) Columbia University

(B) New York University

(C) Harvard University

(D) Carnegie Mellon University

3. What is a reason behind the monitorial system being effective?

(A) The teacher only had to teach a handful of students and could relax the rest of the time.

(B) The teacher did not have to try very hard.

(C) The teacher was able to teach older students and then help younger students understand as necessary.

(D) It was not effective.

4. What describes the western style of teacher education?

(A) Only male students, with the intent to get them into administrative positions.

(B) Only female students, with the intent to get them into administrative positions.

(C) Mostly older students, but the intent was to get young women into better teaching jobs and young men into administrative positions.

(D) Mostly younger students, but the intent was to get young women into better administrative positions and young men into better teaching positions.

Answers

1. D, 2. B, 3. C., 4. C

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3.5: Purpose

WHAT'S THE PURPOSE OF SCHOOL ANYWAY?

BY: Jennifer Scarce

LEARNING TARGETS Reader will recognize the social effects of school on a child's life.

Reader will recognize the intellectual effects of school on a child's life.

Reader will know when the first school came into existence.

BACKGROUND The first public school came into existence in the mid-nineteenth century. Its founders called it the "common" school. Common schools were funded by local property taxes, charged no tuition, open to all white children, governed by local school committees, and subject to a modest amount of state regulation(Tyack,2001). Students often went to the common school from ages six to fourteen, although this could vary widely. The duration of the school year was often dictated by the agricultural needs of particular communities, with children being off when they would be needed on the family farm(Katz, 1987). Typically, with a small amount of state oversight, each district was controlled by an elected local school board. Traditionally a county school superintendent or regional director was elected to supervise day-to-day activities of several common school districts. Since common schools were locally controlled, and the United States was very rural in the nineteenth century, most common schools were small one-room schools(Kaestle, 1983). Common schools had a single teacher (usually female) and all the students were taught together, regardless of age. Common schools typically taught reading, writing, arithmetic, history, geography, and math. Evaluation of students was very varied (from 0-100 grading to no grades at all), but an end-of-the-year recital was a common way that parents were informed about what their children were learning(Cremin,1980).

THE INTELLECTUAL IMPACT OF SCHOOL What's the purpose of school anyway? This is a question that every child asks at some point in their adolescent years. After all, what is appealing to a child about going to bed early, getting up early, and sitting in a desk for six and a half hours a day? Children don't understand how important going to school really is, but the importance of education is quite clear. Education is the knowledge of putting one's potentials to maximum use. Training of a human mind is not complete without education. It tells one how to think and how to make decisions. The importance of education is that only through the attainment of education, man is enabled to receive information from the external world to acquaint himself with past history and receive all necessary information regarding the present(Katz, 1987). Knowledge of education is built upon a foundation that begins with pre-school, where a lifetime of learning begins. It is vital to have a solid foundation of learning because each year new applications are taught and learning is like building blocks, you continually build on what you were initially given. If you miss a piece of information along the way, you will never be able to reach the top.

GOOD CITIZENSHIP Achieving a good education to further knowledge is not the only purpose of school. Today's schools really focus on teaching good citizenship and good character. I have substituted for the past year and a half and I have to share an example of being a witness of following through with this application. I recently substituted at an elementary school that encourages children to be honest and that no good deed goes unnoticed. To follow through with this concept, each morning during announcements the principle recognizes children for picking up paper towels in the restroom or turning in money found on the floor, even if it is just a penny. The children are so proud of themselves when they are acknowledged and this has really become an epidemic throughout the entire school.

SOCIAL SKILLS At a very young age children are taught to share and to be considerate of other people's feelings. They are also taught a great deal about emotions, behavior, and the consequences of their actions. Being able to interact socially and have healthy relationships is a very important part of life. While in the classroom children are constantly interacting with others and whether they are aware of it or not, they are learning to co-exist in a very diverse world. This socialization helps children build critical thinking skills and develop good communication skills. Schools also provide lots of extracurricular activities that incorporate teamwork, good sportsmanship, and exercise into participation. The elementary school ages are considered to be the fundamental grades and stages of development. With this in mind, it is important that children are taught positive behaviors and habits early in life. By teaching children positive behaviors at a young age, kids are more able to understand and engage in long-term attitudes and

actions that will guide them towards future success. To encourage students, and to teach all kids positive behaviors, elementary schools across the country have implemented positive behavior programs to improve student awareness, knowledge, and development(Wiggins, McTighe, 2008).

CONCLUSION Even before they enter school, young children learn to walk, to talk, and to use their hands to manipulate toys, food, and other objects. They use all of their senses to learn about the sights, sounds, tastes, and smells in their environments. They learn how to interact with their parents, siblings, friends, and other people important to their world. When they enter school, children learn basic academic subjects such as reading, writing, and mathematics. They also continue to learn a great deal outside the classroom. They learn which behaviors are likely to be rewarded and which are likely to be punished. They learn social skills for interacting with other children. After they finish school, people must learn to adapt to the many major changes that affect their lives, such as getting married, raising children, and finding and keeping a job. Because learning continues throughout our lives and affects almost everything we do, the study of learning is important in many different fields. Teachers need to understand the best ways to educate children. Psychologists, social workers, criminologists, and other human-service workers need to understand how certain experiences change people's behaviors. Employers, politicians, and advertisers make use of the principles of learning to influence the behavior of workers, voters, and consumers. The purpose of school is to provide a quality education so that all students have an equal opportunity to develop their full potential(Wiggins, McTighe, 2008).

QUESTIONS

1. What are three purposes for going to school?

A. Socialization, knowledge, and good citizenship skills **B.** Playing games, learning, and meeting new people **C.** Watching movies, taking tests, and sports **D.** Friends, parties, and meeting new people

2. One day Suzie went to school and found a dollar on the play ground. When she turns in the money to the teacher, what is she demonstrating?

A. Communication **B.** Good citizenship **C.** Trust **D.** Courage

3. When did the first public school come into existence?

A. The mid-nineteenth century **B.** The mid-sixteenth century **C.** The mid-eighteenth century **D.** The seventeenth century

4. What is the name of the first public school that came into existence in the mid-nineteenth century?

A. The Schoolhouse **B.** The "Common" School **C.** The First School **D.** The Best School

AnswerS A,B,A,B

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3.6: Cooperation

Cooperative Learning and the Social Nature of Learning

Overview

Learning Targets – Upon completion, the reader should understand the following:

- The definition of cooperative learning and how it differs from other styles of learning.
- Effective application of cooperative learning in today's classroom, such as Jigsaw and Round Robin style learning.
- Advantages to cooperative learning.
- Possible challenges with cooperative learning, such as social anxiety, and possible methods to overcome them.

Our comprehension of our vast universe grows each day. With every new discovery and information gathered from researchers across the globe, we continue to come closer and closer to our understanding of the universe we live in. Not long ago, we believed that the world was flat; however, today we have access to real time pictures taken from satellites orbiting our world to prove its true form. What we teach our children today may be far advanced from what we learned as children ourselves. New discoveries may lead to future generations treating the knowledge of today as obsolete and outdated.

Perhaps equally as important to what we teach our students is also how we teach them to learn the material. As we grow in our understanding of how the human brain operates, we must also use this understanding to help us learn more efficiently. One of the more widely accepted methods of learning that is being applied in today's classroom is that of cooperative learning. This method differs in many ways to that of traditional lecture methods of learning. In this article, we will explore the many ways to effectively apply cooperative learning, the advantages, and the possible challenges of this method.

What Is Cooperative Learning?

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The traditional classroom often consists of classes in which children of similar ability levels are taught together. Nearly all classrooms in the United States are taught by grade level specific to the age of the student rather than his or her ability. Many schools also group students according to their apparent ability levels, but this risks becoming a self-fulfilling prophecy for each respective group. By placing students into group in this way, we run the risk of those placed in low-level learning groups perceiving themselves as unintelligent or slow-witted. Grouping students together with varying levels of ability and backgrounds can help eliminate this threat. A very popular method of learning in this way is called cooperative learning.

Cooperative learning is the collaboration on a task by a small group of students who resolve differences of opinion, share responsibility, consider one another's ideas, and work toward common goals. (Berk, 2008)

Cooperative learning is defined as "the collaboration on a task by a small group of students who resolve differences of opinion, share responsibility, consider one another's ideas, and work toward common goals." (Berk, 2008) Unlike traditional methods, cooperative learning lets students enhance the weaknesses of their peers with their own strengths. Students feel a part of a team rather than isolated and students deemed as having low-ability can benefit from those considered higher. In a symbiotic relation, higher level students also tend to do better by teaching the learned material to their peers.

According to Robert E. Slavin of Johns Hopkins University, there are four major perspectives on cooperative learning, which are motivational, social cohesion, cognitive development, and cognitive elaboration (Slavin, 1995). The **motivational perspective** focuses on the reward for the group in achieving their objective, and that the only way for the group to achieve this goal is to learn how to work together. The theory that students want each other to succeed is more in keeping with the **social cohesion perspective**, but is similar to the motivational perspective in that the members of the group are motivated to succeed, but instead of goal oriented, it is more motivated by compassion.

Four major perspectives on cooperative learning:motivational – group focused on common goal
social cohesion – group wants each other to succeed
cognitive development – the human brain simply learns better in a group environment
cognitive elaboration – the best way to

The **cognitive development** perspective takes a very different approach to cooperative learning in that it contends that the interaction of students with their peers stimulates the mind and increases the ability to learn. Unlike being motivated by a common goal or by compassion for their peers, those who follow the cognitive development perspective feel that the human brain simply learns better in a group environment than on its own.

A variation of this is the fourth theory of **cognitive elaboration**, which contends that the best way to enhance the knowledge already present in the brain is to in turn explain it to ones peers. This slightly differs from cognitive development perspective in that the members of the group must already have some knowledge of the material before entering the group.

What are some Cooperative Learning examples?

For almost a quarter of a century, Dr. Spenser Kagan has been developing teaching structures of learning based on cooperative learning, called Kagan Structures, to help in the classroom as well the business world. (Kagan, 2008)



One of Kagan's most widely used method of cooperative learning is that of **RoundRobin**, purposely spelled as one word to differentiate the term from the standard definition of round robins, a type of athletic tourneyment. In a RoundRobin group, each learner takes a turn orally presenting the material that they have learned, helping them to better organize their thoughts on the material. Kagan says that labeling methods of cooperative learning like RoundRobin are beneficial to the student because "students know exactly what to do" when instructed to use a specified method. According to Kagan, this is also helpful to instructors in that it helps facilitate communication among peers in learning from each other how to teach.

Examples of Cooperative Learning: RoundRobin (Kagan) – the group takes turns orally presenting the material.
Jigsaw (Aronson) – learners are split up into groups, assigned portions of the material to learn, meet with learners from other groups assigned the same portion, and then return to their groups to teach the material they have learned.

Another method that is fast becoming a popular form of cooperative classroom learning is that of the **Jigsaw** method. Elliot Aronson, Professor Emeritus at the University of California in Santa Cruz, first implemented his Jigsaw method in 1971 initially as a way to deal with the sudden desegregation of schools in Austin, Texas. By placing students into groups with various social and ethnic differences each with the same goal to succeed, the hostility became muted as the students were forced to work together to achieve success.

The Jigsaw method gets its name because each student is a vital piece of the overall puzzle that is the learning task. Students are first divided into groups and assigned various portions of the material to become an expert on. Then, each student meets with students from other group assigned to the same portion of the material and discuss what they have learned. This allows for the

student to share what he or she learned on their own while also hearing other students perspectives. Eventually, these students return to their original groups and in turn teaches the members of their group the material that they learned.

Advantages and Possible Challenges of Cooperative Learning

As mentioned earlier, there are many advantages to cooperative learning supported by empirical evidence. Students who participate in cooperative learning programs have outperformed students in traditional learning programs at the elementary, secondary, and collage levels, as cited in Boling and Robinson's article on how cooperative learning is used in lecture-based distance learning. According to the journal article, students have been shown to increase social skills, perceptions of their own ability, and the relevance of the material they are learning (Boling 1999).

Although cooperative learning can be highly effective, there are also some possible challenges in this style. One of the major criticisms of cooperative learning is that it tends to hold back the learning potential of those students who are naturally gifted. Oftentimes, students who are prone to social anxiety and prefer to work alone may suffer a negative effect of cooperative learning. Instructors must understand that cooperative learning is not for everyone and must compliment or supplement some material to students who thrive in a less socially active environment.

Conclusion

In conclusion, cooperative learning is a very different style of learning than how traditional school systems have taught student. There are a number of theories behind why this method tends to be effective; however, there are still a number of unknown variables out there that make cooperative learning hardly the absolute best way to present material. Still, learning methods like Kagan's RoundRobin and Aronson's Jigsaw techniques have proven to be very helpful and have empirical evidence that supports the increase in participants learning ability.

Quiz Time!!!

Think you have the gist of it? Let's put your reading comprehension (and my communication skills) to the test….literally! Please take a moment to run through these 8 multiple choice questions and then compare your answers to the correct ones at the bottom. Good luck and thanks for playing!

Question 1: What is **cooperative learning**?

A) Collaboration on a task by a small group of students who resolve differences of opinion, share responsibility, consider one another's ideas, and work toward common goals.

B) A type of social interaction in which children orient toward a common goal, such as act out a make believe theme or working on a project together.

C) A style of learning that incorporates small groups of like minded students with similar backgrounds and learning styles in order to enhance their learning potential.

D) A small, diverse group of students goofing off on a project that they were supposed to turn in last week.

Question 2: Which of the following would be the best example of effective **cooperative learning**?

A) A group of students with similar interests in books forming a reading club to discuss their favorite books, and voting on which will be their club's official favorite each week.

B) A small group of students of different cultural backgrounds sharing their favorite foods from their native land with each other.

C) A large, diverse group of students assigned to each write a two page paper on their political party leanings, to be turned in and graded by the instructor.

D) A small group of students with differing political views tasked with a presentation comparing and contrasting where both Presidential Candidates in this year's election stand on issues related to education.

Question 3: Which of the following is <u>not</u> one of the four major theoretical perspectives of cooperative learning, according to Slavin?

A) Learners are motivated by a common goal and must work together to achieve this goal.

B) Learners want their peers to succeed and are fueled by compassion to help them learn.

C) Learners learn better when they have to repeat or teach the material that they have learned to their peers.

D) Learners have a higher ability to retain knowledge if they are seen as the leader of a cooperative learning group and assert themselves as such.

Question 4: Which of the following could one not use the Jigsaw or Round Robin techniques of learning?

A) A team of lawyers must find a precedent for their client's situation and convince the judge and jury to issue a verdict of "not guilty" in light of this information.

B) Students of an economics class must find a newspaper article that relates to their current lesson and present it to the class.

C) A basketball team faces their rival in the upcoming championship game and they must develop new plays to overcome their opponents notorious offense.

D) All of the above can take advantage of either Jigsaw or Round Robin techniques.

Answers to the Quiz!!!

Ok, let's see how we did…..

1) – A) According to Berk, the definition of cooperative learning is "collaboration on a task by a small group of students who resolve differences of opinion, share responsibility, consider one another's ideas, and work toward common goals." (Berk 470)

2) – D) The group with the Candidate comparison would be the best choice in that the students are given a task, must resolve differences of opinion, and work toward the common goal of the presentation.

3) – D) A cooperative learner taking charge as the leader sometimes can have an adverse effect on the rest of the group and is not one of the four perspectives mentioned by Slavin. The other three responses are motivational, social cohesion, and cognitive elaboration perspective.

4) – D) Jigsaw and Round Robin techniques are not exclusive to the classroom and can be used in a variety of circumstances, such as preparing for a legal case, an upcoming championship basketball game, or reading a newspaper article.

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3.7: Intelligence

How Are ALL Children Smart?: Theories of Multiple Intelligences and Emotional Intelligence

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Learning Targets:

After reviewing this article, students will be able to:

- recognize and define Gardner's ten intelligences
- distinguish traditional views of intelligence (e.g., IQ) from Multiple Intelligences and Emotional Intelligence
- identify which kind of learning is best for them (e.g., visul, kinesthetic, etc.)

What is intelligence?

The traditional view of intelligence has always been that people are born with a fixed amount of intelligence in which that level does not change over a lifetime (Hampton, 2008). Under the traditional view of intelligence, intelligence consists of two abilities—logic and language. Short answer tests, such as the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test and the Scholastic Aptitude Test, are common ways of measuring intelligence.

However, in the past twenty years or so, a more modern view of intelligence has begun to replace existing traditional views. Extensive research has shown that it is, indeed, possible to have more than one intelligence and that the level of intelligence can change over a lifetime. This theory of intelligence is called Multiple Intelligences as created by Howard Gardner, Ph.D., a psychologist and professor of neuroscience from Harvard University.

According to Gardner, "Intelligence is the ability to respond successfully to new situations and the capacity to learn from one's past experiences" (Hampton, 2008). Gardner believes that, "we all possess at least [seven] unique intelligences through which we are able to learn and teach new information" (Hampton, 2008). He believes that "we can all improve each of the intelligences, though some people will improve more readily in one intelligence area than the others" (Hampton, 2008).

Gardner does not believe in short-answer tests to measure intelligence because "short answer tests do not measure disciplinary mastery or deep understanding, rather they measure root memorization skills and only one's ability to do well on short-answer tests" (Hampton, 2008). Assessments that value the process over the final answer, such as the Performance Assessment in Math (PAM) and the Performance Assessment in Language (PAL), are more accurate measures of intelligence in Gardner's theory than short-answer tests.

Introduction to Multiple Intelligences

In 1983 Howard Gardner proposed his theory of multiple intelligences in the book Frames of the Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences. In his book, Gardner proposes that there are seven possible intelligences—linguistic intelligence, logical-mathematical intelligence, musical intelligence, bodily-kinesthetic intelligence, visual-spatial intelligence, interpersonal intelligence, and intrapersonal intelligence. Gardner would go on to add three more intelligences to his list—naturalist intelligence, spiritual intelligence, and existential intelligence—in his later book Intelligence Reframed: Multiple Intelligence for the 21st Century (1999).

According to the *Educational Researcher*, to arrive at Gardner's first seven intelligences Gardner and his colleagues examined literature on the "development of cognitive capacities in normal individuals, the breakdown of cognitive capacities under various kinds of organic pathology, and the existence of abilities in 'special populations,' such as prodigies, autistic individuals, idiots savants, and learning disabled children" (Gardner & Hatch, 1989).

Gardner and his colleagues also examined literature on "forms of intellect that exist in different species, forms of intellect valued in different cultures, the evolution of cognition across the millennia, as well as two forms of psychological evidence—the results of factor-analytic studies of human cognitive capacities and the outcome of studies of transfer and generalization" (Gardner & Hatch, 1989).

Intelligences that appeared repeatedly in Gardner's research were added to a provisional list, whilst intelligences only appearing once or twice were discarded. Gardner claimed that, "as a species, human beings have evolved over the millennia to carry out at least these seven forms of thinking" on his provisional list (Gardner & Hatch, 1989).

Multiple Intelligences Defined

GARDNER'S THEORY OF MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES

Linguistic Intelligence

Linguistic intelligence is the ability to learn languages and use language to express what is on one's mind and to understand people. Those who have high linguistic intelligence are well-developed in verbal skills and have sensitivity to sounds, meanings and rhythms of words (Hampton, 2008). These kinds of people enjoy reading various kinds of literature, playing word games, making up poetry and stories, and getting into involved discussions with other people (Hampton, 2008).

Examples of people with high linguistic ability include poets, writers, public speakers, TV and radio newscasters, and journalists.

Logical-Mathematical intelligence is the ability to detect patterns, reason deductively, and think logically. Those who are "math smart" have the capacity to analyze problems logically, carry out mathematical operations, and investigate scientifically (Smith, 2008). Those with high Logical-Mathematical intelligence are highly capable of thinking conceptually and abstractly (Hampton, 2008). This kind of intelligence is often associated with scientific and mathematical thinking (Hampton, 2008).

Careers that "math smart" people tend to be employed in include computer technicians and programmers, accountants, poll takers, medical professionals, and math teachers (Smith, 2008).

Musical Intelligence is "the capacity to think in music, to be able to hear patterns, recognize them, and manipulate them" (Hampton, 2008). Those who are musically intelligent learn through sounds, rhythms, tones, beats, music produced by other people or present in the environment," according to Gardner (Hampton, 2008). Musically intelligent people also have the ability to perform, compose, and appreciate music and music patterns (Smith, 2008).

Jobs in which musical intelligence is a desired aptitude include advertising, music studio directors and recorders, singers and songwriters, conductors, and music teachers (Hampton, 2008).

Bodily-Kinesthetic intelligence is defined as "having the potential of using one's whole body or parts of the body to solve problems" (Smith, 2008). Those with high kinesthetic intelligence communicate well through body language and like to be taught through physical activity, hands-on learning, acting out, and role playing (Lane, n.d.). These kinds of people have a keen sense of body awareness and have the ability to use mental abilities to coordinate bodily movements (Smith, 2008).

Gymnasts, physical therapists, mechanics, athletes, builders, dancers, doctors, surgeons, nurses, and crafts persons tend to be highly kinesthetic.

Spatial intelligence "involves the potential to recognize and use patterns of wide space and more confined areas," according to Gardner (Smith, 2008). As well as, "the ability to manipulate and mentally rotate objects," adds Gardner (Thompson, 1999). Graphic artists, architects, and mapmakers tend to be highly spatially intelligent. These people are very aware of their environments.

Interpersonal intelligence is the capacity to understand the intentions, motivations, and desires of other people (Smith, 2008). These kinds of people are "people smart" and work well with others. Examples of people with high interpersonal intelligence include educators, salespeople, and religious and political leaders. Interpersonally intelligent people learn through personal interactions.

"[People with high interpersonal intelligence] probably have a lot of friends, show a great deal of empathy for other people, and exhibit a deep understanding of other people's viewpoints," according to *MI Indentified* (Hampton, 2008).

"**Intrapersonal intelligence** is the capacity to understand oneself, to appreciate one's feelings, fears and motivations," according to Gardner. "It involves have an effective working model of ourselves, and to be able to use such information to regulate our lives" according to *The Encyclopedia of Informal Education* (Smith, 2008). People who possess high intrapersonal intelligence are "self

smart." These people know who they are, what they are capable of doing, how to react to things, what to avoid, and what they gravitate to (Hampton, 2008).

Psychologists, philosophers, social workers, and counselors are all examples of "self smart" careers.

Naturalist intelligence is defined as the ability to recognize and categorize plants, animals and other objects in nature (Hampton, 2008). Those with high naturalist intelligence include gardeners, biologists, birdwatchers, florists, horticulturists and more.

According to *EdWeb*, "People who are sensitive to changes in weather patterns or are adept at distinguishing nuances between large numbers of similar objects may be expressing naturalist intelligence abilities" (Carvin, n.d.). Naturalist intelligence is the intelligence that presumably helped our ancestors survive—"to decide what to eat and what to run from" (Holmes, 2002).

Existential Intelligence is defined as the ability to be sensitive to, or having the capacity for, conceptualizing or tackling deeper or larger questions about human existence, such as what is the meaning of life? Why are we born? And why do we die (Wilson, 2005)? Existential intelligence is often called the "wondering smart" or the metaphysical intelligence.

The clearest definition of existential intelligence defined by Gardner is: "individuals who exhibit the proclivity to pose and ponder questions about life, death, and ultimate realities" (Wilson, 2005). However, Gardner has not fully committed himself to this ninth intelligence despite his book Intelligence Reframed: Multiple Intelligence for the 21st Century in which he first mentions the possible existence of a ninth intelligence.

Spiritual Intelligence according to Dr. Cynthia Davis, clinical and corporate psychologist and emotional intelligence business coach, "is the ultimate intelligence in which we address and solve problems of meaning and value, in which we can place our actions and our lives in a wider, richer, meaning-giving context, and the intelligence with which we can assess that one course of action or one life path is more meaningful than another" (Mindwise Pty Ltd, 2004) .

"Spiritual intelligence is the intelligence that which makes us whole, integral and transformative," according to Danah Zohar, author of Spiritual Capital: Wealth We Can Live By (Spiritual Intelligence and Spirtual Health, 2008). Spiritual intelligence is not necessarily religious nor is it dependent upon religion as a foundation (Mindwise Pty Ltd, 2004). Characteristics of spiritual intelligence include the capacity to face and use suffering, the capacity to face and transcend pain, the capacity to be flexible, actively and spontaneously adaptive, and high self-awareness (Mindwise Pty Ltd, 2004).

Conclusion to Multiple Intelligences

> "The single most important contribution education can make to a child's development is to help him towards a field where his talents best suit him, where he will be satisfied and competent."
> -Howard Gardner

Since the publication of Gardner's Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences, Gardner's theory has been put into practice in schools all over the world. Gardner's theory teaches that teachers should not teach the same material to the entire class rather individualize instruction by identifying students' strengths and weaknesses.

One way of identifying students' strengths and weaknesses is to offer a multiple intelligence assessment. Multiple Intelligence assessments typically ask students/test takers to rank statements from 1-5 indicating how well that statement describes them ("5" being the statement describes you exactly, and "1" being the statement does not describe you at all). Statements might look like the ones below from Dr. Terry Armstrong's online assessment of strengths (Armstrong, n.d.):

- I pride myself on having a large vocabulary.
- Using numbers and numerical symbols is easy for me.
- Music is very important to me in my daily life.
- I always know where I am in relation to my home.
- I consider myself an athlete.
- I feel like people of all ages like me.
- I often look for weaknesses in myself that I see in others.

- The world of plants and animals is important to me.

Teachers can use assessments like Armstrong's to take an inventory of learner's skills so that they can tailor their teaching methods to their learner's strengths.

Introduction to Emotional Intelligence

Emotion can be any number of things. It can be anger, sadness, fear, enjoyment, love, surprise, disgust, or shame (Goleman, 2005, p. 289). Author of Emotional Intelligence, Daniel Goleman, suggests that emotion refers to a "feeling and its distinctive thoughts, psychological and biological states, and range of propensities to act" (Goleman, 2005, p. 289). But, the most fascinating part about emotions is that they are universal. People from cultures around the world all recognize the same basic emotions, even peoples presumably untainted by exposure to cinema or television (Goleman, 2005, p. 290).

There are two basic definitions of emotional intelligence. One is the Mayer-Salovey definition and the other, the Goleman definition. There are numerous other definitions of emotional intelligence floating about, especially on the net. However, none are as academically or scientifically accepted as Goleman's and Mayer and Salovey's.

Emotional Intelligence Defined

Mayer-Salovey Definition

The first two people to suggest that emotional intelligence is a true form of intelligence were Jack Mayer and Peter Salovey. Mayer and Salovey are leading researchers in the field of emotional intelligence. They first published their findings in a 1990 seminal article where they defining emotional intelligence as "the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and other's feelings and emotions," as well as, "the ability to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (Hein, 2007). Mayer and Salovey further described emotional intelligence as, "a set of skills hypothesized to contribute to the accurate appraisal and expression of emotion in oneself and in others, the effective regulation of emotion in self and others, and the use of feelings to motivate, plan, and achieve in one's life" (Hein, 2007).

Along with their definition of emotional intelligence, Mayer and Salovey proposed that there were four branches of emotional intelligence. Here is a compiled list of details from Mayer and Salovey's 1990 and 1997 articles on the four branches of emotional intelligence:

1. Perception Appraisal and Expression of Emotion

- Ability to identify emotions in faces, music, and stories (1990)
- Ability to identify emotion in one's physical states, feelings, and thoughts (1997)
- Ability to identify emotions in other people, designs, artwork, etc. through language, sound, appearance, and behavior (1997)
- Ability to discriminate between accurate and inaccurate, or honest vs. dishonest expressions of feeling (1997)

2. Emotional Facilitation of Thinking

- Ability to relate emotions to other mental sensations such as taste and color (1990)
- Ability to use emotion in reasoning and problem solving (1990)
- Emotions prioritize thinking by directing attention to important information (1997)
- Emotions are sufficiently vivid and available that they can be generated as aids to judgement and memory concerning feelings (1997)
- Emotional states differentially encourage specific problem-solving approaches such as when happiness facilitates inductive reasoning and creativity (1997)

3. Understanding and Analyzing Emotions; Employing Emotional Knowledge

- Ability to solve emotional problems such as knowing which emotions are similar, or opposites, and what relations that convey (1990)

- Ability to label emotions and recognize relations among the words and the emotions themselves, such as the relation between liking and loving (1997)
- Ability to interpret the meanings that emotions convey regarding relationships, such as that sadness often accompanies a loss (1997)
- Ability to understand complex feelings: simultaneous feelings of love and hate or blends such as awe as a combination of fear and surprise (1997)
- Ability to recognize likely transitions among emotions, such as the transition from anger to satisfaction or from anger to shame (1997)

4. Reflective Regulation of Emotions to Promote Emotional and Intellectual Growth

- Ability to understand the implications of social acts on emotions and the regulation of emotion in self and others (1990)
- Ability to stay open to feelings, both those that are pleasant and those that are unpleasant (1997)
- Ability to reflectively engage or detach from an emotion depending upon its judged informativeness or utility (1997)
- Ability to reflectively monitor emotions in relation to oneself and others, such as recognizing how clear, typical, influential or reasonable they are (1997)

- Ability to manage emotion in oneself and others by moderating negative emotions and enhancing pleasant ones, without repressing or exaggerating information they may convey (1997)

The Self Science Curriculumfrom Self Science: The Subject is Me by Karen F. Stone (Goleman, 2005, p. 305)
Main Components
Self-awareness:
obeserving yourself and recognizing your feelings; building a vocabulary for feelings; knowing the relationship between thoughts, feelings, and reactions
Personal Decision-making:
examining your actions and knowing their consequences; knowing if thought or feeling is ruling a decision; applying these insights to issues such a sex and drugs
Managing Feelings:
monitoring "self-talk" to catch negative messages such as internal put-downs; realizing what is behind a feeling (e.g., the hurt that underlies anger); finding ways to handle fears and anxieties, anger and sadness
Handling Stress:
learning the value of exercise, guided imagery, relaxation methods
Empathy:
understandign other peoples' feelings and concerns and taking their perspective; appreciating the differences in how people feel about things
Communications:
talking about feelings effectively; becoming a good listener and question-asker; distinguishing between what someone does or says and your own reactions or judgements about it; sending "I" messages instead of blame
Self-disclosure:
valuing openness and developing trust in a relationship; knowing when it is safe to risk talking about your private feelings
Insight:
identifing patterns in your emotional life and reactions; recognizing similar patterns in others
Self-acceptance:
feeling pride and seeing yourself in a positive light; recognizing your strengths and weaknesses; being able to laugh at yourself
Personal Responsibility:
taking responsibility; recognizing the consequences of your decisions and actions, accepting your feelings and moods, following through on commitments (e.g., studying)
Assertiveness:
stating your concerns and feelings without anger or passivity
Group dynamics:
cooperation; knowing when and how to lead, when to follow
Conflict resolution:
how to fight fair with other kids, with parents, with teachers; the win/win model for negotiating compromise

Goleman Defintion

Daniel Goleman, Ph.D., is another important figure in the field of emotional intelligence. Goleman is the successful author of New York Times bestsellers, Emotional Intelligence and Social Intelligence, as well as an internationally known psychologist. Goleman is currently working as a science journalist and frequently lectures to professional groups, business audiences, and on college campuses (Bio, 2009). Goleman is one of the foremost experts in emotional intelligence. In his book, Emotional Intelligence, Goleman defines emotional intelligence as, "a set of skills, including control of one's impulses, self-motivation, empathy and social competence in interpersonal relationships" (Goleman, 2005).

Goleman, like Mayer and Salovey, divided emotional intelligence into key components; three that pertained to oneself and two that pertained to how one relates to others (Gergen, 1999). Goleman's five key components of emotional intelligence are: Emotional self-awareness, managing emotions, motivating oneself, recognizing emotions in others, and handling relationships. Goleman, for the most part, agrees with Mayer and Salovey. However, in recent years, Goleman has favored a four component system as opposed to his original five components in 1995.

Five Key Components (Goleman, 2005, p. 43-44):

1. *Knowing one's emotions*

- Self-awareness—recognizing a feeling *as it happens*—is the keystone of emotional intelligence
- The ability to monitor feelings from moment to moment is crucial to psychological insight and self-understanding
- People who know their emotions have a surer sense of how they really feel about personal decisions from whom to marry to what job to take

2. *Managing emotions*

- Handling feelings so they are appropriate is an ability that builds on self-awareness
- People who are poor in this ability are constantly battling feelings of distress, while those who excel in it can bounce back far more quickly from life's setbacks and upsets

3. *Motivating oneself*

- Marshalling emotions in the service of a goal is essential for paying attention, for self-motivation and mastery, and for creativity
- People who have this skill tend to be more highly productive and effective in whatever they undertake

4. *Recognizing emotions in others*

- Empathy is the fundamental people skill
- People who are empathetic are more attuned to the subtle social signals that indicate what others need or want; this makes them better at callings such as caring professions, teaching, sales, and management

5. *Handling relationships*

- Skill in managing emotions in others
- These are the abilities that undergird popularity, leadership, and interpersonal effectiveness
- People who excel in these skills do well at anything that relies on interacting smoothly with others

Conclusion to Emotional Intelligence

In 1998, Goleman developed a set of guidelines for *The Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations* that could be applied in the workplace and in schools. This set of guidelines is divided into four parts: preparation, training, transfer and maintenance, and evaluation. Each phase is equally as important as the last.

Some of the first guidelines pertain to assessment. Teachers should assess the class and individuals and inform them of their strengths and weaknesses. In delivering the assessment the teacher should try to be accurate and clear. They should also allow plenty of time for the student to digest and integrate the information (Cherniss, 1998). The teacher should provide feedback in a safe and supportive environment and avoid making excuses or downplaying the seriousness of the deficiencies (Cherniss, 1998).

Other guidelines include: maximizing learner choice, encouraging people to participate, linking learning goals to personal values, adjusting expectations, and gauging readiness (Cherniss, 1998). Teachers should foster a positive relationship between their students and themselves. They should make change self-directed; tailoring a learning program that meets individual needs and circumstances.

Teachers should also set clear goals and make the steps towards those goals manageable, and not too overly ambitious (Cherniss, 1998). Teachers should provide opportunities to practice the new behaviors they have learned. Then, teachers should provide periodic feedback on the learners' progress (Cherniss, 1998).

Teachers should rely on experiential methods of learning, such as activities that engage all the senses and that are dramatic and powerful, to aid learners in developing social and emotional competencies (Cherniss, 1998). Eventually, learners will develop a greater self-awareness. They should be able to understand how their thoughts, feelings, and behavior affect themselves and others at this point (Cherniss, 1998).

Multiple-Choice Questions

1. Who is author of the theory of multiple intelligences?

(a) Daniel Goleman

(b) Howard Gardner

(c) Mayer and Salovey

(d) Reuven Bar-On

2. Mary loves reading, writing, and telling stories. Her favorite course in school is Language arts. What kind of learning would be best for Mary?

(a) Interpersonal

(b) Kinesthetic

(c) Linguistic

(d) Spatial

3. According to Mayer and Salovey, emotional facilitation of thinking is the ability to_____.

(a) Label emotions and recognize relations among the words and the emotions themselves, such as the relation between liking and loving

(b) Relate emotions to other mental sensations such as taste and color

(c) Use emotion in reasoning and problem solving

(d) Both B and C

4. Mr. Conway likes to incorporate lots of hands-on activities into his curriculum. His often asks his students to role-play in class projects. What type of learner is Mr. Conway?

(a) Interpersonal

(b) Intrapersonal

(c) Kinesthetic

(d) Spatial

5. What might be a traditional view of intelligence?

(a) Intelligence is fixed at birth

(b) Standardized tests such as the Stanford-Binet tests accurately measure intelligence

(c) There is only one way to measure intelligence

(d) All of the above

AnswerS: 1.B 2.C 3.D 4.C 5.D

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3.8: Teaching Is Different From In the Past

In the past decade or two teaching has changed significantly, so much in fact that schools may not be what some of us remember from our own childhood. Changes have affected both the opportunities and the challenges of teaching, as well as the attitudes, knowledge, and skills needed to prepare for a teaching career. The changes have influenced much of the content of this book.

To see what we mean, look briefly at four new trends in education, at how they have changed what teachers do, and at how you will therefore need to prepare to teach:

- **increased diversity:** there are more differences among students than there used to be. Diversity has made teaching more fulfilling as a career, but also made more challenging in certain respects.
- **increased instructional technology:** classrooms, schools, and students use computers more often today than in the past for research, writing, communicating, and keeping records. Technology has created new ways for students to learn (for example, this textbook would not be possible without Internet technology!). It has also altered how teachers can teach most effectively, and even raised issues about what constitutes "true" teaching and learning.
- **greater accountability in education:** both the public and educators themselves pay more attention than in the past to how to assess (or provide evidence for) learning and good quality teaching. The attention has increased the importance of education to the public (a good thing) and improved education for some students. But it has also created new constraints on what teachers teach and what students learn.
- **increased professionalism of teachers:** Now more than ever, teachers are able to assess the quality of their own work as well as that of colleagues, and to take steps to improve it when necessary. Professionalism improves teaching, but by creating higher standards of practice it also creates greater worries about whether particular teachers and schools are "good enough."

How do these changes show up in the daily life of classrooms? The answer depends partly on where you teach; circumstances differ among schools, cities, and even whole societies. Some clues about the effects of the trends on classroom life can be found, however, by considering one particular case—the changes happening in North America.

New trend #1: diversity in students

Students have, of course, always been diverse. Whether in the past or in the present day, students learn at unique paces, show unique personalities, and learn in their own ways. In recent decades, though, the forms and extent of diversity have increased. Now more than ever, teachers are likely to serve students from diverse language backgrounds, to serve more individuals with special educational needs, and to teach students either younger and older than in the past.

Language diversity

Take the case of language diversity. In the United States, about 40 million people, or 14 per cent of the population are Hispanic. About 20 per cent of these speak primarily Spanish, and approximately another 50 per cent speak only limited English (United States Census Bureau, 2005). The educators responsible for the children in this group need to accommodate instruction to these students somehow. Part of the solution, of course, is to arrange specialized second-language teachers and classes. But adjustment must also happen in "regular" classrooms of various grade levels and subjects. Classroom teachers must learn to communicate with students whose English language background is limited, at the same time that the students themselves are learning to use English more fluently (Pitt, 2005). Since relatively few teachers are Hispanic or speak fluent Spanish, the adjustments can sometimes be a challenge. Teachers must plan lessons and tasks that students actually understand. At the same time teachers must also keep track of the major learning goals of the curriculum. As you gain experience teaching, you will no doubt find additional strategies and resources (Gebhard, 2006), especially if second-language learners become an important part of your classes.

Diversity of special educational needs

Another factor making classroom increasingly diverse has been the inclusion of students with disabilities into classrooms with non-disabled peers. In the United States the trend began in the 1970s, but accelerated with the passage of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act in 1975, and again when the Act was amended in 2004 (United States Government Printing Office, 2005). In Canada similar legislation was passed in individual provinces during the same general time period. The laws guarantee free, appropriate education for children with disabilities of any kind—whether the impairment is physical, cognitive, emotional, or behavioral. The laws also recognize that such students need special supports in order to learn or function effectively in a classroom

with non-disabled peers, so they provide for special services (for example, teaching assistants) and procedures for making individualized educational plans for students with disabilities.

As a result of these changes, most American and Canadian teachers are likely to have at least a few students with special educational needs, even if they are not trained as special education teachers or have had no prior personal experience with people with disabilities. Classroom teachers are also likely to work as part of a professional team focused on helping these students to learn as well as possible and to participate in the life of the school. The trend toward inclusion is definitely new compared to circumstances just a generation or two ago. It raises new challenges about planning instruction (such as how is a teacher to find time to plan for individuals?), and philosophical questions about the very nature of education (such as what in the curriculum is truly important to learn?).

Lifelong learning

The diversity of modern classrooms is not limited to language or disabilities. Another recent change has been the broadening simply of the age range of individuals who count as "students." In many nations of the world, half or most of all three- and four-year-olds attend some form of educational program, either part-time preschool or full-time child care (National Institute for Early Education Research, 2006). In North America some public school divisions have moved toward including nursery or preschool programs as a newer "grade level" preceding kindergarten. Others have expanded the hours of kindergarten (itself considered a "new" program early in the 20th century) to span a full-day program.

The obvious differences in maturity between preschoolers and older children lead most teachers of the very young to use flexible, open-ended plans and teaching strategies, and to develop more personal or family-like relationships with their young "students" than typical with older students (Bredekamp & Copple, 1997). Just as important, though, are the educational and philosophical issues that early childhood education has brought to public attention. Some educational critics ask whether preschool and day care programs risk becoming *in*appropriate substitutes for families. Other educators suggest, in contrast, that teachers of older students can learn from the flexibility and open-ended approach common in early childhood education. For teachers of any grade level, it is a debate that cannot be avoided completely or permanently. In this book, it reappears in Chapter 3, where I discuss students' development—their major long-term, changes in skills, knowledge, and attitudes.

The other end of the age spectrum has also expanded. Many individuals take courses well into adulthood even if they do not attend formal university or college. *Adult education*, as it is sometimes called, often takes place in workplaces, but it often also happens in public high schools or at local community colleges or universities. Some adult students may be completing high school credentials that they missed earlier in their lives, but often the students have other purposes that are even more focused, such as learning a trade-related skill. The teachers of adult students have to adjust their instructional strategies and relationships with students so as to challenge and respect their special strengths and constraints as adults (Bash, 2005). The students' maturity often means that they have had life experiences that enhance and motivate their learning. But it may also mean that they have significant personal responsibilities—such as parenting or a full-time job—which compete for study time, and that make them impatient with teaching that is irrelevant to their personal goals or needs. These advantages and constraints also occur to a lesser extent among "regular" high school students. Even secondary school teachers must ask, how they can make sure that instruction does not waste students' time, and how they can make it truly efficient, effective, and valuable.

New trend #2: using technology to support learning

For most teachers, "technology" means using computers and the Internet as resources for teaching and learning. These tools have greatly increased the amount and range of information available to students, even if their benefits have sometimes been exaggerated in media reports (Cuban, 2001). With the Internet, it is now relatively easy to access up-to-date information on practically any subject imaginable, often with pictures, video clips, and audio to accompany them. It would seem not only that the Internet and its associated technologies have the potential to transform traditional school-based learning, but also that they have in fact begun to do so.

For a variety of reasons, however, technology has not always been integrated into teachers' practices very thoroughly (Haertel & Means, 2003). One reason is practical: in many societies and regions, classrooms contain only one or two computers at most, and many schools have at best only limited access to the Internet. Waiting for a turn on the computer or arranging to visit a computer lab or school library limits how much students use the Internet, no matter how valuable the Internet may be. In such cases,

furthermore, computers tend to function in relatively traditional ways that do not take full advantage of the Internet: as a word processor (a "fancy typewriter"), for example, or as a reference book similar to an encyclopedia.

Even so, single-computer classrooms create new possibilities and challenges for teachers. A single computer can be used, for example, to present upcoming assignments or supplementary material to students, either one at a time or small groups. In functioning in this way, the computer gives students more flexibility about when to finish old tasks or to begin new ones. A single computer can also enrich the learning of individual students with special interests or motivation and it can provide additional review to students who need extra help. These changes are not dramatic, but they lead to important revisions in teachers' roles: they move teachers away from simply delivering information to students, and toward facilitating students' own constructions of knowledge.

A shift from "full-frontal teaching" to "guide on the side" becomes easier as the amount and use of computer and Internet technologies increases. If a school (or better yet, a classroom) has numerous computers with full Internet access, then students' can in principle direct their own learning more independently than if computers are scarce commodities. With ample technology available, teachers can focus much more on helping individuals in developing and carrying out learning plans, as well as on assisting individuals with special learning problems. In these ways a strong shift to computers and the Internet can change a teacher's role significantly, and make the teacher more effective.

But technology also brings some challenges, or even creates problems. It costs money to equip classrooms and schools fully: often that money is scarce, and may therefore mean depriving students of other valuable resources, like additional staff or additional books and supplies. Other challenges are less tangible. In using the Internet, for example, students need help in sorting out trustworthy information or websites from the "fluff," websites that are unreliable or even damaging (Seiter, 2005). Providing this help can sometimes be challenging even for experienced teachers. Some educational activities simply do not lend themselves to computerized learning—sports, for example, driver education, or choral practice. As a new teacher, therefore, you will need not only to assess what technologies are possible in your particular classroom, but also what will actually be assisted by new technologies. Then be prepared for your decisions to affect *how* you teach—the ways you work with students.

New trend #3: accountability in education

In recent years, the public and its leaders have increasingly expected teachers and students to be *accountable* for their work, meaning that schools and teachers are held responsible for implementing particular curricula and goals, and that students are held responsible for learning particular knowledge. The trend toward accountability has increased the legal requirements for becoming and (sometimes) remaining certified as a teacher. In the United States in particular, preservice teachers need more subject-area and education-related courses than in the past. They must also spend more time practice teaching than in the past, and they must pass one or more examinations of knowledge of subject matter and teaching strategies. The specifics of these requirements vary among regions, but the general trend—toward more numerous and "higher" levels of requirements—has occurred broadly throughout the English-speaking world. The changes obviously affect individuals' experiences of becoming a teacher— especially the speed and cost of doing so.

Public accountability has led to increased use of *high-stakes testing*, which are tests taken by all students in a district or region that have important consequences for students' further education (Fuhrman & Elmore, 2004). High-stakes tests may influence grades that students receive in courses or determine whether students graduate or continue to the next level of schooling. The tests are often a mixture of essay and structured-response questions (such as multiple-choice items), and raise important issues about what teachers should teach, as well as how (and whether) teachers should help students to pass the examinations. It also raises issues about whether high-stakes testing is fair to all students and consistent with other ideals of public education, such as giving students the best possible start in life instead of disqualifying them from educational opportunities. Furthermore, since the results of high-stakes tests are sometimes also used to evaluate the performance of teachers, schools, or school districts, insuring students' success on them becomes an obvious concern for teachers—one that affects instructional decisions on a daily basis.

New trend #4: increased professionalism of teachers

Whatever your reactions to the first three trends, it is important to realize that they have contributed to a fourth trend, an increase in *professionalism* of teachers. By most definitions, an occupation (like medicine or law—or in this case teaching) is a profession if its

members take personal responsibility for the quality of their work, hold each other accountable for its quality, and recognize and require special training in order to practice it.

By this definition, teaching has definitely become *more* professional than in the past (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2005). Increased expectations of achievement by students mean that teachers have increased responsibility not only for their students' academic success, but also for their own development as teachers. Becoming a new teacher now requires *more* specialized work than in the past, as reflected in the increased requirements for certification and licensing in many societies and regions. The increased requirements are partly a response to the complexities created by the increasing diversity of students and increasing use of technology in classrooms.

Greater professionalism has also been encouraged by initiatives from educators themselves to study and improve their own practice. One way to do so, for example, is through **action research** (sometimes also called **teacher research**), a form of investigation carried out by teachers about their own students or their own teaching. Action research studies lead to concrete decisions that improve teaching and learning in particular educational contexts (Mertler, 2006; Stringer, 2004). The studies can take many forms, but here are a few brief examples:

- How precisely do individual children learn to read? In an action research study, the teacher might observe and track one child's reading progress carefully for an extended time. From the observations she can get clues about how to help not only that particular child to read better, but also other children in her class or even in colleagues' classes.
- Does it really matter if a high school social studies teacher uses more, rather than fewer, open-ended questions? As an action of research study, the teacher might videotape his own lessons, and systematically compare students' responses to his open-ended questions compared to their responses to more closed questions (the ones with more fixed answers). The analysis might suggest when and how much it is indeed desirable to use open-ended questions.
- Can an art teacher actually entice students to take more creative risks with their drawings? As an action research study, the teacher might examine the students' drawings carefully for signs of visual novelty and innovation, and then see if the signs increase if she encourages novelty and innovation explicitly

Table 1: Examples of action research project

Steps in action research Project	Example 1: students' use of the Internet	Example 2: a teacher's helpfulness to ESL students
Purpose of the research (as expressed by the teacher doing the research)	"In doing assignments, how successful are my students at finding high-quality, relevant information?"	"Am I responding to my ESL students as fully and helpfully as to my English-speaking students, and why or why not?"
Who is doing the study?	Classroom teacher (elementary level) and school computer specialist teacher	Classroom teacher (senior high level)—studying self; Possibly collaborating with other teachers or with ESL specialist.
How information is gathered and recorded	Assessing students' assignments; Observing students while they search the Internet. Interviewing students about their search experiences	Videotaping of self interacting during class discussions; Journal diary by teacher of experiences with ESL vs other students; Interviews with teacher's ESL students
How information is analyzed	Look for obstacles and "search tips" expressed by several students; Look for common strengths and problems with research cited on assignments.	Look for differences in type and amount of interactions with ESL vs other students; Look for patterns in differences; Try altering the patterns of interaction and observe the result.
How information is reported and communicated	Write a brief report of results for fellow staff; Give a brief oral report to fellow staff about results	Write a summary of the results in teacher's journal diary; Share results with fellow staff; Share results with teacher's students.

Two other, more complete examples of action research are summarized in Table 1. Although these examples, like many action research studies, resemble "especially good teaching practice," they are planned more thoughtfully than usual, carried out and recorded more systematically, and shared with fellow teachers more thoroughly and openly. As such, they yield special benefits to teachers as professionals, though they also take special time and effort. For now, the important point is that use of action research simultaneously reflects the increasing professionalism of teachers, but at the same time creates higher standards for teachers when they teach.

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

4: Systems and Structures in Education

4.1: Schools as Formal Organizations

4.2: The Conflict Perspective on Education

4.3: Issues in the U.S. Education System

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4.1: Schools as Formal Organizations

Bureaucratization of Schools

The bureaucratization of schools has some advantages but has also led to the perpetuation of discrimination and an aversion to change.

Learning Objectives

Discuss the critical issues and historial origins of school bureaucratization, particularly in relation to educational reform and deliverance of service

Key Points

- A bureaucracy is a large, formal, secondary organization characterized by a hierarchy of authority, a clear division of labor, explicit rules, and impersonal interactions between its members.
- In theory, bureaucracies are meritocracies that improve efficiency, ensure equal opportunities, and increase efficiency. In reality, some individuals benefit from structural privileges and social origins like a dominant race, language, or culture to which some other individuals may not have access.
- The foundations of the current educational system originated in the Industrial Revolution. The school environment became structured around hierarchy, standardization, and specialization.
- The bureaucratization of schools makes it difficult to instigate appropriate and immediate change when it is required by the changing needs of a society.
- In a pluralistic society, disseminating the dominant culture through public education is a topic of heated social debate. Religious, cultural, and ethnic groups can feel marginalized and alienated when they are forced to conform to bureaucratic structures.
- Advances in information technologies provide constant connectivity to the virtual world. Schools have begun to take advantage of these virtual tools as enhancements and replacements of physical school structures and face-to-face learning experiences.

Key Terms

- **"one best system"**: The idea that there is one uniform, standardized approach that forms the best strategy to educate all children.
- **hierarchy**: Any group of objects ranked so that everyone but the topmost is subordinate to a specified group above it.
- **Education reform**: The process of improving public education.

A bureaucracy is an organization of non-elected officials of a government or organization who implement the rules, laws, and functions of their institution. In modern society, all formal organizations are, or likely will become, bureaucracies.

According to Weber

The German sociologist and political economist Max Weber (1864-1920) began to study bureaucracy and popularize the term in academic literature and discourse during the mid 1800s and early 1900s. Weber believed that bureaucracy was the most efficient and rational way of organizing. For Weber, bureaucratization was the key process in his theory on rationalization of Western society. Weber popularly characterized a bureaucracy as having a hierarchy of authority, a clear division of labor, explicit rules, and impersonality.

Critical Issues of School Bureaucratization

There are several positive aspects of bureaucracies. They are intended to ensure equal opportunities and increase efficiency based on a meritocratic structure. Meritocracy means that hiring and promotion should be based on proven and documented skills, rather than on nepotism or random choice. For example, in order to get into a prestigious college, you need to perform well on the SAT and have an impressive transcript. In order to become a lawyer and represent clients, you must graduate from law school and pass the state bar exam. However, the theory of meritocracy becomes convoluted when it is applied to schools because some individuals have access to privileges that give them advantages over other individuals. For example, wealthy families can hire tutors, interview coaches, test-prep services, and consultants to help their kids gain the valued skills that will ultimately help them get into the best schools.

Despite good intentions and abundant rhetoric about "equal educational opportunity," schools have rarely taught the children of the poor effectively. This failure has been systematic, not idiosyncratic. Talk about "keeping the schools out of politics" has often served to obscure actual alignments of power and patterns of privilege. For example, before the Emancipation Proclamation, many black people sought education through private, voluntary schools, which shows that they had a strong desire for education, generally believing that they could improve their social status through the equalizing power of schooling. However, they were excluded from the school system by segregation laws. Even after desegregation, black students faced intense racism in mixed schools, and minority students continue to face institutional racism and discrimination on the level of micro-interactions.



Protest Against the Racial Segregation of U.S. Schools: School bureaucracies struggle with the political challenge of defining a valuable educational curriculum and regulating the constituency that has access to those educational opportunities.

Historical Origins of School Bureaucratization

In order to understand the bureaucratization of schools, we must understand the historical development of the school system. When the U.S. transformed into an urban, industrial nation, corporations flourished, potential employees needed an education for a decent job, child labor laws were enforced, and the urban school system changed. During the Industrial Revolution, bureaucracies developed alongside the educational foundations for the current school model. Young workers were trained and organizations were built for mass production, assembly line work, and factory jobs. In schools, students learned to value hierarchical command, standardized outcomes, and specialized skills. These needs formed the basis for school bureaucracies today.

Various interest groups have continually called for education reform. However, bureaucratic authority often perpetuates positions and outworn practices of bureaucracy at the expense of timely change and appropriate education for children's needs. City councils, school boards, superintendents, principals, and government officials from different interest groups and standpoints disagree about the "one best system" for the reproduction of American society. Most critics of school bureaucracies do not question the aim of transmitting the dominant culture through public education, but some dissenters oppose this strategy precisely because they fear children will lose valuable cultural differences through their socialization in the American system. Immigration trends have posed serious concerns for public school education systems because immigrants often bring religious, ethnic, and cultural differences to the classroom that differ from the protocol and ideology of "one best system. " School bureaucracies seek to assimilate foreigners by teaching them English, indoctrinating them in American civics, and providing them with skills and habits needed in the urban job market.

Modern Society and School Bureaucratization

The assumption that there is "one best system" for educating children has been especially problematic within the context of a pluralistic American society, a globalized world, and advances in information technology. Now, in the information age, this kind of rigid training and adherence to protocol can actually decrease both productivity and efficiency. The model of American education based upon the industrial factory is undergoing a revolution based upon emerging technologies that redefine school organization as a virtual as well as a physical learning environment. In the twenty-first century teaching, learning, and the educational system itself have been buffeted by forces that challenged the traditional bureaucratic arrangement of schools with tall administrative hierarchies, centralized decision-making, and tightly controlled structures.

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=txMLMjwb4II

Towards the Virtual K-12 Educational Organization: An Emerging Framework with Technology: From this case study, researchers predicted that the educational system of the future will be designed around software capabilities that personalize the curriculum and make learning more meaningful to students. This case study outlines how one K-12 school district is managing change related to teaching, leading, and learning as it shifts to a more student-centered approach to education within a bureaucratic and virtually enhanced structure of schooling.



Ford Assembly Line 1913: The Industrial Revolution altered the purpose of the education system. Young workers were trained and organizations were built for mass production, assembly line work, and factory jobs. In schools, students learned to value hierarchical command, standardized outcomes, and specialized skills.

Teachers: Employees and Instructors

A teacher is a person who provides education for pupils and students.

Learning Objectives

Discuss the purpose and roles of teachers in society, as well as the objectives of teaching

Key Points

- Teachers, like other professionals, may have to continue their education after they qualify, a process known as continuing professional development.
- In education, teachers facilitate student learning, often in a school or academy, but also in other environments such as outdoors. A teacher who teaches on an individual basis may be described as a tutor.
- The relationship between children and their teachers tends to be closer in the primary school, where they act as form tutor, specialist teacher, and surrogate parent during the course of the day.

Key Terms

- **primary school**: The first formal, obligatory school. Usually begins with kindergarten or first grade and ends at fifth or sixth grade.
- **Professional Development**: The means by which people maintain their knowledge and skills related to their professional lives.
- **lesson plan**: A teachers' document used to plan a lesson.

A teacher is a person who provides education for pupils and students. The role of teacher is often formal and ongoing, carried out at a school or other place of formal education. In many countries, a person who wishes to become a teacher must first obtain specified professional qualifications or credentials from a university or college. These professional qualifications may include the study of pedagogy, the science of teaching. Teachers, like other professionals, may have to continue their education after they qualify, a process known as continuing professional development. Teachers may use a lesson plan to facilitate student learning, providing a course of study that is called the curriculum.

Objectives

Teachers facilitate student learning, often but not always in a school or academy. A teacher who teaches on an individual basis may be described as a tutor. The objective is typically a course of study, lesson plan, or a practical skill. A teacher may follow standardized curricula as determined by the relevant authority. The teacher may interact with students of different ages (from infants to adults), students with different abilities, and students with learning disabilities.

Perhaps the most significant difference between primary school and secondary school teaching in the United States is the relationship between teachers and children. In primary schools, each class has a teacher who stays with them for most of the week and will teach them the whole curriculum. In secondary schools, they will be taught by different subject specialists each session during the week and may have ten or more different teachers. The relationship between children and their teachers tends to be closer in the primary school where they act as form tutor, specialist teacher, and surrogate parent during the course of the day.

Education in the United States

In 2010, there were 3,823,142 teachers in public, charter, private, and Catholic elementary and secondary schools. They taught a total of 55,203,000 students, who attended one of 132,656 schools. In 2011, American teachers worked 1,097 hours in the classroom, the most for any industrialized nation measured by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development. They spend 1,913 hours a year total on their work, just shy of the national average of 1,932 hours for all workers.



Teacher in Laos: Teacher in primary school in northern Laos.



Teacher British Museum: A teacher and young pupils at the British Museum Duveen Gallery.

Student Subcultures

A youth subculture is a group characterized by distinct styles, behaviors and interests that offer an identity outside the mainstream.

Learning Objectives

Discuss the definition and purpose of a subculture, especially for youth in society

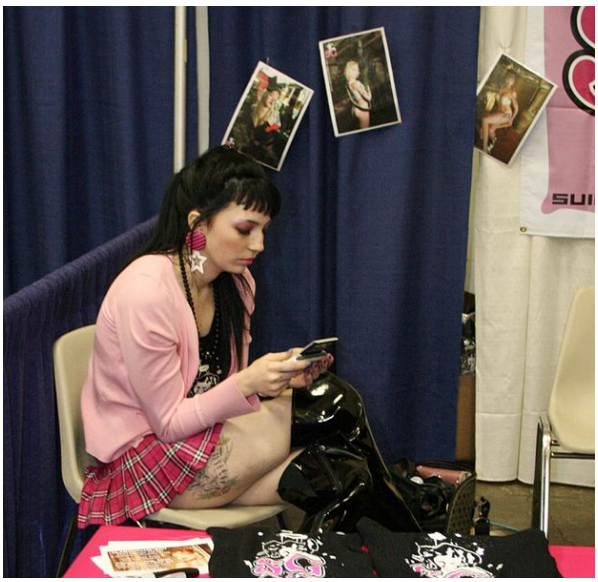
Key Points

- The study of subcultures often consists of the study of symbolism attached to clothing, music or other visible affections by members of the subculture. It also studies the ways these same symbols are interpreted by members of the dominant culture.
- The term “scene” refers to an exclusive subculture or faction. It may also be geographically based, i.e. the London punk scene.
- Early studies in youth culture were mainly produced by functionalist sociologists and focus on youth as a single form of culture. In explaining the development of the culture, they utilized the concept of anomie.
- Marxists of the Frankfurt School of social studies argue that youth culture is inherently consumerist and integral to the divide-and-rule strategy of capitalism.

Key Terms

- **faction**: A group of people, especially within a political organization, who express a shared belief or opinion different from people who are not part of the group.
- **Marxist theories**: An economic and sociopolitical worldview and method of socioeconomic inquiry centered upon a materialist interpretation of history, a dialectical view of social change, and an analysis–critique of the development of capitalism.
- **Functional sociology**: A framework for building theory that sees society as a complex system whose parts work together to promote solidarity and stability.

A youth subculture is group of young people defined by distinct styles, behaviors and interests. Youth subcultures offer participants an identity outside of that prescribed by social institutions like family, work, home and school. Youth subcultures that show a systematic hostility to the dominant culture are sometimes described as countercultures. Youth music genres are associated with many youth subcultures, and include punks, emos, ravers, Juggalos, metalheads and goths. The study of subcultures often consists of the study of the symbolism attached to clothing, music and other visible affections by members of the subculture. It also studies the ways these same symbols are interpreted by members of the dominant culture.



Emo Subculture: Example of a participant in emo subculture.

The term “scene” can refer to an exclusive subculture or faction. Scenes are distinguished from the broad culture through either fashion, identification with specific (sometimes obscure or experimental) musical genres or political perspectives, and a strong in-group or tribal mentality. The term can be used to describe geographic subsets of a subculture, like the Detroit drum and bass scene or the London goth scene.

Theories about Subcultures

Early studies in youth culture were mainly produced by those interested in functional sociology and focus on youth as a single form of culture. In explaining the development of the culture, they utilized the concept of anomie – a lack of social norms. Talcott Parsons argued that as we move from the family and corresponding values to another sphere with differing values, we would experience an “anomie situation. ”

Marxist theories account for some diversity, as they focus on classes and class-fractions rather than youth as a whole. Stuart Hall and Tony Jefferson described youth subcultures as symbolic or ritualistic attempts to resist the power of bourgeois hegemony by consciously adopting behavior that appears threatening to the establishment. Conversely, Marxists of the Frankfurt School of social studies argue that youth culture is inherently consumerist and integral to the divide-and-rule strategy of capitalism.

Subcultures may also be seen as extensions of crowds. Certain crowds are found in many, even most, high schools across the United States, although the particular terms used by adolescents in them vary (nerds instead of geeks, goths instead of emos, etc.). Most of these can be found in other western countries as well, with the exception of jocks.



Ravers: Ravers adorned in reflective Phat Pants.

Homeschooling

Homeschooling is the education of children at home, rather than in other formal settings of public or private school.

Learning Objectives

Examine the various reasons people homeschool children, as well as the pros and cons of choosing to homeschool

Key Points

- Homeschooling is a legal option for parents in many countries, allowing them to provide their children with a learning environment as an alternative to public or private schools.
- There are a few common reasons parents homeschool their children. Parents might be concerned about the traditional school social environment, they might want to provide a religious or moral education, or they might simply be dissatisfied with the academic quality of schools.
- A homeschool cooperative is a cooperative of families who homeschool their children.
- Unschooling is a range of educational philosophies and practices centered on allowing children to learn through their natural life experiences, including play, gameplay, household responsibilities, work experience, and social interaction. This is a very controversial method.

Key Terms

- **homeschooling**: teaching children at home instead of sending them to school
- **unschooling**: a range of educational philosophies and practices centered on allowing children to learn through their natural life experiences, including play, games, household responsibilities, work experience, and social interaction, rather than through a more traditional school curriculum
- **e-learning**: learning conducted via electronic media, especially via the Internet

Homeschooling

Homeschooling is the education of children at home, rather than in the formal settings of public or private school. Typically, homeschool instruction is delivered by parents, but sometimes tutors are hired for this job. Historically, before the advent of compulsory school attendance laws, most childhood education occurred at home or in the community. Today however, homeschooling is very much an alternative to attending public or private schools. Homeschooling is a legal option for parents in many countries. It allows them to provide their children with a learning environment if they are dissatisfied with offerings at public or private schools.

Motivations

Parents can have a number of motivations for wanting to homeschool their children. Among these, three of the most common are the following. Parents might be concerned about the traditional school environment, they might want to provide a particular type of religious or moral instruction, or they might simply be dissatisfied with the academic quality of traditional public or private schools.

Homeschooling may also reflect an individual's parenting style. It can be used as a form of supplementary education, geared towards helping children succeed in specific circumstances. For example, children that attend poorly funded schools might benefit greatly from certain homeschool methods, like using the internet. In conjunction with this e-learning, homeschooling could theoretically be combined with a traditional school curriculum to produce more well-rounded results.

Homeschooling Communities

A homeschool cooperative is a cooperative of families who homeschool their children. These co-ops provide homeschooled children the opportunity to learn from other parents who might be more specialized in certain areas or subjects. Co-ops also provide critical opportunities for social interaction among homeschooled children. In these co-ops, children might take lessons or go on field trips together. Some co-ops also offer events like prom and graduation, to simulate certain seminal moments of a traditional educational experience. Through the use of the Internet, homeschoolers are beginning to simulate these cooperative activities online. Using social networking software, homeschoolers can chat, discuss threads in forums, share information, and even participate in online classes via blackboard systems similar to those used by colleges.

Unschooling

Unschooling refers to a range of educational philosophies and practices centered on allowing children to learn through their natural life experiences. These methods can include play, games, household responsibilities, work experience, and social interaction, and form a distinct alternative to a more traditional school curriculum. There are many who find this method of education controversial and potentially unethical. In unschooling, children are encouraged to utilize their own initiative to explore activities, with parental facilitation. The unschooling philosophy of education differs from conventional schooling because it believes that standard curricula and conventional grading methods are counterproductive to the educational growth of a child.

Comparative Studies

Numerous studies have found that homeschooled students, on average, outperform their peers on standardized tests. "Homeschooling Achievement," a study conducted by National Home Education Research Institute (NHERI), an advocacy group, revealed the academic integrity of homeschooling. Among students who took the tests, the average homeschooled student outperformed his public school peers by 30 to 37 percentile points in every subject. Importantly, the study also indicated that public school performance gaps, such as those between races and genders, were virtually non-existent among homeschooled students.

In the 1970s, Raymond S. Moore and Dorothy N. Moore conducted four federally funded analyses of more than 8,000 early childhood studies. They eventually published their findings in 1975, and concluded that, "where possible, children should be withheld from formal schooling until at least ages eight to ten. "



Homeschooler with Project: Homeschooler challenging The Leaning Tower of Pasta project, to build a tower using only pasta and marshmallows and measure its height and strength.

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4.2: The Conflict Perspective on Education

Social Control

The conflict theory perspective towards education focuses on the role school systems may play in implementing social control.

Learning Objectives

Discuss the use of school system and media as a means of exercising social control within a given society

Key Points

- Conflict theory assumes that the ideas of a society are the ideas of the ruling class.
- Social control refers generally to societal and political mechanisms or processes that regulate individual and group behavior, leading to conformity and compliance to the rules of a given society, state, or social group.
- Schools can further goals of social control by socializing students into behaving in socially acceptable ways. By means of social control, students are taught the boundaries of acceptable behavior.
- Informal social control is exercised by a society without explicitly stating these rules, and is expressed through customs, norms, and mores.
- Social control may be enforced using informal sanctions, which may include shame, ridicule, sarcasm, criticism and disapproval. Social control may also be enforced using formal sanctions.
- Education may maintain social control through various mechanisms, such as indoctrination, informal sanctions and formal sanctions.
- By means of social control, students are taught the boundaries of acceptable behavior.
- Education may maintain social control through various mechanisms, such as indoctrination, informal sanctions and formal sanctions.

Key Terms

- **indoctrination**: Instruction in the rudiments and principles of any science or belief system; information.
- **Formal social control**: Societal and political mechanisms or processes that regulate individual and group behavior, leading to conformity and compliance to the rules of a given society, state, or social group undertaken by the state through legal action.
- **Acceptable behavior**: Behavior that conforms to social mores and norms.

Conflict Theory

Conflict theory assumes that the ideas held by a society are the ideas of the ruling class. The ruling class uses schools, along with the media and other means of communication, to disseminate ideas that will support its continued rule. Given this assumption, the conflict perspective often focuses on the role school systems may play in influencing public opinion, or implementing social control.

Social control refers generally to societal and political mechanisms or processes that regulate individual and group behavior, leading to conformity and compliance to the rules of a given society, state, or social group. Schools can further goals of social control by socializing students into behaving in socially acceptable ways. Some may consider this type of socialization a form of indoctrination. In any case, the social values that are present in individuals are products of informal social control. It is exercised by a society without explicitly stating these rules and is expressed through customs, norms, and mores. Individuals are socialized consciously or subconsciously.



Schools as Agents of Socialization: Schools can further goals of social control by socializing students into behaving in socially acceptable ways.

Enforcement

Social control may be enforced using informal sanctions, which may include shame, ridicule, sarcasm, criticism and disapproval. In extreme cases sanctions may include social discrimination and exclusion. For example, schoolmates may enforce gender norms by ridiculing boys who undertake actions considered feminine, such as writing poetry or dancing. Informal sanctions can have a powerful effect; individuals internalize the norm, which becomes an aspect of personality.

Social control may also be enforced using formal sanctions. Formal sanctions may be used in a large group in which an individual can choose to ignore the sanctions of other

individuals. This form of control usually takes the form of government action. Government and organizations use law enforcement mechanisms and other formal sanctions, such as fines and imprisonment. In schools, formal sanctions may include detention, suspension, or other formal punishments.

By means of social control, students are taught the boundaries of acceptable behavior. They carry these lessons with them into everyday life and, later, into careers. Thus, the social control lessons learned in school may prepare students, for example, to be a docile proletariat in a capitalist economy.



Social Control: Signs warning of prohibited activities; an example of social control

Tracking Systems

Tracking sorts students into different groups depending on academic ability; however, other factors often influence placement.

Learning Objectives

Analyze the characteristics, advantages, and disadvantages of tracking systems for students

Key Points

- According to the conflict perspective, capitalism requires that many students be trained to join the working class while a few must be trained to join the ruling capitalist class. One way schools screen and allocate classes of students is by sorting them into different tracks.
- In a tracking system, students are educated with other students of the same ability level and their education differs depending on the track to which they are assigned.
- Tracking systems vary by extent, specificity, and flexibility. Traditionally, students were divided into academic, general, and vocational tracks.
- Advantages of tracking may include the ability of teachers to focus instruction, the potential for students only to be compared to others of similar ability, and the opportunity for high-achieving students to advance more quickly.
- Disadvantages of tracking may include tracking based on student background instead of ability, poor quality of instruction in lower tracks, and stigmatization of students in lower tracks.
- Detracking has been proposed as a more equitable alternative to tracking.

Key Terms

- **Conflict Perspective**: perspectives in social science based on Conflict Theory, that emphasize the social, political, or material inequality of a social group.
- **tracking**: An educational system in which the entire school population is assigned to classes according to whether the students' overall achievement is above average, normal, or below average and in which students attend academic classes only with students whose overall academic achievement is the same as their own.
- **allocating**: setting aside for a purpose

From the conflict perspective, schools play a role in screening and allocating people and their abilities. Advanced capitalist economies require that many students be trained to join the working class while a few must be trained to join the ruling capitalist class. One way schools may begin to sort and differently train classes of students is by sorting them into different tracks.

Tracking sorts and separates students by academic ability. In a tracking system, the entire school population is assigned to classes according to whether the students' overall achievement is above, at, or below what is average. Students attend academic classes only with students whose overall academic achievement is the same as their own. Tracking is one of the predominant organizing practices of American public schools, and has been an accepted feature in the country's schools for nearly a century.

Characteristics

Defined tracks often mirror class divisions in society. Thus, traditionally, students were tracked into academic, general, and vocational tracks. Academic tracks prepare students for advanced study and professions such as medicine or law, whereas general and vocational tracks were meant to prepare students for middle or working class life. Students in

academically advanced tracks study higher mathematics, more foreign languages, and literature. Students in less academic tracks acquire vocational skills such as welding or cosmetology, or business skills, such as typing or bookkeeping. Students are usually not offered the opportunity to take classes deemed more appropriate for another track, even if the student has a demonstrated interest and ability in the subject. Today, few schools use tracking systems that so overtly differentiate upper, middle, and working class skills. Instead, many secondary schools now base track levels on course difficulty, with tracks such as basic, honors, or college-prep.

Tracking systems vary widely in their characteristics. Some may extend to the entire school system so that students follow a track that begins in elementary school and continues until high school graduation. Other schools may use tracking only for certain classes or subjects. Systems may also vary in their flexibility and the opportunities for mobility given to students. In some cases, placement is based entirely on student preferences. In other cases, test scores may be used to determine a student's track. Counselors may also work with students to choose a particular class that in turn puts them on a given track. Parents and peers may influence academic choices even more than guidance counselors by encouraging students with similar backgrounds (academic, vocational, ethnic, religious, or racial) to stay together. Other times, students are placed into tracks without any knowledge or input into the process.

Advantages

Proponents of tracking say that tracking allows teachers to better direct lessons toward the specific ability level of the students in each class. Research suggests that tracking produces substantial gains for gifted students in tracks specially designed for the gifted and talented, meeting the need for highly gifted students to be with their intellectual peers in order to be appropriately challenged. However, average and low achieving students may benefit more from being in a mixed ability classroom.

Since tracking separates students by ability, students' work is only compared to that of similar-ability peers. Thus, tracking may have emotional benefits for students: it may prevent damage to self-esteem that could result from comparisons with the work of higher ability students or inflating the egos of the high-ability students when compared to low-ability students. Tracking can also encourage low-ability students to participate in class. Since high self-esteem is correlated with high academic achievement, tracking should, theoretically, promote academic success. However, the awareness by the student of being placed into a low track might lower self-esteem, counteracting this benefit.

Disadvantages

From the conflict perspective, tracking's primary function is not necessarily to promote learning; it is the allocation of students into specific areas of the labor market. Although track assignment is theoretically based on academic ability, other factors often influence placement. When tracking is based not on ability but instead on student background, it becomes a form of segregation and discrimination. Students in lower tracks may receive poorer quality instruction, with less-experienced teachers being assigned to low-track classes. Lessons taught in low-track classes often lack the engagement and comprehensiveness of the high-track lessons, putting low-track students at a disadvantage for college because they do not gain the knowledge and skills of the upper-track students.

Tracking can also result in a stigmatization of low-track students. This stigmatization can have a negative impact on students' academic performance; for example, students placed in low tracks may lose confidence in their abilities, and their low confidence may be reinforced by teachers' low expectations and their stigmatization by peers. Some research suggests that students in lower tracks are more likely to drop out of school or participate in criminal activities.



Vocational track: Students in a vocational track may learn skills such as wood working.

The Credentialized Society

Credentialism refers to the common practice of relying on earned credentials when hiring staff or assigning social status.

Learning Objectives

Explain the use of credentialism in today's society as a means of social mobility and job security

Key Points

- Credentialism is common in employment decisions, especially for white collar jobs.

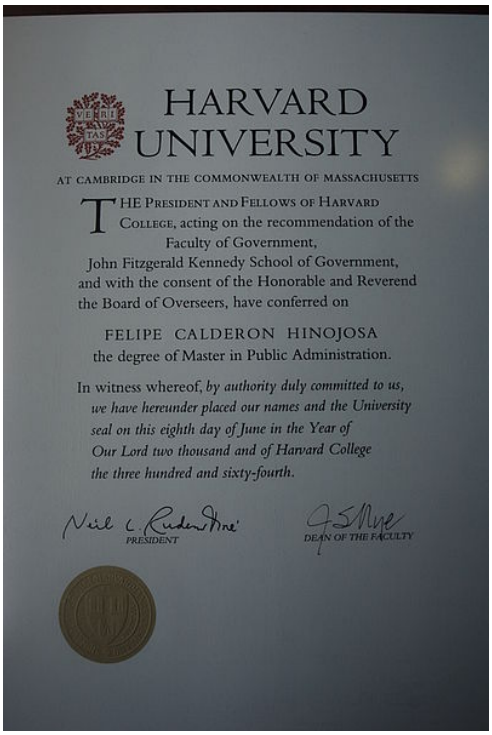
- Credential inflation occurs when the value of a credential declines because too many potential employees possess the credential.
- In his 1979 book The Credential Society, sociologist Randall Collins examined the connection between credentialism and stratification.

Key Terms

- **society**: a long-standing group of people sharing cultural aspects such as language, dress, norms of behavior and artistic forms
- **credential inflation**: The process by which credentials lose value as more and more people earn a particular credential.
- **credentialism**: The common practice of relying on earned credentials when hiring staff or assigning social status.
- **The Credential Society**: A 1979 book by Randall Collins which argues that public schools are social institutions that teach and reward middle class values of competition and achievement.

Credentialism refers to the common practice of relying on earned credentials when hiring staff or assigning social status. Instead of directly evaluating an individual's abilities, evaluators study that person's credentials as a shortcut to estimate their competencies. Besides attesting to one's abilities, credentials may also grant the holder access to restricted areas, information, or activities. For example, security clearances and press passes are credentials that grant access to otherwise restricted areas. A medical license is a credential that grants the ability to practice an otherwise restricted activity.

Credentials are attestations of qualification, competence, or authority issued to an individual by a third party with a relevant or de facto authority to do so. Common examples of credentials are academic diplomas, academic degrees, certifications, security clearances, and licenses. Credentials are often represented by documents, such as diplomas, certificates, or membership cards.


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FELIPE CALDERON HINOJOSA

the degree of Master in Public Administration.

In witness whereof, *by authority duly committed to us, we have hereunder placed our names and the University seal on this eighth day of June in the Year of Our Lord two thousand and of Harvard College the three hundred and sixty-fourth.*

PRESIDENT

DEAN OF THE FACULTY

A diploma: A diploma is a type of credential.

The academic world makes very extensive use of credentials, such as diplomas, certificates, and degrees, in order to attest to the completion of specific training or education programs by students, and to attest to their successful completion of tests and exams. Receiving these credentials often leads to increased economic mobility and work opportunity.

Employers also commonly use credentials. For example, an employer may require a diploma, professional license, or academic degree. In a credential society, such certifications may become more important than actual skills or abilities. In some cases, employers may require formal credentials, such as an advanced academic degree, for a job that can be done perfectly well by applying skills acquired through experience or informal study. This type of credentialism is common in white-collar jobs, which require workers to have difficult-to-measure skills such as critical thinking. Rather than measure or evaluate those skills directly, employers assume that anyone able to earn a credential must possess those skills.

Credential Inflation

Over time, credentials may lose value, especially as more and more people earn that credential. This process is referred to as credential inflation. When credentials are inflated, they give individuals less advantage on the job market. A good example of credential inflation is the decline in the value of the U.S. high school diploma since the beginning of the twentieth century, when it was held by less than 10% of the population. At the time, high school diplomas attested to middle- class

respectability, and for many years even provided access to managerial level jobs. More recently, however, the high school diploma barely qualifies the graduate for manual or menial service work.

Another indicator of credential inflation is the relative decline in the wage differential between those with college degrees and those with only high school diplomas. Jobs that were open to high school graduates a century ago now routinely require not just a bachelor's degree, but a master's degree as well—without an appreciable change in required skills.

The Credential Society

According to sociologist Randall Collins, understanding credentialism can help explain class-based differences in educational attainment. In his 1979 book The Credential Society, Collins argued that public schools are socializing institutions that teach and reward middle class values of competition and achievement. In this system, Anglo-Protestant elites are selectively separated from other students and placed into prestigious schools and colleges, where they are trained to hold positions of power. By teaching middle class culture through the public education system, the elite class ensures a monopoly over positions of power, while others acquire the credentials to compete in a subordinate job market and economy. In this way, schools of medicine, law, and elite institutions have remained closed to members of lower classes.

The Hidden Curriculum

To succeed in college, students must learn a second, hidden curriculum to meet unstated academic and social norms.

Learning Objectives

Examine Synder's idea of hidden curriculum and the effects it has on students and professors in higher education

Key Points

- In 1970, Benson Snyder, a dean at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, published a book called *The Hidden Curriculum*.
- According to Snyder, the hidden curriculum goes beyond the explicit demands of the formal curriculum.
- Creativity and wonder are stifled as students shift their exclusive focus to earning high grades and giving correct answers.
- As a result of conflict over the hidden curriculum, students experience intense personal anxiety, depression, and alienation.

Key Terms

- **curriculum**: The set of courses, coursework, and content, offered at a school or university.
- **The Hidden Curriculum**: A book published in 1970 by Benson Snyder, a dean at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, that argues that the college experience is inherently marked by conflict between students and instructors as students struggle to meet unstated academic goals.
- **selective negligence**: A strategy adopted by students to succeed in education, in which they selectively neglect portions of their formal schoolwork in order to glance at all of it.

In 1970, Benson Snyder, a dean at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, published a book called *The Hidden Curriculum*. In it, he argued that the college experience is inherently marked by conflict between students and instructors. In this conflict, students struggle to meet unstated academic and social norms, or a hidden curriculum. Those who master the hidden curriculum excel while those who do not often fail, no matter their academic abilities.

According to Snyder, the hidden curriculum goes beyond the explicit demands of the formal curriculum. The goals and requirements of the hidden curriculum are unstated, but inflexible. They concern not what students learn but how and when they learn. The hidden curriculum is rooted in professors' assumptions and values, students' expectations, and the social context in which both professors and students find themselves. To succeed, students must adapt and often resort to ploys and stratagems to cope with the requirements they face. For example, students may adopt a strategy of selective negligence. Within the first month of classes, many students discover they cannot conceivably complete all the work assigned them; consequently, they must selectively neglect portions of the formal schoolwork. Education becomes a grueling competition rather than an enjoyable quest for knowledge. Creativity and wonder are stifled as students shift their exclusive focus to earning high grades and giving correct answers. Students, Snyder maintains, increasingly view their education as a type of game they must master.

As a result of conflict over the hidden curriculum, students experience intense personal anxiety, depression, and alienation. Some, even the most gifted, are turned off to education altogether. Students may feel frustration and anger at professors who deny them high grades, who object to creativity, and who demand that students fall in line with the hidden curriculum. But typically students must contain this anger or direct it inward.

Students may judge themselves harshly, and those judgments may be reinforced by peers and professors.

No part of the university community, writes Snyder, desires the end result created by this process. The professors, too, are distracted and pressured, whether by the need to maintain institutional prestige or by the sheer frenzy of activity interrupting their creative cycles. Yet everyone, professors included, becomes locked into the competition.



Opening Convocation at Brown University: These students are just beginning their college education, where they may also have to learn a hidden curriculum.

Tilting the Tests: Discrimination by IQ

IQ is meant to measure intelligence but its validity as a measure of intelligence has been debated.

Learning Objectives

Discuss the various explanations for the IQ gap, ranging from genetic to environmental factors

Key Points

- The concept of intelligence itself may be culturally variable.
- Although some find evidence of a race -based IQ gap, others argue that race is not a causal variable and that race-based IQ differences are in fact caused by other differences correlated with race, such as health, wealth, and educational disparities.
- Socioeconomic status can affect many aspects of life, and therefore seems like a likely environmental influence on intelligence.
- Systemically disadvantaged minorities, such as the blacks in the United States, generally perform worse in the educational system and in intelligence tests than the majority groups or less disadvantaged minorities.
- Several studies have proposed that a large part of the IQ gap can be attributed to differences in quality of education.
- Peer groups and family can influence behavior and values.
- Peer groups and family can influence behavior and values.

Key Terms

- **IQ gap**: The gap in average IQ scores between populations, usually measured along racial lines, though with much disagreement.
- **Environmental factors**: Factors that come from one's environment, upbringing, or social situation, rather than biology.
- **intelligence**: Capacity of mind, especially to understand principles, truths, facts or meanings, acquire knowledge, and apply it to practice; the ability to learn and comprehend.

Intelligence is commonly measured using intelligence quotient (IQ) tests, which are meant to be a general measure of intelligence. However, IQ tests only measure a narrow band of the broad spectrum of intelligence, excluding factors such as creativity or emotional intelligence. Some researchers have raised more serious questions about the validity of IQ tests for measuring intelligence, especially across cultures. For example, IQ tests may be inappropriate for measuring intelligence in non-industrialized communities, because they focus on modern, rational-style thinking, a type of reasoning that is common in the modern industrial West but may be alien to other cultures. Although some find evidence of a race-based IQ gap, others argue that race is not a causal variable and that race-based IQ differences are in fact caused by other differences such as health, wealth, and educational disparities.

The IQ Gap

In the United States, IQ tests have consistently demonstrated a significant degree of variation between different racial groups. On average, IQ scores are highest among Asian Americans, lower among whites, and lowest among blacks. Yet these IQ gaps are only observed in average scores and say very little about individuals. Plus, IQ scores show considerable overlap between these group scores, and individuals of each group can be found at all points on the IQ spectrum. Thus, the implications of the IQ gaps are unclear. And while the existence of racial IQ gaps is well-documented, researchers have not reached a consensus as to their cause. In general, explanations fall into one of two camps: genetic explanations and environmental explanations.

Genetic Explanations

Explanations of ethnically innate intelligence were fairly common early in the twentieth century, with the rise of the American eugenics movement. But after World War II, they

quickly fell out of favor over fear of being associated with Nazism. Today, even those who believe intelligence may have some genetic component tend to acknowledge the importance of environmental effects as well.

Many researchers are reluctant to adopt genetic explanations of the IQ gap because of their historical and political implications. The connection between race and intelligence has been a subject of debate in both popular science and academic research since the inception of intelligence testing in the early twentieth century. But even before IQ tests were invented, claims of race-based intelligence gaps were used to justify colonialism, slavery, and racial eugenics. In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, much of the "scientific" evidence for racial intelligence gaps came from measurements such as brain size or reaction times.



Alfred Binet: Alfred Binet was a French psychologist who invented the IQ test.

The first IQ test was created between 1905 and 1908 and revised in 1916, during a time when Americans were quite concerned about an influx of new immigrants. Different nationalities were sometimes thought to comprise different races, especially nationalities newer to the United States, such as the Irish, the Slavs, and the Italians. Alfred Binet, the developer of these tests, warned that they should not be used to measure innate intelligence or to label individuals. Despite his warnings, the tests were used to evaluate draftees for World War I, and researchers found that people of southern and eastern European backgrounds scored lower than native-born Americans. At the time, such data was used to construct an ethnically based social hierarchy, one in which immigrants were rejected as unfit for service and mentally defective. It was not until later that researchers realized that lower language skills by new English speakers affected their scores on the tests.

Environmental Explanations

Researchers have suggested a wide array of environmental factors that might influence intelligence. In general, these factors are not mutually exclusive with one another: more than one of them may come into play at the same time. In fact, some may even directly contribute to others. Furthermore, the relationship between genetics and environmental factors is likely complicated. For example, the differences in socioeconomic environment for a child may be due to differences in genetic IQ for the parents, and the differences in average brain size between races could be the result of nutritional factors.

Socioeconomic Environment

Socioeconomic status can affect many aspects of life, and therefore seems like a likely environmental influence on intelligence. People who grow up in a community with lower socioeconomic status may have fewer enrichment opportunities (like going to museums) or a less stimulating home environment, as well as unequal access to health care, nutritious food, and quality education. But research suggests that differences in socioeconomic status cannot entirely explain the IQ gap. In part, this is because the effects of socioeconomic status are hard to isolate and measure, and are probably not independent of intelligence itself.

Staking the Desk: Unequal Funding

Because schools are funded by property taxes, schools in poor areas receive less funding then schools in wealthier areas.

Learning Objectives

Examine the inequality in public school systems and the implications for a student's future

Key Points

- In the United States, most public schools are funded primarily through local property taxes.
- According to the American dream, children should be able to use their education to achieve upward mobility.
- Educational deficits resulting from inequality also affect future life trajectories.
- Colleges tend to draw students from a relatively advantaged background because of their high costs and stiff academic requirements for enrollment.
- Because colleges want to maintain their rankings in various college ranking systems, colleges favor students with higher

standardized test scores and aggressively recruit them using "merit" scholarships.

Key Terms

- **property taxes**: Taxes levied by the government on landowners' property.
- **Upward mobility**: A change in a person's social status resulting in that person rising to a higher position in the status system.
- **public school**: A publicly administered school.

In the United States, most public schools are funded primarily through local property taxes. As a result, schools in wealthier neighborhoods have substantially larger budgets, which translates into better facilities, better teachers, and better resources. Whereas some people laud education as the great equalizer, others observe the effects of school funding schemes and conclude that they actually reinforce inequality and stratification. According to the American dream, children should be able to use their education to achieve upward mobility. But unequal school funding may afford students from poorer families fewer opportunities, reinforcing the status quo.

Educational deficits resulting from inequality also affect future life trajectories. Colleges tend to draw students from a relatively advantaged background because of their high costs and stiff academic requirements for enrollment. What's more, because colleges want to maintain their rankings in various college ranking systems, colleges favor students with higher standardized test scores and aggressively recruit them using "merit" scholarships. In 2000, affluent students, students who could otherwise afford to pay for college, received "merit" scholarships worth 82% of the need-based aid received by students with the lowest family incomes. In other words, affluent students who can pay for college often do not have to because the advantages they received attending better elementary, middle, and high schools translated into higher standardized test scores, which are attractive to universities when it comes to recruiting. As a result, there is less funding available for students who actually need it. This ends up reinforcing the existing status hierarchy by keeping the affluent wealthy, and the poor unable to attend college.



Property Tax and School Funding: Since school funding is often based on property taxes, poorer neighborhoods may have less money available for schools.

The Bottom Line: Family Background

Student achievement is highly correlated with family characteristics, including household income and parental educational attainment.

Learning Objectives

Examine the various factors within family background that give students an advantage in the educational realm

Key Points

- Wealthy students benefit from family background characteristics.
- The monetary advantages of unequal school funding are frequently coupled with the advantage of having a safe, supportive, and intellectually enriching home environment that comes with wealth.
- Educational deficits resulting from inequality also affect future life trajectories. Colleges tend to draw students from a relatively advantaged background because of their high costs and stiff academic requirements for enrollment.

Key Terms

- **parental educational attainment**: The level of education achieved by one's parents.
- **household income**: The total income of all members of a household.

Not only do wealthier students tend to attend better-funded schools, but they often also benefit from family background characteristics. The monetary advantages of unequal school funding are frequently coupled with the advantage of having a safe, supportive, and intellectually enriching home environment that comes with wealth. So it is not surprising that children who

attend better-funded public schools tend to be more successful than those who attend more poorly funded public schools.

In fact, family background may be even more important than school funding. Evidence suggests that the lifetime educational possibilities of most kids are set by the time they are six years old. This is due to the fact that several family background characteristics are very strong predictors of future educational attainment, including parental support, parental expectations for schooling, household income, and parental educational attainment, with the last two being the most important factors. Researchers can actually predict a child's lifetime educational attainment by using background characteristics observed when the child is in the first grade, and these predictions turn out to be just as good, or even better, at predicting educational attainment as similar predictions based on observations made when the student is in high school.

Educational deficits resulting from inequality also affect future life trajectories. Colleges tend to draw students from a relatively advantaged background because of their high costs and stiff academic requirements for enrollment. What's more, because colleges want to maintain their rankings in various college ranking systems (e.g., U.S. News & World Report), colleges favor students with higher standardized test scores and aggressively recruit them using "merit" scholarships. In 2000, affluent students, students who could otherwise afford to pay for college, received "merit" scholarships worth 82% of the need-based aid received by students with the lowest family incomes.

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4.3: Issues in the U.S. Education System

Unequal Access to Education

Access to education varies by geographic location, race, gender, and class.

Learning Objectives

Describe the upsides and downsides to the current educational system in the U.S.

Key Points

- In the United States, as in most countries, people with more education tend to enjoy higher economic status, power, prestige, and levels of income.
- Dropout rates are higher in certain locations and among minorities.
- In some areas, the best high schools are private high schools that may be out of reach for poorer students who cannot afford the tuition.
- U.S. public schools lag behind the schools of other developed countries in the areas of reading, math, and science.

Key Terms

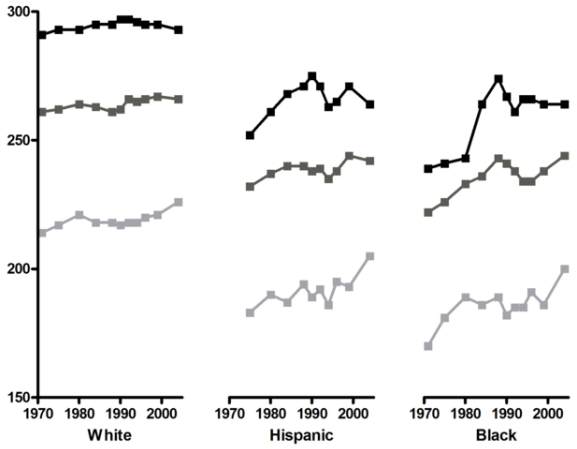
- **dropout rates**: Dropout rates are a measurement of the proportion of students who drop out, that is, who leave a school for practical reasons, necessities, or disillusionment with the system from which the individual in question leaves.
- **minority**: Categories of persons who hold few or no positions of social power in a given society.

In the United States, as in most countries, people with more education tend to enjoy higher economic status, power, prestige, and levels of income. One might expect, then, that all people would try to maximize their education. After all, education is meant to be the great equalizer by which anyone can climb the rungs of the social hierarchy. However, evidence suggests that certain groups have unequal access to education.

In the United States, public schools provide free education through 12th grade, but post-secondary college education is not free. Costs include tuition and room and board, even at public institutions. Those who are unable to afford the expense of college, therefore, have unequal access. According to a 2005 report from the OECD, the United States is tied for first place with Switzerland when it comes to annual spending per student on its public schools, with each of those two countries spending more than $11,000. However, the United States is ranked 37th in the world in education spending as a percentage of gross domestic product. All but seven of the leading countries are in the third world, ranked high because of a low GDP. U.S. public schools lag behind the schools of other developed countries in the areas of reading, math, and science.

Even in high school, economic, family, and social demands may lead some students to drop out before finishing. Thus, sociologists have observed that dropout rates vary among different social groups. For instance, dropout rates are lowest among Asian Americans, followed closely by whites. But Hispanic, black, and Native American students drop out at rates nearly double those of Asian and white students. Overall, the dropout rate has been declining for decades, since at least the 1970s, yet it remains disproportionately high for minority students.

School funding varies by geographic location. In part, the disparities in dropout rates may be a symptom of disparities in access to high quality education. In some areas, the best high schools are private high schools that may be out of reach for poorer students who cannot afford the tuition. Even public schools may receive different rates of funding; in particular, schools in poorer areas tend to receive less funding because school funding is often tied to property taxes. Thus, students who live in poorer areas may have less access to high quality education. One of the biggest debates in funding public schools is funding by local taxes or state taxes. The federal government supplies around 8.5% of the public school system funds, according to a 2005 report by the National Center for Education Statistics. The remaining split between state and local governments averages 48.7% from states and 42.8% from local sources. However, the division varies widely. In Hawaii local funds make up 1.7%, while state sources account for nearly 90.1%.



Trends in reading scores by race, 1970–2004: Reading- ages 9 (light gray), 13 (dark gray), and 17 (black). Trends in reading scores collected by the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), with the light-gray line indicating data collection at age 9, dark-gray at age 13, and black at age 17. White, hispanic, and black students all improved their reading scores as they aged. Notably, however, the achievement gap between white vs. black and hispanic students has narrowed over time but has by no means disappeared; white students still show the highest achievement in reading.

English as a Second Language

English as a second language (ESL) refers to the use or study of English by speakers with different native languages.

Learning Objectives

Describe some of the difficulties and challenges facing ELL students in the U.S.

Key Points

- English language learners (ELL) must learn to speak and write English in addition to learning substantive content in schools.
- ELL students are often tracked with lower ability students because they have lower standardized test scores, which may inaccurately measure their academic ability.
- ELL students are more likely to drop out. In the U.S., schools may let ELL and other low-scoring students drop out in order to raise average test scores.
- ELL students may have trouble earning the English credits necessary to be accepted into college.
- On average, ELL students come from poorer families than native speakers, which presents an additional barrier to college.
- ESL programs may help ELL students form friendships and encourage social interaction, tolerance, and multicultural values.

- ESL programs may help ELL students form friendships and encourage social interaction, tolerance, and multicultural values.

Key Terms

- **tolerance**: The ability or practice of tolerating; an acceptance or patience with the beliefs, opinions or practices of others; a lack of bigotry.
- **native speaker**: A person who grew up with a particular language as their mother tongue.
- **Standardized Test Scores**: A standardized test is a test that is administered and scored in a consistent, or “standard”, manner.

English as a second language (ESL), English for speakers of other languages (ESOL) and English as a foreign language (EFL) all refer to the use or study of English by speakers with different native languages. Generally, English Language Learners (ELL) are refugees, immigrants, or their children. They must learn English as a Second Language (ESL) in order to function in their new host country. In the U.S. over the last twenty years, more than 70% of non-English-speaking school-age immigrants have arrived in the U.S. before they were 6 years old. At this age, they could have been taught English in school, and achieved a proficiency indistinguishable from a native speaker. In other countries, such as the Russia, France, Spain, and Germany this approach has dramatically improved reading and math test scores for linguistic minorities. Supporters of ESL programs claim they play an important role in the formation of peer networks and adjustment to school and society in their new homes. Having class among other students learning English as a second language relieves the pressure of making mistakes when speaking in class or to peers. ESL programs also allow students to meet and form friendships with other non-native speakers from different cultures, promoting racial tolerance and multiculturalism.

Potential Academic Barriers for ELL Students

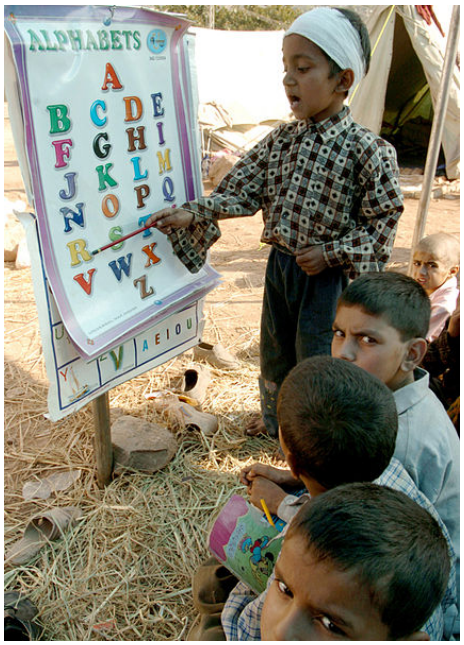
Nevertheless, ELL students face predictable difficulties in learning English. Those whose native languages are drastically different from English may find it especially difficult to learn the sounds and grammar of English, while others whose native languages are more similar may have less trouble. But these students also face difficulties unrelated to learning the language itself, including the possibility of having their abilities underestimated, a higher probability of dropping out, difficulty paying for and succeeding in college, and social problems connecting with native speakers. ELL students are often tracked with lower ability students because they have lower standardized test scores, which may inaccurately measure their academic ability.

ELL students are also more likely to drop out of high school. Their higher dropout rates may be due to difficulties in keeping up in mainstream classes or to prior interruptions in their formal education. For example, some ELL students may have spent time in refugee camps where they had no opportunity to attend school. Further, some have speculated that school administrators may actually encourage ELL students to drop out because it may increase the school's overall average test scores, which may in turn benefit the school (e.g., by ensuring continued funding).

ELL students face additional barriers to pursuing higher education. Most colleges and universities require four years of English in high school, but many will accept only one year of ESL English. ELL students who arrive in the United States relatively late may find it difficult to meet this requirement because they must spend a longer time in ESL English classes in high school, or because they might not arrive early enough to complete four years of English in high school. Consequently, some ELL students lack the required credits to apply for college.

ELL students can also face financial barriers to higher education. Those who do not place high enough on college placement exams often have to enroll in ESL courses at their universities. Often, they must pay fees for these courses in addition to tuition, and these courses may not count as credit towards graduation. These additional fees add to the financial burden faced by ELL students who often come from families of lower socioeconomic status. The latest statistics show that the median household income for school-age ELL students is $36,691 while that of non-ELL students is $60,280.

ELL students often have difficulty interacting with native speakers. ELL students may avoid interactions with native speakers because they are frustrated with or embarrassed by their English ability. Immigrant students often also lack knowledge about popular U.S. culture, which limits their conversations with native speakers to academic topics. In classroom group activities with native speakers, ELL students often do not participate, again because of embarrassment of their English, but also because of cultural differences which value silence and individual work at school over social interaction and talking in class. These interactions have been found to extend to teacher-student interactions as well. In most mainstream classrooms, teacher-led discussion is the most common form of lesson. In this setting, ELL students will fail to participate, and often have difficulty understanding teachers because they talk too fast, do not use visual aids, or use native colloquialisms. ELL students also have trouble getting involved with extracurricular activities with native speakers for similar reasons. Students fail to join extra-curricular activities because of the language barrier, cultural emphasis of academics over other activities, or failure to understand traditional pastimes in their new country.



Displaced Pakistani children learn English as a second language: Displaced Pakistani children located at the Dewan Tent Village attend school in Muzaffarabad, Pakistan. Children are taught English as their second language in the 3rd grade. The United States is participating in a multi-national assistance and support effort led by the Pakistani Government to bring aid to the victims of the devastating earthquake that struck the region on October 8th, 2005. U.S. Navy photo by Photographer's Mate 2nd Class Eric S. Powell

High School Dropouts

While education can improve life chances, not everyone has equal access to education.

Learning Objectives

Recall some of the reasons why students in the U.S. may drop out of high school and the potential consequences of dropping out

Key Points

- The more education people have, the higher their income, the better their life chances, and the higher their standard of living.
- Dropout rates also vary geographically, with the lowest rates in northern states.
- The relationships students have with their peers also influence a student's likelihood of dropping out.

Key Terms

- **Academic Risk Factors**: Academic risk factors refer to the performance of students in school and are highly related to school-level problems. These factors include absenteeism,

grade retention, special education placement, low performance and grades, and low educational expectations.

- **life chances**: Life chances (Lebenschancen in German) is a political theory of the opportunities each individual has to improve his or her quality of life. The concept was introduced by German sociologist Max Weber. It is a probabilistic concept, describing how likely it is, given certain factors, that an individual's life will turn out a certain way.

Life Chances

The more education people have, the higher their income, the better their life chances, and the higher their standard of living. In general, people with more education tend to earn higher incomes and enjoy a higher standard of living. High school dropouts are much less likely to be employed than those with high school and college degrees. Even earning a four-year degree can raise average weekly income by nearly $400.



Bobby Fischer 1960 in Leipzig: Chess legend Bobby Fischer never finished high school; however, most high school dropouts do not achieve his level of success.

Max Weber used the concept of "life chances" to express an individual's access to employment opportunities and other resources. In part, life chances are determined by birth. An individual born into a wealthy family will have higher life chances than average because they will have access to greater opportunities from the moment they are born.

Education also offers a means to improve one's life chances by improving employment opportunities and making social connections. Thus, the consequences to dropping out can be high, as they significantly decrease the opportunity to improve one's life chances. In addition to personal costs, dropping out has social costs. Dropouts have a greater likelihood of being arrested. Ultimately, this can lower the average standard of living for society as a whole. According to estimates, the average high school dropout will cost the government over $292,000.

Academic Risk Factors

Not all students have an equal risk of dropping out. Students at risk for dropout based on academic risk factors are those who often have a history of absenteeism and grade retention, academic trouble, and more general disengagement from school life. Students may also be at risk for dropout based on social risk factors. Members of racial and ethnic minority groups drop out at higher rates than white students, as do those from low-income families, from single-parent households, and from families in which one or both parents also did not complete high school. Dropout rates also vary geographically, with the lowest rates in northern states. The highest dropout rates occur in the south and southwestern United States.

Why else might students drop out? Sociologists tend to group dropout risk factors into different categories, including academic risk factors and school-level risk factors. Academic risk factors relate to the performance of students in school. School structure, curriculum, and size may increase the exposure of students to academic risk factors. For example, students are more likely to drop out when they attend schools with less rigorous curriculum, when they attend large schools, or when they attend schools with poor student-teacher interactions.

The relationships students have with their peers also influence a student's likelihood of dropping out. Students who build relationships with anti-social peers or who have deviant friends were more likely to drop out of school early regardless of their achievement in school. Relationships with parents can also influence a student's decision to stay in school. The better the relationship, as demonstrated through positive interaction and parental involvement, the more likely the student will stay in school. If a student does not have a good relationship with her parents, the student is more likely to drop out even if she has good grades and good behavior.

Students who drop out of school may identify different motivations, including uninteresting classes (a lack of engagement with school life and classes), feeling unmotivated (especially by teachers who did not demand enough or were not inspirational), personal reasons (had to get a job, became a parent, had to support or care for a family member), and academic challenges (felt like they could not keep up, felt unprepared for high school, had to repeat a grade, or graduation requirements seemed out of reach).

Finally, some education researchers have noted that dropout rates may have been exacerbated by policies such as the U.S. No Child Left Behind Act that required schools to use high-stakes standardized testing as an accountability measure. These policies may have inadvertently encouraged students to drop out

of high school, since teachers and administrators utilize grade retention as a strategy to improve test scores and ensure positive ratings for the school. As mentioned above, grade retention increases the likelihood that a student will drop out of school.

Violence in Schools

School violence is a serious problem in the United States, and attempts to explain it identify both individual and social risk factors.

Learning Objectives

Recall the risk factors for school violence in the U:S. and the two types of bullying

Key Points

- Individual risk factors for school violence include a tendency to externalize problems, or act out, as well as developmental delays, low IQ, and reading problems.
- Social risk factors for school violence include an unstable home environment, violent neighborhoods, and certain characteristics of a school environment.
- A neighborhood environment may contribute to school violence when a community ‘s high rates of crime or drug use spills over into the classroom.
- Bullying may be committed by one student or a group of students.
- Physical bullying is the most easily identified and includes unwanted physical contact such as pushing, kicking, and tickling. It may also include the use of weapons.
- Verbal bullying is any slanderous statements or accusations that cause the victim undue emotional distress, such as insulting someone’s appearance, laughing at someone, or directing foul language toward someone.
- Emotionally bullying is any form of bullying that damages a victim’s emotional well-being, such as spreading malicious rumors, giving someone the silent treatment, or harassment.

Key Terms

- **School Violence**: School violence is widely considered to have become a serious problem in recent decades in many countries, particularly violence involving weapons. This includes violence between school students as well as physical attacks by students on school staff.
- **bullying**: an act of physically or emotionally intimidating a weaker person to do something, especially through repeated coercion

School violence is a serious problem in the United States. This refers to violence between students as well as physical attacks by students on school staff. In 2007, a nationwide survey conducted by the Centers of Disease Control and Prevention found that, during the 30 days before they took the survey, 5.9% of students had carried a weapon to school, and 5.5% of students had skipped school because they did not feel safe. In the 12 months before they took the survey, 12.4% of students had been in a physical fight on school property at least once. Between 1996 and 2003, at least 46 individuals were killed in 27 school incidents involving the use of firearms.

While these numbers are alarming, data also shows that most crimes at school are not violent. In 2001, students between the ages of 12 and 18 were the victims of two million crimes at school, but 62% of those crimes were thefts. In part, violence receives more attention because it draws media coverage. For example, school shootings account for less than 1% of violent crimes in public schools, yet nearly every school shooting makes national headlines. Nevertheless, because school violence can have such serious consequences, educators and policymakers take the issue very seriously.

Explanations of School Violence

Attempts to explain school violence have identified several individual and social risk factors. Individual risk factors include a tendency to externalize problems, or “act out,” as well as developmental delays, low IQ, and reading problems. Social risk factors include an unstable home environment, violent neighborhoods, and certain characteristics of a school environment. A home environment may contribute to school violence if, at home, students are exposed to gun violence, parental alcoholism, domestic violence, physical abuse, sexual abuse, or harsh parental discipline. All of these may teach children that criminal and violent activities are acceptable and may increase a child’s tendency to respond to frustration with aggression. A neighborhood environment may contribute to school violence if a community has high rates of crime or drug use. A neighborhood may also expose students to deviant peers or to gangs who contribute to violence inside schools. Finally, school violence tends to be higher in certain types of schools, the characteristics of which are listed below:

- a large male population
- higher grade levels
- a history of disciplinary problems
- a high student-to-teacher ratio
- urban location

Prevention and intervention strategies may target individual students, families, the school community, or society in general. Individual-level strategies target at-risk or aggressive students and teach these students conflict resolution, problem solving, and social skills. Family-based solutions attempt to improve family relationships in order to improve students’ experiences while they are at home. School-wide strategies are designed to

modify school characteristics associated with violence. Examples of this would be classroom practices that encourage student cooperation and close interaction with teachers, or the presence of police and law enforcement in schools to discourage violence. Finally, society-level prevention strategies attempt to change social and cultural conditions in order to reduce violence, regardless of where it occurs. For example, society-level strategies might try to reduce the violence portrayed in movies or music.

Bullying

In recent years, one particular type of school violence, bullying, has garnered special attention. Bullying can be committed by one student or a group of students. Typically, a group of bullies takes advantage of, or isolates, one student in particular and gains the loyalty of bystanders who, in many cases, want to avoid becoming victims themselves. Bullies typically taunt and tease their target before physically bullying their target. The targets of bullying are often students who are considered strange or different by their peers to begin with, making the situation harder for them to deal with. Often, victims are targeted based on their appearance, their gender, or their sexual orientation.

Bullying is a common occurrence in most schools. According to the American Psychological Association, “approximately 40% to 80% of school-age children experience bullying at some point during their school careers. ” Bullying can be physical, verbal, and emotional. Physical bullying is the most easily identified and includes unwanted physical contact such as pushing, kicking, tickling, or the like, and may also include the use of weapons. Verbal bullying is any slanderous statements or accusations that cause the victim undue emotional distress. This can include insulting someone’s appearance, laughing at someone, or directing foul language toward someone. Emotionally bullying is any form of bullying that damages a victim’s emotional well-being, such as spreading malicious rumors, giving someone the silent treatment, or harassment. Bullying can also take place over the internet with text messaging. This “cyber-bullying” is particularly pernicious because it can be done anonymously, without detection by parents or authorities.



Bullying: Bullying is an increasingly recognized problem in schools.

Homeschooling

Homeschooling is the education of children at home rather than in the setting of a school.

Learning Objectives

Sketch generally the different regulations regarding homeschooling which can be found in the United States

Key Points

- Motivations for home schooling vary, but may include dissatisfaction with the school environment, religious or moral reasons, or dissatisfaction with the quality of academic instruction provided in local schools.
- The legal status of home schooling varies by states, but in all cases, homeschooled students must meet certain requirements and are subject to certain assessments to ensure the quality of education.
- Homeschooled students have varying access to resources, including extracurricular activities.

Key Terms

- **home schooling**: Homeschooling or home school (also called home education or home-based learning) is the education of children at home, typically by parents but sometimes by tutors, rather than in other formal settings of public or private school.

Homeschooling is the education of children at home, typically by parents but sometimes by tutors, rather than in other formal settings of public or private school. In the United States, about 2.9% of students, or about 1.5 million children, are homeschooled. Most homeschooled children are homeschooled only, but about one in five are also enrolled in public or private schools, which they may attend for 25 hours or less each week. By enrolling part-time at a school, homeschooled students can

study subjects such as foreign languages and sciences, which may be more difficult to teach at home. They may also be eligible to participate in academic and athletic extracurricular activities.

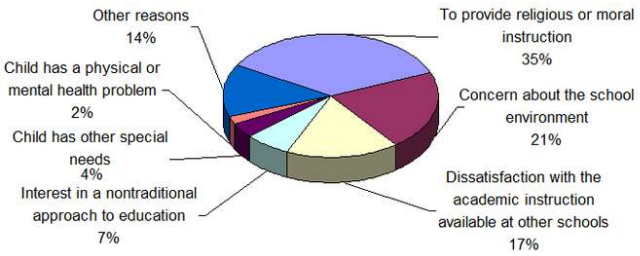
Motivations for homeschooling vary, but may include dissatisfaction with the school environment, religious or moral reasons, or dissatisfaction with the quality of academic instruction provided in local schools. Surveys suggest that the most common motivations for homeschooling are concern about the school environment (e.g., safety, drugs, or negative peer pressure), a desire to provide religious or moral instruction, and dissatisfaction with academic instruction at other schools. Parents may also choose to homeschool children with special needs that the parent feels the school cannot or will not meet. Other, less common motivations include concerns about family time, finances, travel, and distance.

In the United States education is compulsory. Every state has some form of a compulsory attendance law that requires children in a certain age range to spend a specific amount of time being educated. The most common way for parents to meet these requirements is to have their children attend public school. However, parents have always had some degree of choice in where and how children are educated. Thus, the legality of homeschooling has been debated, and that debate has focused largely on whether it is legal for parents to withhold children from school and educate them in a home setting. Since the 1980s, the focus of the debate has shifted to questions about the distribution of resources and state control over homeschooling. The legality of homeschooling is generally accepted, but debate continues over whether homeschooling communities can access state school funds, facilities, and resources and whether the state can regulate areas like curricula and standardized testing.

Today, homeschooling is legal in all 50 states, although it is regulated in different ways by each state. Homeschooling laws can be divided into three categories. First, in some states, homeschooling is treated like a type of private school. In these states, homeschools are generally required to comply with the same laws that apply to other schools. Homeschools in California, Indiana, and Texas, for example, fall into this category. In other states, the requirements for homeschooling are set by the particular parameters of the compulsory attendance statute. These states' compulsory attendance laws do not make any specific reference to "homeschooling. " Homeschools in New Jersey, Maryland, for example, fall into this category. Third, in other states homeschool requirements are based on a statute or group of statutes that specifically applies to homeschooling. In these states, the requirements for homeschooling are set out in the relevant statutes. Often, these statutes refer to homeschooling by another name. For example, in Virginia it is "home instruction," in South Dakota it is "alternative instruction," and in Iowa it is "competent private instruction. "

States also differ in the level of resources they make available to homeschooled students. A minority of states require public schools to give homeschooled students access to district resources, such as school libraries, computer labs, extracurricular activities, or even academic courses. In some communities, homeschoolers may meet with a teacher periodically for curriculum review and suggestions. Other states give districts the option of giving homeschooled students access to such resources.

Access to interscholastic athletic competition varies from state to state. Some state athletic associations ban homeschoolers from interscholastic competition, both by prohibiting homeschoolers to compete for a state federation member school as well as by prohibiting member schools to compete against independent teams made up of homeschoolers. In such states, homeschoolers may only compete amongst other homeschoolers or against schools that are not members of the state's interscholastic athletic federation. Other states allow homeschoolers to compete for the public schools that they would otherwise attend by virtue of their residence. Still other state interscholastic athletic associations allow homeschoolers to organize teams that compete against other established schools, but do not allow homeschoolers to compete on established school teams.



Motivations for homeschooling: Motivations regarded most important for homeschooling among parents in 2007

Standardized Tests

A standardized test is a test that is administered and scored in a consistent manner.

Learning Objectives

Argue for or against standardized testing based on the key points attributed to proponents and critics in the text

Key Points

- Standardized tests are one common method by which schools measure students' academic achievement, and they may also be used to measure students' progress and teachers'

effectiveness, or in order to assess whether students are ready to progress to the next stage in their education.
- One of the main advantages of standardized testing is that the results can be empirically documented.
- Critics point out that standardized tests actually evaluate three things: what students learn in school, what they learn outside of school, and their innate intelligence.
- Critics worry that standardized tests lead teachers to "teach to the test".
- Testing bias occurs when a test systematically favors one group over another, even though both groups may be equal on the trait the test measures.
- No Child Left Behind required that states assess educational achievement and allocate resources using standardized tests.
- Testing bias occurs when a test systematically favors one group over another, even though both groups are equal on the trait the test measures.

Key Terms

- **standardized tests**: A standardized test is a test that is administered and scored in a consistent, or "standard", manner.
- **No Child Left Behind**: The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB) is a United States Act of Congress that came about as wide public concern about the state of education. NCLB is a reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, which included Title I, the government's flagship aid program for disadvantaged students. NCLB supports standards-based education reform based on the premise that setting high standards and establishing measurable goals can improve individual outcomes in education.
- **Testing Bias**: Testing bias occurs when a test systematically favors one group over another, even though both groups are equal on the trait the test measures.

Standardized tests are one common method by which schools measures students' academic achievement. These tests may be given periodically and repeatedly to measure students' progress and teachers' effectiveness, or they may be given at key points during students' careers to assess whether they are ready to progress to the next stage in their education—often, the next grade level or college. A standardized test is a test that is administered and scored in a consistent manner. They are designed so that the questions, conditions for administering, scoring procedures, and interpretations are purportedly without bias.

Proponents of Standardized Tests

One of the main advantages of standardized testing is that the results can be empirically documented; the test scores can be shown to have a relative degree of validity and reliability, being generalizable and replicable. Standardized tests allow educators, policymakers, and admissions committees easily and fairly compare results from different students. It may be difficult to account for differences in educational culture across schools, difficulty of a given teacher's curriculum, differences in teaching style, and techniques and biases that affect grading. This makes standardized tests useful for admissions purposes in higher education, where a school is trying to compare students from across the nation or across the world.

Opponents of Standardized Tests

Critics worry that standardized tests lead teachers to "teach to the test. " Standardized tests can be useful tools for assessing student achievement, and they can be used to focus instruction on desired outcomes, such as reading and math skills. However, critics feel that overuse and misuse of these tests harms teaching and learning by narrowing the curriculum. While it is possible to use a standardized test without letting its contents determine curriculum and instruction, frequently what is not tested is not taught, and how the subject is tested often becomes a model for how to teach the subject.

Further, standardized tests tend to measure only one sort of knowledge, while discounting creativity and diverse modes of expression. In essence, standardized tests use a one-size-fits-all theory, which is not always an effective way to measure students' knowledge and comprehension. Students who fail standardized tests may be diagnosed with learning disabilities or disorders instead of recognized for the skills they have, which are consequently left unchallenged and undeveloped.

Finally, critics have expressed concern that standardized tests may create testing bias. Testing bias occurs when a test systematically favors one group over another, even though both groups are equal on the trait the test measures. Critics allege that test makers and facilitators tend to represent a middle class, white background and standardized testing matches the values, habits, and language of the test makers. Students who share that background may have an advantage on standardized tests that has nothing to do with academic achievement or aptitude but is due to shared cultural background.

No Child Left Behind

In 2001, the United States passed the No Child Left Behind Act, which requires all states to test students in public schools statewide to ensure that they are achieving the desired level of minimum education. Although some states already had statewide standardized testing requirements, for many states, this act required them to create new systems. The act

reinvigorated debate over the accuracy, efficacy, and justice of relying on standardized tests to measure student achievement.

However, critics charge that standardized tests have become a mandatory curriculum placed into schools without public debate and without any accountability measures of its own. Many feel this ignores basic democratic principles in that control of schools' curricula is removed from local school boards, which are the nominal curricular authority in the U.S.

The act is especially controversial because it ties funding to standardized test schools. Under the act, students and schools must demonstrate "adequate yearly progress. " That is, they must show some improvement every year. When a student fails to make adequate yearly progress, schools must provide tutoring or other interventions to help the student improve. When schools fail to show adequate yearly progress, they may lose funding or be taken over by the school board or state.

GED, SAT and ACT

In many places the United States, standardized tests are also used as a graduation requirement. Students must pass a standardized test in order to graduate from high school. The General Educational Development (GED) test, is often used as an alternative to a high school diploma. During high school, students may also take standardized tests as a requirement for applying to college. The most common standardized tests for applying to college are the SAT and ACT.



Multiple Choice Test: Some standardized testing uses multiple-choice tests, which are relatively inexpensive to score, but any form of assessment can be used.

Gender Bias in the Classroom

Gender-based achievement gaps suggest the existence of gender bias in the classroom.

Learning Objectives

Analyze both the possible root causes of gender-based achievement gaps and its proposed solutions

Key Points

- Boys outscore girls on most high-stakes tests, including both the math and verbal sections of the SAT.
- Girls may receive negative attention bias from teachers, though much of it may be unintentional.
- Teachers may reinforce gender bias when they give more attention to boys or excuse boys' behavior with the excuse that "boys will be boys."
- Single-sex classrooms have been proposed as a solution to gender bias.
- Despite evidence of gender bias, girls outperform boys in reading and writing and have made steady gains in career access.

Key Terms

- **The SAT**: SAT Reasoning Test (formerly Scholastic Aptitude Test and Scholastic Assessment Test): a national exam taken annually by high school juniors and seniors.
- **achievement gap**: The observed and persistent disparity between the performance of groups of students defined by gender, race/ethnicity and socioeconomic status, based on a number of educational measures.
- **gender bias**: A prejudicial stance towards males or females

Gender-based achievement gaps (especially in math and science) suggest the existence of gender bias in the classroom.

Although most people would like to believe gender bias in the classroom is no longer a problem, evidence points to a persistent achievement gap between boys and girls. Although girls tend to stay in school longer, have better attendance records, and earn better report card grades, boys outscore girls on most high-stakes tests, including both the math and verbal sections of the SAT. Men also outscore women on standardized tests for graduate school, law school, and medical school.

Dissecting Classroom Gender Bias

If test score gaps are evidence of gender bias, where does that gender bias come from? Numerous explanations have been proposed:

- Women and girls may choose to take fewer advanced math or science courses, or they may be discouraged from doing so.
- Cultural norms could influence girls to prepare for their expected role of keeping a home and nurturing children, though such norms are less stringently enforced than in the past.

- Teachers may interact with boys and girls in ways that reinforce gender roles and gender inequality.

Of course, few teachers would admit to bringing gender bias into the classroom, and much of their influence may be unintentional. Nevertheless, teachers may reinforce gender bias when they give more attention to boys or excuse boys' behavior with the excuse that "boys will be boys. " Teachers may also reinforce gender bias simply by drawing distinctions between boys and girls. For example, lining up students or seating them by gender affirms the idea that boys and girls should be treated differently. Teachers may also influence students by the way they give praise, encourage a student to correct or expand an answer, criticize, or accept without evaluating a response. Research suggests teachers are more likely to respond to boys with praise or encouragement, whereas they are more likely to respond to girls by simply accepting or acknowledging a response without evaluating it. Because girls are typically socialized to be quiet and passive, teachers may need to actively encourage their participation in class in order to avoid boy-dominated discussion, or a situation in which boys receive more feedback from and interaction with teachers because they more actively participate in class.

One proposed solution to gender bias in the classroom is to separate boys and girls in single-sex classrooms. Theoretically, single-sex classrooms would help students focus without distracting interactions with children of the opposite gender. They could also decrease pressure on girls who feel nervous participating in boy-dominated class discussion. However, empirical studies give mixed evidence as to the efficacy of single-sex schooling, and critics worry that it constitutes a separate-but-equal form of discrimination.

Career Access

Despite evidence of gender bias, female career access has made steady gains in recent years, due largely to the women's rights movement. More women are now able to work outside the home; although some may be driven to work not as an expression of liberty or equality, but out of economic necessity. Still, women earn only about 75 cents for every dollar earned by men, and many work in low status, sex-stereotyped occupations. In part, that may be due to the college majors women choose. But why, one might ask, would women be more likely to choose college majors that will not benefit them in careers? Sociologists would point to social influences and cultural expectations.

The "Boy Code"

Further, though most research and debate about gender bias in the classroom focuses on bias against girls, recent evidence suggests that boys may be falling behind girls, especially in literacy. In fact, the latest national test scores, collected by the National Assessment of Educational Progress, show that girls have met or exceeded the reading performance of boys at all age levels; by fourth grade, boys have fallen two years behind girls in their reading and writing skills. The male literacy gap has been attributed to sex-based differences in brain function as well as to social factors like the expectations set by an unwritten "boy code" to discourages boys from expressing emotions. This boy code may make male students less likely to share opinions about literature or express frustrations or difficulties to teachers. Thus, just as social pressures may convince some girls they cannot excel at science or math, social pressures may convince some boys they cannot succeed in reading and writing.

The gendering of school subjects may, in itself, lead to gender bias in the classroom, and, further down the line, gender inequality in the workforce.



Children in a Classroom: Boys and girls learn together in a classroom.

The Gifted

There is no standard definition of "gifted," nor a standard way of implementing gifted education.

Learning Objectives

List the various forms of education for the gifted and the controversies around gifted education

Key Points

- Common forms of education for the gifted have included acceleration, pull-out, cluster grouping and summer enrichment.
- According to the 1972 Marland Report, gifted youth are more likely than average to experience academic failure and develop social and emotional problems.
- Gifted education received federal support during the Cold War, but that support has recently been eroded.

- Controversies exist over the appropriateness of different forms of gifted education and their emotional effects on students.

Key Terms

- **cluster grouping**: Cluster grouping is the gathering of four to six gifted and talented or high achieving students in a single classroom for the entire school day.
- **gifted**: Endowed with special, in particular intellectual, abilities.
- **pull-out**: Gifted students are pulled out of a heterogeneous classroom to spend a portion of their time in a gifted class.

Though gifted education programs are widespread, there is no standard definition of "gifted," nor a standard way of implementing gifted education. Gifted education programs are justified by a two-pronged argument: First, gifted and talented youth are not adequately challenged by the standard curriculum and therefore require accelerated curricula or enrichment activities to reach their full potential. Second, gifted and talented youth are inherently at-risk.

This second argument may seem counter-intuitive, but it has gained general credibility. This argument was formally articulated by the 1972 Marland Report by then U.S. Commissioner of Education S. P. Marland. According to the report, gifted youth are more likely than average to experience academic failure and to develop social and emotional problems. Gifted students may experience social rejection and difficulty making friends, as well as grapple with fear of failure and perfectionism. They may intentionally play down their abilities in order to make friends. They are also more prone to depression, anxiety and disengagement, as well as to behavior problems and drug and alcohol abuse. This may be in part due to a need for stimulation beyond what they receive in a typical classroom.

Since the early 20th century, definitions of "gifted" have been based on IQ, or intelligence quotient. Different schools may set different cut-offs for defining giftedness, but a common standard is the top 2% of students with an IQ score of about 140 or above. More general definitions of giftedness may also evaluate students' capability in areas like intellectual, creative, artistic, or leadership capacity, or in specific academic fields. Evaluations may be based on portfolios of student work, classroom observations, and achievement measures.

The 2002 No Child Left Behind law shifted attention away from gifted students. The law aims to bring proficiency of all students to grade level, but critics note it does not address the needs of gifted students who perform above grade level. The act imposes punishments on schools, administrators and teachers when students do not achieve to the plan's designs, but does not address any achievement standards for high functioning students. This forces schools and teachers to spend their time with low achieving students. As a result of this law, many fear, gifted services have been eroding

Forms of Gifted Education

Gifted education programs take many forms, including a combination of acceleration, pull-out or cluster grouping, and enrichment activities. Acceleration programs may compact curriculum or allow students to self-pace. In compacting, students are pre-tested to determine which skills or content they have already mastered, thus allowing students to skip repetitive practice. This reduces boredom and frees time to work on more challenging material. In self-pacing, students advance at their own speeds. In general, acceleration programs advance students to higher-level material suited to their abilities and preparedness – students may skip grades, skip ahead in particular subjects, or enroll at local community colleges.



Gifted Class: Laura Bush listens to a student talk about sea turtles during a 2006 visit to Banyan Elementary School in Miami, FL, in support of education about parks and the environment.

An alternative to acceleration is pull-out or cluster grouping, in which gifted students are removed from regular classrooms. In pull-out programs, gifted students spend most of the school day with a regular classroom of mixed abilities, but may be pulled out for an hour or part of a day to practice critical thinking drills, creative exercises, or subjects not introduced in standard curriculums. Pull-out programs are generally ineffective at promoting academic achievement since they do not align with the regular curriculum.

Finally, summer enrichment presents gifted students with extra material above and beyond the standard curriculum. Students spend school days with a regular classroom, but also complete enrichment activities given as a modified assignment by the regular classroom teacher. These could include formal programs like Odyssey of the Mind or academic competitions like National History Day. Summer enrichment programs typically operate like summer camps, as students pay a fee to attend and

may enroll in programs that typically focus on one subject. In any case, enrichment work is done in addition to regular school work.

Controversy

Controversies concerning gifted education are varied and often highly politicized. They are as basic as agreeing upon the appropriateness of the term "gifted" or the definition of "giftedness. " For example, does "giftedness" refer to performance or potential? Many students do not exhibit both at the same time. Measures of general intelligence also remain controversial. Early IQ tests were notorious for producing higher IQ scores for privileged races and classes and lower scores for disadvantaged subgroups. Although IQ tests have changed substantially over the past half century, and many objections to the early tests have been addressed by "culture neutral," IQ testing remains controversial.



Illinois Mathematics and Science Academy: Schools like the Illinois Mathematics and Science Academy cater to the needs of gifted students.

Educational Reform in the U.S.

Education reforms aim at redressing some societal ills, such as gender-, and class-based inequities, or instructional ineffectiveness.

Learning Objectives

Outline the main motivations for educational reform and the timeline of its various manifestations

Key Points

- Educational reform has been closely tied to efforts to promote democracy.
- Another motivation for reform is the desire to address socioeconomic problems, such as health, wealth and well being, which many people see as having roots in unequal access to education.
- In the 1980s, conservative reformers tried to limit federal involvement in education, and E.D. Hirsch argued education must teach cultural literacy.
- In the 1990s and 2000s, reformers pushed for outcomes-based education with an emphasis on assessment.
- Teachers' unions are considered by many to be the major barrier to continued reform.
- Persistent issues in educational reform include school funding, school choice, and alternatives to public education.
- Teachers' unions are considered by many to be the major barrier to continued reform.

Key Terms

- **school choice**: School choice is a term used to describe a wide array of programs aimed at giving families the opportunity to choose the school their children will attend.
- **cultural literacy**: Knowledge of and ability to discuss the history of and major concepts underlying a culture, particularly one's own and those of one's peers.
- **outcomes-based education**: Outcome-based education (OBE) is a student-centered learning philosophy that focuses on empirically measuring student performance, which are called outcomes. OBE contrasts with traditional education, which primarily focuses on the resources that are available to the student, which are called inputs.

Education reform has been pursued for a variety of specific reasons, but, generally, most reforms aim at redressing some societal ills, such as poverty-, gender-, or class-based inequities, or perceived ineffectiveness.

The idea that all children should be provided with a high level of education is a relatively recent idea, and has arisen largely in the context of Western democracy in the twentieth century. In fact, educational reform has been closely tied to efforts to promote democracy. Many students of democracy desire to improve education in order to improve the quality of governance in democratic societies. The necessity of good public education follows logically if one believes that the quality of democratic governance depends on the ability of citizens to make informed, intelligent choices, and education can improve these abilities. In the United States, for example, democratic education was promoted by Thomas Jefferson, who advocated ambitious reforms for public schooling in Virginia.

Another motivation for reform is the desire to address socioeconomic problems, which many people see as having roots in unequal access to education. Starting in the twentieth century, people have attempted to argue that small improvements in education can have large returns in such areas as health, wealth and well being. For example, in developing countries, increases in women's literacy rates were correlated

with increases in women's health, and increasing primary education was correlated with increasing farming efficiencies and income. Even in developed countries, an individual's level of education may predict the type of career and level of income that person can expect to achieve.

Other education reforms have been motivated by attempts to improve the effectiveness of instruction. Many modern reforms have attempted to move away from a model of education in which a teacher lectures and delivers facts to a passive student audience. For example, M. Montessori argued that education must take into account the individual needs of each child. John Dewey suggested that effective education poses problems and puzzles that motivate children to learn.

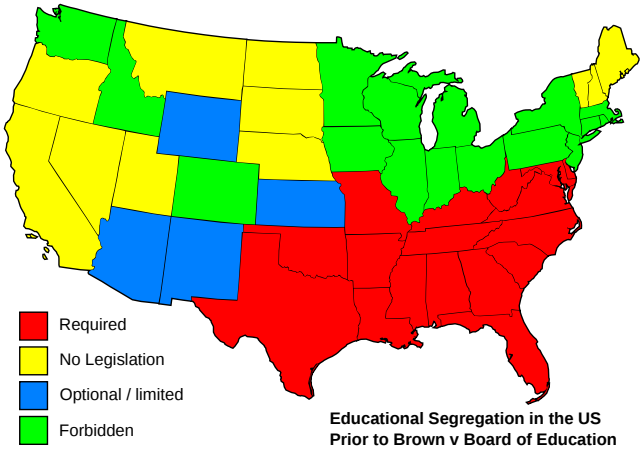
Over the years, education reform has focused on different goals. From the 1950s to the 1970s, many of the proposed and implemented reforms in U.S. education stemmed from the Civil Rights Movement and related trends; examples include ending racial segregation and busing for the purpose of desegregation, affirmative action, and banning of school prayer. In general, these reforms gave more students from more diverse backgrounds access to education.

In the 1980s, the momentum of education reform moved from the left to the right. For example, E.D. Hirsch put forth an influential attack on progressive education. He argued that progressive education failed to teach "cultural literacy," the facts, phrases, and texts that Hirsch asserted every American had once known and were still essential for decoding basic texts and maintaining communication. Hirsch's ideas remain significant through the 1990s and into the twenty-first century and are incorporated into classroom practice through textbooks and curricula published under his own imprint.

In the 1990s, most states and districts adopted Outcome-Based Education (OBE) in some form or another. Under OBE, a state would create a committee to adopt standards and choose a quantitative instrument (often, a standardized test) to assess whether the students knew the required content or could perform the required tasks. During this period, the U.S. Congress also set the standards-based National Education Goals (Goals 2000). Many of these goals were based on the principles of outcomes-based education, and not all of the goals were attained by the year 2000 as was intended. The standards-based reform movement culminated in the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001. In general, OBE reforms attempt to increase accountability in education. Rather than reforming the educational process, they focus on the effects that process achieves by measuring outcomes (e.g., student achievement).

A central issue for educational reform advocates today is school choice. Debates over school choice focus on advocates' claim that school choice can promote excellence in education through competition. A highly competitive "market" for schools would eliminate the need to otherwise enforce accountability from the top down. According to advocates, schools would naturally regulate themselves and attempt to raise standards in order to attract students. Most proposals for school choice call for vouchers. Public education vouchers would permit guardians to select and pay any school, public or private, with public funds currently allocated to local public schools. In theory, children's guardians will naturally shop for the best schools, much as is already done at the college level.

Many attribute the purportedly slow pace of reform in the United States to the strength of teachers' unions. In some school districts, labor agreements with teachers' unions may restrict the ability of school systems to implement merit pay and other reforms. In general, union contracts are more restrictive in districts with high concentrations of poor and minority students.



Education Segregation in the U.S. Prior to Brown v. Board of Education: Educational reforms during the 1950s, 1960s, and 1970s focused on civil rights, especially desegregation and affirmative action.

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

5: The Governance and Finance of American Public Education

Learning Objectives

- Describe how public schools are financed
- Identify the governmental agencies and how NYS public education financed
- Identify other School Options (Charter, Magnet, Online)

Icebreaker: Reflect, write and Discuss

Take five minutes to reflect on the questions below and write out your thoughts. Once finished writing discuss your ideas with a partner.

1. New York State spends approximately $24,000 to educate each student a year. If you attended a New York State Public school do you think you received a $24,000 education each year? Yes or No and why?
2. What are your thoughts on the amount of money NYS spends on each pupil per year?
3. What should be the criteria for how money is allocated per school district? Who do you think should determine the amount of money allocated per school?
4. If you oversaw the New York State Education budget what is one specific area you would improve and why?

As a future teacher you will need to be aware of how schools are organized, governed and financed. Where you work will also determine the amount of money and resources available to you. The federal, state and local government all play a role in the complex financial system of education. Keep in mind that how well a school is funded is often a reflection of the community composition and wealth (number of businesses, homeowners, taxpayers, population size). In this chapter we will learn how schools are governed and financed in public education and begin to explore how these factors impact our ability to help students learn.

5.1: Financing Public Education
5.2: Other School Options (Charter, Magnet)
5.3: References

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5.1: Financing Public Education

Federal Government Finance

The Federal government plays an important role in both governance and finance. The President of the United States appoints a secretary of education to administer the department and distribute funding to states for educational purposes. In 2018 the federal government appropriated $59 Billion dollars to education, a 13 percent decrease from 2017. Despite the decrease, this funding is an important source of revenue for public schools. In addition, each house of Congress has their own committee on education. Members of these committees provide guidance and expertise as educational policies and budgets are developed. States and local school districts, rather than the Federal Government, make most of the major decisions about the content, assessment, teaching force, structure, and funding of elementary and secondary education. The Federal Government influences educational policy by attaching educational policies to receipt of federal funds (Kober & Usher, 2012).

Title I Funding

The purpose of Title I, Part A of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) is to ensure that all children have a fair, equal, and significant opportunity to obtain a high-quality education and reach, at a minimum, proficiency in state academic achievement standards and State academic assessments. It provides financial assistance through state education agencies to local educational agencies to meet the educational needs of children who are failing or are most at risk of failing the State's challenging academic achievement standards and state academic assessments in schools with high concentrations of children from low-income families.

State and Local Finance

Public schools are funded approximately 90% by state and local revenue sources. Most local funds come from property taxes (Kober & Usher, 2012). Since most of the school funding comes from property taxes schools use a variety of methods to maintain positive community relationships. Remember, taxpayers need to apprSove the school budget each year; however, depending on your community composition, many taxpayers do not have children in school. Schools may host senior citizen luncheons or appreciation days, community health fairs and offer up the school for community use. It is wise for teachers to develop relationships with all members of the school community. Strong school-community relations help increase the likelihood that a school's budget is passed. Schools and teachers need to demonstrate that they are using public funds in a responsible manner. Teachers must find high quality, cost effective programming and materials to help students learn.

In 2015-16, New York State had the largest per pupil average expenditure in the United States at $24,657 versus Idaho, the lowest state at $7,921 (Digest of Education Statistics, 2018). This demonstrates the variability in funding and resources by state. However, within states variability also exists between communities, largely due to revenues from property taxes. School districts that are wealthier tend to have more money and resources to dedicate to education.

Local School Budget Development Process

As stated above, one of the major roles of the members of the Board of Education is to develop a budget in collaboration with administrators. A budget is a plan of financial operation expressing the estimates of proposed expenditures for a fiscal year and the proposed means of financing them. Multiple laws and procedures must be followed during budget development. A detailed outline of the process can be found at http://www.p12.nysed.gov/mgtserv/budgeting/handbook/legalaspects.html on the New York State Education website. Educational law emphasizes that the budget should be written in plain language in a manner that taxpayers can understand (NYSED.gov, 2019). When developing a budget, the BOE and administration need to keep several factors in mind and have accurate information about educational objectives, enrollment projection; the community's receptiveness to tax increases, capacity and limitations of facilities (Budgeting Handbook, www.NYSED.gov, 2019 http://www.p12.nysed.gov/mgtserv/budgeting/handbook/process.html).

An important term that BOE members, administrators, taxpayers and teachers alike need to understand is the tax levy. The tax levy is the term use for the sum of revenue in property taxes a district must collect, after removing other sources of funding including state aid, to meet the proposed budget. The tax levy is significant because this is the basis for determining the tax rate for each of

the cities, towns or villages that make up a school district (https://www.questar.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/04/Budget-Development-Guidebook.pdf)

To determine the tax levy, school districts use a state formula that begins with an increase of 2 percent or the level of inflation (whichever is less). The **Tax levy limit is the** amount a district's tax levy may increase without requiring a supermajority to approve a proposed budget (60 percent of votes plus one). The result is often a number higher than 2 percent. In 2011 New York State established a tax levy limit (generally referred to as the tax cap) that affects all local governments (including counties, cities, towns, villages and fire districts) and school districts in New York State except New York City and the "Big Five" dependent city school districts (New York City, Yonkers, Buffalo, Rochester, and Syracuse). Under this law, the property taxes levied by affected local governments and school districts generally cannot increase by more than 2 percent, or the rate of inflation, whichever is lower (legislation summary, www.osc.state.ny.us).

What is included in the School Budget?

The school budget presentation and materials must include categories of revenues, expenditures and fund balance information, as well as comparison data from the prior year's budget (NYSED.gov, 2019). Sources of a school's financial resources (revenues) include property taxes, state education aid and federal education aid. In addition, schools often have a fund balance to offset budget costs. There are several types of fund balances that a school may have. Typically, they represent funds that were not used in a prior fiscal year or when additional unanticipated revenues are accepted. It is important to remember that schools must estimate their state aid revenues when developing a budget. While New York State aims to have an adopted budget by April 1st that does not always happen. School districts are required by law to present their budget the third Tuesday of May and often are working with estimated state aid revenues.

The school budget, by law, must be presented to the public in three different components (http://www.p12.nysed.gov/mgtserv/budgeting/). The first component is the program component (salaries and benefits of teachers, instructional costs such as supplies, co-curricular activities and interscholastic athletics equipment, and textbooks; and transportation operating costs. The program component is where most of a school district's expenses are incurred. See figure 1.2 for an example. The second component is the capital component which includes transportation capital, debt service, and lease expenditures; legal judgments; and settled claims; custodial costs and all facility costs, including service contracts, utilities, maintenance, repairs, construction, and renovation. The third budget component is the administrative component which includes office and administrative costs, salaries and benefits for certified school administrators, data processing, supplies, legal fees; property insurance; and school board expenses.

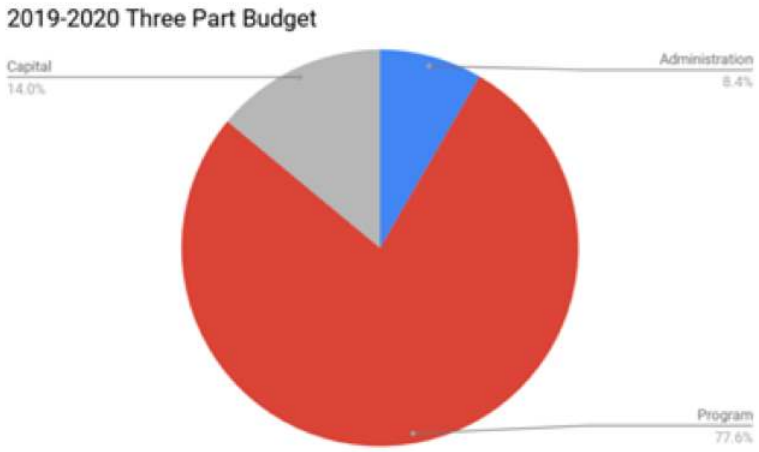


Figure 10.3: Sample Image of the three-component state budget

Once the budget is complete, the BOE must present the budget at a public hearing. The budget hearing must be held no more than fourteen days nor less than seven days before the date of the annual meeting and election. Notice of the date, time and place of the public hearing must be included in the notice of the annual meeting. (Education Law §§1608, 1716, 2003, 2004 &2601-a) The

annual school meeting and election must be held the third Tuesday in May (http://www.p12.nysed.gov/mgtserv/budgeting/handbook/legalaspects.html).

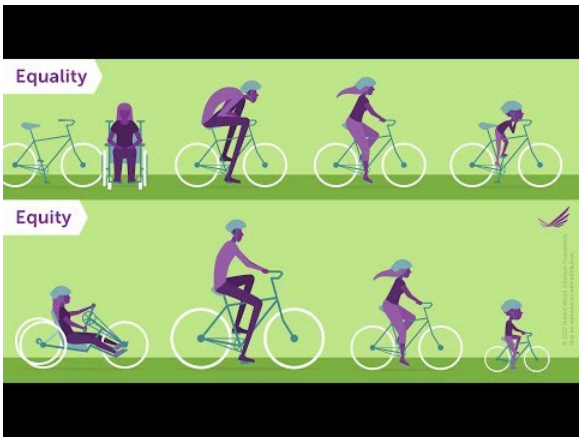
Budget Voting Process

Under state law a school can present a budget to voters two times for adoption. If the budget is not approved the school must adopt a contingency budget. According to the New York State Education Department budgeting handbook, a contingency budget includes "items for which the statutes themselves either provide mandates or give discretion to the board of education, these may be considered expenditures deemed to be absolutely necessary to operate and maintain schools. The emphasis should be on those expenditures considered essential to maintain an educational program, preserve property, and assure the health and safety of students and staff. In addition, section 2023 of the Education Law places a computed dollar cap on general fund appropriations. The administrative component of the budget is also subject to a cap." (http://www.p12.nysed.gov, 2019). If a contingency budget is adopted, the tax levy may be no greater than that of the prior year. Here is a link to an article the highlights a failed budget: https://cnycentral.com/news/local/voters-reject-altmare-parish-williamstown-school-district-budget-proposal

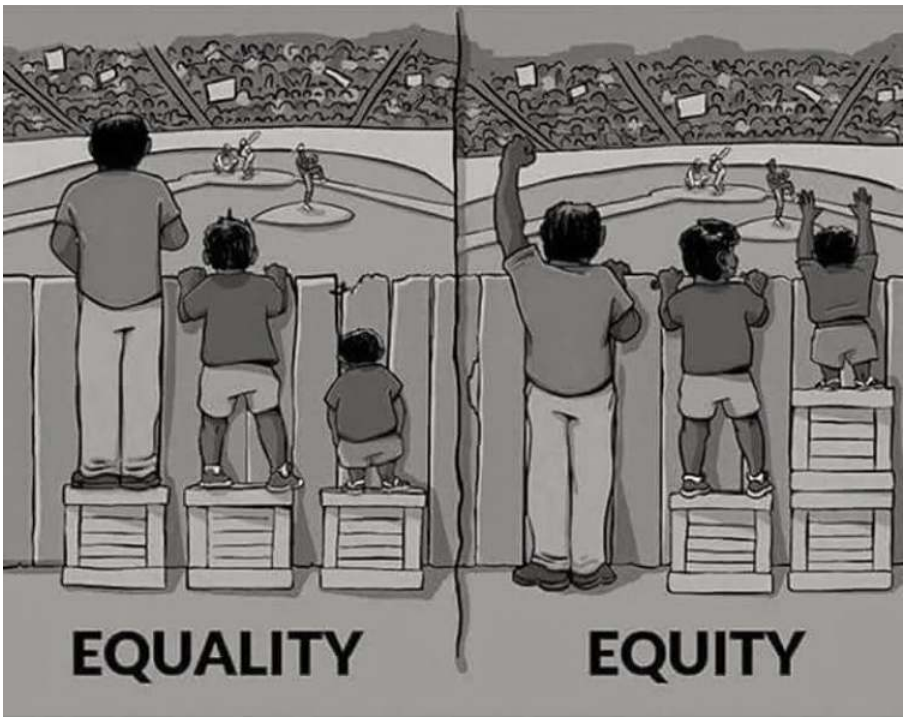
Access and Equity in Education funding

As we think about funding for schools, we turn our thoughts to equity and equality in education. Included below is a short video describing equity and equality in more general terms. As a teacher you will have to make decisions on how best to meet the learning needs of your students. Local budgets will determine the types of materials and resources both teachers and students will have access to. For example, access to technology, opportunities for professional development, updated textbooks and materials, access to field trips, and availability of extracurricular opportunities are a few ways that budgets impact schools and students. In a school with fewer resources how can you make your materials equitable (fair) to the resources wealthier districts have? As a teacher the question of equity of resources is one you will need to get involved in. Advocating for equitable curricular and program resources for your students is an appropriate role for teachers.

Equity Vs. Equality Explanation Video:



A YouTube element has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view it online here: pb.libretexts.org/foundationsofeducation/?p=152



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5.2: Other School Options (Charter, Magnet)

Although this chapter is primarily focused on the governance and finance of public schools, we will briefly describe other options that may be available to students. School choice is a term used to describe the school options that a student may choose to attend rather than your local public school. Schools might include magnet schools (schools focused on a specific vocational or academic strand i.e., music, arts, science), charter schools (public schools managed outside of state requirements by private entities) and virtual schools (schools where coursework is completed entirely online). Depending on where you live there may be a variety of options for students to choose from.

According to the New York State Department of Education website there were 292 charter school in operation serving approximately 130,000 students in the 2018-2019 school year. Advocates of charter schools believe that these schools provide an opportunity for students to learn in an environment that is not bound by traditional curricular mandates. However, proponents of public education believe that charter schools are part of a larger effort to privatize education. The Network for Public Education's report, Asleep at the Wheel, outlines several serious concerns about charter schools including the misuse of millions of taxpayer dollars awarded to charter schools with little oversight and barriers to enrollment that do not allow equal access for all students (Burris & Bryant, 2019). The conversation over school choice, charter schools and efforts to privatize schools will be ongoing. As a teacher it is wise to stay up to date on these issues.

Link to the full Asleep at the Wheel report: https://networkforpubliceducation.org/asleepatthewheel/

Summary

Keep in mind that local, state and federal policies impact your work as a teacher and the available resources to help students learn. Advocating for policies and funding that reflect your philosophy and values as a teacher is important. Understanding your local school district's policies and procedures is your responsibility. Maintaining positive relationships with all community members and keeping up to date on issues of community concern will help you make informed-decisions. Understanding how the school budget was developed and district priorities will assist you in answering questions form students and in advocating for educational resources.

Homework and/or Class Activity:

As discussed, the local administration and school board will have the strongest impact on the school and your work as a teacher.

1. Select a school district where you might like to work. Go to the website and identify key personnel in the administration and Board of Education members.
2. What is the district's organizational structure? How many BOE members are there? What can you tell about the educational mission, policies and procedures of the school by examining this information? Are the BOE meeting minutes and agenda easy to find?

Write up a short summary of your impressions, thoughts and ideas after reflecting on school governance, organization and finance. Be prepared to share with the class.

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

6: Curriculum, Standards and Outcomes

6.1: How to Plan Effective and Meaningful Curriculum

6.1.1: Introduction

6.1.2: What is Curriculum?

6.1.3: Benefits of Implementing Meaningful Curriculum

6.1.4: A Teachers Role

6.1.5: The Curriculum Planning Cycle at a Glance

6.1.6: A Closer Look at the Curriculum Planning Cycle

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6.1.6: A Closer Look at the Curriculum Planning Cycle

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SECTION OVERVIEW

6.2: The Cycle of Curriculum Planning

Learning Objectives

By the end of the chapter, you should be able to

- Explain how observation is the basis for curriculum planning
- Describe how to effectively document observations
- Connecting reflection to planning curriculum
- Discuss how the cycle of planning begins again as curriculum is implemented
- Summarize how curriculum planning occurs in a cycle
- Relate the importance of partnering with families

6.2.1: Planning Happens in a Cycle

6.2.2: Partnering with Families in Curriculum Planning

6.2.3: How It's All Connected

6.2.4: Conclusion

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6.2.1: Planning Happens in a Cycle

To begin to understand how to plan effective, developmentally appropriate curriculum for children, we must look at the context in which that planning should happen. Planning everything, from the flow of the day, to how teachers design and stock the classroom environment, to the way the spontaneous (unplanned) experiences of children are recognized and valued, to the experiences teachers thoughtfully plan and intentionally implement, happens in a continuous cycle. As we will discuss in this chapter that cycle begins with observing and continues through documenting what was observed, reflecting on what it means and how to plan to best support children, and then implementing those plans, before returning back to observing.[1]

Planning curriculum for young children begins with teachers discovering, through careful listening and observation, each child's development. Observation is an essential skill for a teacher. When teachers mindfully observe, they discover how individual children make meaning in everyday moments of play and interactions and how to deepen their relationships with children. Observing for the purpose of assessing individual children's learning means carefully watching and listening, with thought and reflection. In doing so, teachers find the knowledge, awareness, and strategies that individual children have formed during their experiences. It may be evidence that pertains to individual children's emotional, social, cognitive, or physical development. If the evidence is clear and significant, teachers can preserve it through, for example, a note, a photo, or a sample of a child's work.

Consider this example in which teachers found various ways in which the children's engagement in learning about snails related to the developmental profiles of different children:

As the children's interest in the snails continued, the teachers looked for ways to expand learning opportunities and integrate them into the multifaceted experience. The teachers also reviewed individual children's developmental profiles to be mindful of children's developmental progress in different areas. In addition to the many counting opportunities in the environment, the teachers decided to integrate counting into the children's exploration of snails. Younger children who were making progress with learning to count objects between five and ten were invited to set up a specific number (less than ten) of trays and snails.

Before the children started, the teachers reminded them of an earlier conversation about how to care for snails. In response, one of the children asked to show the others how to handle the snails gently. (Learning about counting was happening at the same time as learning about controlling the impulse to handle other creatures roughly instead of being gentle with them.) Teachers suggested to other children who were continuing to make progress with counting to count out a quantity of sticks, bark, or leaves greater than ten. Other children were asked to divide the snails evenly between the trays. The children kept saying to themselves, "Be gentle," and handled the snails with great care.



Figure 3.1: Handling the snail carefully.[2]

As teachers observed each group, they helped children develop mathematical thinking by prompting them and asking questions. For example, at one table, a teacher noticed that children were counting some sticks twice. She said, "I wonder what would happen if we put each stick on the other side of the tray after counting it." The children tried out this idea. Teachers noted children's efforts and placed the notes, with the date recorded, into the children's individual portfolios to be used as evidence for later reference when considering developmental progress relating to number sense and impulse control.

As teachers observe children's play and interactions, they discover ways to support children's learning. Ideas for the next steps in curriculum planning emerge as teachers reflect on how they might extend or expand children's thinking, language, and interactions. Observation, reflection, and documentation in the moment simultaneously launch an ongoing assessment of each child's progress in learning as well as the curriculum planning cycle.[3]

Here is a visual representation of the Curriculum Planning Cycle

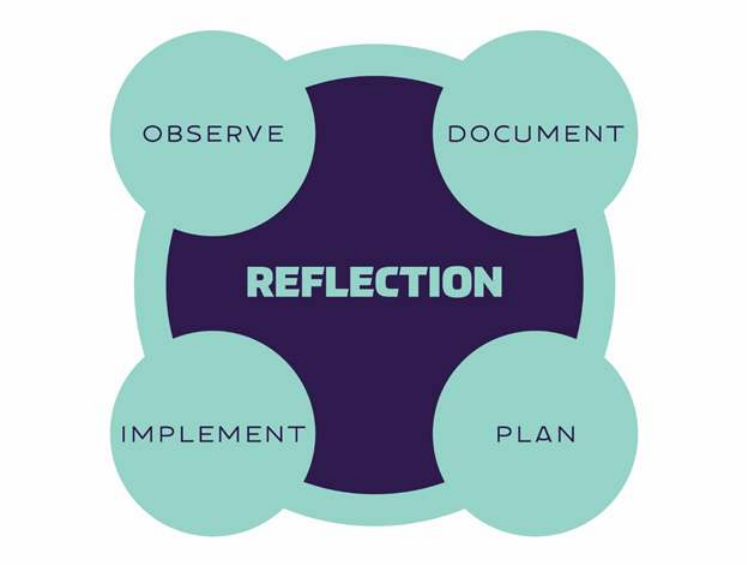


Figure 3.2: The Curriculum Planning Cycle.[4]

Let's explore each part of the cycle.

Observe

Observation means being present with children and attentive as they play and interact with others and the environment. This mindful kind of presence is different from participating in children's play or directing their play. Whether for one minute or five, an attentive, mindful presence means waiting to see what unfolds in order to gain a complete picture of children's play. A teacher who observes children as a first step in supporting learning discovers small scientists at work—experimenting, comparing, making assumptions, evaluating assumptions through their actions. Over time, children build mastery of a wide range of concepts and skills. The vignette about the snail exploration illustrates the role of the teacher as observer:

During small-group time with the snails, the teacher noticed a child who had been reluctant to hold a snail. This child had a visual impairment. As the teacher gently placed a snail on this child's hand, two children watched and listened as the teacher commented, "He's sticking his head out now, and he's turned toward your fingers. Can you feel him crawling toward your fingers?" The other children who had been watching intently began to repeat the teacher's encouraging words, saying, "He's sticking his head out. He's going toward your fingers!"

The teacher wrote down her observations and added an interpretive note that the children's behavior may be a growing sign of empathy as measured by the DRDP, and the other child's willingness to hold the snail, a growing sign of curiosity and initiative, also a DRDP measure.[5]

Observation Happens Through Lenses

It takes practice to become a good observer. An important aspect of being a good observer involves becoming aware of what is noticed and how observations are interpreted. Children may be influenced by many things. Culture, temperament, personal experiences, professional knowledge, and even community values and messages in the media affect how teachers see and experience children. These "lenses" through which teachers observe and interpret are at work even though they may not always be conscious of them.[6]

The Importance of Accuracy

Observations about children should be factual and objective to be useful and meaningful. Teachers should document only what they see and hear (the facts) and avoid using words that communicate judgment about a child's feelings, intentions, and motivations; are ambiguous and open to interpretation; or describe an opinion. One way teachers may think about their own objectivity is to ask themselves: Am I describing this child's behaviors and interactions in the same or a similar way that someone else observing this child would describe them?

Interpreting the meaning of children's behaviors and interactions is important, and impressions, feelings, and insights about children are extremely valuable to the individualizing process. However, teachers first need accurate, factual information in order to draw conclusions later on about children's skills, behavior, interests, and needs.[7]

Pause to Reflect

Think about yourself as an observer. What do you think will come most easily to you? What do you think will be more challenging?

Document

Documenting means gathering and holding evidence of children's play and interests for future use. A common form of documentation in early childhood settings is a written note, often referred to as an observation anecdote. Anecdotal notes, along with other forms of documentation, in particular photos, video recordings, and work samples, serve a dual purpose. First, they preserve a teacher's observations of children's expressions of feelings, their thinking, and their learning. These documentations are guides to the next steps in day-to-day curriculum planning. And second, anecdotal notes and other evidence can be used to support a teacher's periodic assessment of a child's progress. An episode during the snail exploration highlights the dual purpose of documentation:



Figure 3.3: Holding a snail.[8]

During their initial encounters with the snails, the children asked questions and made comments about the snail shells, the way the snails moved across the tray, and what the snails ate. Although several children were reluctant to pick up the snails, others were challenged by having to wait. The teachers recorded children's distinct responses, writing down significant elements of what children said or did. For example, for a child with identified special needs related to self-regulation, a teacher noted: "Jasmine pushed aside Yuri in order to pick up the snail crawling off the tray. Yuri stumbled, fell, and began to cry. Jasmine continued to focus on the snail, saying nothing to Yuri." For the teacher, Jasmine's behavior was significant. This anecdotal note provided some evidence of Jasmine's struggles with impulse control. It added to the growing evidence that Jasmine was still developing impulse control and empathy. Later, as the teacher shared her observation with her co-teacher and with Jasmine's father in a conference, they discussed how the small group work around keeping the snails safe might support Jasmine as well as other children in reading cues of others and in thinking before acting in order to keep people safe.[9]

Documenting What is Observed

Teachers must be intentional about capturing and recording what children do and say by setting up a system for carrying out observations. There is no one right way to do this. Systems will look different from program to program, and even classroom to classroom. Additionally, observation systems are not static; they should be revisited as teachers become more proficient in observing children and as children grow and develop. However, there are some general strategies that should be considered when developing a system.

- Plan times to observe each child regularly and over time. This should include observing children
  - Across settings (e.g., indoor and outdoor) and times of the day (morning, afternoon)
  - During routines (e.g., mealtimes, naptime, arrival/departure, transitions)
  - As they engage in spontaneous play experiences and planned activities and experiences
  - As they interact with other children and adults.



Figure 3.4: If this teacher has materials nearby, she can capture details on a great conversation the children are having.[10]

- Plan for spontaneous observation opportunities, too.
- Have materials at hand to capture unexpected, but valuable observations of children.
- Decide how to organize and store observations with the system that works best for the individual teacher or teaching team. For example:
  - A file folder for each child kept in hanging files in file cabinet, large box, or crate
  - Index cards in file box with a section for each child
  - A 3-ring binder notebook for each child
  - An accordion folder for each child
  - Hanging shoe bag, with pockets labeled for each child
- Decide how often to review observations. A system for using the valuable date from observations is an important part of the curriculum cycle. Some curriculum planning may be easy to implement based on just casual observation. But deeper analysis of observation of individual and groups of children will likely lend valuable insight in what teachers can plan to support optimal development.
- Include families in this process. Invite them to share what they observe about their children verbally, through pictures and photographs, or in writing.[11]

Portfolios

One way to document children's development and learning are portfolios. Portfolios are collections of children's work, notes and photographs from families, checklists and other print recording tools, and other items that document what children know and can do. Written observation notes, photos, and audio and video files may be included as part of the portfolio. Portfolios may be physical, virtual (some online assessment tools allow users to input observation notes and upload photos, video, and audio files for each child), or a combination of both.

To be useful, portfolio items should:

- Be dated and filed in order
- Represent various parts of the program (e.g., routines, play experiences, transitions)
- Present a balanced view of the child's growth in all developmental domains.

Over time, the portfolio collection serves as a concrete record of the child's progress toward individual goals as well as the program's school readiness goals, so it should be reviewed regularly with families. Teachers should explain what they include in the portfolio and why they include it. They should also actively encourage families to contribute information and items to their child's portfolio.[12]

Pause to Reflect

As you think about how to document children's learning, what systems do you find most appealing? Which do you think would be most effective? Which are least appealing or do you think would be least effective?

Reflect & Plan

As teachers reflect on children's play, they discover possibilities for designing curriculum to sustain, extend, and help children's play to be more complex and, consequently, support the children's continuing learning.[13]

Teachers ask themselves questions about what the information they have documented in observations of children says about the children's development, interests, and needs. The answers to these questions lead to individualizing care and learning. There are many questions that teachers may ask themselves. For example:

- What developmental skill or activity does the child appear to be working on?
- What strategies does the child use to play with different toys?
- Does the child engage with objects or people differently than a month ago? What has changed? What has not changed?
- Do my actions/the actions of other adults who interact with the child affect the outcomes of the child's experience? How so?
- How does the information relate to goals for the child? The family's goals? The program's school readiness goals?
- What other information do I need?
- What questions do I have for the child's family?

It is during the reflective process that interpreting the meaning of children's behaviors and interactions becomes important. These interpretations and insights give rise to each child's story. Each child's story informs responsive practice.

Teachers use what they know about each child to

- Adapt the environment
- Modify the daily schedule and/or routines
- Make decisions about how to guide the children's learning based on what the child knows and can do as well as what the child is ready to try.[14]

That process of reflections then informs possible next steps in the curriculum. Possible steps might include adding materials to interest areas, books to read with large or small groups, activities to do in small groups, or a topic to investigate over time with the children. With clear ideas or objectives in mind, teachers plan curriculum that includes strategies to enhance the learning of all children in a group, as well as strategies to support the learning of individual children. Here is how reflection, discussion, and planning worked in the snail exploration:

*While the children were exploring snails, teachers met each week to reflect and plan for the next steps in the children's explorations. They decided to schedule time for small groups of children to explore the snails in a more focused way, hoping to extend the children's learning and add complexity. The teachers planned a series of walks that would allow all the children to find snails in natural habitats.**[15]***



Figure 3.5: Teachers meeting.**[16]**

Pause to Reflect

Think back to something in your childhood that you were passionately interested or engaged in that someone observing you could have documented. What questions could your teachers have asked themselves about your experiences? How could they have planned?

(If it's easier or more relevant, you can think of a child you know and consider what you can ask yourself and plan around what you know about that child.)

Implement

Once a plan is written, teachers implement it. While implementing a plan, teachers observe, reflect, and document. The curriculum-planning cycle begins again (or continues) as teachers watch to discover how children respond to the planned curriculum and how children show evidence of their development during the planned learning encounters. Teachers often approach this step with a sense of wonder, for they may be surprised and amazed by the children's responses.

To hold the responses in memory, teachers may record notes, take a photo, or label, date, and keep a work sample, all of which they can later review to assess the impact of the curriculum plans. The evidence collected will help teachers to come up with ideas for supporting and assessing the children's learning. Teachers might ponder the following questions:

- Are children responding as predicted, or were there surprises?
- What do the children's responses tell us? How might we name the children's interest(s) or intention(s)? What concepts and ideas are the children forming within their play?
- How might children who are English learners and children who speak English collaborate in small groups to learn from one another?
- Are children showing evidence of progress on any of the measures of the DRDP?

Here is what happened when the teachers implemented their idea of going on walks with the children to find snails in natural habitats:

Before going on their snail hunt, a small group of children gathered on a blanket with the teacher. Each child was provided with a clipboard with paper for taking "notes" while the teacher explained how the walk would be a way to find snails that lived outside their classroom. Some children pretended to write while the teacher talked, while others drew pictures of snails. In this group, teachers included two children who were fluent in Spanish and learning English. The teachers anticipated much conversation among children during the search for the snails and wanted to give these children a chance to converse in their home language as well as to share experiences with peers who spoke only English.



Figure 3.6: Children watching the teacher write.[17]

Before heading off on the hunt, the teacher suggested, "Let's estimate. How many snails do you think we will find? Each of you can guess." On a large sheet of paper that the children could easily see, she wrote each child's name, saying each letter as she did so, and next to each name, the number guessed by that child.

Armed with magnifying glasses, the children went off to collect snails. There were many discoveries along the walk, not just snails. As children found snails, they carried them to a large examination tray set up on a table. Some children took a break from their snail search to examine, touch, and draw the snails already collected. At the end of the hunt, the children lined up the snails on a small log and counted them. The teacher suggested that they compare the number they counted with their estimates.

Before returning to their classroom, the children put the snails back into their natural habitats. The children were excited about sharing their experiences with other teachers and peers when they returned.

The teachers examined and reflected on what they saw in the children's writings and drawings on the clipboards. They decided that some of the work samples were significant in showing how individual children were developing an idea, concept, or skill. They filed those samples in the children's portfolios as evidence of developmental progress.[18]

Pause to Reflect

What happens when implementation goes differently than expected? What would have happened if the children had discovered and become fascinated with dandelions on their hunt for snails (and subsequently lost interest in the snails)? Does curriculum have to go as planned? Why or why not?

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6.2.2: Partnering with Families in Curriculum Planning

As the snail-exploration vignette illustrates in several places, teachers also include the children's families in supporting children's learning. Teachers find it particularly helpful to share documentation of children's learning with children's family members. When families and teachers reflect together on documentation of children's play and learning, family members offer insights into the children's behavior and ideas, as well as share expectations of their children at home or in the community. Teachers also provide resources to families in order to bridge children's experiences in preschool with experiences at home and in the community. For example, the teachers used the children's interest in the snails to support family members' participation in creating learning opportunities in the following way:

During the snail exploration, teachers posted near the entry a note with a photo of children exploring snails at the science table.



Figure 3.7: Taking a closer look at the snails.[1]

They suggested to families to consider doing a snail hunt on the way to school, in a park, or in a yard. A stack of copies of the snail diagram with the words eyes, tentacles, and shell written in Spanish, English, and Russian was available for family members to take with them.[2]

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6.2.3: How It's All Connected

The snail vignette illustrates how teachers can help children make connections and thereby make meaning. This exploration allowed children to investigate and learn about creatures from the outdoor environment in the classroom. In doing so, the children were able to make meaning about snails' natural habitats while encountering opportunities to engage in integrated learning in every domain.

Young children's experiences at home and in their communities are a powerful source of connections. Teachers nurture children's appetites for learning and making meaning by building upon the knowledge children bring to the preschool setting. For example, children may come to preschool with knowledge of many family stories. Their teachers may have observed that the children used the stories in the dramatic play area. However, the children did not seem to be aware that their stories could be written down and then read by someone else. In such a case, teachers can partner with families to create a story dictation study. In planning the snail exploration, the teachers and family members may ask:

- Would the children be interested in seeing their family stories written down, and would such experiences help them increase their awareness of print in the world around them?
- What strategies or adaptations might help a child who is nonverbal to become engaged in family storytelling?
- Would children in the group who are English learners make the connection to print more easily if they can dictate their stories in their home language to family members or community volunteers?
- What topics may be interesting and engaging for children to dictate? What kinds of questions would help individual children, English learners, or children with diverse cultural experiences to get started with dictation?
- How might the activity be adapted to accommodate children with disabilities or other special needs?
- Would asking children about how their family helps them get ready for preschool encourage them to dictate a meaningful experience?
- Would a child who likes to draw pictures have an easy time dictating a story about a drawing?

Teachers can explore these questions and see where the exploration leads.[1]

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6.2.4: Conclusion

When teachers embed children's learning into their lives, into contexts that they have experienced, teachers make everything more comprehensible for them. Teachers also engage children's emotions, making the experience both cognitive and pleasurable. The key is to find out which connections are meaningful for each individual child. When teachers discover what may be personally meaningful for a child, there is a good chance of fully engaging that child in making meaning and learning.[1]

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

7: Student Centered Models of Learning

A few years ago one of us (Kelvin) had the privilege of co-teaching with an experienced first grade teacher, Carolyn Eaton. As part of a research project, Ms Eaton allowed some of her reading lessons to be observed. Here is what Kelvin saw when Ms Eaton was having a conference with Joey. They are reading a book "together", except that Ms Eaton wants Joey to do as much reading as possible himself. Joey's comments are capitalized, and Ms Eaton's are in lowercase.

JOEY: FIRST YOU READ-THEN ME. THIS IS WHAT YOU HAVE TO DO. I READ AFTER YOU, OK?

Ms Eaton: OK. [Ms Eaton begins.] "In the great green room there was a telephone, a red balloon, and a picture of..." Are you going to read, or what?

YES.

"In the great green room there was..." Are you ready yet? Ready to read?

OK. "IN THE GREAT GREEN ROOM. . . "

"...there was..."

"THERE WAS A..." [pauses, looking at Ms Eaton rather than at the words]

"...a telephone..."

YES, THAT'S IT, A TELEPHONE! "IN THE GREAT GREEN ROOM THERE WAS A TELEPHONE, A RED BALLOON..."

"and a picture of..."

"AND A PICTURE OF" [pauses, staring at the wall]. .A COW JUMPING?"

"a cow jumping over the moon".

"OVER MOON" [smiles from both Joey and Ms Eaton].

Joey, what does this say? [She points to the word telephone.]

"THERE WAS A TELEPHONE".

How about here? [She points to next page, which reads "And there were three little bears, sitting on chairs".]

"THERE WERE BEARS, THREE BEARS, AND THEY SAT ON CHAIRS".

Can you read the whole book?

SURE!

OK, then you start this time.

[Joey looks at first page, alternately at the picture and at the words.]

"IN THE GREAT GREENROOM THERE WAS A TELEPHONE".

[Actual text: "In the great green room, there was a telephone",]

"AND THERE WAS A RED BALLOON",

[Actual text: "...and a red balloon",]

"AND A PICTURE OF THE COW JUMPING OVER THE MOON".

[Actual text: "...and a picture of the cow jumping over the moon".]

"AND THERE WERE..." THREE BEARS?... "LITTLE BEARS SITTING ON CHAIRS".

[Actual text: "And there were three little bears, sitting on chairs,..."]

Could you read this book with you eyes closed?

SURE; WANT TO SEE ME DO IT?!

Well, not right now; maybe another time. Could you read it without the pictures, just looking at the words? That's how I do best—when I see the words instead of the pictures.

[Joey pauses to consider this.] MAYBE, BUT NOT QUITE SO WELL.

Let's try it. [Ms Eaton proceeds to copy the words on a large sheet for Joey to "read" later.]

As Carolyn Eaton's behavior suggests, there are decisions to make "on the fly", even during the very act of teaching. Ms Eaton wonders when to challenge Joey, and when to support him. She also wonders when to pause and ask Joey to take stock of what he has read, and when to move him on ahead— when to consolidate a student's learning, and when to nudge the student forward. These are questions about instructional strategies which *facilitate complex learning*, either directly or indirectly. In this chapter we review as many strategies as space allows, in order to give a sense of the major instructional options and of their effects. We concentrate especially on two broad categories of instruction, which we call *direct instruction* and *student-centered instruction*. As we hope that you will see, each approach to teaching is useful for certain purposes. We begin, though, by looking at the ways students think, or at least how teachers would like students to think. What does it mean for students to think critically (astutely or logically)? Or to think creatively? Or to be skillful problem solvers? Forms of thinking lead to choices among instructional strategies.

7.1: Forms of Thinking Associated with Classroom Learning
7.2: Critical Thinking and Creative Thinking
7.3: Problem-Solving
7.4: Broad Instructional Strategies that Stimulate Complex Thinking
7.5: Teacher-Directed Instruction
7.6: Student-Centered Models of Learning
7.7: Inquiry Learning and Cooperative Learning
7.8: Examples of Cooperative and Collaborative Learning
7.9: Instructional Strategies- An Abundance of Choices
7.10: Accommodating Cultural Diversity in Practice
7.11: Accommodating Diversity in Practice

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7.1: Forms of Thinking Associated with Classroom Learning

Although instructional strategies differ in their details, they each encourage particular forms of learning and thinking. The forms have distinctive educational purposes, even though they sometimes overlap, in the sense that one form may contribute to success with another form. Consider three somewhat complex forms of thinking that are commonly pursued in classroom learning: (l) critical thinking, (2) creative thinking, and (3) problem-solving.

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7.2: Critical Thinking and Creative Thinking

Critical thinking

Critical thinking requires skill at analyzing the reliability and validity of information, as well as the attitude or disposition to do so. The skill and attitude may be displayed with regard to a particular subject matter or topic, but in principle it can occur in any realm of knowledge (Halpern, 2003; Williams, Oliver, & Stockade, 2004). A critical thinker does not necessarily have a negative attitude in the everyday sense of constantly criticizing someone or something. Instead, he or she can be thought of as *astute:* the critical thinker asks key questions, evaluates the evidence for ideas, reasons for problems both logically and objectively, and expresses ideas and conclusions clearly and precisely. Last (but not least), the critical thinker can apply these habits of mind in more than one realm of life or knowledge.

With such a broad definition, it is not surprising that educators have suggested a variety of specific cognitive skills as contributing to critical thinking. In one study, for example, the researcher found how critical thinking can be reflected in regard to a published article was stimulated by **annotation**— writing questions and comments in the margins of the article (Liu, 2006). In this study, students were initially instructed in ways of annotating reading materials. Later, when the students completed additional readings for assignments, it was found that some students in fact used their annotation skills much more than others— some simply underlined passages, for example, with a highlighting pen. When essays written about the readings were later analyzed, the ones written by the annotators were found to be more well reasoned— more critically astute— than the essays written by the other students.

In another study, on the other hand, a researcher found that critical thinking can also involve oral discussion of personal issues or dilemmas (Hawkins, 2006). In this study, students were asked to verbally describe a recent, personal incident that disturbed them. Classmates then discussed the incident together in order to identify the precise reasons why the incident was disturbing, as well as the assumptions that the student made in describing the incident. The original student— the one who had first told the story— then used the results of the group discussion to frame a topic for a research essay. In one story of a troubling incident, a student told of a time when a store clerk has snubbed or rejected the student during a recent shopping errand. Through discussion, classmates decided that an assumption underlying the student's disturbance was her suspicion that she had been a victim of racial profiling based on her skin color. The student then used this idea as the basis for a research essay on the topic of "racial profiling in retail stores". The oral discussion thus stimulated critical thinking in the student and the classmates, but it also *relied* on their prior critical thinking skills at the same time.

Notice that in both of these research studies, as in others like them, what made the thinking "critical" was students' use of **metacognition**— strategies for thinking *about* thinking and for monitoring the success and quality of one's own thinking. This concept was discussed in Chapter 2 as a feature of constructivist views about learning. There we pointed out that when students acquire experience in building their own knowledge, they also become skilled both at knowing *how* they learn, and at knowing *whether* they have learned something well. These are two defining qualities of metacognition, but they are part of critical thinking as well. In fostering critical thinking, a teacher is really fostering a student's ability to construct or control his or her own thinking and to avoid being controlled by ideas unreflectively.

How best to teach critical thinking remains a matter of debate. One issue is whether to infuse critical skills into existing courses or to teach them through separate, free-standing units or courses. The first approach has the potential advantage of integrating critical thinking into students' entire educations. But it risks diluting students' understanding and use of critical thinking simply because critical thinking takes on a different form in each learning context. Its details and appearance vary among courses and teachers. The free-standing approach has the opposite qualities: it stands a better chance of being understood clearly and coherently, but at the cost of obscuring how it is related to other courses, tasks, and activities. This dilemma is the issue— again— of **transfer**, discussed in Chapter 2. Unfortunately, research to compare the different strategies for teaching critical thinking does not settle the matter. The research suggests simply that either infusion or free-standing approaches can work as long as it is implemented thoroughly and teachers are committed to the value of critical thinking (Halpern, 2003).

A related issue about teaching critical thinking is about deciding who needs to learn critical thinking skills the most. Should it be all students, or only some of them? Teaching all students seems the more democratic alternative and thus appropriate for educators. Surveys have found, however, that teachers sometimes favor teaching of critical thinking only to high-advantage students— the

ones who already achieve well, who come from relatively high- income families, or (for high school students) who take courses intended for university entrance (Warburton & Torff, 2005). Presumably the rationale for this bias is that high- advantage students can benefit and/or understand and use critical thinking better than other students. Yet, there is little research evidence to support this idea, even if it were not ethically questionable. The study by Hawkins (2006) described above, for example, is that critical thinking was fostered even with students considered low-advantage.

Creative thinking

Creativity is the ability to make or do something new that is also useful or valued by others (Gardner, 1993). The "something" can be an object (like an essay or painting), a skill (like playing an instrument), or an action (like using a familiar tool in a new way). To be creative, the object, skill, or action cannot simply be bizarre or strange; it cannot be new without also being useful or valued, and not simply be the result of accident. If a person types letters at random that form a poem by chance, the result may be beautiful, but it would not be creative by the definition above. Viewed this way, creativity includes a wide range of human experience that many people, if not everyone, have had at some time or other (Kaufman & Baer, 2006). The experience is not restricted to a few geniuses, nor exclusive to specific fields or activities like art or the composing of music.

Especially important for teachers are two facts. The first is that an important form of creativity is **creative thinking**, the generation of ideas that are new as well as useful, productive, and appropriate. The second is that creative thinking can be stimulated by teachers' efforts. Teachers can, for example, encourage students' **divergent thinking**— ideas that are open-ended and that lead in many directions (Torrance, 1992; Kim, 2006). Divergent thinking is stimulated by open-ended questions— questions with many possible answers, such as the following:

- How many uses can you think of for a cup?
- Draw a picture that somehow incorporates all of these words: cat, fire engine, and banana.
- What is the most unusual use you can think of for a shoe?

Note that answering these questions creatively depends partly on having already acquired knowledge about the objects to which the questions refer. In this sense divergent thinking depends partly on its converse, **convergent thinking**, which is focused, logical reasoning about ideas and experiences that lead to specific answers. Up to a point, then, developing students' convergent thinking— as schoolwork often does by emphasizing mastery of content— facilitates students' divergent thinking indirectly, and hence also their creativity (Sternberg, 2003; Runco, 2004; Cropley, 2006). But carried to extremes, excessive emphasis on convergent thinking may discourage creativity.

Whether in school or out, creativity seems to flourish best when the creative activity is its own intrinsic reward, and a person is relatively unconcerned with what others think of the results. Whatever the activity— composing a song, writing an essay, organizing a party, or whatever— it is more likely to be creative if the creator focuses on and enjoys the activity in itself, and thinks relatively little about how others may evaluate the activity (Brophy, 2004). Unfortunately, encouraging students to ignore others' responses can sometimes pose a challenge for teachers. Not only is it the teachers' job to evaluate students' learning of particular ideas or skills, but also they have to do so within restricted time limits of a course or a school year. In spite of these constraints, though, creativity still can be encouraged in classrooms at least some of the time (Claxton, Edwards, & Scale-Constantinou, 2006). Suppose, for example, that students have to be assessed on their understanding and use of particular vocabulary. Testing their understanding may limit creative thinking; students will understandably focus their energies on learning "right" answers for the tests. But assessment does not have to happen constantly. There can also be times to encourage experimentation with vocabulary through writing poems, making word games, or in other thought-provoking ways. These activities are all potentially creative. To some extent, therefore, learning content and experimenting or playing with content can both find a place— in fact one of these activities can often support the other. We return to this point later in this chapter, when we discuss student-centered strategies of instruction, such as cooperative learning and play as a learning medium.

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7.3: Problem-Solving

Somewhat less open-ended than creative thinking is **problem solving**, the analysis and solution of tasks or situations that are complex or ambiguous and that pose difficulties or obstacles of some kind (Mayer & Wittrock, 2006). Problem solving is needed, for example, when a physician analyzes a chest X-ray: a photograph of the chest is far from clear and requires skill, experience, and resourcefulness to decide which foggy-looking blobs to ignore, and which to interpret as real physical structures (and therefore real medical concerns). Problem solving is also needed when a grocery store manager has to decide how to improve the sales of a product: should she put it on sale at a lower price, or increase publicity for it, or both? Will these actions actually increase sales enough to pay for their costs?

Problem solving in the classroom

Problem solving happens in classrooms when teachers present tasks or challenges that are deliberately complex and for which finding a solution is not straightforward or obvious. The responses of students to such problems, as well as the strategies for assisting them, show the key features of problem solving. Consider this example, and students' responses to it. We have numbered and named the paragraphs to make it easier to comment about them individually:

Scene #1: a problem to be solved

*A teacher gave these instructions: "Can you connect all of the dots below using only **four** straight lines?" She drew the following display on the chalkboard:*



Figure **7.3.1**: The teacher gave these instructions: “Can you connect these dots with only four lines.. (Copyright; author via source)

The problem itself and the procedure for solving it seemed very clear: simply experiment with different arrangements of four lines. But two volunteers tried doing it at the board, but were unsuccessful. Several others worked at it at their seats, but also without success.

Scene #2: coaxing students to re-frame the problem

When no one seemed to be getting it, the teacher asked, "Think about how you've set up the problem in your mind— about what you believe the problem is about. For instance, have you made any assumptions about how long the lines ought to be? Don't stay stuck on one approach if it's not working!"

Scene #3: Alicia abandons a fixed response

After the teacher said this, Alicia indeed continued to think about how she saw the problem. "The lines need to be no longer than the distance across the square," she said to herself. So she tried several more solutions, but none of them worked either.

*The teacher walked by Alicia's desk and saw what Alicia was doing. She repeated her earlier comment: "Have you assumed anything about how long the lines ought to be?" Alicia stared at the teacher blankly, but then smiled and said, "Hmm! You didn't actually **say** that the lines could be no longer than the matrix! Why not make them longer?" Soshe experimented again using oversized lines and soon discovered a solution:*

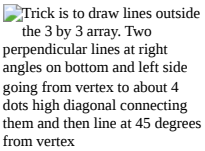


Exhibit **7.3.2**: Alicia's solution. (CC-BY-NC; K. Seifert, R. Sutton via Educational Psychology)

Scene #4: Willem's and Rachel's alternative strategies

Meanwhile, Willem worked on the problem. As it happened, Willem loved puzzles of all kinds, and had ample experience with them. He had not, however, seen this particular problem. "It ***must*** *be a trick," he said to himself, because he knew from experience that problems posed in this way often were not what they first appeared to be. He mused to himself: "Think outside the box, they always tell you..." And* ***that*** *was just the hint he needed: he drew lines outside the box by making them longer than the matrix and soon came up with this solution:*

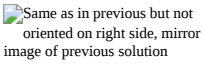


Exhibit **7.3.3**: : Willem's and Rachel's solution. (CC-BY-NC; K. Seifert, R. Sutton via Educational Psychology)

When Rachel went to work, she took one look at the problem and knew the answer immediately: she had seen this problem before, though she could not remember where. She had also seen other drawing -related puzzles, and knew that their solution always depended on making the lines longer, shorter, or differently angled than first expected. After staring at the dots briefly, she drew a solution faster than Alicia or even Willem. Her solution looked exactly like Willem's.

This story illustrates two common features of problem solving: the effect of degree of structure or constraint on problem solving, and the effect of mental obstacles to solving problems. The next sections discuss each of these features, and then looks at common techniques for solving problems.

The effect of constraints: well-structured versus ill-structured problems

Problems vary in how much information they provide for solving a problem, as well as in how many rules or procedures are needed for a solution. A **well-structured problem** provides much of the information needed and can in principle be solved using relatively few clearly understood rules. Classic examples are the word problems often taught in math lessons or classes: everything you need to know is contained within the stated problem and the solution procedures are relatively clear and precise. An **ill-structured problem** has the converse qualities: the information is *not* necessarily within the problem, solution procedures are potentially quite numerous, and a multiple solutions are likely (Voss, 2006). Extreme examples are problems like "How can the world achieve lasting peace?" or "How can teachers insure that students learn?"

By these definitions, the nine-dot problem is relatively well-structured— though not completely. Most of the information needed for a solution is provided in *Scene #1* : there are nine dots shown and instructions given to draw four lines. But not *all* necessary information was given: students needed to consider lines that were longer than implied in the original statement of the problem. Students had to "think outside the box", as Willem said— in this case, literally.

When a problem is well-structured, so are its solution procedures likely to be as well. A well-defined procedure for solving a particular kind of problem is often called an **algorithm**; examples are the procedures for multiplying or dividing two numbers or the instructions for using a computer (Leiserson, et al., 2001). Algorithms are only effective when a problem is very well-structured and there is no question about whether the algorithm is an appropriate choice for the problem. In that situation it pretty much guarantees a correct solution. They do not work well, however, with ill-structured problems, where they are ambiguities and questions about how to proceed or even about precisely *what* the problem is about. In those cases it is more effective to use **heuristics**, which are general strategies— "rules of thumb", so to speak— that do not always work, but often do, or that provide at least partial solutions. When beginning research for a term paper, for example, a useful heuristic is to scan the library catalogue for titles that look relevant. There is no guarantee that this strategy will yield the books most needed for the paper, but the strategy works enough of the time to make it worth trying.

In the nine-dot problem, most students began in Scene #1 with a simple algorithm that can be stated like this: "Draw one line, then draw another, and another, and another". Unfortunately this simple procedure did not produce a solution, so they had to find other strategies for a solution. Three alternatives are described in Scenes #3 (for Alicia) and 4 (for Willem and Rachel). Of these, Willem's response resembled a heuristic the most: he knew from experience that a good *general* strategy that *often* worked for such problems was to suspect a deception or trick in how the problem was originally stated. So he set out to question what the teacher had meant by the word line, and came up with an acceptable solution as a result.

Common obstacles to solving problems

The example also illustrates two common problems that sometimes happen during problem solving. One of these is **functional fixedness**: a tendency to regard the *functions* of objects and ideas as *fixed* (German & Barrett, 2005). Over time, we get so used to one particular purpose for an object that we overlook other uses. We may think of a dictionary, for example, as necessarily something to verify spellings and definitions, but it also can function as a gift, a doorstop, or a footstool. For students working on the nine-dot matrix described in the last section, the notion of "drawing" a line was also initially fixed; they assumed it to be connecting dots but not extending lines beyond the dots. Functional fixedness sometimes is also called **response set**, the tendency for a person to frame or think about each problem in a series in the same way as the previous problem, even when doing so is not appropriate to later problems. In the example of the nine-dot matrix described above, students often tried one solution after another, but each solution was constrained by a set response not to extend any line beyond the matrix.

Functional fixedness and the response set are obstacles in **problem representation**, the way that a person understands and organizes information provided in a problem. If information is misunderstood or used inappropriately, then mistakes are likely— if indeed the problem can be solved at all. With the nine-dot matrix problem, for example, construing the instruction to draw four lines as meaning "draw four lines entirely within the matrix" means that the problem simply could not be solved. For another, consider this problem: "The number of water lilies on a lake doubles each day. Each water lily covers exactly one square foot. If it takes 100 days for the lilies to cover the lake exactly, how many days does it take for the lilies to cover exactly *half* of the lake?" If you think that the size of the lilies affects the solution to this problem, you have not represented the problem correctly. Information about lily size is *not* relevant to the solution, and only serves to distract from the truly crucial information, the fact that the lilies *double* their coverage each day. (The answer, incidentally, is that the lake is half covered in 99 days; can you think why?)

Strategies to assist problem solving

Just as there are cognitive obstacles to problem solving, there are also general strategies that help the process be successful, regardless of the specific content of a problem (Thagard, 2005). One helpful strategy is **problem analysis**— identifying the parts of the problem and working on each part separately. Analysis is especially useful when a problem is ill-structured. Consider this problem, for example: "Devise a plan to improve bicycle transportation in the city." Solving this problem is easier if you identify its parts or component subproblems, such as (1) installing bicycle lanes on busy streets, (2) educating cyclists and motorists to ride safely, (3) fixing potholes on streets used by cyclists, and (4) revising traffic laws that interfere with cycling. Each separate subproblem is more manageable than the original, general problem. The solution of each subproblem contributes the solution of the whole, though of course is not equivalent to a whole solution.

Another helpful strategy is **working backward** *from* a final solution *to* the originally stated problem. This approach is especially helpful when a problem is well-structured but also has elements that are distracting or misleading when approached in a forward, normal direction. The water lily problem described above is a good example: starting with the day when *all* the lake is covered (Day 100), ask what day would it therefore be *half* covered (by the terms of the problem, it would have to be the day before, or Day 99). Working backward in this case encourages reframing the extra information in the problem (i. e. the size of each water lily) as merely distracting, not as crucial to a solution.

A third helpful strategy is **analogical thinking**— using knowledge or experiences with similar features or structures to help solve the problem at hand (Bassok, 2003). In devising a plan to improve bicycling in the city, for example, an analogy of cars with bicycles is helpful in thinking of solutions: improving conditions for both vehicles requires many of the same measures (improving the roadways, educating drivers). Even solving simpler, more basic problems is helped by considering analogies. A first grade student can partially decode unfamiliar printed words by analogy to words he or she has learned already. If the child cannot yet read the word *screen*, for example, he can note that part of this word looks similar to words he may already know, such as *seen* or *green*, and from this observation derive a clue about how to read the word screen. Teachers can assist this process, as you might expect, by suggesting reasonable, helpful analogies for students to consider.

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7.4: Broad Instructional Strategies that Stimulate Complex Thinking

Because the forms of thinking just described— critical thinking, creativity and problem solving— are broad and important educationally, it is not surprising that educators have identified strategies to encourage their development. Some of the possibilities are shown in Table 24 and group several instructional strategies along two dimensions: how much the strategy is student-centered and how much a strategy depends on group interaction. It should be emphasized that the two-way classification in Table 24 is not very precise, but it gives a useful framework for understanding the options available for planning and implementing instruction. The more important of the two dimensions in the table is the first one— the extent to which an instructional strategy is either directed by the teacher or initiated by students. We take a closer look at this dimension in the next part of this chapter, followed by discussion of group-oriented teaching strategies.

Table **7.4.1**: Major instructional strategies grouped by level of teacher direction and student focus

Directed by student(s) more			
Emphasizes groups somewhat more	Cooperative learning Inquiry Discovery Learning	Self-reflection Independent study Concept maps	**Emphasizes individuals somewhat more**
	Lectures	Mastery learning	
	Direct instruction	Textbook readings	
	Madeline Hunter's "Effective Teaching"	Advance organizers	
		Outlining	
		Recalling, relating, and elaborating	
Directed by teacher more			

Definitions of Terms in Table 7.4.1:

Lecture – Telling or explaining previously organized information—usually to a group
Assigned reading – Reading, usually individually, of previously organized information
Advance organizers – Brief overview, either verbally or graphically, of material about to be covered in a lecture or text
Outlining – Writing important points of a lecture or reading, usually in a hierarchical format
Taking notes – Writing important points of a lecture or reading, often organized according to the learning needs of an individual student
Concept maps – Graphic depiction of relationships among a set of concepts, terms, or ideas; usually organized by the student, but not always
Madeline Hunter's "Effective Teaching" – A set of strategies that emphasizes clear presentation of goals, the explanation and modeling of tasks to students and careful monitoring of students' progress toward the goals

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7.5: Teacher-Directed Instruction

As the name implies, teacher-directed instruction includes any strategies initiated and guided primarily by the teacher. A classic example is exposition or lecturing (simply telling or explaining important information to students) combined with assigning reading from texts. But teacher-directed instruction also includes strategies that involve more active response from students, such as encouraging students to elaborate on new knowledge or to explain how new information relates to prior knowledge. Whatever their form, teacher-directed instructional methods normally include the organizing of information on behalf of students, even if teachers also expect students to organize it further on their own. Sometimes, therefore, teacher-directed methods are thought of as transmitting knowledge from teacher to student as clearly and efficiently as possible, even if they also require mental work on the part of the student.

Lectures and readings

Lectures and readings are traditional staples of educators, particularly with older students (including university students). At their best, they pre-organize information so that (at least in theory) the student only has to remember what was said in the lecture or written in the text in order to begin understanding it (Exley & Dennick, 2004). Their limitation is the ambiguity of the responses they require: listening and reading are by nature quiet and stationary, and do not in themselves indicate whether a student is comprehending or even attending to the material. Educators sometimes complain that "students are too passive" during lectures or when reading. But physical quietness is intrinsic to these activities, not to the students who do them. A book just sits still, after all, unless a student makes an effort to read it, and a lecture may not be heard unless a student makes the effort to listen to it.

Advance organizers

In spite of these problems, there are strategies for making lectures and readings effective. A teacher can be especially careful about organizing information *for* students, and she can turn part of the mental work over to students themselves. An example of the first approach is the use of **advance organizers**— brief overviews or introductions to new material before the material itself is presented (Ausubel, 1978). Textbook authors (including ourselves) often try deliberately to insert periodic advance organizers to introduce new sections or chapters in the text. When used in a lecture, advance organizers are usually statements in the form of brief introductory remarks, though sometimes diagrams showing relationships among key ideas can also serve the same purpose (Robinson, et al., 2003). Whatever their form, advance organizers partially organize the material on behalf of the students, so that they know where to put it all, so to speak, as they learn them in more detail.

Recalling and relating prior knowledge

Another strategy for improving teacher-directed instruction is to encourage students to relate the new material to prior familiar knowledge. When one of us (Kelvin) first learned a foreign language (in his case French), for example, he often noticed similarities between French and English vocabulary. A French word for picture, for example, was *image*, spelled exactly as it is in English. The French word for *splendid* was *splendide*, spelled almost the same as in English, though not quite. Relating the French vocabulary to English vocabulary helped in learning and remembering the French.

As children and youth become more experienced in their academics, they tend to relate new information to previously learned information more frequently and automatically (Goodwin, 1999; Oakhill, Hartt, & Samols, 2005). But teachers can also facilitate students' use of this strategy. When presenting new concepts or ideas, the teacher can relate them to previously learned ideas deliberately— essentially modeling a memory strategy that students learn to use for themselves. In a science class, for example, she can say, "This is another example of..., which we studied before"; in social studies she can say, "Remember what we found out last time about the growth of the railroads? We saw that..."

If students are relatively young or are struggling academically, it is especially important to remind them of their prior knowledge. Teachers can periodically ask questions like "What do you already know about this topic?" or "How will your new knowledge about this topic change what you know already?" Whatever the age of students, connecting new with prior knowledge is easier with help from someone more knowledgeable, such as the teacher. When learning algorithms for multiplication, for example, students may not at first see how multiplication is related to addition processes which they probably learned previously (Burns, 2001). But if a teacher takes time to explain the relationship and to give students time to explore it, then the new skill of multiplication may be learned more easily.

Elaborating information

Elaborating new information means asking questions about the new material, inferring ideas and relationships among the new concepts. Such strategies are closely related to the strategy of recalling prior knowledge as discussed above: elaboration enriches the new information and connects it to other knowledge. In this sense elaboration makes the new learning more meaningful and less arbitrary.

A teacher can help students use elaboration by modeling this behavior. The teacher can interrupt his or her explanation of an idea, for example, by asking how it relates to other ideas, or by speculating about where the new concept or idea may lead. He or she can also encourage students to do the same, and even give students questions to guide their thinking. When giving examples of a concept, for example, a teacher can hold back from offering all of the examples, and instead ask students to think of additional examples themselves. The same tactic can work with assigned readings; if the reading includes examples, the teacher can instruct students to find or make up additional examples of their own.

Organizing new information

There are many ways to organize new information that are especially well-suited to teacher-directed instruction. A common way is simply to ask students to **outline information** read in a text or heard in a lecture. Outlining works especially well when the information is already organized somewhat hierarchically into a series of main topics, each with supporting subtopics or subpoints. Outlining is basically a form of the more general strategy of **taking notes**, or writing down key ideas and terms from a reading or lecture. Research studies find that that the precise style or content of notes is less important that the quantity of notes taken: more detail is usually better than less (Ward & Tatsukawa, 2003). Written notes insure that a student thinks about the material not only while writing it down, but also when reading the notes later. These benefits are especially helpful when students are relatively inexperienced at school learning in general (as in the earlier grade levels), or relatively inexperienced about a specific topic or content in particular. Not surprisingly, such students may also need more guidance than usual about *what* and *how* to write notes. It can be helpful for the teacher to provide a note-taking guide, like the ones shown in Exhibit 7.5.1.

Exhibit 7.5.1: Two Note Taking Guides

Notes on Science Experiment

1. Purpose of the experiment (in one sentence):
2. Equipment needed (list each item and define any special terms):

1)
2)
3)
4)

3. Procedure used (be specific!):

4.

4. Results (include each measurement, rounded to the nearest integer):

Observation #1
Observation #2
Observation #3
Observation #4
Average measurement, #1-4:

Guide to Notes *About Tale of Two Cities*

1. Main characters (list and describe in just a few words):

a)
b)
c)
d)

2. Setting of the story (time and place):
3. Unfamiliar vocabulary in the story (list and define):

a)
b)
c)
d)

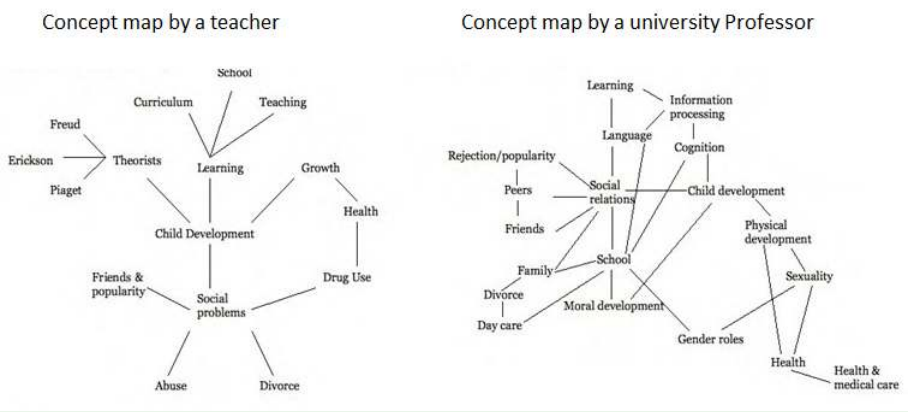
4. Plot (write down only the main events):

a)
b)
c)
d)

5. Theme (or underlying “message”) of the story

In learning expository material, another helpful strategy— one that is more visually oriented— is to make **concept maps**, or diagrams of the connections among concepts or ideas. Exhibit 10 shows concept maps made by two individuals that graphically depict how a key idea, *child development*, relates to learning and education. One of the maps was drawn by a classroom teacher and the other by a university professor of psychology (Seifert, 1991). They suggest possible differences in how the two individuals think about children and their development. Not surprisingly, the teacher gave more prominence to practical concerns (for example, classroom learning and child abuse), and the professor gave more prominence to theoretical ones (for example, Erik Erikson and Piaget). The differences suggest that these two people may have something different in mind when they use the same term, *child development*. The differences have the potential to create misunderstandings between them (Seifert, 1999; Super & Harkness, 2003). By the same token, the two maps also suggest what each person might need to learn in order to achieve better understanding of the other person's thinking and ideas.

Exhibit 7.5.1: Maps of Personal Definitions of "Child Development



Mastery learning

This term refers to an instructional approach in which all students learn material to an identically high level, even if some students require more time than others to do so (Gentile, 2004). In mastery learning, the teacher directs learning, though sometimes only in the sense of finding, writing, and orchestrating specific modules or units for students to learn. In one typical mastery learning program, the teacher introduces a few new concepts or topics through a brief lecture or teacher-led demonstration. Then she gives an ungraded assignment or test immediately in order to assess how well students have learned the material, and which ones still need help. The students who have already learned the unit are given enrichment activities. Those needing more help are provided individual tutoring or additional self-guiding materials that clarify the initial content; they work until they have in fact mastered the content (hence the name *mastery learning*). At that point students take another test or do another assignment to show that they have in fact learned the material to the expected high standard. When the system is working well, all students end up with high scores or grades, although usually some take longer to do so than others.

As you might suspect, mastery learning poses two challenges. The first is ethical: is it really fair to give enrichment only to faster students and remediation only to slower students? This practice could deteriorate into continually providing the fast with an interesting education, while continually providing the slow only with boring, repetitious material. In using the approach, therefore, it is important to make all materials interesting, whether enrichment or remedial. It is also important to make sure that the basic learning goals of each unit are truly important— even crucial— for everyone to learn, so that even slower individuals spend their time well.

The other challenge of mastery learning is more practical: the approach makes strong demands for detailed, highly organized curriculum. If the approach is to work, the teacher must either locate such a curriculum, write one herself, or assemble a suitable mixture of published and self-authored materials. However the curriculum is created, the end result has to be a program filled with small units of study as well as ample enrichment and remedial materials. Sometimes providing these practical requirements can be challenging. But not always: some subjects (like mathematics) lend themselves to detailed, sequential organization especially well.

In many cases, too, commercial publishers have produced curricula already organized for use in mastery learning programs (Fox, 2004).

Direct instruction

Although the term *direct instruction* is sometimes a synonym for *teacher-directed instruction*, more often it refers to a version of mastery learning that is highly scripted, meaning that it not only organizes the curriculum into small modules or units as described above, but also dictates *how* teachers should teach and sometimes even the words they should speak (Adams & Engelmann, 1996; Magliaro, Lockee, & Burton, 2005). Direct instruction programs are usually based on a mix of ideas from behaviorism and cognitive theories of learning. In keeping with behaviorism, the teacher is supposed to praise students immediately and explicitly when they give a correct answer. In keeping with cognitive theory, she is supposed to state learning objectives in advance of teaching them (providing a sort of mini-advance organizer), provide frequent reviews of materials, and check deliberately on how well students are learning. Direct instruction usually also introduces material in small, logical steps, and calls for plenty of time for students to practice.

Direct instruction programs share one of the challenges of other mastery learning approaches: because they hold all students to the same high standard of achievement, they must deal with differences in how long students require to reach the standard. But direct instruction has an additional challenge, in that they often rely on small-group interaction more heavily than other mastery learning programs, and use self-guiding materials less. This difference has the benefit that direct instruction works especially well with younger students (especially kindergarten through third grade), who may have limited skills at working alone for extended periods. The challenge is that reliance on small-group interaction can make it impractical to use direct instruction with an entire class or for an entire school day. In spite of these limits, however, research has found direct instruction to be very effective in teaching basic skills such as early reading and arithmetic (Adams & Engelmann, 1996).

Madeline Hunter's effective teaching model

A number of direct instruction strategies have been combined by Madeline Hunter into a single, relatively comprehensive approach that she calls **mastery teaching** (not to be confused with the related term *mastery learning*) or the **effective teaching model** (M. Hunter, 1982; R. Hunter, 2004). Important features of the model are summarized in Table 7.5.1. As you can see, the features span all phases of contact with students— before, during, and after lessons.

Table 7.5.1: Madeline Hunter's "Effective Teaching Model"

Prepare students to learn. • Make good use of time at the beginning of a lesson or activity, when attention is best • Direct students' attention to what lies ahead in a lesson—for example, by offering "advance organizers" • Explain lesson objectives explicitly
Present information clearly and explicitly. • Set a basic structure to the lesson and stay with it throughout • Use familiar terms and examples • Be concise
Check for understanding and give guided practice. • Ask questions that everyone responds to—for example, "Raise your hand if you think the answer is X" • Invite choral responses—for example, "Is this a correct answer or not?" • Sample individuals' understanding—for example, "Barry, what's your example of X?"
Provide for independent practice. • Work through the first few exercises or problems together • Keep independent practice periods brief and intersperse with discussions that offer feedback
Source: R. Hunter, 2004

What happens even before a lesson begins? Like many forms of teacher-directed instruction, the effective teaching model requires curricula and learning goals that are tightly organized and divisible into small parts, ideas, or skills. In teaching about photosynthesis, for example, the teacher (or at least her curriculum) needs to identify the basic elements that contribute to this process, and how they relate to each other. With photosynthesis, the elements include the sun, plants, animals, chlorophyll, oxygen produced by plants and consumed by animals, and carbon dioxide that produced by animals and consumed by plants. The roles of these elements need to be identified and expressed at a level appropriate for the students. With advanced science students, oxygen, chlorophyll, and carbon dioxide may be expressed as part of complex chemical reactions; with first-grade students, though, they may be expressed simply as parts of a process akin to breathing or respiration.

Once this analysis of the curriculum has been done, the Hunter's effective teaching model requires making the most of the lesson time by creating an **anticipatory set**, which is an activity that focuses or orients the attention of students to the upcoming content. Creating an anticipatory set may consist, for example, of posing one or more questions about students' everyday knowledge or knowledge of prior lessons. In teaching about differences between fruits and vegetables, the teacher could start by asking: "If you are making a salad strictly of fruit, which of these would be OK to use: apple, tomato, cucumber, or orange?" As the lesson proceeds, information needs to be offered in short, logical pieces, using language as familiar as possible to the students. Examples should be plentiful and varied: if the purpose is to define and distinguish fruits and vegetables, for example, then features defining each group should be presented singularly or at most just a few at a time, with clear-cut examples presented of each feature. Sometimes models or analogies also help to explain examples. A teacher can say: "Think of a fruit as a sort of 'decoration' on the plant, because if you pick it, the plant will go on living." But models can also mislead students if they are not used thoughtfully, since they may contain features that differ from the original concepts. In likening a fruit to a decoration, for example, students may overlook the essential role of fruit in plant reproduction, or think that lettuce qualifies as a fruit, since picking a few lettuce leaves does not usually kill a lettuce plant.

Throughout a lesson, the teacher repeatedly **checks for understanding** by asking questions that call for active thinking on the part of students. One way is to require all students to respond somehow, either with an actual choral response (speaking in unison together), another way with a non-verbal signal like raising hands to indicate answers to questions. In teaching about fruits and vegetables, for example, a teacher can ask, "Here's a list of fruits and vegetables. As I point to each one, raise your hand if it's a fruit, but not if it's a vegetable." Or she can ask: "Here's a list of fruits and vegetables. Say together what each on is as I point to it; you say 'fruit' or 'vegetable', whichever applies." Even though some students may hide their ignorance by letting more knowledgeable classmates do the responding, the general level or quality of response can still give a rough idea of how well students are understanding. These checks can be supplemented, of course, with questions addressed to individuals, or with questions to which individuals must respond briefly in writing. A teacher can ask everyone, "Give me an example of one fruit and one vegetable", and then call on individuals to answer. She can also say: "I want everyone to make a list with two columns, one listing all the fruits you can think of and the other listing all the vegetables you can think of."

As a lesson draws to a close, the teacher arranges for students to have further **independent practice**. The point of the practice is not to explore new material or ideas, but to consolidate or strengthen the recent learning. At the end of a lesson about long division, for example, the teacher can make a transition to independent practice by providing a set of additional problems similar to the ones she explained during the lesson. After working one or two with students, she can turn the rest of the task over to the students to practice on their own. But note that even though the practice is supposedly "independent", students' understanding still has be checked frequently. Along set of practice problems therefore needs to be broken up into small subsets of problems, and written or oral feedback offered periodically.

What are the limits of teacher-directed instruction?

Whatever the grade level, most subjects taught in schools have at least some features, skills, or topics that benefit from direct instruction. Even subjects usually considered "creative" can benefit from a direct approach at times: to draw, sing, or write a poem, for example, requires skills that may be easier to learn if presented sequentially in small units with frequent feedback from a teacher. Research supports the usefulness of teacher- directed instruction for a variety of educational contexts when it is designed well and implemented as intended (Rosenshine & Mesister,i995; Good & Brophy, 2004). Teachers themselves also tend to support the approach in principle (Demant & Yates, 2003).

But there are limits to its usefulness. Some are the practical ones are pointed out above. Teacher-directed instruction, whatever the form, requires well-organized units of instruction in advance of when students are to learn. Such units may not always be available, and it may not be realistic to expect busy teachers to devise their own. Other limits of direct instruction have more to do with the very nature of learning. Some critics argue that organizing material on behalf of the students encourages students to be passive—an ironic and undesirable result if true (Kohn, 2000, 2006). According to this criticism, the mere fact that a curriculum or unit of study is constructed by a teacher (or other authority) makes some students think that they should not bother seeking information actively on their own, but wait for it to arrive of its own accord. In support of this argument, critics point to the fact that direct instruction approaches sometimes contradict their own premises by requiring students to do a bit of cognitive organizational work of their own. This happens, for example, when a mastery learning program provides enrichment material to faster students to work on independently; in that case the teacher may be involved in the enrichment activities only minimally.

Criticisms like these have led to additional instructional approaches that rely more fully on students to seek and organize their own learning. In the next section we discuss some of these options. As you will see, student-centered models of learning do solve certain problems of teacher-directed instruction, but they also have problems of their own.

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7.6: Student-Centered Models of Learning

Student-centered models of learning shift some of the responsibility for directing and organizing learning from the teacher to the student. Being student-centered does not mean, however, that a teacher gives up organizational and leadership responsibilities completely. It only means a relative shift in the teacher's role, toward one with more emphasis on guiding students' self-chosen directions. As we explained earlier in this chapter, teacher-directed strategies do not take over responsibility for students' learning completely; no matter how much a teacher structures or directs learning, the students still have responsibility for working and expending effort to comprehend new material. By the same token, student-centered models of learning do not mean handing over all organizational work of instruction to students. The teacher is still the most knowledgeable member of the class, and still has both the opportunity and the responsibility to guide learning in directions that are productive.

As you might suspect, therefore, teacher-directed and student-centered approaches to instruction may overlap in practice. You can see the overlap clearly, for example, in two instructional strategies commonly thought of as student-centered, *independent study* and *self-reflection*. In **independent study**, as the name implies, a student works alone a good deal of the time, consulting with a teacher only occasionally. Independent study may be student-centered in the sense that the student may be learning a topic or skill — an exotic foreign language, for example— that is personally interesting. But the opposite may also be true: the student may be learning a topic or skill that a teacher or an official school curriculum has directed the student to learn— a basic subject for which the student is missing a credit, for example. Either way, though, the student will probably need guidance, support, and help from a teacher. In this sense even independent study always contain elements of teacher-direction.

Similarly, **self-reflection** refers to thinking about beliefs and experiences in order to clarify their personal meaning and importance. In school it can be practiced in a number of ways: for example by keeping diaries or logs of learning or reading, or by retelling stories of important experiences or incidents in a student's life, or by creating concept maps like the ones described earlier in this chapter. Whatever form it takes, self-reflection by definition happens inside a single student's mind, and in this sense is always directed by the student. Yet most research on self-reflection finds that self-reflection only works well when it involves and generates responses and interaction with other students or with a teacher (Seifert, 1999; Kuit, Reay, & Freeman, 2001). To be fully self-reflective, students need to have access to more than their existing base of knowledge and ideas— more than what they know already. In one study about students' self-reflections of cultural and racial prejudices (Gay & Kirkland, 2003), for example, the researchers found that students tended to reflect on these problems in relatively shallow ways if they worked on their own. It was not particularly effective to write about prejudice in a journal that no one read except themselves, or to describe beliefs in a class discussion in which neither the teacher nor classmates commented or challenged the beliefs. Much more effective in both cases was for the teacher to respond thoughtfully to students' reflective comments. In this sense the use of self-reflection, like independent study, required elements of teacher- direction to be successful.

How might a teacher emphasize students' responsibility for directing and organizing their own learning? The alternatives are numerous, as they are for teacher-directed strategies, so we can only sample some of them here. We concentrate on ones that are relatively well known and used most widely, and especially on two: inquiry learning and cooperative learning.

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7.7: Inquiry Learning and Cooperative Learning

Inquiry learning

Inquiry learning stands the usual advice about expository (lecture-style) teaching on its head: instead of presenting well-organized knowledge to students, the teacher (or sometimes fellow students) pose thoughtful questions intended to stimulate discussion and investigation by students. The approach has been described, used, and discussed by educators literally for decades, though sometimes under other names, including *inquiry method* (Postman & Weingartner, 1969), *discovery learning* (Bruner, 1960/2006), or *progressive education* (Dewey, 1933; Martin, 2003). For convenience, we will stay with the term *inquiry learning*.

The questions that begin a cycle of inquiry learning may be posed either by the teacher or by students themselves. Their content depends not only on the general subject area being studied, but also on the interests which students themselves have expressed. In elementary-level science, for example, a question might be "Why do leaves fall off trees when winter comes?" In high school social studies classes, it might be "Why do nations get into conflict?" The teacher avoids answering such questions directly, even if asked to do so. Instead she encourages students to investigate the questions themselves, for example by elaborating on students' ideas and by asking further questions based on students' initial comments. Since students' comments can not be predicted precisely, the approach is by nature flexible. The initial questioning helps students to create and clarify questions which they consider worthy of further investigation. Discussing questions about leaves falling off trees, for example, can prompt students to observe trees in the autumn or to locate books and references that discuss or explain the biology of tress and leaves.

But inquiry is not limited to particular grade levels or topics. If initial questions in a high school social studies class have been about why nations get into conflict, for example, the resulting discussions can lead to investigating the history of past wars and the history of peace-keeping efforts around the world. Whether the topic is high school social studies or elementary school biology, the specific direction of investigations is influenced heavily by students, but with assistance from the teacher to insure that the students' initiatives are productive. When all goes well, the inquiry and resulting investigations benefit students in two ways. The first is that students (perhaps obviously) learn new knowledge from their investigations. The second is that students practice a constructive, motivating way of learning, one applicable to a variety of problems and tasks, both in school and out.

Cooperative learning

Even though inquiry-oriented discussion and investigation benefits when it involves the teacher, it can also be useful for students to work together somewhat independently, relying on a teacher's guidance only indirectly. Working with peers is a major feature of **cooperative learning** (sometimes also called *collaborative learning*). In this approach, students work on a task in groups and often are rewarded either partially or completely for the success of the group as a whole. Aspects of cooperative learning have been part of education for a long time; some form of cooperation has always been necessary to participate on school sports teams, for example, or to produce a student-run school newspaper. What is a bit newer is using cooperative or collaborative activities systematically to facilitate the learning of a range of educational goals central to the academic curriculum (Prince, 2004).

Even though teachers usually value cooperation in students, circumstances at school can sometimes reduce students' incentives to show it. The traditional practice of assessing students individually, for example, can set the stage for competition over grades, and cultural and other forms of diversity can sometimes inhibit individuals from helping each other spontaneously. Strategies exist, however, for reducing such barriers so that students truly benefit from each other's presence, and are more likely to feel like sharing their skills and knowledge. Here, for example, are several key features that make cooperative learning work well (Johnson & Johnson, 1998; Smith, et al., 2005):

• *Students need time and a place to talk and work together*. This may sound obvious, but it can be overlooked if time in class becomes crowded with other tasks and activities, or with interruptions related to school (like assemblies) but not to the classroom. It is never enough simply to tell students to work together, only to leave them wondering how or when they are to do so.

• *Students need skills at working together*. As an adult, you may feel relatively able to work with a variety of partners on a group task. The same assumption cannot be made, however, about younger individuals, whether teenagers or children. Some students may get along with a variety of partners, but others may not. Many will benefit from advice and coaching about how to focus on the tasks at hand, rather than on the personalities of their partners.

• *Assessment of activities should hold both the group and the individuals accountable for success*. If a final mark for a project goes only to the group as a whole, then freeloading is possible: some members may not do their share of the work and may be rewarded more than they deserve. Others may be rewarded less than they deserve. If, on the other hand, a final grade for a group project goes only to each member's individual contribution to a group project, then overspecialization can occur: individuals have no real incentive to work together, and cooperative may deteriorate into a set of smaller individual projects (Slavin, 1994).

• *Students need to believe in the value and necessity of cooperation*. Collaboration will not occur if students privately assume that their partners have little to contribute to their personal success. Social prejudices from the wider society— like racial bias or gender sexism, for example— can creep into the operations of cooperative groups, causing some members to be ignored unfairly while others are overvalued. Teachers can help reduce these problems in two ways: first by pointing out and explaining that a diversity of talents is necessary for success on a group project, and second by pointing out to the group how undervalued individuals are contributing to the overall project (Cohen, Brody, & Sapon-Shevin, 2004).

As these comments imply, cooperative learning does not happen automatically, and requires monitoring and support by the teacher. Some activities may not lend themselves to cooperative work, particularly if every member of the group is doing essentially the same task. Giving everyone in a group the same set of arithmetic problems to work on collaboratively, for example, is a formula for cooperative failure: either the most skilled students do the work for others (freeloading) or else members simply divide up the problems among themselves in order to reduce their overall work (overspecialization). A better choice for a cooperative task is one that clearly requires a diversity of skills, what some educators call a *rich group work task* (Cohen, Brody, & Sapon-Shevin, 2004). Preparing a presentation about medieval castles, for example, might require (a) writing skill to create a report, (b) dramatic skill to put on a skit and (c) artistic talent to create a poster. Although a few students may have all of these skills, more are likely to have only one, and they are therefore likely to need and want their fellow group members' participation.

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7.8: Examples of Cooperative and Collaborative Learning

Although this description may make the requirements for cooperative learning sound somewhat precise, there are actually a variety of ways to implement it in practice. Error: Reference source not found summarizes several of them. As you can see, the strategies vary in the number of how many students they involve, the prior organization or planning provided by the teacher, and the amount of class time they normally require.

Table **7.8.2**: Strategies for encouraging cooperative learning

Strategy	Type of groups involved:	What the teacher does:	What the students do:
Think-pair-share (Lyman, 1981)	Pairs of students, sometimes linked to one other pair	Teacher poses initial problem or question.	First, students think individually of the answer; second, they share their thinking with partner; third, the partnership shares their thinking with another partnership.
Jigsaw classroom, version #1 (Aronson, et al., 2001)	5-6 students per group, and 5-6 groups overall	Teacher assigns students to groups and assigns one aspect of a complex problem to each group.	Students in each group work together to become experts in their particular aspect of the problem; later the expert groups disband, and form new groups containing one student from each of the former expert groups.
Jigsaw classroom, version #2 (Slavin, 1994)	4-5 students per group, and 4-5 groups overall	Teacher assigns students to groups and assigns each group to study or learn about the same *entire* complex problem.	Students initially work in groups to learn about the entire problem; later the groups disband and reform as expert groups, with each group focusing on a selected aspect of the general problem; still later the expert groups disband and the original general groups reform to learn what the expert students can now add to their general understanding.
STAD (Student-Teams-Achievement Divisions) (Slavin, 1994)	4-5 students per team (or group)	Teacher presents a lesson or unit to the entire class, and later tests them on it; grades individuals based partly onindividuals' and the team's improvement, not just on absolute level of performance.	Students work together to insure that team mates improve their performance as much as possible. Students take tests as individuals.
Project-Based Learning (Katz, 2000)	Various numbers of students, depending on the complexity of the project, up to and including the entire class	Teacher or students pose a question or problem of interest to other students; teacher assists students to clarify their interests and to make plans to investigate the question further.	Students work together for extended periods to investigate the original question or problem; project leads eventually to a presentation, written report, or other product.

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7.9: Instructional Strategies- An Abundance of Choices

Looking broadly at this chapter, you can see that choices among instructional strategies are numerous indeed, and that deciding among them depends on the forms of thinking that you want to encourage, the extent to which ideas or skills need to be organized by you to be understood by students, and the extent to which students need to take responsibility for directing their own learning. Although you may have personal preferences among possible instructional strategies, the choice will also be guided by the uniqueness of each situation of teaching— with its particular students, grade-level, content, and purposes. If you need to develop students' problem solving skills, for example, there are strategies that are especially well suited for this purpose; we described some (see, "Problem solving strategies" in this chapter). If you need to organize complex information so that students do not become confused by it, there are effective ways of doing so. If you want the students to take as much initiative as possible in organizing their own learning, this too can be done.

Yet having this knowledge is still not enough to teach well. What is still needed are ideas or principles for deciding *what* to teach. In this chapter we have still not addressed an obvious question: How do I find or devise goals for my teaching and for my students' learning? And assuming that I can determine the goals, where can I find resources that help students to meet them?

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7.10: Accommodating Cultural Diversity in Practice

As the comments in the previous section imply, accommodating to cultural diversity involves more than adding cultural content to the curriculum—more than celebrating Mexican holidays in an American social studies class, for example, and more than discussing the history of slavery of African-Americans. These are useful actions, but they are only a starting point for truly *multicultural* education (Banks, 2009). In addition it is important to engage students in exploring the culturally based assumptions of whatever subject they are studying. In studying the "Westward Movement" (the settlement of the American west), for example, it is important to point out that this movement was "westward" only from the point of view of the white Americans living in the eastern United States. To the indigenous American Indians, the "west" was the center of their world; to the Mexicans, it was "north"; to the Asian laborers living in California, it was "east."

James Banks has proposed five features of a fully multicultural educational program (2009). The first two of these were mentioned in the paragraph above, but not the next three:

- Integrating *cultural content* into the curriculum wherever possible.
- Stimulating *knowledge construction* to help students understand cultural assumptions.
- *Flexible teaching strategies* that give all students access and success with learning. If some students prefer to learn cooperatively rather than independently, for example, then teachers should make provisions for cooperative learning activities.
- *Encourage prejudice reduction* among all students. This can and should happen even in classes that do not seem culturally diverse on the surface. Such classes always have diversity, even if it is not visible immediately: students' families will vary in their financial circumstances, students themselves will vary in their gender preferences, and students will vary in their attitudes about religion, politics, and many other issues.
- *Encourage the entire school to be aware* of cultural diversity and its effects. What is the racial composition of the school staff? What are their attitudes? What school policies favor particular students unfairly?

Of all of these strategies, the most important is the third: being flexible about the choice of teaching strategies. By allowing for various styles of learning, teachers can accommodate a wide range of students, whatever their cultural backgrounds, and whatever cultural background the teacher herself may have. And flexibility has an added advantage: by honoring students' individuality, it avoids the danger of stereotyping students' learning needs on the basis of their cultural background.

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7.11: Accommodating Diversity in Practice

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

8: Teaching and Learning

Learning Objectives

- Explain Bloom's Revised Taxonomy.
- Identify and describe the eight instructional strategies.
- Create a learning objective.
- Create an activity appropriate for Gen Z Students.

In this chapter, a variety of general pedagogical strategies are introduced. Think of the strategies as being part of a spectrum that goes from student centered at one extreme to teacher centered at the other. Bloom (1956) created a hierarchy that classifies thinking from low cognitive load, *knowledge* , to high cognitive load, *creating* . Others have revised Bloom's Taxonomy in order to reflect new media understanding and technological competencies. Bloom's Taxonomy is often used by effective teachers to write clear learning objectives to meet the standards of the lesson.

8.1: Bloom's Taxonomy

8.2: Instructional Strategies

8.3: Creating Objectives

8.4: The students you will be teaching

8.5: References

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8.1: Bloom's Taxonomy

Bloom's hierarchical classification from low-level to high-level thinking has proven invaluable for classroom instruction. The taxonomy provides a way to classify objectives and learning outcomes while showing its versatility as its use spread to a variety of educational applications. An important resource for writing objectives with verbs classified by level, the taxonomy helps teachers to track whether students are using higher-order thinking skills while engaged in a lesson.

Bloom's taxonomy underwent a major revision by Krathwohl & Anderson (2001), as depicted in the Figure One. This revision allows teachers to identify the complexity of thinking required of the students by a lesson. The image below shows the increasing cognitive load and provides a short definition of each level.

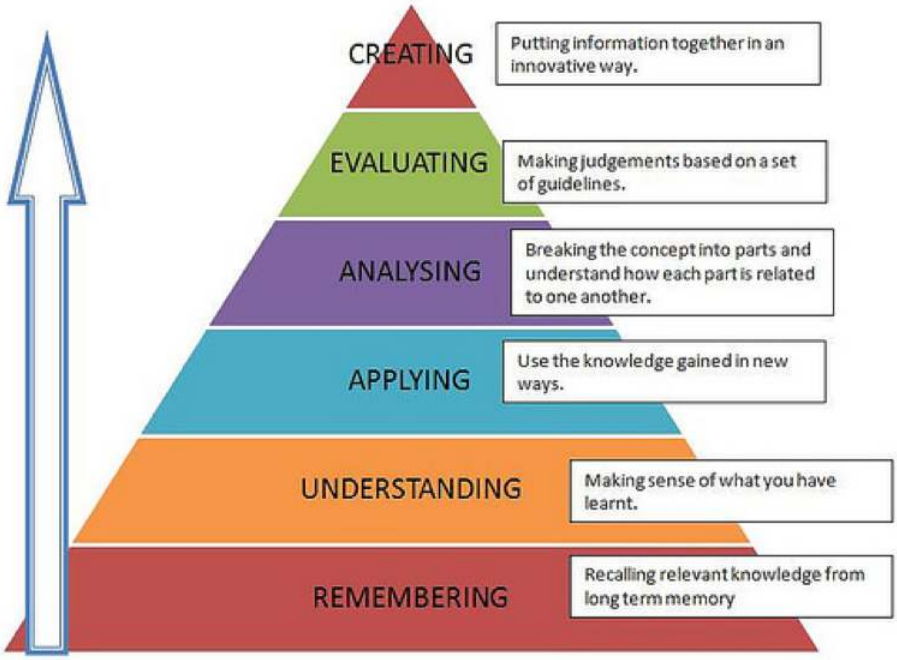
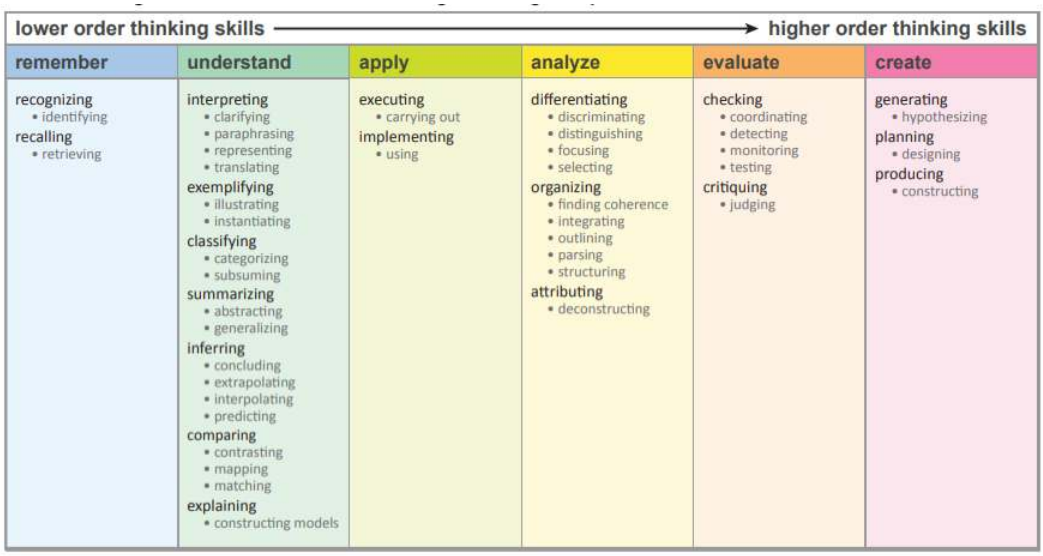


Figure 1. Revised Bloom's Technology

The verbs associated with differing levels of thinking skills required for any given task provide guidance as a teacher writes outcomes of any lesson for a class. For instance, a lower order outcome may be: The student will recall multiplication tables one through four . A higher order outcome might be: The student will differentiate between nutritious foods and foods with processed ingredients . When teachers understand the complexity of thinking levels required by the lesson, they may ensure that students have a good balance among all skills in the spectrum.



lower order thinking skills → higher order thinking skills

remember	understand	apply	analyze	evaluate	create
recognizing • identifying recalling • retrieving	interpreting • clarifying • paraphrasing • representing • translating exemplifying • illustrating • instantiating classifying • categorizing • subsuming summarizing • abstracting • generalizing inferring • concluding • extrapolating • interpolating • predicting comparing • contrasting • mapping • matching explaining • constructing models	executing • carrying out implementing • using	differentiating • discriminating • distinguishing • focusing • selecting organizing • finding coherence • integrating • outlining • parsing • structuring attributing • deconstructing	checking • coordinating • detecting • monitoring • testing critiquing • judging	generating • hypothesizing planning • designing producing • constructing

(Table 2 adapted from Anderson and Krathwohl, 2001, pp. 67–68.)

IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY
Center for Excellence in Learning and Teaching

Table 1. Verbs for planning with Bloom's Taxonomy

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8.2: Instructional Strategies

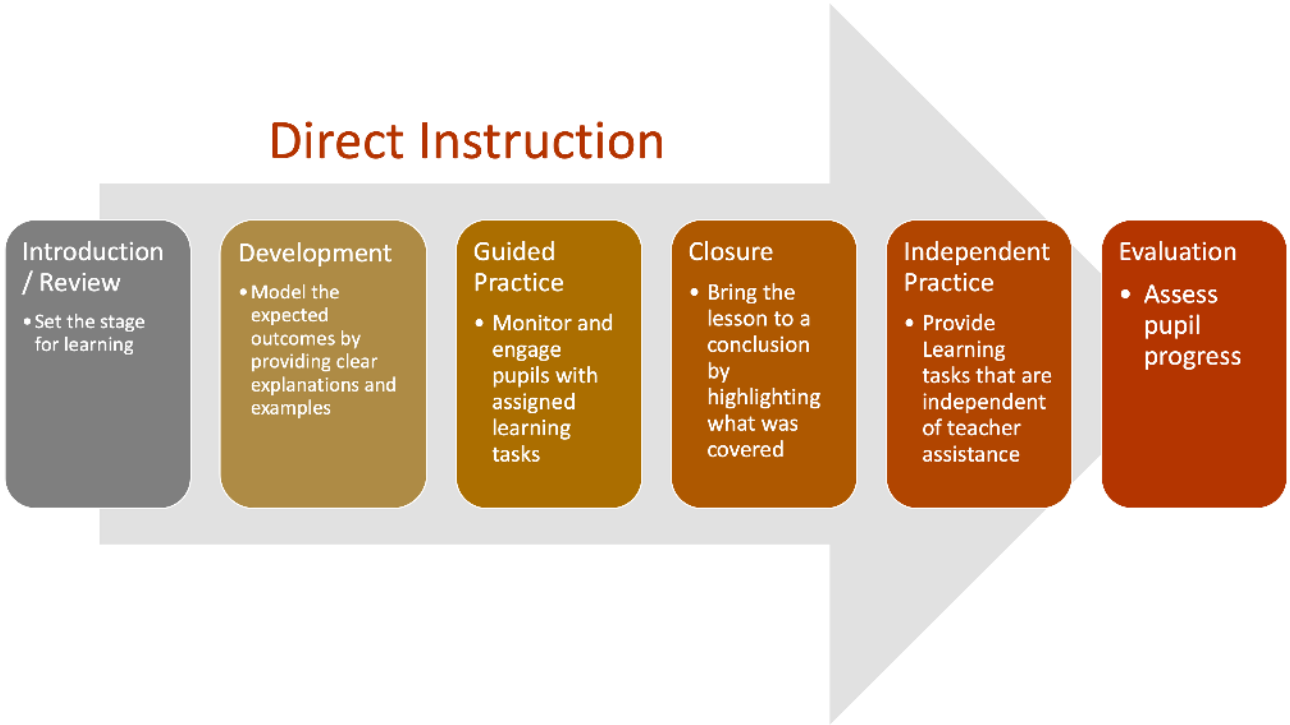
Direct Instruction

In general usage, the term direct instruction refers to (1) instructional approaches that are structured, sequenced, and led by teachers, and/or (2) the presentation of academic content to students by teachers, such as in a lecture or demonstration. In other words, teachers are “directing” the instructional process or instruction is being “directed” at students.

The basic techniques of direct instruction not only extend beyond lecturing, presenting, or demonstrating, but many are considered to be foundational to effective teaching. For example:

- Establishing learning objectives for lessons, activities, and projects, and then making sure that students understand the goals.
- Purposefully organizing and sequencing a series of lessons, projects, and assignments that move students toward understanding and the achievement of specific academic goals.
- Reviewing instructions for an activity or modeling a process—such as a scientific experiment—so that students know what they are expected to do.
- Providing students with clear explanations, descriptions, and illustrations of the knowledge and skills being taught.
- Asking questions to make sure of student understanding after a lesson.

As seen in Figure Two, teachers rarely use either direct instruction or some other teaching approach—in practice, diverse strategies are frequently blended together. For these reasons, negative perceptions of direct instruction likely result more from a widespread overreliance on the approach, and from the tendency to view it as an either/or option, rather than from its inherent value to the instructional process (Carnine, Silbert, Kameenui, & Tarver, 1997).



Drill and Practice



The drill and practice instructional strategy refers to small tasks, such as the memorization of spelling and vocabulary words, or the practicing of the multiplication tables repeatedly. As students, drill and practice instruction was probably a familiar memory throughout your schooling. It is used primarily for students to master fundamental materials through repetition. By today's educational standards, drill and practice is considered outdated and often deemed ineffective as an instructional strategy. According to Jill Sunday Bartoli, "Having to spend long periods of time on repetitive tasks is a sign that learning is not taking place — that this is not a productive learning situation." (Bartoli, 1989, p. 292)

Lecture



Megan Schreder talks to her fifth-grade classroom.

Lecture is a convenient instructional strategy. Material can be delivered efficiently since there are no interruptions from students. Lecture still allows the teacher to relate new material to other topics in the course, define and explain key terms, and relate material to students' interests.

Lecture is an instructional strategy that places students in a passive role. Essentially the lecturer is the expert and the students are having knowledge poured into their brains. The material and presentation are solely the intellectual product of the teacher. Students sit silently at desks that face the lecturer.

Often lecture topics are not remembered well because retrieval pathways to memory have not been established by students actively participating in the instruction. Students have not taken the presented material and created their own interpreted meaning. The lecturer usually does not know if students understand the topic because there is no feedback from students (Lujan, H. & DiCarlo, S, 2006).

Question and Answer



Megan Schreder asks her students questions during a Q&A session with her class.

The technique of question and answer allows the application of knowledge by students and offers a more reflective response. By asking questions, teachers are inviting brief responses from students, which incorporate their prior knowledge and some interpretation of that knowledge. This allows indications of whether students were listening and understand the material being

presented. Questions serve both to motivate students to listen and to assess how much and how well they know the material. Incorporating this instructional approach allows both the teacher to ask students questions and students to ask the teacher questions, fostering a better understanding of th e lesson (Paul & Elder, 2007).

Discussion

In this instructional strategy, the role of the teacher shifts to leading an exchange of ideas about a specific topic. The teacher is no longer the sole provider of the content as students gain a voice for their ideas and the research they have conducted. At times, the teacher may assign students individual concepts that they have to speak about during the discussion. Some control of what course the discussion takes devolves to students. All of the content planned for the lesson might not be discussed. In fact, after reflecting on the day's discussion a teacher might have to begin the next day's discussion on important content that had been overlooked or squeezed out of the lesson.

Teachers need to develop strategies so that the voices of all students are heard. In addition, for effective class discussions students need to listen to what their classmates are saying so the points made during the dialogue allow students to make sense of the new ideas. As the discussion takes place, time should be taken for the teacher or better yet, a student to summarize the important points (Brookfield & Preskill, 2012).

Mental modeling

When a person perceives how something works in the real world and then formalizes that thought process a mental model is created. Mental modeling is a student-centered pedagogical strategy that helps students to solve problems or make decisions. For example, a mathematics teacher verbally modeling the thought process she is using while solving a problem in front of the class is using mental modeling. When teachers model the process of thinking or doing, the strategy of mental modeling becomes clearer to students. Students may then explain their own mental models to learn the strategy and improve their use of it.

Mental modeling often starts with a question, for example: why does lake effect snow occur? "What if" questions are also good starting points, for example: What if gravity ceased entirely? Strategies used by teachers and students engaged in mental modeling include observation, asking questions, as well as location and analysis of information. The level of cognitive load in mental modeling is high making it a strategy that should be employed often.

Teachers are encouraged to help students select the right mental model and help students select relevant information to develop their model. Teachers should create or find problems, case studies, lab activities, and projects at the appropriate grade level for their students. For students to have success they need to possess the appropriate background knowledge and supports to develop an accurate mental model. Often students encounter more success when they focus on the process instead of the outcome (Hestenes, D, 2010).

Inquiry



When students investigate to answer a question about a particular topic, they are using inquiry or inquiry-based learning. When teachers use inquiry-based learning, students or teachers may identify questions, however in any case questions posed should be open ended. Inquiry learning may be experienced individually; but it is beneficial when students work with other students. Differing perspectives and varied resources are important to inquiry-based projects.

Providing responses to questions such as "Why is the sky blue?" demands high-order thinking skills from both the student and the teacher. Allowing students to explore a broad topic, and to choose questions in which they are invested creates the best environment for successful inquiry-based projects. Students benefit from learning and negotiating through group investigation in order to answer a question.

Teachers who wish to engage in inquiry-based learning set the stage for this process in three ways:

1. Assess students to determine their knowledge of the topic, and lay groundwork when that knowledge does not exist.
2. Match the scope of the inquiry question to the learning level of students.
3. Provide resources and/or provide internet search strategies for locating credible resources that will inform the inquiry.

The teacher's role in inquiry-based learning is one of mentor and advisor. Students may struggle through problems; however, if the struggle occurs at a level that students may be successful, this struggle is worthwhile. The teacher's most difficult role, in this case, is to resist answering questions that would inform the inquiry and therefore negate the process for the student!

Inquiry based learning requires time and patience; however this teaching strategy lays groundwork for real-world learning in which students will engage throughout their lives (Sharples, Collins, Feißt, Gaved, Mulholland, Paxton, & Wright, 2011).

Discovery Learning

"Discovery learning is a type of learning where learners construct their own knowledge by experimenting with a domain and inferring rules from the results of these experiments" (Van Joolingen, 2000, p.385).

In today's educational realm, discovery learning is also called problem-based learning or experiential learning. Students participate through a hands-on approach and learning is interactive. Through discovery learning students are encouraged to explore with little guidance from the instructor. Discovery learning is based on the beliefs of Piaget (Ültanır, 2012), in which students are provided with a topic, and from that point students choose how they are going to learn, discover new information, synthesize the information and do so without correction from the teacher. The teacher does feed back to the student, as do the other members of the class, once the project is complete.

It is important that teachers create specific goals and guide students through discovery learning using pre-determined structures, for example, groupwork, fieldwork, or interaction with others. Unless this is the case, students may have too much freedom resulting in a lack of rigor within the method. However, Mayer (2004) states, "In many ways, guided discovery appears to offer the best method for promoting constructivist learning. The challenge of teaching by guided discovery is to know how much and what kind of guidance to provide and to know how to specify the desired outcome of learning." (p.14)

Group work

In group work, students are assigned one or more partners to collaborate with on ideas in a strategy like think-pair-share or problem solving. Before students begin working, the teacher explains the objectives, expectations, and details of the activity or project. This explanation is meant to ensure all group members understand the goal of the group. As the group works together it is expected that all members teach and learn from each other. At the end of the group activity the teacher may debrief with groups or may provide a grade on a group artifact.

Students often need to be oriented on how to work effectively with their peers. Listening to group members' ideas and not attaching self-worth to proposed ideas go a long way toward reaching the goals of the activity. Compromise is a skill that requires practice to be effective. Alignment of group activities with the Social and Emotional Learning (SEL) Benchmarks (New York State, 2018) provides a well-defined way to identify and advance the skills students need to be effective group members.

When engaging students in groupwork, teachers should circulate to monitor the groups' progress toward accomplishing the objectives of the lesson. Asking groups what they are discussing and why that is important to the topic assists in reinforcing the idea that the group activity is educational. As teachers see group behavior that is not on-task, the teacher should not hesitate to address this with the group. This reinforces to all groups that students are individually accountable for their behavior in the group. They are not "lost in a crowd". (Blatchford, Kutnick, Baines, & Galton, 2003).

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8.3: Creating Objectives

A learning objective is a short statement of the goals and objectives that students should know or be able to put into practice after a lesson.

Key Points

- Teacher's curriculum guides often provide overarching objectives for a unit of study in your content area's standards. Teachers must use the standards for their content area to individual teacher to formulate learning objectives for daily lesson plans. (To view the standards for the various content areas in New York State, visit the New York State Department of Education website)
- Bloom's Taxonomy (Bloom et al., 1956) is a framework that categorizes different educational goals. Each level of the Taxonomy has a different level of complexity. The lowest levels of Bloom's Taxonomy require lower order thinking skills (ex. remembering and understanding) and the categories on the higher level of the Taxonomy require higher-order thinking skills (analyzing, evaluating and creating).

Term

Learning Objective

- Any fact, technique or other outcome that a student is expected to achieve at the end of a specific course of instruction

A learning objective is a short statement of the goals and objectives that students should know or be able to put into practice after a lesson. Focusing on what students should know is frequently called the "cognitive" approach; focusing on what students should be able to do is known as the "behavioral" approach. While most teachers are, by temperament, drawn to one of the two approaches, in practice, most teachers often combine the two, perhaps without knowing it.

Large-scale learning objectives will be articulated in a teacher's curriculum guide, but it is up to each individual teacher to formulate learning objectives for individual lesson plans. Teachers must create lesson plans that include objectives that are:

1. Measurable
2. Observable
3. Content-based
4. Student-centered
5. Aligned to the state standards

New York State provides teachers with a curriculum that needs to be covered in a specific course. The teacher must create objectives that align with the curriculum. Teachers need to make sure that they can measure if the students have met the objectives of the lesson. This can be achieved by giving formative and summative assessments (Types of assessments will be discussed in Chapter 6). If students do not meet the objective of the lesson, a teacher needs to be aware and try to remediate to ensure that students can meet the objectives with support from the teacher or a fellow student. In order to be able to measure objectives teachers have to be able to observe the student meeting the objective. For example, I caution pre-service teachers to not use "know" or "understand" in their objectives. These verbs are not concrete and they hard to measure.

It is important to have 2-3 objectives in a lesson plan. This allows the teacher to scaffold instruction (Wood, Bruner, and Ross, 1976). Teachers have to consider that students have varying levels of readiness to complete a certain task. If teachers offer support to students during the learning process, they may be able to complete complex tasks. Teachers can use multiple levels of Bloom's Taxonomy to create objectives that start with tasks that require lower order thinking skills, and moving to more complex tasks that require higher order thinking instruction. If there are multiple objectives, a teacher can measure what objective the students did not meet, and just address that part of the lesson.

Example Objectives

Knowledge (1):

The student will be able to list the parts of a fish with 85% accuracy

The student will be able to recognize nouns in a sentence with 85% accuracy.

Comprehension (2):

The student will be able to paraphrase the results of the survey on the effects of second-hand smoke with 85% accuracy.

The student will be able to summarize Wilson's Fourteen Points with 85% accuracy.

Application (3):

The student will produce argumentative essays on school uniforms with 85% accuracy.

The student will be able create a graph of emissions of greenhouse gases with 85% accuracy.

Analysis (4):

The student will be able to compare and contrast mitosis and meiosis with 85% accuracy.

The student will be able to explain the various ways to solve an equation 85% accuracy.

Evaluation (5):

The student will be able to critique the New Deal policies with 85% accuracy

The student will be able to evaluate the effectiveness of U.S. propaganda during WWII with 85%.

Create (6):

The student will be able to construct a program for addressing flood disaster relief with 85% accuracy.

The student will be able to create an annotated timeline of the Cold War with 85% accuracy.

Activity

For the activity, students will be able to write objectives for each category of Bloom's Taxonomy on the topic of your choosing

Step 1: Pick a topic (does not have to be in you content area)

Step 2: You will create six objectives relating to the topic you choose using action verbs from each category of Bloom's taxonomy. You must number each of the objectives to correspond with the different categories

1. Remember
2. Understand
3. Apply
4. Analyze
5. Evaluate
6. Create

Step 3: Print pages one through four of the cube template. Using these pages, write one objective on each side of the cube

Step 4: Fold the cube on the lines and glue the appropriate tabs

Step 5: Be ready to share and discuss your objectives for the next class meeting

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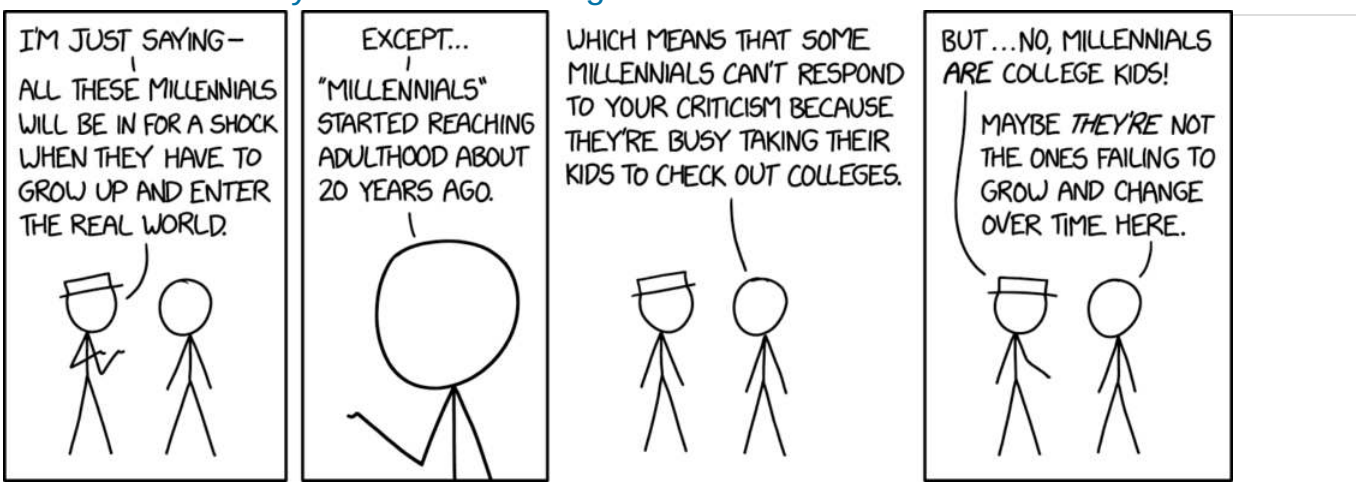
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8.4: The students you will be teaching



We have heard a lot about Millennials (born 1981-1996) and all of the characteristics that go along with this group. However, most students entering college these days are considered Generation Z (Gen Z). Gen Z is loosely defined as anyone born between 1996 and 2015, "…this group makes up a quarter of the U.S. population and by 2020 will account for 40% of all consumers," (Finch, 2015, np). Gen Z are currently between 4-24 years old (nearly 74 million in U.S.) and it's safe to say will make up a majority of students in your future classrooms.

This cohort has grown up post 9/11 and in a world of terrorism, recession, racial unrest, corporate scandals and financial insecurity. They have never known a world without access to internet technology and have grown up with iPads and iPhones in their hands. They have the background knowledge to be experienced with digital literacy, but likely do not practice caution in their digital media use. Even though Gen Z spends a lot of time on social media, they seem to be pretty good at deciphering true from false information in record time. Fast Company suggests "Generation Z spends a lot of time on social media… they can sniff out canned or insincere messages in seconds". Your Gen Z students expect honesty and straightforward responses, and are often determined to gain these responses, even if they aren't forthcoming.

Characteristics of Gen Z Learners

- Often children of Generation X but may have parents who are Millennials
- Multitaskers
- Concerned with money and job security
- Usually independent
- Tend to be loyal, compassionate and thoughtful
- Responsible and determined
- Value education
- Future focused
- Active volunteers
- Prefer communication through Snap Chat & Instagram instead of email and traditional social media platforms such as Facebook
- Communicate with images (e.g. emojis)
- Use the internet to gain information for school and interests
- Have less face-to-face contact because of smartphones
- Use social media daily to maintain relationships
- More stressed and depressed than previous generations

Supplemental resources:

- Digital Skills in the Z Generation: Key Questions for a Curricular Introduction in Primary School

- Generation Z Characteristics and Traits that Explain the Way They Learn
- Six Defining Characteristics of Generation Z
- How Generation Z will Change the World According to Experts

Activity:

Using the characteristics of Gen Z and the supplemental resources, create a learning activity that you believe would engage Gen Z students. Prepare to share this activity with other class members. Do they believe this activity would be helpful? What suggestions might they have to improve the activity you have outlined?

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

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9.1: Brown vs. Board of Education

Brown vs. Board of Education

Watch the following video about “Brown vs. Board of Education.” While you are watching think about how this court case has changed the United States.



A YouTube element has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view it online here: http://pb.libretexts.org/foe/?p=130

60 Years Since Brown vs. Board of Education

Watch the following video “60 years since Brown vs. Board of Education”. What has changed? What are areas where change is still needed?



A YouTube element has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view it online here: http://pb.libretexts.org/foe/?p=130

- Discuss the legal and social outcomes that followed this Supreme Court ruling.

Make sure to return to the discussion board to read and respond to your classmates.

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9.2: 20th Century

Twentieth Century Milestones in Education: Towards a More Inclusive Education for All

Veronica Montalvo

INTRODUCTION AND THE GROWTH OF EDUCATION

In the United States, the start of the twentieth century marked a movement towards the inclusion of more people than ever into the educational system. In 1900, close to six percent of teenagers graduated from high school (Thattai, 2001). States attempted to increase that number by making that goal more accessible through the construction of more high schools in both urban and rural localities (Wolfe, 2001). Laws were passed that made school mandatory for children until elementary school; later it became obligatory until the child became sixteen years old (Thattai, 2001). However, a good and equal education was not yet widely available to all Americans. Marginalized groups hovered at the fringes of the educational system. African-Americans received unequal and inferior educations as compared to that of whites, as did other minorities and students with limited-English-proficiency (LEP). Women were discriminated against, as well as the handicapped, in being fully included in the educational system. Major developments in the twentieth-century education system include various rulings and acts that promoted a fair and equal education for Americans that had been neglected and marginalized.

G.I. BILL of 1944

Established in 1944, the G.I. Bill was designed to provide assistance to veterans returning from World War II. Although the educational provisions within the Bill were originally intended as “another form of unemployment relief,” the educational system experienced a drastic change in its perception by Americans (Clark, 1998, p. 173). Prior to the influx of veterans in colleges and universities, a college education was perceived as being a privilege of the wealthy and a mark of high status. The veterans returning from WWII were viewed as everyday men, and to see and hear about them going to college broke down that perception and made the dream of a college education more of a reality for all Americans (Clark, 1998). According to Hess and McGuinn (2002), “Education gained a new prominence after World War II” (p. 76). More students were graduating from high school and going to college after the G.I. Bill passed (Hess and McGuinn, 2002).

Aside from changing the perception of college education and increasing enrollments, the G.I. Bill led to the growth of community colleges and vocational schools (Wolfe, 2001). The 2.2 million veterans utilizing the educational benefits of the G.I. Bill (Bound and Turner, 2002) demanded a curriculum with classes more similar to what they had been exposed to in the military. Practicality was a vital aspect in their desired education, and schools responded by creating vocational programs to suit their needs (Clark, 1998). The G.I. Bill impacted future generations by making college more accessible to the average citizen and by causing the expansion of the college curriculum.

BROWN V. BOARD OF EDUCATION, 1954

In 1954, the Supreme Court ruled that segregation in public schools was unconstitutional in *Brown v. Board of Education*. The decision marked the beginning of more educational opportunities for African-Americans, but these opportunities were still severely limited. The Supreme Court declared that schools must desegregate, but did not make a deadline or any guidelines as to when it must be complete (Carson, 2004). A decade after the decision, less than 10% of black students were attending an integrated school (Ravitch, 2000). Throughout the ‘60s and ‘70s, the government used funds to force schools to desegregate or risk losing their funding (Carper, 2001), and by 1980, the practice of legal segregation for the most part had ended (Thattai, 2001).

Hear a student recount reactions to *Brown*.

Despite the long delay in achieving the goal of desegregation, the message that *Brown* delivered impacted the educational system and future policy in civil rights (Carson, 2004). *Brown* revealed the potential for other minority groups to begin the struggle for equal educational access (Gándara, Moran, and García, 2004). Equal and fair education began to be viewed as “the birthright of a free citizenry” (Hess and McGuinn, 2002, pp. 76-77), and more groups began demanding that right.

ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION ACT OF 1965

The Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 sought to equalize the education opportunities for all children. As the start of federal government grants to states for education (Hess and McGuinn, 2000), the law attempted "to compensate in some sense for disadvantages due to inequities in the social system" (Wolfe, 2001). President Johnson hoped that increasing and equalizing education for all children would one day rid the country of poverty (Easley, 2005). Funds were provided to the states for services for poor and minority students (Baker, 2001) as well as for "school library resources, textbooks, and other instructional materials for school children" (*Digest of Education Statistics*, 2006). In 1967, Title VII authorized grants to be given for programs for LEP students (Baker, 2001). More than giving funds for different programs for the poor and minorities, ESEA along with the Civil Rights Act of 1964 aided in providing funds for the desegregation of southern schools who had refused to do so (Ravitch, 2000), more than a decade after the *Brown v. Board of Education* ruling. ESEA served to make an equal education more obtainable for all classes and races.

TITLE IX OF 1972

The place of women within the educational system was limited in terms of opportunities and the material being taught. The Civil Rights Movement during the '60s and '70s led women to protest more and demand equality in education. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 included the requirement that grants be given to the states in order for them to work towards that gender equality in education, and in 1972, Title IX of the Education Amendments was passed (Marshall, 2002). Title IX required that there be gender equality in schools that received money from the government and that "curricula should not stereotype girls' and boys' interests and careers" (Marshall, 2002, p. 712). In spite of the worthwhile objectives of Title IX, it was a feeble mandate. No penalties existed for schools that refused to comply, and a way to even supervise them was not set up until a quarter of the century after the passage of Title IX (Marshall, 2002).

In 1974, the Women's Educational Equity Act (WEEA) was passed. This act provided a financial backbone to Title IX with funds granted to the schools and agencies in order to fulfill the goals of Title IX (*Women's Educational Equity*). Title IX and WEEA made great strides in opening up more doors to education for women in the twentieth century.

INDIVIDUALS WITH DISABILITIES ACT OF 1975

The place of handicapped children in schools improved in the twentieth century. Almost five percent of students have a mental disability (Gunning, 2008), and with the 1975 Education for All Handicapped Children's Act, they are able to receive a better education (Keyes, Hanley-Maxwell, and Capper, 1999). The name later changed to the Individuals with Disabilities Act (IDEA), but the goal of guaranteeing an education to disabled students remained the same (Keyes, Hanley-Maxwell, and Capper, 1999). A "free appropriate public education" or FAPE requires that "special education and related services are provided at public expense" (McLaughlin and Thurlow, 2003, p. 436). Disabled children must be placed in the least restrictive environment possible, meaning that their educational environment is as close to that of their nondisabled classmates as possible (Keyes, Hanley-Maxwell, and Capper, 1999). Individualized Education Programs (IEPs) are used to monitor the learning disabled student's progress, and in 1997, assessments became mandatory for disabled students in order to make the schools more accountable for the students' progress (McLaughlin and Thurlow, 2003). If necessary, accommodations in the assessments may be used (Gunning, 2008). Thanks to IDEA, more disabled students are graduating than if IDEA had not been passed (*Special Education and the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act*).

CONCLUSION

The twentieth century achieved a great deal in terms of including more groups that had been previously excluded or marginalized. A great deal still remains to be done in making education truly equal and accessible to every American, but the foundation has been laid for more work in the twenty-first century. Each American deserves to have equal educational opportunities, and as society progresses and more policies are created, that goal may be achievable.

APPLICATION QUESTIONS

```
1. In 1956, what type of education might most African Americans in the Deep South like
```

a. A separate but equal education to that of whites

b. A better education but still in segregated schools

c. An inferior education compared to that of whites

d. An education that was rapidly improving since 1954

```
2. After 1975, in what kind of learning environment are handicapped children found?
```

a. Separate classrooms where they are taught basic skills

b. A school day split between a special education class and a regular class

c. Full integration into regular classrooms with nondisabled students

d. Separate schools that can accommodate their needs more

```
3. In 1970, women's education most likely included what class?
```

a. Physics

b. Auto repair

c. Calculus

d. Home economics

```
4. After World War II, which belief supported the passage of the G.I. Bill?
```

a. Veterans returning home would be mostly unemployed

b. Veterans would be eager to further their education while working

c. There would be a surplus of jobs and veterans could be picky

d. Veterans would probably not use the benefits anyway

```
5. What type of classes would most likely appeal to the returning WWII veterans?
```

a. Art history

b. English composition

c. Mechanics

d. Psychology

AnswerS:

```
1. B 2. B 3. D 4. A 5. C
```

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9.3: Equity

Creating Equity in the Classroom

by: Anthony D. Richardson

INTRODUCTION

There are many avenues we can take toward equity in the school. We will discuss Culture, School Size, Gender, Learning, and Funding. Five important topics needed for equity in the classroom. Before you can fair assessment of anything a person faces, they must try to understand the what, when, why and how. Equity is what every Teacher, Principal, School Super Attendant, and Parent should strive for.

[1]

CULTURE

Year 2004 represented the 50th anniversary of Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas (1954), the Supreme Court decision outlawing racial segregation in schools. Brown v. Board has been called the defining legal decision of the 20th century, framing as it did the United States' struggle with issues of race and racial equality. In that decision, the justices clearly state that they were striking down segregation in public schools both to increase educational equity and to eliminate the racial stigma associated with segregation.

Despite a wide range of efforts over the past 50 years, issues of racial and ethnic stigma and its relationship to identity and motivation remain central issues for those interested in creating racially equitable educational settings today. I argue that efforts to improve educational equity can only advance when a corresponding effort is made to reduce racial and ethnic stigma.

In the 50 years since the first Brown decision, we have learned a great deal about both the value of diverse learning environments for student development and how to create effective diverse learning environments. Nevertheless, as we come to understand that the racial and ethnic stigma discussed in Brown continues to play a central role in modern educational outcomes and inequities, we can direct our reform efforts in productive ways.

- First, teachers much acknowledge how deficit-based notions of diverse students continue to permeate traditional school thinking, practices, and placement, and critique their own thoughts and practices to ensure they do not reinforce prejudiced behavior.
- Second, culturally relevant pedagogy recognizes the explicit connection between culture and learning, and sees students' cultural capital as an asset and not a detriment to their school success.
- **1. What does not create effective diverse learning environments?**

  B. Culturally relevant pedagogy recognizes the explicit connection between culture and learning, and sees students' cultural capital as an asset and not a detriment to their school success.

  C. Culturally relevant teaching is mindful of how traditional teaching practices reflect middle-class; European-American cultural values, and thus seeks to incorporate a wider range of dynamic and fluid teaching practices outcomes through the amelioration of stigma.

  D. Disregard cultural differences and teach a rigid and structured class that focuses on passing the SOL's.

  2. How does school size does effect the a classroom?

  A. Estimates an appropriate balance point between student learning and school size.

  B. Study found favorable effects for larger schools in terms of student learning and teachers' willingness to take responsibility for their students' learning.

  C. Study found similar effects for larger schools in terms of student learning and teachers' willingness to take responsibility for their students' learning environment.

  D. It does not effect the classroom and learning environment at all.

3. What is the differences between genders?

A. Girls are competitive and boys are talkative and cooperate.

B. Boys and girls create very distinct cultures; when they are in same-gender groups they act and play very differently.

C. Girls are talkative and cooperative, boys are competitive and physical.

D. The only difference is how they are raised in the home.

4. Why is learning not equal from school to school?

A. Access to the learning experiences that help people to thrive, though these depend on context, are not equally or equitably available to everyone becuause?

B. Everyone does not have the same access.

C. All the responsibility is on the schools.

D. Every can go to the public library.

5. What is the annual price tag of inadequately educating our young people?

A. Inestimable price that we all pay every year.

B. Whatever the amount of money we get from the lottery.

C. The annual price tag of inadequately educating our young people is staggering, in the realm of $250 billion per year in health and welfare costs, criminal justice expenses, and lost tax revenues.

D. The annual price tag of inadequately educating our young people is only $500 million per year.

AnswerS1. (D) 2. (B) 3. (C) 4. (A) 5. (C)

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9.4: Teachers

Child Abuse and Neglect-Teachers' Role

" A good teacher is like a candle-it consumes itself to light the way for others" http://www.indianchild.com/teachers_quotes.htm

Learning Targets

- Students should be able to detect signs of Child abuse and child neglect in a classroom.
- Students will know the proper procedure of reporting suspicions of child abuse or nelgect.
- Students will know the 3 types of Child abuse and the statistics on all 3.

Introduction

To a student a teacher can be seen as someone they can tell their deepest darkest secrets too. So what happens when a student tells a teacher some information that might suggest child abuse or neglect? Teachers need to know how to handle child abuse suspicions on the legal and ethical level and how to recognize it. Definitions The lines between child abuse and child neglect can get a little hazy sometimes. The Child Welfare Information Gateway has defined child abuse as " Any recent act or failure to act on the part of a parent or caretaker which results in death, serious physical or emotional harm, sexual abuse or exploitation; or an act or failure to act which presents an imminent risk or serious harm" (Child Welfare Information Gateway,2008) There are 3 different types of Child abuse; physical, emotional, and sexual abuse. The Child Welfare Information Gateway also defines the three types of abuse

- Physical-"is non- accidental physical injury as a result of punching, beating, kicking, biting, shaking, throwing, stabbing, choking, hitting, burning, or otherwise harming the child."(Child Welfare Information Gateway, 2008)
- Emotional- "pattern of behavior that impairs a child's development of sense of self-worth" (Child Welfare Information Gateway,2008)
- Sexual-"activities by a parent or caregiver such as fondling a child's genitals, penetration, incest, rape, sodomy, indecent exposure, and exploitation through prostitution or production of pornographic material"(Child Welfare Information Gateway, 2008)

Child abuse can bee seen as causing immediate harm to the child. While child neglect might not cause immediate harm to the child, overtime child neglect can cause physical and developmental harm. Child Neglect it defined as Child Neglect- "the failure of a parent, guardian or other caregiver to provide for a child's basic needs." (Child Welfare Information Gateway,2008) Those needs can be put into four catergories physical,medical,educational, and emotional.

Statistics

A teacher needs to know the statistics of child abuse and neglect, once they know the numbers they will see how dyer the situation is and how important it is to know how to respond to child abuse and neglect.The National Child Abuse and Neglect Data System is a federal organization that collects data and statistics on child abuse and neglect every year (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2008). In the year 2006 there was an estimated 3.3 million cases and of those cases over half of them were reported by professionals, such as teachers (U.S Department of Health and Human Services, 2008) in the year 2006 the data showed

- 905,000 victims of Child abuse or neglect
- 51.5 % were girls an 48.2% were boys
- 48.8% were white,22.8% were African-America, and 18.4 were Hispanic

The data that was collected also showed the child neglect was more common than child abuse, in years past the NCANDs reported that child abuse was more prevalent that child neglect. In 2006 the data showed

- 64.1% were victims of neglect
- 16% were victims of physical abuse
- 8.8% were victims of sexual abuse
- 6.6% were victims of emotional abuse

Detecting Child Abuse or Neglect

As teachers we spend and average of 7 hours, 5 days a week with our students. So besides their parents, we are the people that the children spend most of their time with, this allows us to create a relationship of trust with our students.The relationship that is created is one that is so strong that a teacher will do anything to protect their students.So by knowing how to detect abuse and neglect teachers are better prepared to protect their students. We also get to know our students behavioral patterns, and if it changes occur. A dramatic change can in behavior can be a warning sign of child abuse or neglect (Coleman). According to Dr. Coleman, a child psychologist some other warning signs of child abuse or neglect both physical and emotional. They are as follows(Coleman).

- Bruises, lumps, welts
- Repeated broken bones
- Burns
- Shyness around adults
- Is often absent
- Frequent accidents-such as wetting their pants
- Lack of concentration
- Poor academic performance
- High aggression
- Early arrival to school and reluctance to leave
- Unsociable

When it comes to detecting the possibility of child neglect the warning signs can be a lot more apparent and can be easily seen by the outer appearance of the child. Some of the things to look for if a teacher suspects a child is being neglected are as follows (Duncan, 2001)

- Child appears to always be hungry
- Unorganized train of thought
- Child appears to suffer from medical and dental neglect
- Child comes to class in clothes that appear dirty and worn

Reporting Suspicions of Child Abuse or Neglect

When teachers suspect child abuse or neglect they sometimes hesitate to report it, this may be because of a fear that the parents of the child may retaliate against the child, or they feel that even if it is reported nothing will be done. As teachers those we are mandated to report any suspicions of child abuse or neglect. This is stated in the Child Abuse Prevention and Treatment Act(CAPTA) if a teacher fails to report any suspicions they can face disciplinary action up to and including termination and criminal liabilities(Smith, 2007). When a teacher suspects that a child is being abused in most school the teacher will file a report for the principal once the report is filled it is normally given to the guidance counselor who will be the one to contact the local depart of Child Protective Services(CPS)(Citizens Information). The website also states that if a child confides in a child that the teacher should record the conversations. The teacher also needs to have the child's basic information such as; name , address, phone number, details about the suspected abuse, and information about the potential perpetrator(Duncan, 2001). The CPS will determine in the information is substantial enough for an investigation. The CPS will normally send the mandated reporter a letter, but a family's right to privacy is still of importance. So a mandated reporter might know that the CPS investigated but may not know the findings or results of the investigation (Duncan, 2001).

Conclusion

So in conclusion teachers have not only a legal responsibility but an ethical responsibility to protect their students. Teachers should pay attention to students' behavior and create strong relationships with their students. If this happens, I feel that we will see a huge drop in numbers of children dying from child abuse and neglect. Every child deserves a happy and safe childhood and as educators we can help ensure that they are happy and healthy.

Test your knowledge Time

1. What percentage of abuse/neglect victims are white

```
A.    49.5
B. 48.8
C. 30.3
D. 29.8
```

2. What percentage of victims of abuse are victims of sexual abuse

```
A.    2.3
B. 45.5
C. 19.2
D. 8.8
```

3. Mrs. Smith has a student that comes into class with dirty clothes and seems to always be hungry. The teacher suspects child neglect. What should the teacher do?

```
A.    The teacher is just overacting and just forget about it
B. The teacher should punish the child for coming into her classroom looking dirt
C. The teacher should go talk to the principle
D. The teacher should give the child a cracker and tell him/her to stop complaini
```

4. Henry is 5 and tells his teacher that his bottom hurts and lately Henry has been coming into school with bruises all over his arm. What should the teacher do?

```
A.    Just forget it, Henry must be telling a story.
B. Record the conversation and go to the principal.
C. Go have a talk with Henry's parents.
D. Go tell the principal.
```

cheat Sheet

1.B 2.D 3.C 4.B

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9.5: Students

Student's Rights in School: Supreme Court Decisions by Alec Bauserman

Introduction



Over one thousand students in uniform during an assembly at a secondary school in Singapore.



The Supreme Court of the United States of America.

"The vigilant protection of constitutional freedoms is nowhere more vital than in the community of American schools." *Shelton v. Tucker, 364 U.S. 479 (1960)*

Lawsuits have become increasingly common in our society and many Americans act and speak out of the fear of being taken to court. In any environment, one must be conscious of how their words and actions will affect others. A thoughtless statement or inappropriate physical contact might land you in court. This is especially true in schools, where daily contact, high emotions and stressful circumstances can all come together at the wrong moment. As such, it is good to understand the rights of students trying to express themselves and the rights of teachers trying to keep a safe, orderly learning environment. Few people know their constitutional rights, and even fewer teachers & students know how their constitutional rights change once they enter the 'semi-public/semi-private" classroom.

This paper will examine some of the rights guaranteed to all Americans and how those rights change once they enter school. It will also seek to answer some of the most common questions held by students. What is free speech? Is it protected in school? How safe am I in my possessions? Do I have any expectation of privacy when it comes to my things? A good understanding of students' rights benefits everyone: the students who exercise them, the teachers who challenge them, and the democratic society which lives by them.

Learning Targets

By the conclusion of this article, readers should be able to:

1. identify and understand the basic philosophy of the courts when determining the extent of student's rights
2. recognize similarities and differences between Constitutional rights held in school and life out side it.
3. recognize the major court case which set the groundwork for all future Supreme Court cases involving student's rights
4. make informed decisions in real-life situations based on the knowledge presented here
5. inform colleagues and students of the information contained in this article

Students Rights

The founding fathers deliberated for days on end when writing the first draft of our nation's Constitution and later the Bill of Rights. They agonized over wording; argued over semantics. It is likely they had no idea just how successful this "great experiment in democracy" would turn out to be. Equally likely is this: they never once considered how these rights would pertain to young students in the classroom. The landmark case of *Tinker v. Des Moines School District* clearly defined the benchmark for how rights may be exercised and when they may be curtailed:

> "It can hardly be argued that either students or teachers shed their constitutional rights to freedom of speech or expression at the schoolhouse gate.
> … On the other hand, the Court has repeatedly emphasized the need for affirming the comprehensive authority of the States and of school officials, consistent with fundamental constitutional safeguards, to prescribe and control conduct in the schools.
>
> > … Our problem lies in the area where students in the exercise of [their] rights collide with the rules of the school authorities."

In other words, one doesn't surrender his or her constitutional rights by attending school. However the courts have recognized that the unique nature of the school environment requires that certain liberties be suppressed in the interest of maintaining a safe, orderly learning environment. According to the doctrine of "in loco parentis" school officials are more than government officials; they are, in a legal sense, the temporary parents of their students. Just what exactly that allows them to do and say is a matter of debate and has led to numerous legal challenges, many involving the Supreme Court. This paper will examine some of those court decisions and explore their impact on student's rights.

Summary – The balancing act between the free expression of rights and the desire to maintain order in school serves as a good example of the struggle faced by our democratic society.

The 1st Amendment

Freedom of Speech, Expression & Religion

Perhaps the most quoted court decision on the subject, *Tinker v. Des Moines* was a battle over students' 1st amendment rights, specifically the right to free speech. High school students John Tinker, 15, and Christopher Eckhardt, 16, decided to show their opposition to the Vietnam War by wearing black armbands to school. Administrators countered by banning armbands and threatened disciplinary actions for any students violating the rule. Tinker and Eckhardt wore their armbands and were suspended, not allowed back until they agreed to stop violating school rules. Tinker's father subsequently sued and lost in District Court. The Appellate Court was unable to reach a decision and the case was passed up to the Supreme Court, who overturned the District Court's decision and ruled in favor of the plaintiffs. The court stated that if the student's actions did not disrupt the learning environment, or advocate or cause harm to themselves or others, it was permissible. This has been the rationale in virtually every other opinion held by the court regarding student's constitutional rights.

While a student's right to free speech is protected, it is not a blanket protection covering any form of protest. A recent example of this is *Morse v. Frederick*, also known as the "Bong Hits 4 Jesus" case. This case is particularly eye-opening in that the offense occurred off school grounds. Frederick, a high school student, displayed a banner at a local parade featuring the phrase "Bong Hits 4 Jesus," a reference to marijuana use. Morse, a school official, noticed the banner and instructed the student to take it down. When Frederick refused, he was suspended by Morse and the decision was upheld by the school board. Frederick sued, claiming protection under his 1st amendment rights. This time the Supreme Court sided with the school board, noting " … schools may take steps to safeguard those entrusted to their care from speech that can reasonably be regarded as encouraging illegal drug use, [therefore] the school officials in this case did not violate the First Amendment…" This fits with the consistent message of the courts – a student's Constitutional rights will be protected only as long as their exercise does not endanger the health or academic progress of others.

Other cases regarding the Rights of Free Speech & Expression:

West Virginia v. Barnette, 1943 – The court ruled that is unconstitutional to require students to salute the American flag. The 1st amendment not only protects freedom "of" expression but also freedom "from" expression.

Bethel School District v. Fraser, 1986 – Washington high school student Matthew Fraser was suspended for using sexually explicit language in a speech given on school grounds. The court sided with the school, affirming that schools can prohibit "lewd, indecent or plainly offensive" language.

Guiles v. Marineau, 2004 – A 14- year old student in Vermont was suspended for repeatedly wearing a T-shirt depicting President George W Bush as an alcoholic and a cocaine addict. The shirt contained both written and visual depictions of banned substances. The court sided with the student, citing two factors: 1) the shirt did not advocate the use of illegal drugs and 2) the shirt did not cause significant disruptions to the learning environment.

Summary – A student's exercise of speech or expression is legal and constitutionally protected so long as it doesn't:

1. endanger the public
2. disrupt the learning environment
3. advocate the use of illegal substances or other violations of the law

4th Amendment

Unreasonable Search & Seizure

The student's desire for freedom of speech can only be matched by their desire for privacy and for security of their possessions. The right of school officials to search a student's belongings is a contentious issue, and few teachers know the limits of their authority and few students understand the extent of their rights. Just as Tinker v. Des Moines set the standard for the protection of 1st Amendment rights, so did another case set the precedent for search & seizure: *New Jersey v. T. L. O.*, 469 U.S. 325 (1985).

Two female high school students were caught smoking in the restroom and assistant principal Theodore Choplick confronted them. One of the two admitted her wrongdoing but the other student (T.L.O.) denied it. Choplick searched T.L.O.'s purse and discovered cigarettes, drugs and drug paraphernalia, along with a large amount of money. T.L.O. was tried and convicted in court on charges of delinquency. The student countered that the school had violated her 4th amendment rights, depriving her of protection against unreasonable search and seizure (i.e. searching without a warrant) and the evidence should be inadmissible. The Supreme Court disagreed, stating: "a school official may properly conduct a search of a student's person if the official has a reasonable suspicion that a crime has been or is in the process of being committed, or reasonable cause to believe that the search is necessary to maintain school discipline or enforce school policies."

This is a departure from the court's usual position requiring "probable cause" for government officials to search someone without a warrant. This change, although appearing slight, has enormous ramifications. School officials may search someone based solely upon a well-grounded suspicion, not iron-clad evidence of wrongdoing. This is analogous to the difference between "reasonable doubt" and "beyond a shadow of a doubt." This threshold however applies only to school personnel and NOT to law enforcement officials on school grounds. The court has been careful not to slide down that slippery slope. In the court's decision, they state that a teacher's right to protect him- or herself and the safety of their students is on par with the rights of firefighters, EMS, OSHA officials, etc. The right to privacy must be balanced against the publics right to safety. In a school, the balance is tilted toward protecting safety and maintaining order, even if it is at the expense of student rights.

The issue of locker searches has not come to the Supreme Court. As the locker is school property and therefore "public space" it is not afforded the same protections as a student's personal possessions.

State of Iowa v. Marzel Jones (2003) – A student whose locker was cleaned out by school personnel. Finding a small amount of marijuana, the student was charged. Marzel claimed 4th amendment protection against unreasonable search & seizure but was denied by the State Supreme Court who "noted that the search occurred on school grounds, 'where the State is responsible for maintaining discipline, health, and safety.'((Bd. of Ed. of Indep. Sch. Dist. 92 v. Earls, 536 U.S. 822)"

Another issue of concern has been the constitutionality of drug screenings for student-athletes.

Vernonia School District v. Acton (1995) – 7th grade Oregon student James Acton signed up to play football but refused to take a mandatory urine test. Drug testing was administered to athletes after a recent 'explosion' in drug-use and the related discipline problems which arose. Citing public health concerns and noting the prevalence of student-athletes involved in drug-related

incidents, the school board deemed urinalysis a necessary requirement for participation in sports. The Supreme Court agreed and upheld their decision. Once again, the desire to protect public health overrode student's desire for privacy.
Summary – School personnel may search a student and their belongings if the health & welfare of the public is at risk or they have a 'reasonable suspicion' that a crime has been, is being, or will be committed

5th & 14th Amendment

The Right to Due Process

These amendments protect an individual's right to a fair trial and must be considered whenever "a person's good name, reputation, honor, or integrity is at stake because of what the government is doing to him…" (Wisconsin v. Constantineau, 1971). This includes the enforcement of disciplinary actions such as suspension or expulsion. The expectations of a fair trial are very different however, depending on the circumstances. Disciplinary expulsion is treated differently than an 'academic dismissal.' Claire La Roche makes the point by citing Barnard v. Inhabitants of Shelburne: "Misconduct is a very different matter from failure to attain a standard of excellence in studies…. A public hearing may be regarded as helpful to the ascertainment of misconduct and useless or harmful in finding out the truth as to scholarship." (emphasis added)

According to La Roche's interpretation of the courts, the following are necessary in the expulsion of a student on disciplinary grounds:

1. a timely & formal hearing
2. a detailed explanation of the charges
3. a strict adherence to the schools stated policy
4. a 'punishment that fits the crime'

She goes on: "To ensure fundamental fairness, decisions must be based on the facts and supported by the evidence. Moreover, punishment should be commensurate with the severity of the offense. Consequently, it is important for schools to establish guidelines and be consistent with sanctions."

How are college students affected by these decisions?

- "Although the closely watched ruling bears on only one state, it reveals the tension between privacy and security in dormitories everywhere. **Residence halls are legally complex spaces**, where crime often creeps in and where residents, perhaps more than ever, expect administrators and police officers to ensure their safety."
  Hoover, Eric. (July, 2008). *Police in the Dorms: Student Safety or Privacy Infringement?* Chronicle of Higher Education, v54 n46 pA15. (link)

Other Miscellaneous Cases

The following are other judgements handed down by the Supreme Court:

– **School uniforms** and **dress codes** are intended to stop disruptions to the learning process by banning lewd, obscene or offensive clothing. As such, the courts have ruled them constitutional despite students pleading for "the freedom of expression" and the lesser-known "freedom to see skin."

– **Corporal punishment** (physically disciplining a student) barely passed a constitutional challenge in 1977 with a divided court ruling 5-4 that it is neither "cruel and unusual punishment" nor a denial of due process. (*Ingraham v. Wright*, 430 U.S. 651)

– The **censorship** of school newspapers was upheld with the understanding that the school is not a "forum of public expression." Further, the justices declared that a school "need not tolerate student speech that is inconsistent with its basic educational mission." (*Hazelwood v. Kuhlmeier*, 484 U.S. 260 [1988])

Conclusion

The Supreme Court has changed greatly through the years, sometimes leaning left, sometimes right. Throughout it all, it has remained remarkably consistent on the issue of student's constitutional rights in school. In summary, the opinion held by the court might best be summarized by the following: "An ye harm none, do what ye will."If a student's speech or actions do not cause physical, emotional or academic harm to others, they will receive the fullest protection offered by the Constitution. By extending

these rights to students, teachers offer them the greatest benefit of our democracy and in doing so, invite them to become full members of society.

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- http://www.wicca.com/celtic/wicca/rede.htm
- Bethel School District No. 403 v. Fraser, 478 U.S. 675 (1986) – LINK
- Guiles v. Marineau, 461 F.3d 320, 324-25 (2d. Cir. 2006) – LINK
- Hazelwood School District et al. v. Kuhlmeier et al., 484 U.S. 260 (1988) – LINK
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- Morse v. Frederick, 127 S. Ct. 2618 (2007) – LINK
- New Jersey v. T. L. O., 469 U.S. 325 (1985) – LINK
- Shelton v. Tucker, 364 U.S. 479 (1960) – LINK
- State of Iowa vs. Marzel Jones, Appellee 02-505 (2003) – LINK
- Tinker v. Des Moines Independent Community School District, 393 U.S. 503 (1969) – LINK
- University of Missouri v. Horowitz, 435 U.S. 78 (1978) – http://www.law.umkc.edu/faculty/projects/ftrials/conlaw/horowitz.html
- Vernonia School District 47J v. Acton, 515 U.S. 646 (1995) – LINK
- West Virginia State Board of Education v. Barnette, 319 U.S. 624 (1943) – LINK
- Wisconsin v. Constantineau, 400 U.S. 433 (1971) – LINK
- http://www.usconstitution.net/consttop_stud.html
- http://www.wicca.com/celtic/wicca/rede.htm
- http://legal-explanations.com/definitions/in-loco-parentis.htm – in loco parentis
- www.legis.state.ia.us/lsadocs/Legal_Update/2003/LUKBH000.PDF – locker search

Assessment

1) Which of these was a landmark case which set the precedent for all Supreme Court decisions regarding student's rights?

- a) Balboa v. Creed
- b) Tinker v. Des Moines
- c) Mothra v. Godzilla
- d) Good v. Evil

2) What is the Latin term referring to teachers status as the 'temporary parents' of their students?

- a) *vene vidi vici*
- b) *in vino veritas*
- c) *in loco parentis*
- d) *cogito ergo sum*

3) Which of these situations is *least* likely to be protected under the Constitution by the Supreme Court?

- a) A student wears a t-shirt depicting the principal of the school with the words "This is not a cool person" written underneath
- b) Two students put duct tape over their mouth to protest the unfair treatment of homosexuals
- c) A group of FFA members release two dozen cows into the hallway during class change
- d) An athlete turns his back to the flag during the singing of the national anthem

4) Which of these government employees may search a student based on a 'reasonable suspicion' of criminal activity?

- a) a teacher
- b) a police officer

- c) an FBI agent
- d) all of the above

AnswerS – B, C, C, A

Author Response

Hello! This article was originally going to be written about “Students’ Rights & Responsibilities” but I chose to focus solely on the legal aspect for several reasons, but mainly because its so important. Lawsuits are a real possibility and knowing your rights as teachers, and the students rights as well, can only be a good thing. I think the deserves its own article so more information can be presented on the topic. I certainly learned a lot by writing this. The knowledge I gained has made me more confident in what I can and cannot do in my role as a teacher. While the risk of a lawsuit is still there (and very likely always will be) having a good understanding of teacher’s and student’s rights has made me more relaxed in the hallways where discipline is the number-one concern. I hope you found this article as helpful as I did.

Alec Mbaus002 (talk) 23:23, 6 October 2008 (UTC)

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SECTION OVERVIEW

9.6: Ethics and Legal Issues in Education

Learning Objectives

- Identify the importance of ethics and the ethical practices of teachers.
- Recognize the responsibilities of teachers as role models.
- Determine individual values and code of ethics in becoming a teacher.
- Compare the New York State Code of Ethics for Educators with the National Education Association (NEA) Code of Ethics.
- Explain why integrity is an essential disposition for teachers.
- Identify liability of teachers concerning copyright laws, mandated reporting and academic freedom.
- Explain the FERPA law
- Identify landmark legal cases in education and their importance in students' rights in schools.

> *What the teacher is, is more important than what he teaches -Karl Meninge*

Teachers as Professional Role Models

Teachers are important role models for their students both in and out of the classroom. Whether teachers are in school or involved in community functions, there are high standards of behavior expected of them. What is meant by the term professionalism? The term professionalism relates to a certain level of degree, skill or expertise in one's specialized area. Indeed, teachers must obtain schooling, required clinical experience and certain tests in order to enter the field of teaching. In addition to this level of knowledge, teachers must demonstrate integrity, impartiality and ethical behavior in the classroom and in their conduct with parents and coworkers. Teachers must model strong character traits, such as reliability, honesty, respect, lawfulness, patience, fairness, responsibility and collaboration.

In Loco Parentis translates to "in place of parent". Historically schools are basically responsible for students while in the hands of teachers. Therefore, teachers have a great deal of responsibility for the welfare of their students.

9.6.1: Ethics

9.6.2: Integrity

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9.6.1: Ethics

Ethics is defined as the discipline of dealing with what is good and bad with moral duty and obligation. As students who will be entering the teaching profession in the next few years, it is imperative to understand that there is a code of ethics that you are expected to follow. Teachers are often held to higher standards than other professions, both in their classrooms and in their personal lives. Teachers are expected to be fair to all their students, not impose their personal views and not abuse their powers as educators. We will examine both the New York State and the National Educator's Association Code of Ethics to get a better understanding of these expectations. These codes of ethics for teachers are designed to protect the rights of all students. The teaching profession requires that individuals be excellent ethical role models.

As a pre-service teacher it is also important to reflect on your own set of values and beliefs. Consider how you will interact with students, manage classroom behavior and assess students' progress. This is just a small part of an educator's duties. The behaviors allowable in your college years may not be acceptable as a new teacher. Everything from the way you dress and speak to how you engage in social media are closely securitized as a teacher. You need to be very conscientious of your appearance, attitudes and behaviors. Teachers are expected to have high ethical standards all the time, both in and out of the classroom.

Activity

- After reading the New York State Code of Ethics for Educators, summarize the six principles.
- Compare New York State Code of Ethics with NEA Code of Ethics. Compare and contrast the similarities and differences.
- List your own values and code of ethics in becoming a teacher.
- Define integrity and explain why it is an essential disposition for teachers.

Teachers, like other professions, are expected to follow a code of ethics to guide and inform their behavior and decision-making.

The National Education Association's preamble for its code of ethics:

"The Educator, believing in the worth and dignity of each human being, recognizes the supreme importance of the pursuit of truth, devotion to excellence, and nurture of the democratic principles. Essential to these goals is the protection of freedom to learn and to teach and the guarantee of equal educational opportunity for all. The educator accepts the responsibility to adhere to the highest ethical standards."

NYSED Code of Ethics

New York State Code of Ethics for Educators

Statement of Purpose

The Code of Ethics is a public statement by educators that sets clear expectations and principles to guide practice and inspire professional excellence. Educators believe a commonly held set of principles can assist in the individual exercise of professional judgment. This Code speaks to the core values of the profession. "Educator" as used throughout means all educators serving New York schools in positions requiring a certificate, including classroom teachers, school leaders and pupil personnel service providers.

Principle 1: Educators nurture the intellectual, physical, emotional, social, and civic potential of each student.

Educators promote growth in all students through the integration of intellectual, physical, emotional, social and civic learning. They respect the inherent dignity and worth of each individual. Educators help students to value their own identity, learn more about their cultural heritage, and practice social and civic responsibilities. They help students to reflect on their own learning and connect it to their life experience. They engage students in activities that encourage diverse approaches and solutions to issues, while providing a range of ways for students to demonstrate their abilities and learning. They foster the development of students who can analyze, synthesize, evaluate and communicate information effectively.

Principle 2: Educators create, support, and maintain challenging learning environments for all.

Educators apply their professional knowledge to promote student learning. They know the curriculum and utilize a range of strategies and assessments to address differences. Educators develop and implement programs based upon a strong understanding

of human development and learning theory. They support a challenging learning environment. They advocate for necessary resources to teach to higher levels of learning. They establish and maintain clear standards of behavior and civility. Educators are role models, displaying the habits of mind and work necessary to develop and apply knowledge while simultaneously displaying a curiosity and enthusiasm for learning. They invite students to become active, inquisitive, and discerning individuals who reflect upon and monitor their own learning.

Principle 3: Educators commit to their own learning in **order to develop their practice.**

Educators recognize that professional knowledge and development are the foundations of their practice. They know their subject matter, and they understand how students learn. Educators respect the reciprocal nature of learning between educators and students. They engage in a variety of individual and collaborative learning experiences essential to develop professionally and to promote student learning. They draw on and contribute to various forms of educational research to improve their own practice.

Principle 4: Educators collaborate with colleagues and other professionals in the interest of student learning.

Educators encourage and support their colleagues to build and maintain high standards. They participate in decisions regarding curriculum, instruction and assessment designs, and they share responsibility for the governance of schools. They cooperate with community agencies in using resources and building comprehensive services in support of students. Educators respect fellow professionals and believe that all have the right to teach and learn in a professional and supportive environment. They participate in the preparation and induction of new educators and in professional development for all staff.

Principle 5: Educators collaborate with parents and community, building trust and respecting confidentiality.

Educators partner with parents and other members of the community to enhance school programs and to promote student learning. They also recognize how cultural and linguistic heritage, gender, family and community shape experience and learning. Educators respect the private nature of the special knowledge they have about students and their families and use that knowledge only in the students' best interests. They advocate for fair opportunity for all children.

Principle 6: Educators advance the intellectual and ethical foundation of the learning community.

Educators recognize the obligations of the trust placed in them. They share the responsibility for understanding what is known, pursuing further knowledge, contributing to the generation of knowledge, and translating knowledge into comprehensible forms. They help students understand that knowledge is often complex and sometimes paradoxical. Educators are confidantes, mentors and advocates for their students' growth and development. As models for youth and the public, they embody intellectual honesty, diplomacy, tact and fairness. (New York State Education Department, 2017).

NEA Code of Ethics

PRINCIPLE I

Commitment to the Student

The educator strives to help each student realize his or her potential as a worthy and effective member of society. The educator therefore works to stimulate the spirit of inquiry, the acquisition of knowledge and understanding, and the thoughtful formulation of worthy goals.

In fulfillment of the obligation to the student, the educator–

1. Shall not unreasonably restrain the student from independent action in the pursuit of learning.
2. Shall not unreasonably deny the student's access to varying points of view.
3. Shall not deliberately suppress or distort subject matter relevant to the student's progress.
4. Shall make reasonable effort to protect the student from conditions harmful to learning or to health and safety.
5. Shall not intentionally expose the student to embarrassment or disparagement.
6. Shall not on the basis of race, color, creed, sex, national origin, marital status, political or religious beliefs, family, social or cultural background, or sexual orientation, unfairly–
    a. Exclude any student from participation in any program
    b. Deny benefits to any student
    c. Grant any advantage to any student

7. Shall not use professional relationships with students for private advantage.
8. Shall not disclose information about students obtained in the course of professional service unless disclosure serves a compelling professional purpose or is required by law.

PRINCIPLE II

Commitment to the Profession

The education profession is vested by the public with a trust and responsibility requiring the highest ideals of professional service.

In the belief that the quality of the services of the education profession directly influences the nation and its citizens, the educator shall exert every effort to raise professional standards, to promote a climate that encourages the exercise of professional judgment, to achieve conditions that attract persons worthy of the trust to careers in education, and to assist in preventing the practice of the profession by unqualified persons.

In fulfillment of the obligation to the profession, the educator–

1. Shall not in an application for a professional position deliberately make a false statement or fail to disclose a material fact related to competency and qualifications.
2. Shall not misrepresent his/her professional qualifications.
3. Shall not assist any entry into the profession of a person known to be unqualified in respect to character, education, or other relevant attribute.
4. Shall not knowingly make a false statement concerning the qualifications of a candidate for a professional position.
5. Shall not assist a noneducator in the unauthorized practice of teaching.
6. Shall not disclose information about colleagues obtained in the course of professional service unless disclosure serves a compelling professional purpose or is required by law.
7. Shall not knowingly make false or malicious statements about a colleague.
8. Shall not accept any gratuity, gift, or favor that might impair or appear to influence professional decisions or action.

(Adopted by the NEA 1975 Representative Assembly (National Education Association, 1975).

It is important that you look closely at the expectations this college requires of you while an education major. Professional dispositions associated with you as a pre-service teacher are noted below. Please review these dispositions and reflect on responsibilities you have as an education major. These dispositions are part of the rubric that SUNY Oneonta will evaluate you throughout the program.

SUNY ONEONTA – DIVISION OF EDUCATION

The Division of Education at SUNY Oneonta is committed to preparing educators who not only possess content knowledge but also conduct themselves professionally through the expression of appropriate professional dispositions. As defined by the Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (InTASC), dispositions are the “habits of professional action and moral commitments that underlie the performances play a key role in how teachers do, in fact, act in practice” (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2011, p. 6).

Learner & Learning: “To ensure that each student learns new knowledge and skills, teachers must understand that learning and developmental patterns vary among individuals, that learners bring unique individual differences to the learning process, and that learners need supportive and safe learning environments to thrive” (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2011, p. 8).

The candidate:

1. **Demonstrates respect for cultural differences and the beliefs of others.**
2. **Demonstrates patience and flexibility during the learning process.**
3. **Creates a challenging learning environment that demonstrates high expectations for others.**
4. **Develops, maintains, and models appropriate relationships within the learning environment, community, and larger diverse society.**
5. **Demonstrates student-centered decision-making based on student needs when planning and adjusting instruction.**
6. **Demonstrates critical thinking in written & oral form.**

7. **Demonstrates use of Evidence-Based Practices.**
8. **Demonstrates compliance with New York State Code of Ethics for Educators and SUNY Oneonta academic standards.**
9. **Demonstrates initiative and responsibility for own actions: independence, going beyond what is given, seeking after knowledge and professional development, and actively seeking solutions to problems.**
10. **Demonstrates professional demeanor and appearance appropriate to the situation.**
11. **Fosters respectful communication among all members of the learning community.**
12. **Is prepared for class or appointments.**
13. **Is punctual for class or appointments.**
14. **Demonstrates reflective practice in written or verbal form.**

(SUNY Oneonta Student Teaching Handbook, 2017)

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9.6.2: Integrity

“There is no higher value in our society than integrity.” Arlen Specter

Integrity refers to a person having strong moral values. We associate people who have integrity as being honest and decent. To consistently do the “right” thing, even if nobody is watching. According to Seth Meyers, “The good news about integrity is that we’re not born with it—or without it—which means that it’s a behavior-based virtue we can cultivate over time.” (Psychology Today, 2015). Integrity is an extremely important trait to cultivate and highly valued in our society. As future teachers, you are expected to possess this characteristic and held to a higher standard than many other careers.

Activity

Read the article below and be prepared to discuss the following questions:

http://www.csun.edu/~hfmgt001/honesty.doc

1. List 3-5 characteristics that demonstrate integrity.
2. Think of an example that shows a person having integrity in a situation.

According to the article, how are integrity and honesty different?

Teachers and Copyright Laws

Teachers are not exempt from copyright laws, and you must be careful about the materials you use in your classroom. In the Copyright Act of 1976, Congress established guidelines for the duplication of copyright works. According to the law, teachers may make a single copy of a chapter of a book, an article, a short story, short essay or poem, a diagram, chart or picture. Educators may make multiple copies of copyrighted work for the use in classroom provided they meet specific guidelines of brevity, spontaneity and cumulative effect. Please refer to the following website for detailed guidelines:

www.custompublisher.com/blog/2007/10/11/the-guidelines-to-classroom-copying-what-are-brevity-spontaneity-and-cumulative-effect/

Teachers also need to be mindful of copyright laws involving electronic media. Pay attention to copyright laws for using videos, DVDs and software programs. Be aware that internet laws are still evolving, and it is best to check with their librarian or media specialist in your school building.

Teachers as Mandated Reporters

In 1974, Congress enacted the Child Abuse Prevention and Treatment Act, which defines child abuse and neglect as the physical or mental injury, sexual abuse, negligent treatment, or maltreatment of a child under the age of 18 by a person who is responsible for the child’s welfare under circumstances that indicate that the child’s welfare is harmed or threatened thereby. All states require teachers and school personnel to report suspected child abuse. Usually a reasonable suspicion, or a reasonable cause to believe is enough to require a teacher to report according to the law. Much more detailed information will be covered on this topic in the EDUC 213 class, you are required to take.

Teachers and Academic Freedom

Teachers have always been allowed a fair amount of academic freedom in creating and teaching their coursework. Academic freedom basically refers to the freedom of teachers to communicate information, without legal interference. So even if a teacher makes an off-color comment about their principal, the school district cannot fire that teacher. However, as previously mentioned, teachers are held to a higher code of ethics and should be mindful of what they say, print and post in social media.

Academic freedom can vary depending on what grades are being taught and where schools are located. Higher education tends to allow more academic freedom than secondary and elementary school teachers. There may be more public pressure about academic freedom of teachers in smaller, more rural schools than larger, city school districts. As future teachers, you need to be mindful of the school district you work in and pay careful attention to how you state facts versus opinions to your students.

The Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA):

The Family Education Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA), also known as the Buckley Amendment was passed by Congress in 1974. The law applies to all schools that receive funds under an applicable program of the U.S. Department of Education. This law was passed to clarify who had access to students' school records. Included in school records are personal records, grades, test scores and teachers' reports. This law mandated that schools had to share all information about students with their parents and/or legal guardians. It further required schools to explain recorded observations to parents, when requested.

FERPA gives parents certain rights with respect to their children's education records. These rights transfer to the student when he or she reaches the age of 18 or attends a school beyond the high school level. Students to whom the rights have transferred are "eligible students." (U.S. Department of Education, 2018).

If the student is not a dependent, then the student must generally provide consent for the school to disclose the information to the parents.

Legal Issues Involving and Court Cases Involving Students' Rights

Brown v Board of Education:

The famous landmark case, Brown versus the Board of Education involved a nine-year-old girl named Linda Brown when she was refused to attend an all-white elementary school in Topeka, Kansas. Oliver Brown, Linda's father was the prime plaintiff in this case. "In his lawsuit, Brown claimed that schools for black children were not equal to the white schools, and that segregation violated the so-called "equal protection clause" of the 14th Amendment, which holds that no state can "deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws" (History 2009). The court case of Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka lasted from 1952 to 1954 and went to the United States Supreme Court. The court declared state laws establishing separate public schools for black and white students to be unconstitutional. Schools were required to be desegregated, as a result of this ruling.

In the Supreme Court decision, issued on May 17, 1954, Justice Earl Warren wrote that "in the field of public education the doctrine of 'separate but equal' has no place," as segregated schools are "inherently unequal." As a result, the Court ruled that the plaintiffs were being deprived of the equal protection of the laws guaranteed by the 14th Amendment. (USA Today, 2019).

Group Assignment

EDUCATION LEGAL ISSUES & STUDENTS' RIGHTS

1. **Each group will be assigned an educational landmark case.**
2. **The task of each group is to teach the rest of the class about their assigned court case.**
3. **Minimum of two (2) research sources must be included in APA format at the end of the presentation.**
4. **The following questions (below) need to be fully answered and then presented, using either PowerPoint, Prezi, or Sway.**
5. **Presentation should be a maximum of 20 minutes with all members presenting a part of the case.**
6. **See evaluation for additional guidance.**
7. **You will receive a group grade for the written portion of this assignment and an individual grade for your individual presentation portion.**
8. **Please write each student's name at the bottom of the slide(s) they created and presented.**

One way of finding information will be from the Milne Library. If you wish to do this, use the following guide to find your case:

- Begin at SUNY Oneonta home page
- Click Milne Library
- Click Databases
- Click "L"
- Click LexisNexis Academic
- Click Legal Research
- Click Look Up a Legal Case
- Type in full name of case (you don't need to type the citation)

- Click on name of the case (if it is highlighted)

COURT CASES

Group 1: Tinker v. Des Moines (1969) – Students Constitutional Rights and Freedom of Expression

Group 2: Goss v. Lopez (1975) – Suspension & Due Process

Group 3: Ingraham v. Wright (1977) – Corporal Punishment

Group 4: Bethel v. Fraser (1986) – Vulgar Speech

Group 5: Hazelwood v. Kuhlmeier (1988) – Newspaper Censorship

Group 6: Veronia School District v. Acton (1995) – Drug Testing

Locker, Backpack, Jacket, Purse Search

Group 7: Davis v. Monroe County Board of Education (1999) – Sexual Harassment

QUESTIONS TO ADDRESS:

- The situation that brought about the lawsuit. What? When? Where? Why?
- What was the issue the court had to decide?
- Who was the original plantiff (person who sued)? What arguments were used to convince the courts?
- Who was the original defendant? What arguments were used to convince the court?
- What was the court ruling? What reasoning was used for the decision?
- Was there dissent (opposition)? By whom/what reasons were used for disagreeing with the majority opinion?
- What was the significance of the case at the time?
- What is the significance of the case for today's schools? To you as a future teacher?

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

10: Politics in Education

10.1: Roles
10.2: New Visions
10.3: Vouchers
10.4: Home Schooling
10.5: NCLB
10.6: Governance

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10.1: Roles

Learning Targets:
Be able to differentiate educational roles of each level of the government
Identify legislation and programs offered by the federal government…
Be able to define the major roles the state play in the school system…
Be able to understand the goals of the local government…

GOVERNMENT'S ROLE IN EDUCATION

Contributions of Federal State and Local Agencies

By: Melissa Belliares

Federal
"Emergency Response System" with collaboration for state and local agencies.

The federal government sets up departments, advisory committees and programs (such as the We the People Program) to ensure the state and local agencies follow the basic human rights for all citizens by implementing civil rights amendments and programs that endorse good citizenship. The departments also serve to allocate funds and ensure a good development of students and curriculum. Originally, the federal government's main use was land grants for states to develop colleges and universities. As world competition soared after and during the world wars of the 20th century, the U.S. government started to help with education assistance (Wiki's GI Bill website) for returning veterans; and then later, the National Defense department in 1958 set up allocations to help potential students better in all core areas like math and science (click here to find out more about the National Science Foundation). "In the State of the Union Address on January 31, 2006, United States President George W. Bush announced the American Competitiveness Initiative. Bush proposed the initiative to address shortfalls in federal government support of educational development and progress at all academic levels in the STEM fields" (STEM 2008).
The federal government also sets up a great resource tool for teachers. The Federal Resource for Educational Excellence (FREE) allows teachers to utilize the internet for classroom resources for all subjects and levels from the National Science Foundation and other federally funded programs like the Endowment for Humanities, National Park Service, Library of Congress, Smithsonian Institution, National Institutes of Health, and even the Labor Department among others.

Although the federal government has no constitutional role in education because of the 10th amendment, and no mention in the document pertaining to the federal role, in 2003, the Secretary of Education released the revision of the "constitutionally protected prayer" in public schools (originally from the Elementary and Secondary Act) and mandated by the No Child Left behind Act of 2001 (ASCD, 2003) (Findlaw 2008). The voucher system gives parents an option for their child's education through the faith-based initiatives issued by the white house in 2002 to "create a level playing field for faith and community based organizations to compete for USAID programs" (USAID). The executive branch has implemented National Charter Week for a week in May starting this year, 2008.

Giving options and opportunities to parents and students is the underlying theme in the federal's role in the educational system. They have the power to make changes and institute ideas that help students benefit more from the national educational system. The federal government's role in education also plays a socio-economic role on a national level because most of these changes dealt with funding and civil rights and a lot of controversy build awareness for some these issues.
Historic Roles of the Federal Government PDF chronologically ordered

Click here for the U.S. Department of Education

State
Allocations come mostly from the state.
This article will refer to Virginia's agencies.

Each state's department of education holds the certification role for teachers on a state level and the VEA (a non state-funded organization) also help teachers earn national certification. According to "Home Instruction in Virginia," guidelines set by the Department of Education of Virginia, home-school teachers must meet licensure requirement in addition to a high school diploma. Virginia's department of education has a great job resource site for state-certified teachers at Teach Virginia Education Career Center. Here, teachers can find job opportunities in state or out of state.

The following are offices that work under the Department of Education of Virginia for the improvement of all Virginia's schools.

Division of Student Assessment & School Improvement: *reporting of results for the commonwealth's statewide assessment programs, develop the tests that make up the commonwealth's statewide assessment system (like the SOL's), promotes student learning and achievement by assisting schools and school divisions in the implementation of effective instructional strategies and best practices and include school-level and division-level academic reviews, school improvement planning, and innovative programs such as the Partnership for Achieving Successful Schools (PASS).*
Division of Finance: *makes payments to school divisions, including entitlement payments and state and federal reimbursement requests; collaborates with the Department of Planning and Budget and the General Assembly for budgets and provides assistance to public education funding to school divisions; oversees federal grant allocations; implements Department of Agriculture programs for lunch and breakfast with training and technical assistance to all schools*
Division of Instruction: *works with each level to ensure instructional programs adhere to requirements; oversees gifted and physical (among elective others) education; oversees the SOL's; implement early childhood education (i.e. Head Start)*
Division of Policy & Communication: *oversees public communication between the citizens and the Board of Education; releases news and relays a summary news articles for members; help with members speeches*
Division of Special Education & Student Services: *over sees the deaf and blind state schools; provides education, strategy and options for special education for parents and teachers; revises state special education requirements*
Division of Teacher Education & Licensure: *implements state and federal regulations for licensure for preK-12 levels*
Division of Technology & Career Education: *contains designated adult literacy office; promotes educational technology; calculates and reports state and federal accountability results*

Click here for more Virginia state agencies

Local
Defining and unifying communities.
This article will refer to the Virginia Beach School System

Nobody can bring the school community together more than the collaboration of parents and teachers when it comes to general and special education. According to the guidelines set by the state, the superintendent collects curriculum information from home-school parents as well. Constitutionally, all students should have the same opportunities that can be implemented not only by the federal and state governments, but through local means as well. Together, the parents and the teachers with consideration of the students, can best represent the school's wants and needs. The local agencies have to have their submitted "programs" in order to get funding from either the state or the federal governments (under the ESEA of 1965, all programs must comply with all other programs under the act). There seems to be an overwhelming outcry for alternatives to public education by people who believe the local agencies are not doing enough for their schools; may it be for more home schools or school vouchers. But, the popular trend of privatizing various school programs has some parents wondering if this is a real alternative or just product placement. (Manning, 1999) The PTA (parent and teacher association) is locally and state funded with cooperation on the national level. It is the PTA that brings communities and schools together to ensure proper development of the student and school is being implemented. A good example of this is the Standards of Learning Test nationally mandated, state funded, locally implemented.

Click here for Virginia Beach School system website

Multiple Choice

1. Which educational reforms are in chronological order ?

```
A. GI Bill, Section 504, Higher Education Act, NCLB
B. Higher Education Act, National Defense Act, NCLB
C. NCLB, National Defense Act, Section 504
D. National Defense Act, Higher Education Act, IDEA
```

2. How does the National Park Service contribute to the educational system?

```
A. A teachers' classroom information tool; part of FREE
B. A program that help teachers plant a tree in every school yard
C. A program that builds a playground on every school yard
D. Names parks after the most appreciated teachers
```

3. Mary's' mom believes that parents should be involved as much as possible, which state funded organization implemented locally would her mom belong to?

```
A. ESEA
B. PTA
C. NCLB
D. VEA
```

4. Rapheal Carter said "The misconceptions about grammar posted on the 'Net are at least as bad as the misconceptions about evolution, presumably because American public schools do an equally bad job of teaching both." Which of the following statements would he agree with most?

```
A. The federal government should mandate evolution be taught public school
B. School's curriculum should emphasize on grammar in English and fair instructi
C. Our teachers need better state funded training with the internet
D. Our local communities should donate more computers
```

1.D 2.A 3.B 4.B

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10.2: New Visions

New Visions of Education: Magnet and Charter Schools

By: jyaeg001

Learning Targets Students will be able to:

-

Introduction

What is a magnet school?

A magnet school is designed to do just what its name suggests: attract students. Within any student population, there are children with a variety of interests and career aspirations. Magnet schools offer specialized curriculums that appeal to particular student groups, such as young people who want to study in depth such areas as foreign languages, drama, computer technology, or advanced sciences. These schools are under the umbrella of a larger school district and may even be housed in an existing school that also offers a traditional curriculum (Villaverde, 2003). Magnet schools receive at least part of their funding from the sponsoring public school district. In addition, because magnet schools can assist in attracting racially mixed student populations from different socio-economic backgrounds, federal government grants related to desegregation are available to help support the costs of some schools (Villaverde, 2003).

Who is allowed to attend a magnet school?

The student population of magnet schools can be chosen in more than one way. The enrollment process often begins with the parents of an interested student filling out an application. Some districts choose students solely on the basis of a lottery that includes applicants from different income levels, neighborhoods, ethnic backgrounds, gender, and races. Other districts also have application requirements related to minimum academic achievement levels. Parents list their first, second, and third choice for magnet school attendance on their applications. Waiting lists are compiled for those students who do not receive immediate placement. With these restrictions, free choice is more accurately termed controlled choice (Archbald, 2004).

To learn more about the goals of magnet schools, funding, and current legislation affecting magnet schools, visit the site of Magnet Schools of America at www.magnet.edu.

What is a charter school?

A charter school is a “publicly funded school that is typically governed by a group or organization under a contract or charter with the state…In return for funding and autonomy, the charter school must meet accountability standards” (National Center for Education Statistics, 2007, par.2). The charters list the school’s goals, details about the programs offered, specifics about student body selection, and the criteria that will be used for assessment (Buckley and Schneider, 2007). The charters have time constraints that typically range from three to five years. At the end of that time period, the charter-granting overseers, such as state officials, make a continuance decision based on how the terms of the charter have been met. A charter school may be founded by teachers or administrators within a school district, by a group of parents, or even by a private or community organization. Federal grants are available to assist with the initial costs, and funds also come from the school districts whose students are being served by the charter school (Peterson, 2003). Like magnet schools, most charter schools are focused on providing more effective, innovative programs than parents are offered in traditional public schools (Buckley and Schneider, 2007).

Who is allowed to attend a charter school?

Since charter schools receive state and federal funding, they need to meet the same diversity requirements as public schools and “reflect the social/ethnic makeup of their district” (Noll, 2005, p.226). There is an application process that may require meeting certain other criteria, such as passing an audition if the charter school has a curriculum that emphasizes theatrical arts. Many schools have no restrictions and often choose the student population on the basis of lottery outcomes. Using the lottery is a way to fairly decide who gains admittance to these schools with much smaller enrollments than most public schools (Noll, 2005).

For more information about the charter school movement, how to start a charter school, and state requirements, go to www.uscharterschools.org.

What do proponents say about magnet and charter schools?

1. Proponents of magnet and charter schools believe that these schools provide much-desired options for parents who are dissatisfied with the job that public schools are doing. Magnet and charter schools are especially appealing to those parents whose children are

from lower socio-economic backgrounds and have been placed in schools with below average achievement statistics (Peterson 2003).
2. Magnet and charter schools encourage competition and make public schools more aware of and more involved in improving their curriculums, teachers' performance, and administration procedures (Villaverde, 2003).
3. When compared with most traditional public schools, both magnet and charter schools offer better student-teacher ratios and smaller, more personal school environments that help prevent student dropouts and capitalize on students' interests (Noll 2005).

The director of the organization called Friends of Choice in Urban Schools stated about alternative schools that they "provide choices for parents, opportunities for teachers, and better schooling right now to some kids, rather than making them wait for yet another system-wide overhaul" (Buckley and Schneider, 2007, p. 285).

What do critics say about magnet and charter schools?

1. These special schools can drain school districts' budgets and result in districts having less money to meet the needs of a much larger percentage of students (Peterson, 2003).
2. Magnet and charter schools have failed to attract diverse student populations that match the composition of the communities' school districts, and the existing diversity requirements are not being enforced (Archbald, 2004).
3. The average achievement scores of students in magnet and charter schools are not higher than those of traditional public schools (Buckley and Schneider, 2007).

What does the research reveal about magnet and charter schools?

1. **Use of public funds and effects on school districts**: A Western Michigan University study (1998) concluded that "charter schools may not be living up to their promise of educational innovation and more effective use of public money" (Noll, 2005, p. 227). An extensive UCLA study of California charter schools (1998) in ten school districts found "no evidence that charter schools can do more with less" (Noll, 2005. p. 226). Marc Bernstein, a New York school district superintendent, explains that when money is taken from public school districts for the operation of charter and magnet schools, "there are but two choices: raise taxes or reduce programming. Either choice has serious consequences for public education" (Noll, 2005, p. 228).
2. **Diversity of student populations in magnet and charter schools**: A 2003 study of magnet schools across the nation was reported in *Sociology of Education*. The researchers examined the effect of magnet school choice on the socio-economic stratification in school districts with magnet school as compared with the socio-economic stratification in school districts without magnet schools. The study did not find a positive growth in the socio-economic redistribution of students as a result of offering magnet school choices (Archbald, 2004). Similar research findings of charter schools were reported earlier in a Minneapolis study (1997) and a Texas study (2002). The reason for this failure of specialty schools to redistribute students more equitably along socio-economic lines was believed to be due to parents' reluctance to have their children bussed long distances and due to parents' reluctance to "face the prospect of their child being in a small minority…parents were likely to sort themselves along racial/ethnic lines" (Buckley and Schneider, 2007, p. 122). A 2004 study of magnet schools reported in the *Journal of Education for Students Placed at Risk* found that magnet schools did not significantly affect racial and class segregation because many magnet schools have entrance requirements that can only be met by students from higher income areas (Neild, 2004).

3. **Achievement**: Magnet and charter schools typically attract higher achieving students, so it could be predicted that achievement scores of students attending these schools would be higher than students in traditional public schools. However, a November 2004 report by the National Assessment Governing Board concluded from its testing of elementary students in public school and elementary students in charter schools that the average achievement scores of those students enrolled in charter schools were lower than those students in public schools (National Education Association, 2008). The UCLA study of seventeen California charter schools (1998), mentioned above, also did not find an increase in academic scores (Noll, 2005). Finally, in 2006, the Public Policy Institute of California studied the magnet and charter schools in the city of San Diego and concluded that "on the whole, there was no systematic improvement or deterioration in test scores from participating in a choice program" (Betts and Rice, 2006, p. 184).

Conclusion: What are the considerations for parents and teachers in relation to magnet and charter schools?

There are success stories among the many magnet and charter schools started across the nation, but the overall research findings concerning average achievement levels are not favorable to these school reforms. Parents may want to consider using their influence to encourage school districts to offer innovative educational programs for all students, rather than creating or encouraging separate schools. Teachers may need to voice their concerns about the financial resources that are siphoned from the school districts for these unproven schools that serve a small proportion of the community's children. This outflow of tax dollars affects the curriculums that

public schools can afford. Both parents and teachers should be concerned about the fact that specialty schools can further segregate children along racial, socio-economic, and ethnic lines since school choice can often mean choosing to attend a school with students of the same backgrounds. Rather than creating the diversity that was intended by these school reforms, school choice could actually foster the growth of the very prejudices that a free public education for all was meant to eliminate.

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Questions

1. How do magnet and charter schools differ?

a. Charter schools have their own governing documents that specify assessment criteria.

b. Charter schools receive no public funding.

c. Magnet and charter school do not differ.

d. Charter schools always require IQ and achievement scores for admittance while magnet schools are always open to anyone in the district.

2. What does the research reveal about the diversity of magnet and charter school student populations?

a. The diversity meets existing stated requirements.

b. There is no diversity

c. The diversity of magnet and charter schools is identical with the school systems in the area.

d. The diversity in many charter and magnet schools does not match the diversity of the school systems in which they are located.

3. If you were a parent facing the choice of placing your child in an existing charter school, what question would the research findings lead you to ask the charter school principal in order to safeguard your child?

a. What recreational programs are offered for my child?

b. How many teachers are employed by this school?

c. How do achievement levels of this charter school compare with the achievement levels of the existing public schools?

d. Are the parental monthly payments automatically deducted or is a tuition bill sent?

4. If the school district where you were working planned to open a charter school, what question would the research findings lead you to ask at the school board budget meeting?

a. Will the charter school have penalties for uniform dress code violations?

b. What career training will the charter school offer students?

c. How will the district's administrators make sure that the charter school follows all the rules and regulations of the school district?

d. How will the loss of money to this new charter school's operation impact the current school district's programs?

Answers 1.a, 2.d, 3.c, 4.d

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10.3: Vouchers

THE PROS AND CONS OF SCHOOL VOUCHERS

by Lucyna Russell

Learning Targets

1. Readers will learn what school vouchers are.

2. Readers will learn what proponets of school vouchers say.

3. Readers will learn what opponents of school vouchers say.

4. Readers will learn if school vouchers work.



Table of Contents

1. What are school vouchers?

2. Proponents of school vouchers.

3. Opponents of school vouchers.

4. Do school vouchers work?

5. Conclusion

6. Can you answer these questions?

7. Answers

8. References

What are school vouchers?

A school voucher, also called an education voucher, is a certificate issued by the government by which parents can pay for the education of their children at a school of their choice, rather than the public school to which they are assigned(Wikipedia). School vouchers can also be considered scholarships funded by the government, private organizations, or both. These funds are given directly to the family instead of the public schools. Parents then have the choice to choose whatever public or private school they would like their child to attend (Coulson 1998,).

There has been heated controversy on the subject of educational vouchers. There are many variables to be considered. One to be considered is who would receive school vouchers? Is everyone with school aged children eligible or do we target specific groups? There are many plans being proposed as to how to use school vouchers. One being restricting vouchers to private schools that will accept vouchers as full payment and limiting vouchers to low income families, children with disabilities, and those attending substandard schools (McCarthy,2007).

Proponets of School Vouchers

> ” Support for vouchers is highest among African Americans and Hispanics. Within these two groups, supporters outnumber opponents by as much as five to one.” (Howell,2008)

One of the arguments for school vouchers is that low income families should have the same opportunity to send their children to any school they desire as do wealthy parents (Messerli 2008).Proponents of school vouchers argue that vouchers targeted to low income families more clearly serve the goal of enhancing equal opportunity (Howell, West, & Peterson, 2008).

Another argument for school vouchers is that through competition public schools will be made better (Matus, 2008).Competition between school will increase, thus forcing public schools to be more efficient and public schools will be compelled to teach values such as hard work, respect, and discipline(Messerli,2008). Milton Friedman, a Nobel Prize winning economist, argued that school quality would improve with free-market competition as the student and their money would go to good schools and leave the bad ones behind(Boyd,2006). Market pressures will improve education for everyone because incompetent schools will be eliminated(McCarthy,2007).

Yet, another argument is that private schools would help improve children’s values and their academics. Private schools have a certain reputation and a proven history of results. Private schools do not have an accountability to the government, but to the parents of their children. If they do not do well, the parents can remove the children. This kind of dynamic forces the private schools to do better(Messerli,2008). Another factor to consider is that private schools are not bound by the same government regulations as public schools are and can therefore have more flexibility in their teaching methods.(Messerli,2008). Statistically, parents of voucher students are more satisfied with their current schooling than non voucher parents. Parents are more satisfied with the overall school performance in discipline, academics, class sizes, and racial mix(Rouse, Burrow,2009).

One more argument for school vouchers is that it would bring more diversity and equality into the schools(Messerli,2008). Howard Fuller, Ph.D, Director of the Institute for the Transformation of Learning at Marquette University in Wisconsin, states that “we should focus vouchers on poor and working class families who do not have the resources to move if they live in communities where schools do not work, nor do they have the resources to put their children in private schools.”(Boyd,2008) It is true that poor and minority students are limited to their educational choices and are forced to go to failing schools(Boyd,2008). African-American students who participated in the voucher program in New York City Schools Choice Scholarship Program stated that they were more satisfied, the classrooms were more diverse, and they received higher scores on their test compared to students in public schools (Boyd,2008).

Opponents of School Vouchers

> In the Washington DC Opportunity Scholarship Program the statistics showed that of those who participated:
> - (Wolf,Gutman,Puma,etc.,2007)

Another argument against school vouchers is that public schools will lose their fundings. This would be devastating to schools who are already underfunded. As it is, public schools are underfunded and cannot keep up with the rising cost of books, technology, security, and, salary. To take even more money away would be detrimental(Messerli,2008). Arguments for vouchers are that a “an education voucher system should be no more expensive than the current system as the state (or other public entity) would simply send a voucher check to schools for each participating child rather than to the local public school or district. However, if implemented on a large scale, there may be other, less appreciated costs that would depend critically on the design of the program.” (Rouse, Barrow,2009). What else needs to be kept in mind is how the programs are handled. Who would fund the transportation of children, the record keeping, the monitoring of enrollments and, the handling of voucher disputes when amounts are varied. These factors could actually exceed what is being estimated now and would not make school vouchers “cost-neutral”(Rouse, Barow,2009).

Yet, another argument against school vouchers is the right for private schools to discriminate. Unlike public schools, private schools are not required by law to accept everyone. Therefore, they could discriminate between who they can accept or make their standards higher to make it harder for certain families to get in (Messerli,2008).

One more argument against school vouchers is ironically the same as the argument for school vouchers. This is that private schools are not accountable to the government. The argument is that private schools do not have to follow that same rules and regulation and teaching methods proposed by the government. This in turn leaves private schools with no accountability to anyone and their performance cannot be monitored (Messerli,2008).

Do School Vouchers Work?

The jury is still out on whether or not school vouchers improve academics in students. Although there are some reports on successes,the “empirical evidence regarding the impact of vouchers on parent choice, student achievement, and fiscal school management is inconclusive and incomplete” (McCarthy,2007). A report that came out by the Department of Education stated that there were no significant differences in math and reading scores compared with students that were not on a voucher system. This report was focused on the Washington Dc Opportunity Scholarship fund a year later (Wolf, Guttman, etc.,2007). Even the longest running voucher programs in Milwaukee, Wisconsin(1990)and Cleveland, Ohio(1990) showed insignificant results when it came to students academic success (McCarthy,2007).

Conclusion

The school voucher debate has been a controversial topic for many years. Both the proponents and opponents carry equally weighted arguments. As to whether these arguments can be adjudicated through data and research remains unclear. The only data we have received is from small samples and it has been inconclusive. It is impossible to know what the data would show with a larger sample and over an extended period of time. Though, it would be interesting to see!

Can You Answer These Questions?

1. Public School Vouchers are funded by

a. low income families.
b. private organizations.
c. the government.
d. the government and/or private organizations.

2. All of these are arguments for school vouchers EXCEPT

a. Funds are taken away from public schools.
b. Increased competition between schools.
c. Increased diversity in schools.
d. More choices for low income families.

3. Chelsea is a disabled student under the school voucher program,

a. she is eligible to receive school vouchers.
b. she is not eligible to receive school vouchers.
c. she needs to have low grades in order to be eligible.
d. she does not qualify because of her disability.

4. Whether or not school vouchers work depends on

a. the government
b. parents
c. private schools
d. more data and research with larger samples.

Answers

1. **d**

2. **a**

3. **a**

4. **d**

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10.4: Home Schooling

The Pros and Cons of Home Schooling

By: Megan Galligan

Introduction

Many believe that home schooling has its roots in the 1960s though the 1970s when educational reform became an issue on the national forefront (Dobson, 2000, paragraph 5). Actually, until 1852, public school attendance was not mandatory. It was only in 1852 that the state of Massachusetts made the first compulsory attendance law and eventually all other states followed suit. (All About Parenting). This issue has become increasingly debated because the number of students enrolled in home school has been increasing 15 to 20% each year for the last fifteen years (Dobson, 2000, paragraph 9). Parents are faced with the option to send their children to public or private schools, or to keep their children at home to educate the children themselves. The parents must consider many aspects of education to make this decision including their educational aptitude as teachers, the possible social effect on the children, the production of good citizens, the attention the children need to learn, and the external pressures of the school systems placed on the children.

Pros of Home Schooling

Home schooled children had many more freedoms than other children in public school settings. They have Educational freedom giving them choices to learn what they want with subjects that interest them. They have physical freedom to have more hands on experiences such as field trips to museums or aquariums. Religious freedoms is one of the largest gains of home schooling for most families. They have the opportunity to incorporate their religious and spiritual beliefs without standards and rules to abide by. According to the *Journal of College Admissions*, home schooling is the fastest growing forms of educating children (Ray, 2004, paragraph 2). It is estimated that there are 1.7 to 2.1 million students in grades k-12 that are enrolled in home school as of 2003 and that number seems to be growing every year (Ray, 2004, paragraph 2). Home schooling began as a way for parents to have more control over the curriculum being taught to their children (Cooper and Sureau, 2007, paragraph 9). There were two major view points considered when deciding to remove a child from public school and continuing the education at home. Parents either believed that public schooling developed topics that conflicted with the religious teachings or believed that they, as parents, could serve as a better educator for their children (Cooper and Sureau, 2007, paragraph 9).

In an article written by Michael Romanowski, a professor at Ohio Northern University, he states that “No other factor in life will have more of an effect on a child’s life than the family, and home schooling enables the family to play its important role more actively”(2001, paragraph 6). Home schooling also allows the parents more of and opportunity to become involved in all aspects of the child’s life because they become the focal point in all aspects of their life. In Romanowski’s article, he also states that the intensified relationship with the parents will extend to other siblings that are also being home schooled. He believes that the since of communication is strengthened which allows a more personal relationship (2001, paragraph 7).

There is also the argument that home schooled individuals grow up to become more well rounded citizens. According to a separate article by Romanowski, 71 percent of people who were home schooled were involved in community service(2007, paragraph 14). Moreover, only 37 percent of individuals who were educated in the public school system were involved in public service activities (Romanowski, 2007, paragraph 14). The percentage variations also exist when examining topics such as young voters aged eighteen to twenty-four, contributions to a political party, and active participation in local politics (Romanowski, 2007, paragraphs 15,16,17, and 18)

Another reason for parents choosing the option of home schooling is for the protection of their children. It seems that reports of violence in schools in the news and media are increasing. For example, weapons being brought into public and private schools; increase in gangs; bulling and fights have become more violent; and acts against students are being video taped and broadcast on the internet. These are a few of the reasons why some parents feel that public as well as private schools are no longer safe. Although news reports of such violence seems to be increasing, the percentage of violent acts occurring in public schools has decreased; yet students’ absence due to fear of violence has increased. According to the National Indictors for Education Statistics, “There is some evidence that student safety has improved. The victimization rate of students ages 12–18 at school declined between 1992 and 2005. However, violence, theft, drugs, and weapons continue to pose problems in schools” (“Indicators of

School Crime and Safety," 2007). Furthermore, some parents who home school do so as a way of protecting their children from the exposure to drugs, alcohol, tobacco, and premarital sex. Parents who home school are able to teach their children about these issues in a way that supports their beliefs. By home schooling their children they believe that they can provide them with a well rounded education in the safety of their own home.

Pubic education uses a set curriculum to teach all children in a given classroom. The classroom is filled with a variety of learning styles, interests, and abilities. For the parent who has chosen to educate their child at home, the curriculum can be catered to meet each child's indiviual needs, interests and learning style. There is also the element of time. More personalized time is given to the child at home and there is not the waisted time standing in line for lunch, recess, others to finish their work, etc. and therefor much of the schoolwork is completed much earlier in the day, leaving time for real life learning experiences. (All About Parenting).
I have also discerned that parents who are teaching their children at home also have the benefit of the one-on-one interaction with the child. The child does not need to pace them self with the other members of the classroom. They have the freedom to spend extra time on a troubling topic or to speed through a trivial part of a subject.

> Amos Bronson Alcott, a teacher and writer from the 19th century once said, "A true teacher defends his pupils against his own personal influence". Is this possible when it is a parent teaching their child?

Cons of Home Schooling

On the other side of the issue there are many downsides of homes schooling that need to be accounted for. Parents who home school their children struggle with time constraints for getting all of the work load done by one person. This can consist of creating a schedule, activities, learning, and hands on projects/trips. Aside from time restraints there are many financial restraints as well, having one parent in the working world and one in the teaching world can cause some financial strain. In the article "The Pros and Cons of Homeschooling" Isabel Shaw says, "Surprisingly, most home schooling families believe that the brief loss of income is well worth the satisfaction of watching their kids grow and learn in freedom." In an article by Susan Orloff, she states that there are certain things learned in the school setting that do not occur in other environments but they "…in the school setting they are happening every day" (Orloff, 2005, paragraph 5). These things include making friends, learning to follow directions, and becoming able to handle deadlines. Orloff also states that she has "All too often… seem home schooling as an escape from school and pressures that structured environment demands" (Orloff, 2005, paragraph 7). However, note that many home schoolers participate in peer groups that allow for some of these things to happen.

Another factor that should be considered in the choice to home school is that added financial burden. Families spend an average of $400 per child each year to cover costs of curriculum, softwar, field trips, materials for projects, etc. (All About Parenting)

If the reason behind taking the child out of public school and beginning home school is to decrease the pressures that the public school produces, it could only lead to the future detriment of the child. The child needs to be able to develop coping skills to deal with the trials that life would present. Set backs allow a person to grow and develop the skills to combat similar situations in the future. Taking the child out of public education for this reason only teaches the child to escape their problems, not how to learn from them.

Based on the data provided by the Home School Legal Defense Team, 92% of who parents make the decision to home school their children intend to have the child's entire education at home, grades K-12 (Ray, 1997). Although the majority intend to complete they education at home, only 26% of students can claim to have over ten years of their schooling at home (Ray, 1997). These statistics seem to imply some type of inconsistence in schooling. On average, of high school graduates who were home schooled can claim 6.9 years of home schooling (Ray, 1997). This seems to require quite an adjustment for the children in school. They are required to go in between home and public school and make the required modifications socially and academically.

In Romanowski's article, "The Strengths and Limitations of Home Schooling", he states that "To receive a complete education, students need to engage in discussions, share ideas, compete, and work with other students" (2001, paragraph 19). He believes that in order to strengthen the ideas, a person must get feedback and criticism on those ideas. The original idea seems to change, expand, and grow with the input of others. He also introduces the idea that the parent that becomes the primary educator might not have the proper background to adequately teach the upper level subject to the children (Romanowski, 2001, paragraph 24). He questions whether parents have the ability to teach their children "…higher levels of math, complex biological terms, or an in dept

analysis of American history" (Romanowski, 2001, paragraph 24). A parent may be knowledgeable in some of the subjects required, but it would be astonishing if they were skilled enough to teach in all areas.

Home Schooling and the Federal Government

Once an isolated practice with little support, home schooling "has now reached a level of unprecedented visibility, politicization, and publicization" (Cooper, p. 111). Parents and advocates have gained significant legal, political, and social ground, substantially raising public awareness. Subsequently, the increase in home schooling's power and popularity has caused state and local educational leaders to adjust some of their policies. This has brought considerable criticism from supporters of the "democratic, public control of education" (Cooper, pg 112). They claim home schooling "denies democratic accountability" (Cooper, pg. 112) and is "detrimental to the common good" (Cooper, pg. 115).

> Despite political pressure to conform, homeschool families have become well informed, active, and influential – all qualities that are critical to the public life of society (Cooper, pg. 132).

In light of this fiery opposition, how far legally and constitutionally can the federal government go to regulate home schooling and overturn parents' rights? Twenty years ago, home schooling was considered a crime, and although many states began legalization in 1999, the court controversies are far from over. The cases range in variety and often address attendance, parent qualifications, supervision, and dual-enrolment in public facilities (Cooper, pg. 123).

In most recent legislation, the Second District Court of Appeals in Los Angeles, CA stated in February of 2008 that "children ages six to 18 may be taught only by credentialed teachers in public or private schools — or at home by Mom and Dad, but only if they have a teaching degree" (Kloberdanz-Modesto). California's governor, Arnold Schwarzenegger, defended parents' rights for the well-being of their child and guaranteed protest (Kloberdanz-Modesto). This decision is merely another pull by the federal government in the tug-of-war being played with home school advocates.

Conclusion

There seem to be many considerations before deciding which type of schooling is best for a child. What seems to be the overriding factor is that all children are different. It depends of the individual when deciding if home school is a plausible option. There seems to be pros and cons that balance each other. The benefits and the detriments are comparable. The education of children seems to be an extremely important and personal decision that all parents face. Yet, will this decision stay in the parents' hands? The constant influx of court cases addressing the uses and abuses of homeschooling makes the future of home schooling unpredictable.

Multiple Choice Questions

1. When do most people believe home schooling began?

A. 1850s-1860s

B. 1990

C. 1960s-1970s

D. 1760s-1780s

2. The number of students enrolled in home schooling has _____ over the past years.

A. Increased

B. Decreased

C. Stayed the same

D. Fluctuated

3. What is not a factor that leads a parent to choose home schooling?

A. Religious Factors

B. Economic Factors

C. Parents believing they could be a better teacher than the system provides

D. To increase personal attention given to the student

4. What does Professor Romanowski believe is the most important factor in a child's life?

A. Family

B. Friends

C. Education

D. Physical Activity

5. What is not considered a "Con" of home schooling?

A. Teaching limitations of the parent

B. Limited peer interaction

C. Limited productivity in society

D. Smaller class sizes

Multiple Choice Answers

1. C

2. A

3. B

4. A

5. C

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10.5: NCLB

No Child Left Behind: Cure or Curse?

by

Elizabeth (Betsy) Donoghue

Edono002

Learning Objectives:

- The reader will be able to name the components of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB).
- The reader will be able to identify why some support NCLB.
- The reader will be able to describe what factors are of concern in NCLB.
- The reader will be able to identify what changes have been made to NCLB.

"No matter what your circumstance, no matter where you live, your school will be the path to promise of America. … [We are] challenging **the soft bigotry of low expectations.** … **We will leave no child behind**." — George W. Bush in his acceptance speech to the Republican National Convention, September 9, 2004 . ("Text of Bush Speech", 2004)

"We must fix the failures of No Child Left Behind. We must provide the funding we were promised, give our states the resources they need and finally meet our commitment to special education." — Barack Obama in his speech, "What's Possible for Our Children," May 28, 2008 ("Text of Obama Speech",2008, para. 17)

Introduction

The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 was a major emphasis of the Bush Administration education policy. ("How to Fix", 2007) The law was meant to **hold schools accountable for student progress**, and, in fact, to expect that **all children will be able to perform at or above grade level in reading and math by the year 2014**. ("Key Policy", 2002; "How to Fix", 2007)

Since the passage of No Child Left Behind (NCLB), many educators and politicians have loudly expressed their disagreement with the law and its regulations, while others have lauded the accomplishments of successful schools around the country. The Obama administration is poised to begin implementing its agenda, which has been critical of aspects of the No Child Left Behind legislation. This paper will examine how NCLB hopes to cure America's schools, what parts of NCLB are considered of concern to the schools and students, and what changes to NCLB some hope will help American students meet their potential.

Standards Set by No Child Left Behind

"**The 4 Pillars of No Child Left Behind**

- **Schools are Accountable for Students' Results** In an effort to increase accountability, all states must have state standards for performance and test their students on these standards. Each state develops its own standards and tests. In addition, schools must track the performance of certain groups of students who have not performed as well in the past, (i.e. minority students, students in poverty, students with disabilities) and attempt to "close the achievement gap." ("Four Pillars", 2004, para. 1). The Annual Yearly Progress (AYP) towards the goals are monitored, and schools must meet certain improvements within a specific timeframe or major restructuring will be required, including "replacing administation and staff, reopen as a charter school, state takeover" ("Key Policy Letter", 2002,in Restructuring (Year Four)).

  Local Control NCLB allows states and communities to decide how to use federal funds. Funds can be funneled to teacher recruitment or training, or to school safety, for example. ("Four Pillars", 2004).

  Effective Teaching Methods Making instruction effective is the aim of the regulations on using teaching methods which are research-based and proven effective. ("Four Pillars", 2004)

  Alternatives for Families If, after several years, a school is not providing adequate progress under NCLB, parents are able to move their child to a well-performing school in their district. In addition, tutoring and extended educational opportunities will be available to low-income students who do not make adequate progress.("Four Pillars", 2004)

Support for NCLB

High Standards, Strict Regulations Making such sweeping change to the education system and holding all schools to such specific and high standards has ignited strong feelings in educators, politicians, and families. Diane Piche', the Executive Director of Citizens' Commission on Civil Rights, and a strong proponent of NCLB, believes that many schools have shown that children can reach these high standards, even when they have a large percentage of children in poverty(Pinche',2007). Pinche' believes that a "no-excuses approach to teaching the children of the poor" (Pinche', 2007, para. 8) is the model for success. She also believes that removing funding from schools failing to reach their goals is necessary(Pinche',2007).

Link to video of successful schools ("Success stories", n.d.) [1]

Be Persistent: Federal Expectations Will Take Time As a civil rights lawyer, Pinche' likens educational reform to civil rights reform (Pinche', 2007). She is adamant that educational excellence for minority and poor children can only come from strict standards on a federal level(Pinche', 2007). Pinche' asserts that progress towards the goal is important and that persistence is necessary as it will take more time before the objectives are reached (Pinche', 2007).

> "Since when has leaving it all up to the states helped the poor and minorities achieve equality of opportunity? Not when it came to voting rights. … Not when it came to desegregating schools in the aftermath of Brown v. Board of Education. And certainly not now, when the achievement gaps based on race and class are as virulent as ever, with only modest signs of abatement." (Pinche', 2007, Common Ground section, para. 2)

Progress Made The U.S. Department of Education highlighted the accomplishments under NCLB in December of 2008("Progress by our Schools", 2008). They cited higher test scores, and improvements by children with disabilities and children for whom English is not their native language("Progress by our Schools, 2008). They report that the "achievement gap is narrowing"("Progress by our Schools", 2008, para. 3) and that accountability testing is occurring in all schools. For example, "average reading scores for 4th-grade students with disabilities improved by 23 points between 2000 and 2007 [and] the achievement gap between white and African-American 8th graders narrowed by three points between 2003 – 2007" ("Progress by our Schools, 2008, para. 3 & 4).

Link to Table from Virginia Report Card ("Virginia Report Card", n.d.) [2]

Virginia Report Card Percent Passing

“English Performance subgroup	2005 – 2006	2006 – 2007	2007 – 2008
white students	89	90	91
black students	73	76	78
Hispanic students	76	72	81
students with disabilities	64	62	67
students identified as disadvantaged	73	73	77
Mathematics Performance subgroup	2005 – 2006	2006 – 2007	2007 – 2008
white students	81	85	88
black students	62	66	73
Hispanic students	66	71	75
students with disabilities	53	58	65
students identified as disadvantaged	62	67	73″

(Virginia Report Card, 2008, Percent Passing)

Funding Funding for the changes needed under NCLB has been under discussion. Umstead reports that federal funding for NCLB would cover schools’ expenditures on assessments as long as schools do not choose the most expensive assessment methods (Umpstead, 2008).

Concerns about NCLB

Accountability Critics state that teachers are now teaching to the test, which may allow scores to improve at the cost of decreasing creativity in the classroom (Smyth, 2008). Others are concerned that time spent improving reading and math scores is robbing students of time to study science and the arts (“How to Fix, 2007). In fact, some are concerned that states are setting their test standards so low in order to have a larger percentage of students who pass (How to Fix”, 2007). For example, of Mississippi’s 4th graders, 89% passed the state reading test, but only 18% passed the national test (“How to Fix”, 2007). A national test standard has been proposed to truly bring all states up to par (“How to Fix”, 2007).

Annual Yearly Progress (AYP) Each state can determine what progess towards proficiency the groups in their school must make in order to meet the final NCLB goal of 100% grade level performance in 2014 (“Key Policy,” 2002). AYP measures have come under a great deal of fire. Many educators believe that the AYP system relies too heavily on punishment and that it is too easy to fail (“How to Fix”, 2007). Progress may have been made in some areas, but schools fail if even one measure is not met(“How to Fix, 2007). Many believe that factors outside of the school building, such as poverty and family support, are the cause of some students’ poor performance at school, and that these issues must be addressed if children are to succeed (Wallis, 2008).

Children with Disabilities Children with disabilities provide a unique challenge to school systems. Hardman and Dawson (2008) report that many educators question whether children with disabilities should be instructed and tested with the general school population. They cite individualized instructional methods needed for students with disabilities as being at odds with a standardized test(Hudson and Dawson, 2008). And many fear that it is an impossible goal to ever expect 100% of children to be reading and doing math on grade level (“How to Fix”, 2007).

Rural Schools Rural schools also find it challenging to meet NCLB standards, according to Mitchem, Kossar, and Ludlow (2006). They report that rural schools find it difficult to find staff who meet the NCLB requirements due to low populations and remote areas. Combine this difficulty with the requirements for special education teachers, and rural schools find themselves unable to meet NCLB standards. (Mitchem, Kossar, and Ludlow, 2006).

Funding Funding for the NCLB standards is of grave concern for many school systems. In fact, the National Education Association, along with several states, filed "a federal lawsuit … charging that the Department of Education has failed to provide dequate funding for the NO Child Left Behind initiative" (Dobbs, 2005, para. 1). Others are concerned about the lack of funding for remediation services to assist troubled schools (Pickert, 2008).

Changes made to NCLB

After several years of data from states, U.S. Secretary of Education, Margaret Spellings, announced three changes to NCLB to respond to areas of concern:

- 1. **"The Modified Academic Achievement Standards"**("Final Regulations", 2008, title) provide a modified test for students with special needs who will be tested on grade level material, but in a less advanced fashion ("Final Regulations", 2007).
- 2. **"The Growth Model"** ("Secretary Spellings", 2009, title) is a sophisticated statistical model that measures student progress for students who may not be up to grade level yet, but have made progress ("Secretary Spellings", 2009).
- 3. **"Differentiated Accountability"** (2008, title) allows schools that are closer to meeting their AYP goals to receive less stringent consequences than schools that are seriously behind ("Differentiated Accountability", 2008).

What's Next?

President Barack Obama has been very clear about his agenda for NCLB. He believes in increasing funding for the program, revising assessments, and allowing for more individuation("Education Agenda" 2008). He also plans to "improve NCLB's accountability system so that we are supporting schools that need improvement, rather than punishing them" ("Education Agenda", 2008, para. 5).

> "If we really want our children to become the great inventors and problem-solvers of tomorrow, our schools shouldn't stifle innovation, they should let it thrive … by using visual arts, drama and music to help students master traditional subjects like English, science and math." — Barack Obama in his speech, "What's Possible for Our Children," May 28, 2008 ("Full Text", 2008, para. 15)

Conclusion

The No Child Left Behind legislation did target a grave concern abaout America's education system. After years of testing, it is of great concern that some groups of students (minorities, low-income, students with disabilities) continue to have consistently lower achievement levels. However, major disagreements remain as to how to raise the achievement levels of these students, and, indeed, whether all students can achieve at grade level.

Early concerns about measuring schools' success have led to changes in the NCLB regulations. NCLB now allows schools to measure student growth towards the goal, as well as to provide accommodations for students with disabilities. The Obama administration has targeted more funding to help struggling schools and encouraged more creativity in the classroom. Despite strong differences of opinion about the implementation of NCLB, all seem to agree that America's children should be provided with an effective education which will lead them to be productive citizens in the 21st Century.

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Questions

1. What does the No Child Left Behind Act expect of all students, by the year 2014?
   - a) Students will perform as well as possible in reading and math.
   - b) Students will perform at or above grade level in reading and math.
   - c) Students will perform better than last year in reading and math.
   - d) Students will perform better than last year's students in reading and math.
2. Why does the U.S. Department of Education believe that the No Child Left Behind Act is working?
   - a) All states are testing their students.
   - b) Students with disabilities are improving their test scores.
   - c) The scores of minority students are gradually moving closer to the scores of white students.
   - d) All of the above.
3. The schools in a Virginia city have increased the amount of time that students spend on math and reading each day in order to meet NCLB standards. What concern do parents and educators have about the effect of NCLB on their school?
   - a) The school system does not have good math teachers.
   - b) The students will not be as good at math as students around the world.
   - c) The teachers give too much homework.
   - d) There is less time to study science and the arts.
4. The teachers in a Virginia county were concerned that their students with disabilities could not pass the state tests. What can the teachers do that will help the students pass the test, that would be allowed by the recent changes to the NCLB laws?
   - a) Give the students a less advanced grade level test.
   - b) Give the students a test for a lower grade level.
   - c) Give the students a test that includes only the material they have studied.
   - d) Give the students last year's test.

Answers

1)b; 2)d; 3)d; 4)a

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10.6: Governance

Who is the Boss? How are Individual Schools Governed?

Learning Target

Students will identify the tiers of the hierarchy of public school governing.

Students will identify the responsibilities of each tier.

The Hierarchy of the System

Who is the boss in the school systems? The public school governing system is actually a hierarchy (March, 1978). There are several tiers to this hierarchy beginning with the federal level and ending with the individual teachers. It is a pyramid of administrators doing everything they can to educate today's students.

Federal and State

While some may believe that administration of schools starts with the federal government, the truth is that on the federal level there is very little involvement in education, even in funding (Federal Role, n.d.). The federal government sets some guidelines for education, such as the No Child Left Behind Act, but not specific ones such as curriculum taught. In actuality, the states have most of the power over their own schools and what they teach (Education Commission of the States [ECS], 1999). The states set what the students will learn and what standards they have to meet. This means that if a child is meeting their grade level standard in Tennessee they may or may not be meeting the Virginia standards for that grade level. States try to decide what knowledge is imperative for students to learn before they move on to the next grade or even college (ECS, 1999).

States also choose the standards that the teachers must meet (ECS, 1999). The state wants the teacher to be able to educate the students to achieve the set standards. There are things that every state requires, but each of them has their own variation. Every state requires the teacher to have a college degree and some form of standardized testing to be able to teach in their public school system. There are national tests available, but each state requires different ones. Teachers moving to a different state may be required to complete a new test or even a new course before gaining licensure in that state.

States have the largest financial role in the schools. Very little funding comes from the federal government. Most of the federal funding is applied for by the individual school in the form of a grant for a special purpose (Federal Role, n.d.). The states provide teacher salaries and the money required to run each individual school. Each individual school has a PTA that can help the school gain funds for things like technology (ECS, 1999).

Hierarchy Tiers on a District Level

School Board

Superintendent

Principal

Teacher

District

Each state is broken up into districts (ECS, 1999). Most administration deals on a small level, either within the district, or in the individual school (March, 1978). The districts each have their own school board made of elected members (Office of the Education Ombudsman, n.d.). Those boards decide how their schools will achieve the standards set by the state. They will also decide anything else they believe the schools should be doing to service their district's children. Some of these things include overseeing the curriculum and helping to promote better teaching techniques (Education Administrators, n.d.). The board has to have all schools achieving at a level set by the state, so they use their resources to push the schools to achieve the standards they have set (ECS, 1999).

Superintendent

A superintendent is chosen to oversee the schools in the district (ECS, 1999). Much like a politician, this office is often given to those who have worked their way up from the bottom of the hierarchy (March, 1978). They are in charge of making sure the schools are doing what is required by the school board. They make routine visits to schools to check on how they are doing. They work with the principals and teachers to see that children are getting the most out of each school day.

Principal and Assistant Principal

The district hires principals to oversee each individual school. These principals are there to see that the teachers are doing their job and the children are getting the education they deserve (Office of the Education Ombudsman, n.d.). They are responsible for scheduling, planning the daily activities, and managing the overall activities of the school (Office of the Education Ombudsman, n.d.). Principals make routine visits to classrooms to make sure they are running smoothly and that teachers are making the most of their instructional time. Another difficult duty of the principal is the budget for the school. The principal must decide how to best spend the school's money (Education Administrators, n.d.).

The schools also have assistant principals. These administrators help the principal in the daily activities of the school. They also handle most of the discipline problems leaving the principal available to focus on other duties (Education Administrators, n.d.).

Teacher

Each school is responsible for the hire of their teachers. The principal can decide who to hire as long as they are qualified by the state (ECS, 1999). Teachers apply for a job through the district and might interview at several schools before being hired by one. Each school is different so principals often look for a teacher who will fit into the school.

The teacher is the one with the most direct affect on students. They ultimately decide what happens in the classrooms (ECS, 1999). When the door closes every morning it is up to the teacher to make an effective use of time and get children to those standards set by the state. If children in their classrooms are not performing well, the teacher is held responsible.

Summary

In summary, the federal government makes general regulations for education and contributes very little funding for the schools (Federal Role, n.d.).

The states have most of the power because they are able to set the standards for teachers and students, and they fund the public school system almost completely (ECS, 1999).

The district has the power in the area entrusted to them by the state. Each district has an elected school board that determines how state standards are achieved and anything else they see fit to better the students' education (Office of the Education Ombudsman, n.d.).

The superintendent oversees the schools in the district and makes sure they are following what is set by the states and the district (ECS, 1999).

The principals manage their individual school with assistance from the assistant principal (Office of the Education Ombudsman, n.d.).

The teachers instruct the students in accordance with the standards set before them by all levels of the hierarchy.

Review Questions

1. Which tier of the hierarchy of education is responsible for hiring teachers?

```
a. the federal government
b. the principal
c. the school board
d. the state
```

2. Which is not a responsibility of the principal?

```
a. budgeting the individual school's money
b. hiring teachers
c. making standards for curriculum
d. scheduling activities
```

3. A teacher does not meet the standards set by the state, district, and school. Who will act on correcting the situation?

```
a. the board of education
b. the federal government
c. the principal
d. the superintendent
```

4. When will the state get directly involved in an individual school?

```
a. when the an individual teacher is not teaching the curriculum set by the state
b. when the building needs repair or rebuilding
c. when the school board sets standards higher than the state's standards
d. when the school is not meeting state standards repeatedly
```

Answers

1. B – The principal hires the teachers that they think fit best in the school.

2. C – The principal does not make a standard for the curriculum. The states and districts choose the curriculum that will be taught.

3. C – The principal will deal with the situation because if it is not a matter of the whole school, it is dealt with on a small level.

4. D – The state does not intervene in individual schools unless the school is not meeting state standards and steps have not been taken by the lower tiers of the hierarchy.

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

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11.1: Hot Topics in Education

Learning Outcomes

- Consider legal and equality concerns in education

When Americans are asked about their opinion of public education on the Gallup poll each year, reviews are mixed at best (Saad 2008). Schools are no longer merely a place for learning and socializing. With the landmark *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka* ruling in 1954, schools became a repository of politicized legal action that is at the heart of several issues in education.

Equal Education

Until the 1954 *Brown v. Board of Education* ruling, schools had operated under the precedent set by *Plessy v. Ferguson* in 1896, which allowed racial segregation in schools and private businesses (the case dealt specifically with railroads) and introduced the troubling phrase "separate but equal" into the U.S. lexicon. *Brown* overruled this, declaring that state laws establishing separate schools for black and white students were, in fact, unequal and therefore unconstitutional in light of the 14th Amendment (which guarantees equality before the law).

While the ruling paved the way toward civil rights, it was also met with opposition in many communities. In Arkansas in 1957, the governor mobilized the state National Guard to prevent black students from entering Little Rock Central High School. President Eisenhower, in response, sent members of the 101st Airborne Division from Kentucky to uphold the students' right to enter the school. In 1963, almost ten years after the ruling, Governor George Wallace of Alabama used his own body to block two black students from entering the auditorium at the University of Alabama to enroll in the school. Wallace's desperate attempt to uphold his policy of "segregation now, segregation tomorrow, segregation forever," stated during his 1963 inauguration (PBS 2000), became known as the "Stand in the Schoolhouse Door." He refused to grant entry to the students until a general from the Alabama National Guard arrived on President Kennedy's order.

WATCH IT

Click on this link (https://youtu.be/xERXusiEszs?t=212) to watch a video showing footage of the Little Rock 9, the students who the National Guard was sent to prevent black students from entering Little Rock Central High School. This next video is an interview with one of the Little Rock 9 students discussing her experience.

An interactive or media element has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view it online here: http://pb.libretexts.org/its/?p=438



Figure 1. President Eisenhower sent members of the 101st Airborne Division from Kentucky to escort black students into Little Rock Central High School after the governor of Arkansas tried to deny them entry. (Photo courtesy of the U.S. Army)

Presently, students of all races and ethnicities are permitted in America's schools, but there remains a troubling gap in the relative quality of education they receive. The long-term socially embedded effects of racism—and other forms of discrimination and disadvantage—have produced a range of challenges for many students. Those from wealthy families and those of lower socioeconomic status do not receive the same opportunities. This the result of many factors, including the policy wherein economic resources are dependent on local property taxes, which results in wealthier neighborhoods having higher quality schools. In demographic and sociological literature, this is often referred to as cumulative advantage or disadvantage.

Today's public schools, at least in theory, are positioned to help remedy those gaps. To help ensure universal access, this system was legally mandated ed to accept and retain all students regardless of race, religion, social class, and the like. Moreover, public schools are held accountable to equitable per-student spending (Resnick 2004). Private schools, usually only accessible to students from high-income families, and schools in more affluent areas generally enjoy access to greater resources and better opportunities. In fact, the strongest predictors for student performance include socioeconomic status and family background. Children from families of lower socioeconomic status often enter school with already acquired learning deficits, and must overcome these obstacles alongside their institutionally assigned responsibilities. These patterns, uncovered in the landmark Coleman Report of 1966, are still relevant today, as sociologists generally agree that there is a great divide in the performance of white students from affluent backgrounds and their nonwhite, less affluent counterparts. The Coleman Report, commissioned in accordance with the Civil Rights Act of 1964, found that the racial and social demographics of schools, along with the student's home and family life, had a greater effect on student learning than the quality of the school institution itself.

Despite these shortcomings in equal access to education, which have been well-established by academic research, it is important to note that schools do narrow the gap between the rich and the poor. Research shows that it is often the non-school environment that presents the greatest inequality, and that schools, despite being unequal in quality and opportunity, present a smaller inequality than what is seen in students' homes. This conclusion is drawn from the evidence that the gap in cognitive skills grows mostly during the summer months, when students are not attending school and when their progress is exclusively dependent on the home environment and the resources there.[1]

Try It

https://assessments.lumenlearning.co...essments/14732

https://assessments.lumenlearning.co...essments/14733

Head Start

The findings in the Coleman Report were so powerful that they brought about two major changes to education in the United States. The federal **Head Start program**, which is still active and successful today, was developed to give low-income students an opportunity to make up the preschool deficit discussed in James S. Coleman's findings. The program provides academic-centered preschool to students of low socioeconomic status.

Busing

The second major change brought about after the release of the Coleman Report was less successful than the Head Start program, and has generated a great deal of controversy. With the goal of further desegregating education, courts across the United States ordered some school districts to begin a program known as "busing." This program involved transporting students to schools outside their neighborhoods (and therefore to schools they would not normally have the opportunity to attend) in an effort to balance racial diversity. This policy was met with substantial public resistance from people on both sides, whether dissatisfied with white students traveling to inner city schools, or minority students being transported to schools in the suburbs.

No Child Left Behind

In 2001, the George W. Bush administration passed the **No Child Left Behind Act**, which requires states to test students in designated grades. The results of those tests determine eligibility for schools to receive federal funding. Schools that do not meet the standards set by the act risk funding cuts. Sociologists and teachers alike have contended that the impact of the No Child Left Behind Act is far more negative than positive, arguing that a "one size fits all" concept cannot apply to education. The act's rationale for funding also seemed backwards. If students at a school are not performing as well as they might, shouldn't those very schools be the ones eligible for increased government funding?

Teaching to the Test

The funding implications of the No Child Left Behind Act have led to the phenomenon commonly called "teaching to the test," wherein a curriculum narrowly focuses on preparing students to succeed on standardized tests, but fails to address broader educational goals and learning concepts. At issue are two approaches to classroom education: the notion that teachers impart knowledge that students are obligated to absorb, versus the concept of student-centered learning that seeks to teach children not

facts, but problem solving abilities and learning skills. Both types of learning have been valued in the U.S. school system. The former, to critics of "teaching to the test," only equips students to regurgitate facts, while the latter, to proponents of the other camp, fosters lifelong learning and transferable work skills.

Bilingual Education

New issues of inequality have entered the national conversation in recent years regarding bilingual education, which attempts to give equal opportunity to minority students through offering instruction in languages other than English. Though it is actually an old issue (bilingual education was federally mandated in 1968), it remains a controversial one. Supporters of bilingual education argue that all students deserve equal opportunities in education—opportunities some students cannot access without instruction in their first language. On the other side, those who oppose bilingual education often point to the need for English fluency in everyday life and in the professional world.

waTCH IT

There are academic and professional benefits to being bilingual, which has also pushed for dual-language learning in the United States. This TED talk explains some of the benefits of multilingualism.

Common Core

"The Common Core is a set of high-quality academic standards in mathematics and English language arts/literacy (ELA). These learning goals outline what a student should know and be able to do at the end of each grade." Included in the list of standards is that they be evidence-based, clear, understandable, consistent, aligned with college and career expectations, include the application of knowledge through higher-order thinking skills, and are informed by other top-performing countries (The Common Core State Standards Initiative 2014).

The primary controversy over the Common Core State Standards, or simply the Common Core, from the standpoint of teachers, parents and students, and even administrators, is not so much the standards themselves, but the assessment process and the high stakes involved. Both the national teachers' unions in the United States initially agreed to them, at least in principle. But both have since become strongly critical. Given a public education system that is primarily funded by local property taxes, rather than by state and federal funds distributed to all schools equally, we see a wide disparity in funding-per-student throughout the country, with the result that students in schools funded by affluent communities are clearly better off than those who are not–even when the schools being compared are located just a few miles apart. As such, broad standards for academic performance that do not account for inherent disadvantages in the education system hurt certain groups of students.

What gets measured?

Much has been said about the quality, usefulness, and even accuracy of many of the standardized tests. Math questions have been found to be misleading and poorly phrased; for instance, "Tyler made 36 total snowfalls with is a multiple of how triangular snowflakes he made. How many triangular snowflakes could he have made?"

Some of the essays had questions that made little sense to the students, or to adults, for that matter. One notable test question in 2014 that dominated the Internet for a time was about "The Hare and the Pineapple." This was a parody of the well-known Aesop fable of the race between the hare and the tortoise that appeared on a standardized test for New York's eighth-grade exam–though with the tortoise changed into a talking pineapple. With the pineapple clearly unable to participate in a race and the hare winning, "the animals ate the pineapple." "Moral: Pineapples don't have sleeves."

At the end of the story, questions for the student included, "Which animal spoke the wisest words?" and "Why did the animals eat the talking fruit?" Evidently, this question is problematic and rather confusing, leading students to underperform based on standard measures.

Think It Over

- Is busing a reasonable method of serving students from diverse backgrounds? If not, suggest and support an alternative.

Try It

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glossary

[glossary-page]
[glossary-term]Head Start program:[/glossary-term]
[glossary-definition]a federal program that provides academically focused preschool to students of low socioeconomic status[/glossary-definition]

[glossary-term]No Child Left Behind Act:[/glossary-term]
[glossary-definition]an act that requires states to test students in prescribed grades, with the results of those tests determining eligibility to receive federal funding[/glossary-definition]
[/glossary-page]

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11.2: Charter Schools and Homeschooling

Learning Outcomes

- Discuss alternatives to traditional public schools

Charter Schools and School Choice

Charter schools are self-governing public schools that have signed agreements with state governments to improve student outcomes when poor performance has been recorded on tests required by the No Child Left Behind Act. While such schools receive public money, they are not subject to the same rules that apply to regular, state-run public schools. In return, they make agreements to achieve specific results. Charter schools, as part of the public education system, are free to attend, and are accessible via lottery when there are more students seeking enrollment than there are spots available at the school. Some charter schools specialize in certain fields, such as the arts or science, while others are more generalized.

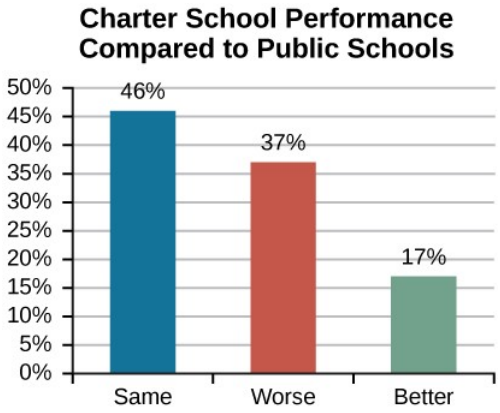


Figure 1. The debate over the performance of charter schools vs. public schools is a charged one. Dozens of studies have been made on the topic, and some, as reflected in Stanford's CREDO study above, do not support the claim that charter schools always outperform public schools. (Source: Based on the CREDO study Multiple Choice: Charter School Performance in 16 States)

President Trump appointed Betsy DeVos as Secretary of Education at the start of his administration. DeVos had a history of supporting charter schools, which she argued were a significant part of the "school choice" movement. Mrs. DeVos' support for charter schools is rooted in the capitalist idea that if parents have a choice to send their children to a charter school, and charter schools receive funding from the government based on number of children, this will incentivize public schools to improve their quality of teaching.[1] School choice, however, does not merely include public and charter schools; DeVos wants to expand vouchers, which would allow lower- and middle-income families access to private schooling.

WATCH IT

Betsy DeVos, the current Secretary of Education, is an advocate for vouchers and charter schools, which has resulted in a revival in the school choice debate. This video clip from PBS explains just some of the mixed opinions on charter schools, their varied success rates, and the impact of charters in some predominately black communities.

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Money as Motivation in Charter Schools

Public school teachers typically find stability, comprehensive benefits packages, and long-term job security. In 2011, one charter school in New York City set out to learn if teachers would give up those protections if it meant an opportunity to make far more money than the typical teacher's salary. The Equity Project is a privately run charter school that offered teachers positions paying $125,000 per year (more than twice the average salary for teachers). The school's founder and principal, Zeke Vanderhoek, explained that this allows him to attract the best and brightest teachers to his school—to decide whom he hires and how much they are paid—and build a school where "every teacher is a great teacher" (CBS News 2011). He sees attracting top teachers as a direct

road to student achievement. A nationwide talent search resulted in the submission of thousands of applications. The final round of interviews consisted of a day-long trial run. The school looks for teachers who can show evidence of student growth and achievement. They also must be highly engaging.

The majority of students at the school are African American and Hispanic, from poor families, and reading below grade level. The school faces the challenge faced by schools all over the United States: getting poor, disadvantaged students to perform at the same level as their more affluent counterparts. Vanderhoek believes his team of dream teachers can help students close their learning gaps by several grade levels within one year.

This is not an affluent school. It is publicly funded and classes are held in trailers. Most of the school's budget goes into the teachers' salaries. There are no reading or math aides; those roles are filled by the regular classroom teachers.

The experiment may be working. Students who were asked how they feel about their education at The Equity Project said that their teachers care if they succeed and give them the attention they need to achieve at high levels. They cite the feeling that their teachers believe in them as a major reason for liking school for the first time.

Of course, with the high salary comes high risk. Most public schools offer contracts to teachers. Those contracts guarantee job security. But The Equity Project is an at-will employer. Those who don't meet the standards set by the school will lose their jobs. Vanderhoek does not believe in teacher tenure, which he feels gives teachers "a job for life no matter how they perform" (CBS News 2011). With a teaching staff of roughly fifteen, he terminated two teachers after the first year. In comparison, in New York City as a whole, only seven teachers out of 55,000 with tenure have been terminated for poor performance.

One of those two teachers who was let go said she was relieved, citing eighty- to ninety-hour work weeks and a decline in the quality of her family life. Meanwhile, there is some question as to whether the model is working. On one hand, there are individual success stories, such as a student whose reading skills increased two grade levels in a single year. On the other, there is the fact that on the state math and reading exams taken by all fifth graders, the Equity Project students remained out-scored by other district schools (CBS News 2011). Do charter schools actually work? A Stanford CREDO study in 2009 found "there is a wide variance in the quality of the nation's several thousand charter schools with, in the aggregate, students in charter schools not faring as well as students in traditional public schools" (CREDO 2009).

Home Schooling

Homeschooling refers to children being educated in their own homes, typically by a parent, instead of in a traditional public or private school system. Proponents of this type of education argue that it provides an outstanding opportunity for student-centered learning while circumventing problems that plague today's education system. Opponents counter that homeschooled children miss out on the opportunity for social development that occurs in standard classroom environments and school settings.

Proponents say that parents know their own children better than anyone else and are thus best equipped to teach them. Those on the other side of the debate assert that childhood education is a complex task and requires the degree (or several) that teachers spend years earning. After all, they argue, a parent may know their child's body better than anyone, yet they seeks out a doctor for their child's medical treatment. Just as a doctor is a trained medical expert, teachers are trained education experts.

The National Center for Education Statistics shows that the quality of the national education system is the major concern when choosing to homeschool their children, expressing particular concerns about school environments.[2] White families make up a significant majority of homeschooling environments (83 percent). To date, researchers have not found consensus in studies evaluating the success, or lack thereof, of homeschooling.

Try It

https://assessments.lumenlearning.co...essments/14735

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1. Plesset, Emilie (March 2018). "U.S. Education Secretary Betsy DeVos reopens the charter school debate." PBS. Retrieved from: https://www.pbs.org/weta/washingtonweek/blog-post/us-education-secretary-betsy-devos-reopens-charter-school-debate. ↵
2. Redford, J., Battle, D., and Bielick, S. (2017). Homeschooling in the United States: 2012 (NCES 2016-096REV). National Center for Education Statistics, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education. Washington, DC. Retrieved from https://nces.ed.gov/fastfacts/display.asp?id=91. ↵

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- In the black community, a division over charter schools. **Authored by**: PBS News Hour. **Located at**: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=PyBUlSrIOh4. **License**: *Other*. **License Terms**: Standard YouTube License

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11.3: Contemporary Issues in Education

Learning Outcomes

- Examine teacher training, affirmative action, and the cost of education as contemporary issues in education

Teacher Training

Schools face the difficult issue of measuring teacher effectiveness. For example, most high school teachers perceive students as being prepared for college, while most college professors do not see those same students as prepared for the rigors of collegiate study. Some feel that this is due to primary and secondary-level (i.e., high school) teachers being unprepared to teach, as many teachers in the United States teach subjects that are outside their own field of study. This is not the case in many European and Asian countries. Only eight percent of United States fourth-grade math teachers majored or minored in math, compared with 48 percent of math teachers in Singapore. Further, students in disadvantaged American schools are 77 percent more likely to be educated by a teacher who didn't specialize in the subject matter than students who attend schools in affluent neighborhoods (Holt, McGrath, and Seastrom 2006). Consequently, there are two broad structural problems in regards to teacher training in the United States: first, teachers are, according to some, underprepared to teach students due to a discrepancy between their academic preparation and their professional expectations; second, better-prepared teachers are more likely to be found in wealthier neighborhoods, further contributing to already existing educational inequality.

Social Promotion

Social promotion is another issue identified by sociologists. This is the concept of passing students to the next grade regardless of whether they've met the standards for that grade. Critics of this practice argue that students should never move to the next grade if they have not mastered the skills required to "graduate" from the previous grade. Proponents of the practice question what a school is to do with a student who is three to four years older than other students in his or her grade, saying this creates more pressing issues than the practice of social promotion. Others are more concerned about the social consequences of holding students back, and about the social development of older students who would be surrounded by younger students.

Affirmative Action

Affirmative action has been a subject of debate, primarily as it relates to the admittance of college students. Opponents suggest that, under affirmative action, minority students are given greater weighted priorities for admittance. Supporters of affirmative action point to the way in which it grants opportunities to students who are traditionally done a disservice in the college admission process.

WATCH IT

Affirmative action seeks to address racial/ethnic inequality in higher education, and is a heavily contested topic in education debates.

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Rising Student Loan Debt

In a growing concern, the amount of college loan debt that students are taking on is creating a new social challenge. As of 2018, the average debt of students with loans was $37,172[1] upon graduation, leaving students hard-pressed to repay their education while earning entry-level wages, even at the professional level (Lewin 2011). With the inconsistent state of unemployment since the 2008 recession, jobs are often scarce, making student debt more burdensome, and in some cases, unserviceable. As recent graduates find themselves unable to meet their financial obligations, all of society is affected.

Try It

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Is College Worth It?



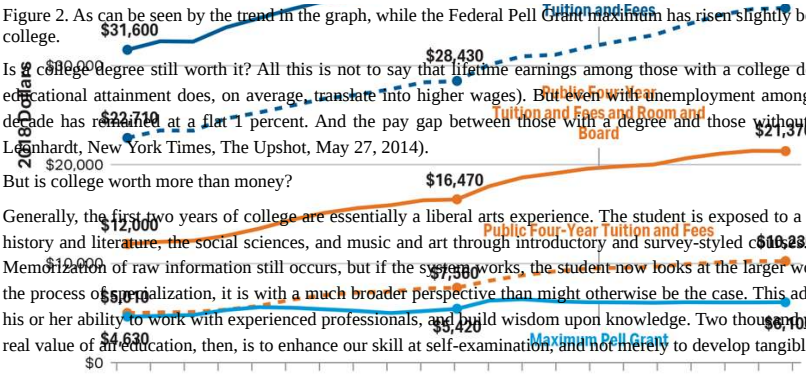
Figure 1. Students who do graduate from college are likely to begin a career in debt.
(Photo courtesy of Kevin Dooley/flickr)

"What the educator does in teaching is to make it possible for the students to become themselves" (Paulo Freire, Pedagogy of the Oppressed). David Simon, in his book *Social Problems and the Sociological Imagination: A Paradigm for Analysis* (1995), points to the notion that social problems are, in essence, contradictions—that is, statements, ideas, or features of a situation that are opposed to one another. Consider then, that one of the greatest expectations in U.S. society is that to attain any form of success in life, a person needs an education. In fact, a college degree is rapidly becoming an expectation at nearly all levels of middle-class success, and not merely an enhancement to our occupational choices. As you might expect, the number of people graduating from college in the United States continues to rise dramatically.

The contradiction, however, lies in the fact that the more necessary a college degree has become, the harder it has become to acquire one. The cost of getting a college degree has risen sharply since the mid-1980s, while government support in the form of Pell Grants and distributed tax revenue has decreased. The net result is that those who do graduate from college are likely to begin a career in debt. In 2013, the average of amount of a typical student's loans amounted to around $29,000. As of 2018, it was over $37,000.[2] Added to that is that employment opportunities have not met expectations. The *Washington Post* (Brad Plumer May 20, 2013) noted that in 2010, only 27 percent of college graduates had a job related to their major. The business publication Bloomberg News stated that among twenty-two-year-old degree holders who found jobs in the past three years, more than half were in roles not even requiring a college diploma (Janet Lorin and Jeanna Smialek, June 5, 2014), making people wonder if college really does pay off in the professional world (see Figure 2).[3]



Figure 2. As can be seen by the trend in the graph, while the Federal Pell Grant maximum has risen slightly between 1976 and 2018, it has not been able to keep pace with the total cost of college.



Is a college degree still worth it? All this is not to say that lifetime earnings among those with a college degree are not, on average, still much higher than for those without (higher educational attainment does, on average, translate into higher wages). But even with unemployment among degree-earners at a low of 3 percent, the increase in wages over the past decade has remained at a flat 1 percent. And the pay gap between those with a degree and those without has continued to increase because wages for the rest have fallen (David Leonhardt, New York Times, The Upshot, May 27, 2014).

But is college worth more than money?

Generally, the first two years of college are essentially a liberal arts experience. The student is exposed to a fairly broad range of topics, from mathematics and the physical sciences to history and literature, the social sciences, and music and art through introductory and survey-styled courses. It is in this period that the student's world view is, presumably, expanded. Memorization of raw information still occurs, but if the system works, the student now looks at the larger world in broader, more knowledgeable contexts. Then, when he or she begins the process of specialization, it is with a much broader perspective than might otherwise be the case. This additional "cultural capital" can further enrich the life of the student, enhance his or her ability to work with experienced professionals, and build wisdom upon knowledge. Two thousand years ago, Socrates asserted, "The unexamined life is not worth living." The real value of an education, then, is to enhance our skill at self-examination, and not merely to develop tangible skills.

1. Hess, Abigail (2018). "Here's how much the average student loan borrower owes when they graduate." CNBC. Retrieved from https://www.cnbc.com/2018/02/15/heres-how-much-the-average-student-loan-borrower-owes-when-they-graduate.html. ↵
2. Hess, Abigail (2018). "Here's how much the average student loan borrower owes when they graduate." CNBC. Retrieved from https://www.cnbc.com/2018/02/15/heres-how-much-the-average-student-loan-borrower-owes-when-they-graduate.html. ↵
3. The College Board, Trends in College Pricing 2018, Table 2 online; U.S. Department of Education, Federal Student Aid Data Center. ↵

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11.4: Putting It Together- Education

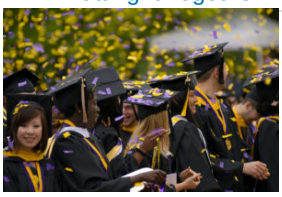


Figure 1. What is the ultimate benefit of going to college? For the most economically disadvantaged students, the boost in pay from earning a bachelor's degree is significantly less than what it is for their wealthier peers.

In this module, you examined education around the world. Education is an institution that helps to socialize people to the cultural norms of their society. What we learn may be about content (history, or math) but also about the hidden curriculum (like how to be a patriotic citizen). Education may be formal (in a school) or informal (like learning how to cook or how to tie your shoes), and it may be mandated by law, as it is in the United States where children must attend for at least ten years of their lives. The quality of education varies within our own country as well as across countries.

Historically, there has been an emphasis on the benefits of attending college to improve one's opportunities in life, but studies show that those who come from poor families do not see the same level of financial gain from attending college as their wealthier peers.[1] In light of these disparate outcomes, we should consider whether or not attending college really is the "great equalizer." A study by the Brookings Institute revealed that while attending college did result in salary gains for both poor and non-poor students, the benefits of attending college were not as pronounced for the economically disadvantaged students. Students who came from families below 185 percent of the federal poverty earned 91% more than their no-college peers, but college graduates from families above the 185 percent line earned significantly more—162% more than their peers with only a high school diploma. As you can see in Figure 1, this gap widens over time, so that by the time the college graduates are sixty, those who are above 185 percent of the federal poverty level earn around $80,000, while those below that same level with a bachelor's degree will earn closer to $25,000. These trends further illustrate the accumulation of advantage or, conversely, disadvantage, that is observed based on background characteristics such as family income.[2]

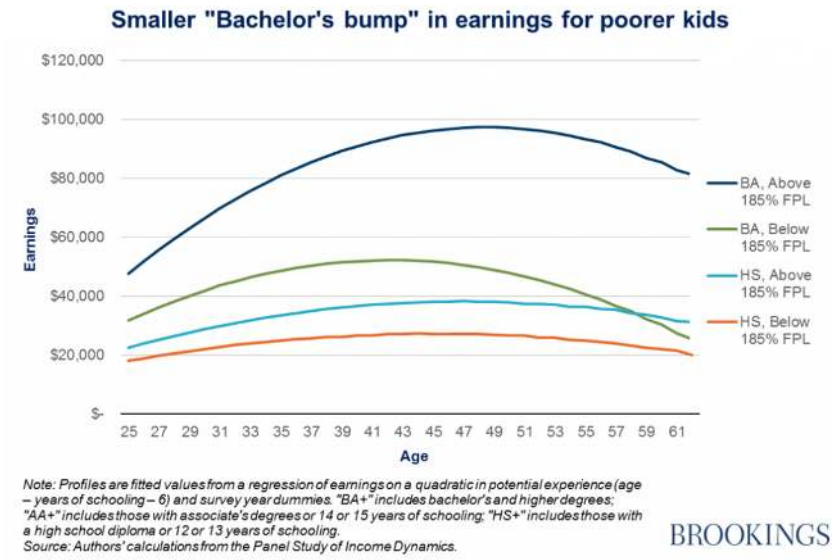


Figure 2. The "Bachelor's bump," or boost in earnings following college, is dramatically higher for those with incomes above 185% of the federal poverty level.

Many factors could be contributing to the disparities in earnings discussed above: career selection, debt at time of graduation, social capital (the social networks developed) from college, marriage preference, family structure, etc. Considering these external mechanisms, can we really argue for education as the great equalizer?

1. NCES. Postsecondary Attainment: Differences by Socioeconomic Status. Retrieved from Postsecondary Attainment: Differences by Socioeconomic Status. ↵
2. Beer, Todd (March 2016). "A PATH TO MOBILITY? How universities maintain the class structure." The Society Pages, Sociology Toolbox. Retrieved from https://thesocietypages.org/toolbox/a-path-to-mobility-how-universities-maintain-the-class-structure/. ↵

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- Confetti - Undergrad Graduation. **Authored by**: m00by. **Located at**: https://www.flickr.com/photos/m00by/2538526391. **License**: *CC BY: Attribution*

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11.5: Discussion- Education

Pick TWO of the following discussion questions and write a response of at 150-200 words each, expressing your opinion on the matter. Once completed, return to comment on at least TWO other posts with thoughtful feedback.

- How has your formal and informal education influenced your educational pursuits?
- In thinking about your education experience, how have you witnessed universal learning? Was it effective or not?
- Is busing a reasonable method of serving students from diverse backgrounds? If not, suggest and support an alternative.
- What is the current state of credentialism? Are views of credentials changing? What credentials are becoming more important and which ones have become less important?
- What is your experience with inequality in education, either personally or observed?

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11.6: Assignment- Education Infographic

STEP 1: Read the following articles to better understand equity and equality as they relate to education. Consider the status of school equity in America and reflect on what measures schools are taking to address inequality.

- The Glossary of Education: Equity Definition
- Center for Public Education: Equity Symposium
- U.S. Department of Education: Equity of Opportunity

STEP 2: Research a school, either one that you attended growing up, one in your area, or the college or university you currently attend. Visit websites such as greatschools.org, National Center for Education Statistics: Search for Public Schools (for K-12), College Factual, National Center for Education Statistics: College Navigator, or others to gather information about the demographics at the school. Compile pertinent information regarding equity, racial and ethnic diversity, gender diversity, socioeconomic status, graduation rates, grades, poverty, disability, etc. to get a comprehensive understanding about equity at your selected school. How does this school address issues of equity?

STEP 3: Create a poster or infographic that addresses the major sociological issues related to education equity at your school. This can be done as a powerpoint slide, or using a program of your choice, such as Easelly, Canva, or Pik to Chart. Include appropriate citations and references in your poster.

- You can choose one issue related to education, such as racial diversity, or you can provide a quick look at multiple issues related to educational equity. Include relevant data about the diversity present in the students and/or staff at your school, how issues related to equity are addressed. Focus on a few pieces of data or information about your school and bring attention to the key points with graphics or other pictures.
- The following is an example template of an infographic related to issues in higher education:



Next, share your creation with the world so that others can benefit from your work! Using either Flickr or Wikimedia Commons, upload your finished product and publish it so that other sociology instructors and students can use and reference your work. Although not required, we strongly recommend uploading and releasing your work with a Creative Commons license.

STEP 4: Write an essay (400-500 words) critique of how well your school is doing and areas for improvement. Be sure to include references and citations for your arguments.

Rubric

Criteria	Excellent (Exceeds Standards)	Good (Occasionally Exceeds)	Acceptable (Meets Standards)	Unacceptable (Below Standards)	Points
Education Equity Content	Strong presentation of key issues related to education equity, including data and terminology. Clearly delineates subtopics to be reviewed. Specific theme and connecting ideas evident.	Conveys topic of equity and key question(s). Clearly delineates subtopics to be reviewed. General theme is clear.	Conveys topic of equity, but not key question(s).Presents subtopics to be reviewed. General theme is present.	Does not adequately convey topic. Does not describe subtopics to be reviewed.Lacks adequate theme to portray issues of education equity.	__/10
Presentation	Superior use of visual graphics to convey important points related to the topic.	Generally easy to identify main points visually, and useful graphics present to highlight important points.	Some use of visuals to display information, but layout is confusing or without clear connections.	No attempt at presenting information in a creative manner. Project lacks visual cohesion.	__/10
Essay and Support	All material clearly related to subtopic, main topic. Strong organization and integration of material within subtopics. Very clear connections between ideas. Strong peer-reviewed or research based support for topic.	All material clearly related to subtopic, main topic and logically organized within subtopics. Connections between ideas are organized and mostly clear. Sources well selected to support the topic with some research in support of thesis.	Most material clearly related to subtopic, main topic. Material may not be organized within subtopics. Connections between ideas are hard to identify. Sources generally acceptable but not peer-reviewed research (evidence) based.	Little evidence material is logically organized into topic, subtopics or related to topic. Connections between ideas are unclear. Few or no supporting sources for topic. Sources used are insignificant or unsubstantiated.	__10
Grammar & Mechanics	The paper is free of grammatical errors and spelling & punctuation.	Grammatical errors or spelling & punctuation are rare and do not detract from the paper.	Very few grammatical, spelling or punctuation errors interfere with reading the paper.	Grammatical errors or spelling & punctuation substantially detract from the paper.	__5
				Total:	__/35

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11.7: Why It Matters- Education

Why examine education as a social institution?



From the moment a child is born, his or her education begins. At first, education is an informal process in which an infant watches others and imitates them. As the infant grows into a young child, the process of education becomes more formal through play dates and preschool. Once in grade school, academic lessons become the focus of education as a child moves through the school system. But even then, education is about much more than the simple learning of facts.

Our education system also socializes us to our society through both formal processes and informal mechanisms. In addition to cognitive skills, we learn cultural expectations and norms, which are reinforced by our teachers, our textbooks, and our classmates. (For students outside the dominant culture, this aspect of the education system can pose significant challenges.) You might remember learning your multiplication tables in third grade and also learning the social rules of taking turns on the swings at recess.

Schools can be agents of change or conformity, teaching individuals to think outside of the family and the local norms into which they were born, while at the same time (as conflict theories will highlight) acclimatizing them to their tacit place in society. They provide students with skills for communication, social interaction, and work discipline that can create pathways to both independence and obedience.

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11.8: Introduction to Global Education

What you'll learn to do: examine educational differences around the world



In today's world, some degree of education is necessary for people in most countries. Due to population growth and the proliferation of compulsory education, UNESCO has calculated that in the next 30 years, more people will receive formal education than in any prior period of human history. In fact, illiteracy and the percentage of populations without any schooling have already decreased, from 36% in 1960 to 25% in 2000, and under 14% in 2015.[1]

Education in its broadest, most general sense is a means through which the aims and habits of a group of people are transmitted from one generation to the next. Generally, education results from any experience that affects the way in which one thinks, feels, or acts—whether that be in a classroom setting, on your couch, or at the local recreation center. In its narrowest, most technical sense, education is the formal process (e.g., instruction in schools) by which society deliberately transmits accumulated knowledge, skills, customs, and values from one generation to the next. In this section, you'll examine the basic educational differences that exist around the world.

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1. The World Bank. *Literacy rate, adult total (% of people ages 15 and above)*. Retrieved from https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/se.adt.litr.zs. ↵

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11.9: Education Around the World

Learning Outcomes

- Identify differences in educational resources around the world



Figure 1. These children are at a library in Singapore, where students are outperforming U.S. students on worldwide tests. (Photo courtesy of kodomut/flickr)

Education is a social institution through which a society's children are taught basic academic knowledge, learning skills, and cultural norms. Every nation in the world is equipped with some form of education system, though those systems vary greatly. The major factors that affect education systems are the resources and money that are utilized to support those systems in different nations, as well as how education is organized and administered to students. As you might expect, a country's wealth has much to do with the amount of money spent on education. Countries that do not have such basic amenities as running water are unable to support robust education systems or, in many cases, any formal schooling at all. The consequences of this worldwide educational inequality are of social concern for many countries, including the United States.

International differences in education systems are not solely a financial issue. The value placed on education, the amount of time devoted to it, and the distribution of education within a country also play a role in those differences. For example, students in South Korea spend 220 days a year in school, compared to the 180 days a year of their United States counterparts (Pellissier 2010). As of 2006, the United States ranked fifth among twenty-seven countries for college participation, but ranked sixteenth in the number of students who receive college degrees (National Center for Public Policy and Higher Education 2006). These statistics may be related to how much time is spent on education in the United States.

Watch It

Watch this video to see ways that education varies throughout the globe as well as the important opportunity that education provides for those hoping to improve their circumstances.

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Results from the most recent Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) in 2015, which is a test administered to 15-year-old students in participating economies every three years, showed that students in the United States lag far behind other high-income countries across different subjects, despite making the most progress in equity compared to other participating countries.[1] Countries in the Asian and Nordic regions tend to outperform other countries across all subjects tested (science, mathematics, and literacy), although their educational systems are vastly different in their goals and their administrative systems, suggesting that there is not a single recipe for "success" as measured by PISA.

Link to Learning

The PISA assessment is known to be influential around the world—watch this video to understand the system better: How does PISA work?

Analysts determined that the nations and city-states at the top of the rankings had several things in common. For one, they had well-established standards for education with clear goals for all students. Although these countries have well-delineated standards, they do not necessarily outline similar goals. For example, one country may emphasize cooperation, another student growth, or yet another may focus on equality, as in Finland.[2] Another thing the high-performing nations had in common was a tendency to

recruit teachers from the top 5 to 10 percent of university graduates each year, which is not the case for most countries (National Public Radio 2010).

Finally, there is the issue of social factors. One analyst from the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, the organization that created the test, attributed 20 percent of performance differences and the United States' low rankings to differences in social background. Researchers noted that educational resources, including money and quality teachers, are not distributed equitably in the United States. In the top-ranking countries, limited access to resources did not necessarily predict low performance. Analysts also noted what they described as "resilient students," or those students who achieve at a higher level than one might expect given their social background. In Shanghai and Singapore, the proportion of resilient students is about 70 percent. In the United States, it is below 30 percent. These insights suggest that the United States' educational system may be on a descending trajectory that could detrimentally affect the country's economy and its social landscape (National Public Radio 2010).

Recent research has found that the United States' low overall educational achievement is in large part due to an underperformance by the middle class. The poorest students in the United States, despite being among the most socioeconomically disadvantaged around the world, perform averagely relative to other poor students. The richest students from the U.S., despite being among the wealthiest, are also average when compared to other rich students – which is also an alarming finding. However, students in the middle of the SES distribution perform half a school year behind comparable middle-SES students, despite being among the wealthiest middle-SES groups in the world.[3]

Education in Finland

With public education in the United States under such intense criticism, why is it that Singapore, South Korea, and especially Finland (which is culturally most similar to the U.S. of those three), have such excellent educational achievement levels on PISA? Over the course of thirty years, Finland has pulled itself from among the lowest rankings by the Organization of Economic Cooperation (OEDC) to first place by 2012. Contrary to the rigid curriculum and long hours demanded of students in South Korea and Singapore, Finnish education often seems paradoxical to outside observers because it appears to break a lot of the rules we take for granted. It is common there for children to enter school at seven years old, where they will have more hours in recess and fewer hours in school than U.S. children—approximately 300 fewer hours. Their homework load is light when compared to all other industrialized nations (nearly 300 fewer hours per year in elementary school). There are no gifted programs, almost no private schools, and no high-stakes national standardized tests (Laukkanen 2008; LynNell Hancock 2011).

Prioritization is different than in the United States. In Finland, there is an emphasis on allocating resources for those who need them most, high standards, support for special needs students, qualified teachers taken from the top 10 percent of the nation's graduates (who must earn a Master's degree), and frequent evaluation of education methods, with a focus on balancing decentralization and centralization to maximize administrative efficiency.

"We used to have a system which was really unequal," stated the Finnish Education Chief in an interview. "My parents never had a real possibility to study and have a higher education. We decided in the 1960s that we would provide a free quality education to all. Even universities are free of charge. Equal means that we support everyone and we're not going to waste anyone's skills." As for teachers, "We don't test our teachers or ask them to prove their knowledge. But it's true that we do invest in a lot of additional teacher training even after they become teachers" (Gross-Loh 2014).

Finland has consistently performed among the top nations on the PISA. Despite the most recent PISA assessment showing that their scores have been declining since the 2006 assessment, Finland continues to be among the top performers and to exhibit some of the smallest achievement gaps between its richest and poorest students, a pattern that is consistent across the Nordic countries. Finland's school children didn't always excel. Finland built its excellent, efficient, and equitable educational system in a few decades from scratch, and the concept guiding almost every educational reform has been equity. The Finnish paradox is that by focusing on the bigger picture for all, Finland has succeeded at fostering the individual potential of most every child, a mechanism that has resulted in notable achievement on standardized international assessments.

Krista Kiuru, the Minister of Education, said "We created a school system based on equality to make sure we can develop everyone's potential. Now we can see how well it's been working. [In 2012] the OECD tested adults from twenty-four countries measuring the skill levels of adults aged sixteen to sixty-five on a survey called the PIAAC (Programme for International Assessment of Adult Competencies), which tests skills in literacy, numeracy, and problem solving in technology-rich environments. Finland scored at or near the top on all measures."

Try It

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https://assessments.lumenlearning.co...essments/14719

Formal and Informal Education

Education is not solely concerned with the basic academic concepts that a student learns in the classroom. Societies also educate their children, outside of the school system, in matters of everyday practical living. These two types of learning are referred to as formal education and informal education.

Formal education describes the learning of academic facts and concepts through a structured, programmatic curriculum. Arising from the tutelage of ancient Greek thinkers, centuries of scholars have examined topics through logical, systematic methods of learning. Education in earlier times was only available to the higher classes; they had the means for access to scholarly materials, plus the luxury of leisure time that could be used for learning. The Industrial Revolution, urbanization, the development of state-sponsored, publicly-funded institutions, and other social changes made education more accessible to the general population. Later, many families in the emerging middle class found new opportunities for schooling.



Figure 2. Parents teaching their children to cook provide an informal education. (Photo courtesy of eyeliam/flickr)

The modern U.S. educational system is the result of this progression. Today, basic education is considered a right and responsibility for all citizens. The United Nations outlines education as a basic human right in its Universal Declaration of Human Rights (Citation F), arguing that education must be free and universally-accessible.[4] Expectations of this system focus on formal education, with curricula and testing designed to ensure that students learn the facts and concepts that society believes are basic knowledge.

In contrast, **informal education** describes learning about cultural values, norms, and expected behaviors through societal participation. This type of learning occurs in family homes, community spaces, and through the education system. Our earliest learning experiences generally happen via parents, relatives, and others in our community. Through informal education, we learn how to dress for different occasions, how to perform regular life routines like shopping for and preparing food, and how to keep our bodies clean.

Cultural transmission refers to the way people come to learn the values, beliefs, and social norms of their culture. Both informal and formal education include cultural transmission. For example, a student will learn about cultural aspects of modern history in a U.S. History classroom. In that same classroom, the student might learn the cultural norm for asking a classmate out on a date through passing notes and whispered conversations, as well as learning how to respectfully voice opinions and meet deadlines for assignments.

Think It Over

- Has there ever been a time when your formal and informal educations in the same setting were at odds? How did you overcome that disconnect?

cultural transmission:

the way people come to learn the values, beliefs, and social norms of their culture

education:
a social institution through which a society's children are taught basic academic knowledge, learning skills, and cultural norms

formal education:
the learning of academic facts and concepts

informal education:
education that involves learning about cultural values, norms, and expected behaviors through participation in a society

1. PISA (2015). Results in Focus. Retrieved from https://www.oecd.org/pisa/pisa-2015-results-in-focus.pdf. ↵
2. Gross-Loh, Christine (March 2014). *Finnish Education Chief: 'We Created a School System Based on Equality' An interview with the country's minister of education, Krista Kiuru.* Retrieved from https://www.theatlantic.com/education/archive/2014/03/finnish-education-chief-we-created-a-school-system-based-on-equality/284427/. ↵
3. Kristie J. Rowley, Florencia Silveira, Mikaela J. Dufur, and Jonathan A. Jarvis. Forthcoming in Teachers' College Record. "US Achievement Underperformance in an International Context: Are Poor Students' PISA Scores to Blame?" ↵
4. United Nations (1948). Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Retrieved from https://www.un.org/en/universal-declaration-human-rights/. ↵

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11.10: Universal Access to Education

Learning Outcomes

- Describe the concept of universal access to education

Access to Education

Another global concern in education is **universal access**. This term refers to people's equal ability to participate in an education system. As called for by the UN's Universal Declaration on Human Rights, all individuals around the world are entitled to a free education at the primary level, both to develop skills and to become more functional members of society through learning tolerance and a respect for freedoms.

However, on a practical global level, educational access might be more difficult than the United Nations hoped for when first drafting the Declaration on Human Rights in 1948, particularly for certain groups based on class or gender. This was the case in much of the United States–even in the mid-twentieth century–though substantial progress has been made since that time.

Watch It

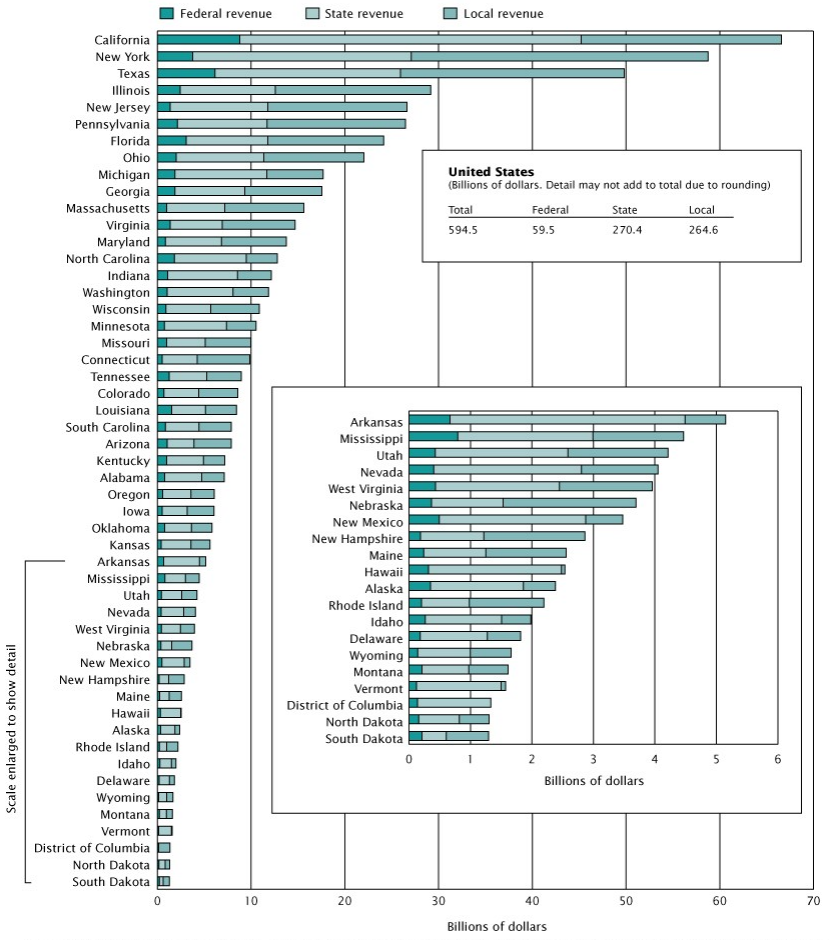
Watch this video, or other videos from Unicef's Education for All playlist to learn more about the importance of access to education.

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Universal Education in the United States

The modern idea of universal access arose in the United States as a concern for people with disabilities. In the United States, one way in which universal education is supported is through federal and state governments covering the cost of free public education. Of course, the way this plays out in terms of school budgets and taxes makes this an often-contested topic on the national, state, and community levels.

Figure 1.
Public Elementary-Secondary School System Revenue by Source and State: Fiscal Year 2012



Source: 2012 Census of Governments: Finance—Survey of School System Finances. Data are not subject to sampling error, but for information on nonsampling error and definitions, see introductory text. Data users who create their own estimates from these tables should cite the U.S. Census Bureau as the source of the original data only.

Figure 1. How has your state's revenue affected your educational opportunities? (Graph courtesy of Census of Governments: Survey of School System Finances 2012)

A precedent for universal access to education in the United States was set with the 1972 U.S. District Court for the District of Columbia's decision in *Mills v. Board of Education of the District of Columbia*. This case was brought on the behalf of seven school-age children with special needs who argued that the school board was denying their access to free public education. The board maintained that the children's "exceptional" needs, which included mental retardation and mental illness, precluded their right to be educated for free in a public school setting. The board argued that the cost of educating these children would be too high and that the children would therefore have to remain at home without access to education.

This case was resolved in a hearing without any trial. The judge, Joseph Cornelius Waddy, upheld the students' right to education, finding that they were to be given either public education services or private education paid for by the Washington, D.C., board of education. He noted that

> Constitutional rights must be afforded citizens despite the greater expense involved … the District of Columbia's interest in educating the excluded children clearly must outweigh its interest in preserving its financial resources. … The inadequacies of the District of Columbia Public School System whether occasioned by insufficient funding or administrative inefficiency, certainly cannot be permitted to bear more heavily on the "exceptional" or handicapped child than on the normal child (*Mills v. Board of Education* 1972).

Today, the optimal way to include differently-abled students in standard classrooms is still being researched and debated. "Inclusion" is a method that involves complete immersion in a standard classroom, whereas "mainstreaming" balances time in a special-needs classroom with standard classroom participation. There continues to be social debate surrounding how to implement the ideal of universal access to education for students with a variety of needs.

WATCH IT

Inclusive education movements are not unique to the United States—UNICEF, which oversees education for the United Nations, encourages the inclusion of children with disabilities in mainstream education.

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UNIVERSAL EDUCATION AROUND THE WORLD

Universal education continues to face challenges regarding geographical, socioeconomic and gender inequality. One of the United Nations' goals for Sustainable Development is that of a quality education for all—this is in response to the estimated 57 million children who are not enrolled in primary school, over half of which live in sub-Saharan Africa, and of which half live in violent conflict areas.[1]

Watch this video to better understand how poverty, lack of funding, teacher training, lack of supplies, discrimination, political instability, geography or distance, hunger or health concerns, and school fees or expenses all lead to unequal access to primary education: UN Goals: Achieving Universal Primary Education.

The following are the specific goals outlined by the UN:[2]

4.1 By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and Goal-4 effective learning outcomes

4.2 By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys have access to quality early childhood development, care and preprimary education so that they are ready for primary education

4.3 By 2030, ensure equal access for all women and men to affordable and quality technical, vocational and tertiary education, including university

4.4 By 2030, substantially increase the number of youth and adults who have relevant skills, including technical and vocational skills, for employment, decent jobs and entrepreneurship

4.5 By 2030, eliminate gender disparities in education and ensure equal access to all levels of education and vocational training for the vulnerable, including persons with disabilities, indigenous peoples and children in vulnerable situations

4.6 By 2030, ensure that all youth and a substantial proportion of adults, both men and women, achieve literacy and numeracy

4.7 By 2030, ensure that all learners acquire the knowledge and skills needed to promote sustainable development, including, among others, through education for sustainable development and sustainable lifestyles, human rights, gender equality, promotion of a culture of peace and non-violence, global citizenship and appreciation of cultural diversity and of culture's contribution to sustainable development

4.A Build and upgrade education facilities that are child, disability and gender sensitive and provide safe, nonviolent, inclusive and effective learning environments for all

4.B By 2020, substantially expand globally the number of scholarships available to developing countries, in particular least developed countries, small island developing States and African countries, for enrollment in higher education, including vocational training and information and

communications technology, technical, engineering and scientific programmes, in developed countries and other developing countries

4.C By 2030, substantially increase the supply of qualified teachers, including through international cooperation for teacher training in developing countries, especially least developed countries and small island developing states"

Further Research

Though it's a struggle, education is continually being improved in the developing world. To learn how educational programs are being fostered worldwide, explore the Education section of the Center for Global Development's website.

Think It Over

- Do you believe free access to schools has achieved its intended goal? Explain.

Try It

https://assessments.lumenlearning.co...essments/14722

glossary

universal access:
the equal ability of all people to participate in an education system

1. UN Sustainable Development Goals: Quality Education. Retrieved from https://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/education/. ↵
2. UN Sustainable Development Goals: Quality Education. Retrieved from https://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/education/. ↵

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11.11: Introduction to Theoretical Perspectives on Education

What you'll learn to do: examine the major theoretical perspectives on education



While it is clear that education plays an integral role in individuals' lives as well as society as a whole, sociologists view that role from many diverse points of view. Functionalists believe that education equips people to perform different functionally necessary roles in society. Conflict theorists view education as a means of widening the gap in social inequality through class reproduction and power imbalances. Feminist theorists point to evidence that sexism in education continues to prevent women from achieving a full measure of social equality. Symbolic interactionists study the dynamics of the classroom, the interactions between students and teachers, and how those negotiated meanings affect everyday life. In this section, you will learn about each of these perspectives.

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11.12: Functionalist Theory on Education

Learning Outcomes

- Describe the functionalist view on education, including the manifest and latent functions of education

Functionalism

Functionalists view education as one of the more important social institutions in a society. They contend that education contributes two kinds of functions: manifest (or primary) functions, which are the intended and visible functions of education; and latent (or secondary) functions, which are the hidden and unintended functions.

Manifest Functions

There are several major manifest functions associated with education. The first is socialization. Beginning in preschool and kindergarten, students are taught to practice various societal roles that extend beyond the school setting. The French sociologist Émile Durkheim (1858–1917), who is regarded as one of the founders of the academic discipline of sociology, characterized schools as "socialization agencies that teach children how to get along with others and prepare them for adult economic roles" (Durkheim 1898). Indeed, it seems that schools have taken on this responsibility in full.

This socialization also involves learning the rules and norms of the society as a whole. In the early days of compulsory education, students learned the dominant culture. Today, since the culture of the United States is increasingly diverse, students may learn a variety of cultural norms, not only that of the dominant culture. Conflict theorists, as we will discuss in the next section, would argue that we continue to instill dominant values in schools.

School systems in the United States also transmit the core values of the nation through manifest functions like social control. One of the roles of schools is to teach students conformity to law and respect for authority. Obviously, such respect, given to teachers and administrators, will help a student navigate the school environment. By organizing schools as bureaucracies, much like what is found in the labor market and in other social institutions, schools teach children what is commonly referred to as "the hidden curriculum." We will expand on this in the following section on conflict theory. This function also prepares students to enter the workplace and the world at large, where they will continue to be subject to people who have authority over them. Fulfillment of this function rests primarily with classroom teachers and instructors who are with students all day.

Education also provides one of the major methods used by people for upward social mobility through allowing individuals of all social backgrounds to gain credentials that will broaden their prospects in the future. This function is referred to as **social placement**. Colleges and graduate schools are viewed as vehicles for moving students closer to the careers that will give them the financial freedom and security they seek. As a result, college students are often more motivated to study areas that they believe will be advantageous on the socio-economic ladder. A student might value business courses over a class in Victorian poetry because she sees business coursework as a stronger vehicle for financial success and for higher placement within the social hierarchy.

Latent Functions

Education also fulfills latent functions. As you well know, much goes on in a school that has little to do with formal, programmatic education. For example, you might notice an attractive fellow student when he gives a particularly interesting answer in class—catching up with him and making a date speaks to the latent function of courtship fulfilled by exposure to a peer group in the educational setting.

The educational setting introduces students to social networks that might last for years and can help people find jobs after their schooling is complete. Of course, with the increase in social media platform use such as Facebook and LinkedIn, these networks established in school environments are easier than ever to maintain. Another latent function is the ability to work with others in small groups, a skill that is transferable to a workplace and that might not be learned in a homeschool setting.

The educational system, especially as experienced on university campuses, has traditionally provided a place for students to learn about various social issues. There is ample opportunity for social and political advocacy, as well as the ability to develop tolerance to the many views represented on campus. In 2011, the Occupy Wall Street movement swept across college campuses all over the United States, leading to demonstrations in which diverse groups of students were unified with the purpose of changing the political climate of the country. Social and political advocacy can take many forms, from joining established programs on international development to joining a particular party-affiliated group to supporting non-profit clubs at your school.

Table 1. According to functionalist theory, education contributes both manifest and latent functions.

Manifest and Latent Functions	
Manifest Functions: Openly stated functions with intended goals	Latent Functions: Hidden, unstated functions with sometimes unintended consequences
Socialization	Courtship
Transmission of culture	Social networks
Social control	Group work
Social placement	Creation of generation gap
Cultural innovation	Political and social integration



Figure 1. Starting each day with the Pledge of Allegiance is one way in which students are taught patriotism. (Photo courtesy of Jeff Turner/flickr)

Functionalists recognize other ways that schools educate and enculturate students. One of the most characteristic American values students in United States schools learn is that of individualism—the valuing of the individual over the value of groups or society as a whole. In countries such as Japan and China, where the good of the group is valued over the rights of the individual, students do not learn as they do in the United States that the highest rewards go to the “best” individual in academics or athletics. One of the roles of schools in the United States is fostering self-esteem; conversely, schools in Japan focus on fostering social esteem—the honoring of the group over the individual. As such, schools in the U.S. and around the world are teaching their students about larger national ideals and fostering institutions that are conducive to the cultural imprinting of those ideas.

In the United States, schools also fill the role of preparing students for competition in life. Obviously, athletics foster a competitive ethos, but even in the classroom students compete against one another academically. Schools also aid in teaching patriotism. Students recite the Pledge of Allegiance each morning and take history classes where they learn about national heroes and the nation’s past. The practice of saying the Pledge of Allegiance has become controversial in recent years, with individuals arguing that requiring or even expecting children to pledge allegiance is unconstitutional and as such may face legal challenges to its validity.[1][/footnote]

Another role of schools, according to functionalist theory, is that of sorting, or classifying students based on academic merit or potential. The most capable students are identified early in schools through testing and classroom achievements. Such students are placed in accelerated programs in anticipation of successful college attendance, a practice that is referred to as tracking, and which has also generated substantial opposition, both in the United States and abroad. This will be further discussed as it pertains to conflict theory, but a majority of sociologists are against tracking in schools because research has found that the positive effects of tracking do not justify the negative ones. Functionalists further contend that school, particularly in recent years, is taking over some of the functions that were traditionally undertaken by family. Society relies on schools to teach their charges about human sexuality as well as basic skills such as budgeting and filling out job applications—topics that at one time were addressed within the family.

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https://assessments.lumenlearning.co...essments/14724

glossary

social placement:
the use of education to improve one’s social standing

1. [footnote]Bomboy, Scott (June 2018). "The history of legal challenges to the Pledge of Allegiance". Constitution Daily. Retrieved from https://constitutioncenter.org/blog/the-latest-controversy-about-under-god-in-the-pledge-of-allegiance. ↵

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11.13: Conflict Theory on Education

Learning Outcomes

- Examine the perspective of conflict theory on education
- Examine the feminist theory on education

Conflict Theory

Conflict theorists do not believe that public schools reduce social inequality through providing equal opportunity. Rather, they believe that the educational system reinforces and perpetuates social inequalities that arise from differences in class, gender, race, and ethnicity. Where functionalists see education as serving a beneficial role, conflict theorists view it more negatively. To them, educational systems preserve the status quo and push people of lower status into obedience, which keeps them socioeconomically disadvantaged.



Figure 1. Conflict theorists see the education system as a means by which those in power stay in power. (Photo courtesy Thomas Ricker/flickr)

The fulfillment of one's education is closely linked to social class. Students of low socioeconomic status are generally not afforded the same opportunities as students of higher status, no matter how great their academic ability or desire to learn. Picture a student from a working-class home who wants to do well in school. On a Monday, he's assigned a paper that's due Friday. Monday evening, he has to babysit his younger sister while his divorced mother works. Tuesday and Wednesday, he works stocking shelves after school until 10:00 p.m. By Thursday, the only day he might have available to work on that assignment, he's so exhausted he can't bring himself to start the paper. His mother, though she'd like to help him, is so tired herself that she isn't able to give him the encouragement or support he needs. And since English is her second language, she has difficulty with some of his educational materials. They also lack a computer and printer at home, which most of his classmates have, so they rely on the public library or school system for access to technology. As this story shows, many students from working-class families have to contend with helping out at home, contributing financially to the family, poor study environments, and a lack of family support. This is a difficult match with education systems that adhere to a traditional curriculum that is more easily understood and completed by students of higher social classes.

Such a situation leads to social class reproduction, extensively studied by French sociologist Pierre Bourdieu. He researched how **cultural capital**, or cultural knowledge that serves as (metaphorical) currency that helps us navigate a culture, alters the experiences and opportunities available to French students from different social classes. Members of the upper and middle classes have more cultural capital than do families of lower-class status. As a result, the educational system maintains a cycle in which the dominant culture's values are rewarded and thus generationally reproduced. Instruction and tests cater to the dominant culture and leave others struggling to identify with values and competencies outside their social class. For example, there has been a great deal of discussion over what standardized tests such as the SAT truly measure. Many argue that the tests group students by cultural ability rather than by natural intelligence. For example, a question on the comprehensive reading section of the SAT inquires about a painting at an art museum. For a student who has not experienced art museums regularly, this question poses greater difficulty than it does for a student who grew up going to cultural events such as art exhibitions. Such mechanisms in public education reinforce and perpetuate inequalities.

Watch It

This video explains how cultural capital impacts a hypothetical student.

An interactive or media element has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view it online here: http://pb.libretexts.org/its/?p=432

Try It

Click through this presentation to learn more about cultural capital and consider the ways that it influences your own experiences with the world.

An interactive or media element has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view it online here: http://pb.libretexts.org/its/?p=432

The article referenced in the interactive above raises many important issues, and some questions we might pursue further are:

1. Are there any forms of cultural capital that can be acquired without economic capital? That is, can one cultivate habits of speech and appearance that suggest higher social status but which do not cost money? (or at least very much money?) What symbolic values are at work here?
2. If prestigious brand-name products, such as the Louis Vuitton handbag, confer some sort of high status on those who possess and display them, then how does the "branding" of the self function in our 21st-Century economy? When individuals brand themselves through social media and other public platforms, whether as employees or "influencers" and such, what status or characteristics are they trying to claim? What do they hope to gain?
3. The sociologist Charles Horton Cooley introduced the concept of the "looking glass self," which says we develop our sense of self according to how we believe others perceive us. Can this idea help us understand how social status and economic class are related? To what extent are status and class a matter of self-conscious performance for the benefit of an imagined audience?

The Hidden Curriculum

The cycle of rewarding those who possess cultural capital is found in formal educational curricula as well as in the **hidden curriculum**, which refers to the type of nonacademic knowledge that students learn through informal learning and cultural transmission. This hidden curriculum reinforces the positions of those with higher cultural capital and serves to bestow status unequally.

Watch IT

The Hidden Curriculum ideology is very prevalent in sociology, as sociologists seek to better understand how education is shaping society as a larger unit. This video explains what this means.

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This next video explains how sociologists examine the hidden curriculum from the various sociological perspectives.

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Tracking

Conflict theorists point to **tracking**, a formalized sorting system that places students on "tracks" (advanced versus low-achievers) that perpetuate inequalities. While educators may believe that students do better in tracked classes because they are with students of similar ability and may have access to more individual attention from teachers, conflict theorists feel that tracking leads to self-fulfilling prophecies in which students live up (or down) to teacher and societal expectations (Education Week 2004). The ways by which students are assigned to tracks differs both between and within schools. Today, it is less common for schools to rigidly track students in all subjects, and it is less common to track them into different vocational paths. Administrators and teachers in a given school may carefully avoid using the term "tracking" to describe the organization of their school's curriculum. Yet, schools maintain a variety of policies that sort students into different programs of study including: test scores and grade requirements, pre- and co-requisite requirements, and teacher recommendations.

Low-track classes tend to be primarily composed of low-income students, usually minorities, while upper-track classes are usually dominated by students from socioeconomically successful groups. In 1987, Jeannie Oakes theorized that the disproportionate

placement of poor and minority students into low tracks does not reflect their actual learning abilities. Rather, she argued that the ethnocentric claims of social Darwinists and the Anglo-Saxon-driven Americanization movement at the turn of the century combined to produce a strong push for “industrial” schooling, ultimately relegating the poorer minority students to vocational programs and a differentiated curriculum which she considered a lingering pattern in 20th century schools.

Some studies suggest that tracking can influence students’ peer groups and attitudes regarding other students. Adam Gamoran’s study (1992) shows that students are more likely to form friendships with other students in the same tracks than with students outside of their tracks. Since low-class and minority students are overrepresented in low tracks, and Whites and Asians generally dominate higher tracks, interaction among these groups can be discouraged by tracking. However, there is no research showing an academic benefit to low track students from such interaction.

Link to Learning

Tracking is not uncommon in the United States and can take many forms at any level of compulsory schooling. Did you experience tracking at your school? This student Ted talk explains some of the adverse consequences of separating students into high-performing, average, and below-average tracks: Student Tracking Needs to End.

To conflict theorists, schools play the role of training working-class students to accept and retain their position as lower-tier members of society. They argue that this role is fulfilled through the disparity of resources available to students in richer and poorer neighborhoods as well as through testing (Lauen and Tyson 2008). Did you know that a school’s resources are dependent on property taxes in the school district’s boundaries? This is a controversial policy, as it contributes to existing inequalities in the home and in the the neighborhood.

IQ tests have been attacked for being biased—for testing cultural knowledge rather than actual intelligence. For example, a test item may ask students what instruments belong in an orchestra. To correctly answer this question requires certain cultural knowledge—knowledge most often held by more affluent people who typically have more exposure to orchestral music. Though experts in the field of testing claim that bias has been eliminated from tests, conflict theorists maintain that this is impossible. These tests, to conflict theorists, are another way in which education does not so much provide opportunities as maintain established configurations of power.

Link to Learning

This NPR article, Why America’s Schools Have A Money Problem, explains more about inequalities in public schools created by differences in revenue generated through property taxes.

Think It Over

- Thinking of your school, what are some ways that a conflict theorist would say that your school perpetuates class differences?

Try It

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Feminist Theory



Figure 2. Some 1903 female graduates of Western University.

Feminist theory aims to understand the mechanisms and roots of gender inequality, particularly in education, as well as their societal repercussions. Like many other institutions of society, educational systems are characterized by unequal treatment and opportunity for women, despite the monumental progress that has been made in recent decades. The literacy rate among women worldwide is 83 percent, compared to the almost 90 percent observed for men,[1] and women around the world are still less likely than men to set foot in a school.[2]

Women in the United States have been relatively late, historically speaking, to be granted entry to the public university system. In fact, it wasn't until the establishment of Title IX of the Education Amendments in 1972 that discriminating on the basis of sex in U.S. education programs became illegal. In the United States, there is also a post-education gender disparity between what male and female college graduates earn, despite women now graduating college at higher rates than men (Citation C). A study released in May 2011 showed that, among men and women who graduated from college between 2006 and 2010, men out-earned women by an average of more than $5,000 each year. First-year job earnings for men averaged $33,150; for women the average was $28,000 (Godofsky, Zukin, and van Horn 2011). Similar trends are seen among salaries of professionals in virtually all industries.[3]

Here are a few facts about the gendered wage gap from the AAUW (2018):[4]

$$\text{EARNINGS RATIO} = \frac{\text{WOMEN'S MEDIAN EARNINGS}}{\text{MEN'S MEDIAN EARNINGS}}$$

$$\text{2017 EARNINGS RATIO} = \frac{\$41{,}997}{\$52{,}146} = 80\%$$

Figure 3. One way to think about the gender pay gap is by looking at the difference in median earnings for men and women.

1. Women earn 80% of what men make.
2. Racial minority women earn even less when compared to white men – with the lowest being Hispanic/Latina women making 53% of what men make.
3. Utah has the largest pay gap, California has the smallest.
4. The gender gap is found across nearly all professions.

When women face limited opportunities for education, their capacity to achieve equal rights, including financial independence, is limited. Feminist theory seeks to promote women's rights to equal education (and its resultant benefits) across the world.

Try It

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Glossary

cultural capital:
cultural knowledge that serves (metaphorically) as currency to help one navigate a culture

hidden curriculum:

the type of nonacademic knowledge that people learn through informal learning and cultural transmission

sorting:
classifying students based on academic merit or potential

tracking:
a formalized sorting system that places students on “tracks” (advanced, low achievers) that perpetuate inequalities

1. UNESCO Institute for Statistics. Literacy rate, adult male (% of males ages 15 and above). Retrieved from https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SE.ADT.LITR.MA.ZS?view=chart. ↵
2. UNESCO. Gender Equality in Education. Retrieved from http://uis.unesco.org/en/topic/gender-equality-education. ↵
3. Semuels, Alana (November 2017). "Poor Girls Are Leaving Their Brothers Behind." Retrieved from https://www.theatlantic.com/business/archive/2017/11/gender-education-gap/546677/. ↵
4. AAUW. "The Simple Truth about the Gender Pay Gap." Retrieved from https://www.aauw.org/research/the-simple-truth-about-the-gender-pay-gap/. ↵

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11.14: Symbolic Interactionist Theory on Education

Learning Outcomes

- Examine the symbolic interactionist view of education

Symbolic Interactionism

Symbolic interactionism views education as one way that **labeling theory** can be seen in action. A symbolic interactionist might say that this labeling has a direct correlation to those who are in power and those who are labeled. For example, low standardized test scores or poor performance in a particular class often lead to a student who is labeled as a low achiever. Such labels are difficult to "shake off," which can create a **self-fulfilling prophecy** (Merton 1968) and result in outcomes that could have been prevented.

In his book *High School Confidential*, Jeremy Iverson details his experience as a Stanford graduate posing as a student at a California high school. One of the problems he identifies in his research is that of teachers applying labels that students are never able to lose. One teacher told him, without knowing he was a bright graduate of a top university, that he would never amount to anything (Iverson 2006). Iverson obviously didn't take this teacher's false assessment to heart. But when an actual seventeen-year-old student hears this from a person with authority over her, it's no wonder that the student might begin to "live down to" that label.

The labeling with which symbolic interactionists concern themselves extends to the very degrees that symbolize completion of education. **Credentialism** embodies the emphasis on certificates or degrees to show that a person has a certain skill, has attained a certain level of education, or has met certain job qualifications. These certificates or degrees serve as a symbol of what a person has achieved, allowing the labeling of that individual to be based on a recognized, sequential program of instruction.

Indeed, as these examples show, labeling theory can significantly impact a student's schooling. This is easily seen in the educational setting, as teachers and more powerful social groups within the school affix labels that are adopted by the larger school population and result in negative, wide repercussions.

Grade Inflation: When Is an A Really a C?

Consider a large-city newspaper publisher. Ten years ago, when culling résumés for an entry-level copywriter, they were well assured that if they selected a grad with a GPA of 3.7 or higher, they'd have someone with the writing skills to contribute to the workplace on day one. But over the last few years, they've noticed that A-level students don't have the competency evident in the past. More and more, they find themselves in the position of educating new hires in abilities that, in the past, had been mastered during their education.

This story illustrates a growing concern referred to as grade inflation—a term used to describe the observation that the correspondence between letter grades and the achievements they reflect has been declining over time. Put simply, what used to be considered C-level, or average, now often earns a student a B, or even an A.

Why is this happening? Research on this emerging issue is ongoing, so no one is quite sure yet. Some cite the alleged shift toward a culture that rewards effort instead of product, i.e., the amount of work a student puts in raises the grade, even if the resulting product is of poor quality. Another frequently cited contributor is the pressure many instructors feel to earn positive course evaluations from their students—records that can factor into teacher compensation, award of tenure, or the future career of a recent graduate teaching entry-level courses. The fact that these reviews are commonly posted online exacerbates this pressure.

Other studies don't agree that grade inflation exists at all. In any case, the issue is hotly debated, with many being called upon to conduct research to help us better understand and respond to this trend (National Public Radio 2004; Mansfield 2005).

Think It Over

- Which sociological theory best describes your view of education? Explain why.
- Based on what you know about symbolic interactionism and feminist theory, what do you think proponents of those theories see as the role of the school?

Try It

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glossary

credentialism:
the emphasis on certificates or degrees to show that a person has a certain skill, has attained a certain level of education, or has met certain job qualifications

labeling theory:
the idea that how people are labelled or classified influences the way they come to self-identify and behave; related to self-fulfilling prophecy

self-fulfilling prophecy:
an idea that becomes true when acted upon; the way that a person's beliefs can affect their behavior

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11.15: Introduction to Issues in Education

What you'll learn to do: identify and discuss historical and contemporary issues in education



As schools strive to fill a variety of roles in the lives of students, there are many issues and challenges beyond simply educating students, disseminating knowledge, and issuing credentials. Many students face myriad challenges including bullying, violence, the effects of declining funding, and other impediments to their education. In this section, you'll examine some of these modern issues and concerns.

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11.16: Issues in Education

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11.17: End-of-Chapter Material

Summary

1. Education is both formal and informal. Formal education occurs in schools under specially trained teachers, while informal education takes place primarily in the home, with parents as instructors. For much of human history, education was informal, especially before the beginning of writing and numbers. As societies became more complex economically and socially, schools began to develop, but they were usually restricted to relatively wealthy boys.
2. In the early 19th century in the United States, a movement for free, compulsory education began. Reasons for interest in such education included the perceived needs to unify the country, to "Americanize" immigrants, and to give members of the working class the skills, knowledge, and discipline they needed to be productive workers.
3. Sociological perspectives on education fall into the functionalist, conflict, and symbolic interactionist approaches discussed in earlier chapters. Functional theory stresses the functions education serves for society, including socialization, social placement, social integration, and social and cultural innovation. Conflict theory stresses that education perpetuates and reinforces existing social inequality for several reasons, including the use of tracking and inequality in schooling between rich and poor communities. Symbolic interactionism emphasizes the social interaction that's part of schooling and calls attention to the ways in which the treatment of students as smart or dull can affect how much they end up learning.
4. In the United States, social class, race and ethnicity, and gender all affect educational attainment. Poor people end up with less schooling than middle- and upper-class people, and African Americans and Latinos have lower educational attainment than whites and Asian Americans. Although women had less schooling than men in the past, today they are more likely to graduate from high school and to attend college.
5. Education in the United States has a significant impact on two areas. One is income: the higher the education, the higher the income. The second is attitudes: the higher the education, the greater the tolerance for nontraditional behaviors and viewpoints.
6. Several issues and problems affect education in the United States today. Many schools are poor and rundown and lack sufficient books and equipment. Many schools are also segregated by race and ethnicity. These twin problems make it difficult for students in these schools to receive a good education. Increasing interest in school choice has led to controversy over whether the government should provide aid to parents to send their children to private and parochial schools. Additional controversy surrounds the issue of single-sex schools for girls, which their advocates say promotes girls' learning, especially in math, science, and technology. Finally, school violence is an issue of continuing concern and received even more attention after the massacre at a high school in Littleton, Colorado. Despite this concern, the best evidence indicates that the vast majority of schools are very safe for their students, teachers, and other personnel.
7. At the level of higher education, students of color and those from low-income backgrounds are less likely to attend college at all, and if they do attend, they are less likely to graduate.

USING SOCIOLOGY

It is October, and you are now in your second year of teaching fifth graders in a poor urban neighborhood. You don't have enough textbooks for your 40 students, and the ones you do have are very much out of date. Worse yet, there is a leak in your classroom ceiling that seems to be getting worse every week, even though you asked that it be repaired, and a foul odor arose a few days ago from a nearby bathroom and also seems to be getting worse. You decide you have at least four choices: (a) quit your job immediately and look for another job; (b) stay through the end of the academic year and then quit, while keeping quiet about your concerns about the school; (c) complain to the principal and/or perhaps to school district officials; or (d) ask for an interview with the local newspaper to bring your school's problems to light. What do you decide to do? Explain your answer.

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

12: Planning for Instruction

"If you don't know where you're going, you could end up someplace else."

(Casey Stengel)

Casey Stengel, a much-admired baseball coach, was talking about baseball when he made this remark. But he could easily have been speaking of teaching as well. Almost by definition, education has purposes, goals, and objectives, and a central task of teaching is to know what these are and to transform the most general goals into specific objectives and tasks for students. Otherwise, as Casey Stengel said, students may end up "someplace else" that neither they, nor the teacher, nor anyone else intends. A lot of the clarification and specification of goals needs to happen before a cycle of instruction actually begins, but the benefits of planning happen throughout all phases of teaching. If students know precisely what they are supposed to learn, they can focus their attention and effort more effectively. If the teacher knows precisely what students are supposed to learn, then the teacher can make better use of class time and choose and design assessments of their learning that are more fair and valid. In the long run everyone benefits.

This chapter is therefore about **instructional planning**, the systematic selection of educational goals and objectives and their design for use in the classroom. We will divide this idea into four parts, and discuss them one at a time. First is the problem of selecting general goals to teach; where can a teacher find these, and what do they look like? Second is the problem of transforming goals into specific objectives, or statements concrete enough to guide daily activity in class; what will students actually *do* or *say* into order to learn what a teacher wants them to learn? Third is the problem of balancing and relating goals and objectives to each other; since we may want students to learn numerous goals, how can we combine or integrate them so that the overall classroom program does not become fragmented or biased? Fourth is the challenge of relating instructional goals to students' prior experiences and knowledge. We have discussed this challenge before from the perspective of learning theory (in Chapter 2), but in this chapter we look at it from the more practical perspective of curriculum planning.

12.1: Selecting General Learning Goals

12.2: Formulating Learning Objectives

12.3: Students as a Source of Instructional Goals

12.4: Enhancing Student Learning Through a Variety of Resources

12.5: Creating Bridges Among Curriculum Goals and Students' Prior Experiences

12.6: Planning for Instruction as well as for Learning

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12.1: Selecting General Learning Goals

At the most general or abstract level, the goals of education include important philosophical ideas like "developing individuals to their fullest potential" and "preparing students to be productive members of society". Few teachers would disagree with these ideas in principle, though they might disagree about their wording or about their relative importance. As a practical matter, however, teachers might have trouble translating such generalities into specific lesson plans or activities for the next day's class. What does it mean, concretely, to "develop an individual to his or her fullest potential"? Does it mean, for example, that a language arts teacher should ask students to write an essay about their personal interests, or does it mean that the teacher should help students learn to write as well as possible on any topic, even ones that are not of immediate interest? What exactly should a teacher do, from day to day, to "prepare students to be productive members of society" as well? Answers to questions like these are needed to plan instruction effectively. But the answers are not obvious simply by examining statements of general educational goals.

National and state learning standards

Some (but not all) of the work of transforming such general purposes into more precise teaching goals and even more precise objectives has been performed by broad US organizations that represent educators and other experts about particular subjects or types of teaching (Riley, 2002). The groups have proposed **national standards**, which are summaries of what students can reasonably be expected to learn at particular grade levels and in particular subjects areas. In the United States, in addition, all state governments create **state standards** that serve much the same purpose: they express what students in the state should (and hopefully can) learn at all grade levels and in all subjects. Examples of organizations that provide national standards are listed in Table 27, and examples of state standards are listed in Table 28 for one particular state, Ohio, in the area of language arts.

Table **12.1.1**: Organizations with statements of US educational standards

Subject	Organization
English and Language Arts	Council of Teachers of English American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages
Mathematics	National Council of Teachers of Mathematics
Physical Education and Health	National Association for Sport and Physical Education American Cancer Society
Science	National Academies of Science American Association for the Advancement of Science
Social Studies	National Council for the Social Studies Center for Civic Education National Council on Economic Education National Geographic Society National Center for History in the Schools
Technology	International Society for Technology in Education
Other Specialized Standards Statements:	
American Indian Content Standards	Center for Educational Technology in Indian America
Ethical Standards for School Counselors	American School Counselors Association
Information Literacy Standards	American Association of School Librarians
Business Education	National Business Education Association
Parent Education and Involvement	Parent-Teacher Association (PTA)
Source: <http://www.education-world.com/standards>, accessed December 5, 2006. Summaries of all of these standards, as well as access to the relevant web pages of the corresponding organizations, can be found at this website. Because standards are revised continually, and because of the dynamic nature of websites, the information may differ slightly from the above when you actually access it.	

Table **12.1.2**: Examples of state curriculum standards about language arts

Grade-level:	Classroom example:
Kindergarten-Grade 3: Read accurately high- frequency sight words.	Play a game: “How many words can you see around the classroom that you can read already?”
Grade 4-7: Infer word meaning through identification and analysis of analogies and other word relationships.	Have students keep a journal of unfamiliar words which they encounter and of what they think the words mean.
Grade 8-10: Recognize the importance and function of figurative language.	Have students write a brief essay explaining the meaning of a common figure of speech, and speculating on why it became common usage.
Grade 11-12: Verify meanings of words by the author’s use of definition, restatement, example, comparison, contrast and cause and effect.	Have students analyze an essay that includes unfamiliar terms using clues in the essay to determine their meaning.
Source for standards: Ohio Department of Education, 2003, p. 30-31	

Because they focus on grade levels and subject areas, general statements of educational standards tend to be a bit more specific than the broader philosophical goals we discussed above. As a rule of thumb, too, state standards tend to be more comprehensive than national standards, both in coverage of grade levels and of subjects. The difference reflects the broad responsibility of states in

the United States for all aspects of public education; national organizations, in contrast, usually assume responsibility only for a particular subject area or particular group of students. Either type of standards provides a first step, however, toward transforming the grandest purposes of schooling (like developing the individual or preparing for society) into practical classroom activities. But they provide a first step only. Most statements of standards do not make numerous or detailed suggestions of actual activities or tasks for students, though some might include brief classroom examples— enough to clarify the meaning of a standard, but not enough to plan an actual classroom program for extended periods of time. For these latter purposes, teachers rely on more the detailed documents, the ones often called *curriculum frameworks* and *curriculum guides*.

Curriculum frameworks and curriculum guides

The terms *curriculum framework* and *curriculum guide* sometimes are used almost interchangeably, but for convenience we will use them to refer to two distinct kinds of documents. The more general of the two is **curriculum framework**, which is a document that explains how content standards can or should be organized for a particular subject and at various grade levels. Sometimes this information is referred to as the **scope and sequence** for a curriculum. A curriculum framework document is like a standards statement in that it does not usually provide a lot of detailed suggestions for daily teaching. It differs from a standards statement, though, in that it analyzes each general standard in a curriculum into more specific skills that students need to learn, often a dozen or more per standard. The language or terminology of a framework statement also tends to be somewhat more concrete than a standards statement, in the sense that it is more likely to name behaviors of students— things that a teacher might see them do or hear them say. Sometimes, but not always, it may suggest ways for assessing whether students have in fact acquired each skill listed in the document. Table 29 shows a page from a curriculum framework published by the California State Board of Education (Curriculum Development and Supplemental Materials Committee, 1999). In this case the framework explains the state standards for learning to read, and the excerpt in Table 29 illustrates how one particular standard, that "students speak and write with command of English conventions appropriate to this grade level", is broken into nine more specific skills. Note that the excerpt names observable behaviors of students (what they do or say); we will discuss this feature again, more fully, in the next part of this chapter, because it is helpful in classroom planning. In spite of this feature, though, the framework document does not lay out detailed activity plans that a teacher could use on a daily basis. (Though even so, it is over 300 pages long!)

Table 12.1.3: An Excerpt from Reading/Language Arts Framework for California Public Schools

Comments:	**Written and oral English language conventions, third grade** Students write and speak with a command of standard English conventions appropriate to this grade level. *Sentence Structure* 1.1 Understand and be able to use complete and correct declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory sentences in writing and speaking. *Grammar* 1.2 Identify subjects and verbs that are in agreement and identify and use pronouns, adjectives, compound words, and articles correctly in writing and speaking. 1.3 Identify and use past, present, and future verb tenses properly in writing and speaking. 1.4 Identify and use subjects and verbs correctly in speaking and writing simple sentences. *Punctuation* 1.5 Punctuate dates, city and state, and titles of books correctly. 1.6 Use commas in dates, locations, and addresses and for items in a series. Capitalization 1.7Capitalize geographical names, holidays, historical periods, and special events correctly. *Spelling* 1.8 Spell correctly one-syllable words that have blends, contractions, compounds, orthographic patters, and common homophones. 1.9 Arrange words in alphabetical order.

Teachers' need for detailed activity suggestions is more likely to be met by a **curriculum guide**, a document devoted to graphic descriptions of activities that foster or encourage the specific skills explained in a curriculum framework document. The descriptions may mention or list curriculum goals served by an activity, but they are also likely to specify materials that a teacher needs, time requirements, requirements for grouping students, drawings or diagrams of key equipment or materials, and sometimes even suggestions for what to say to students at different points during the activity. In these ways the descriptions may resemble lesson plans.

Since classroom activities often support more than one specific skill, activities in a curriculum guide may be organized differently than they might be in a framework document. Instead of highlighting only one standard at a time, as the framework document might, activities may be grouped more loosely— for example, according to the dominant purpose or goal of an activity ("Activities that encourage the practice of math facts") or according to a dominant piece of equipment or material ("Ten activities with tin cans"). Table 30 shows a description of a kindergarten-level activity about "autumn leaves" that might appear in a curriculum guide. Note that the activity meets several educational objectives at once— tracing shapes, knowledge of leaves and of colors, descriptive language skill. Each of these skills may reflect a different curriculum standard.

Table 12.1.4: Activity: Autumn Leaves

Level: Kindergarten

Themes and Curriculum Connections: trees, autumn, color naming, color comparisons, size comparisons, functions of leaves, growth, the life cycle. See also Standards #xx-yy.

Best time to do it: Fall (October), or whenever leaves are available

Materials needed: (1) small paper (6 x 6 inches); (2) access to leaves; (3) white glue; (4) felt pens or colored pencils

What to do: Give one piece of the small paper to each child. Invite children to color the sheet so that the entire sheet is decorated. Invite children to choose one leaf. Place leaf under the colored (decorated) paper and trace the shape of the leaf lightly in pencil. Then invite children to cut out the colored paper in the shape that has been traced of the leaf.

Cautions: (1) Some children may need individual help with tracing or cutting. (2) Try to use leaves that are still somewhat pliable, because some very old leaves (dried out) may crumble when traced.

Things to talk about: Are some leaves bigger than others? Do they change shape as they grow, or only their size? How do leaves benefit trees? How many different colors can real leaves be?

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12.2: Formulating Learning Objectives

Given curriculum frameworks and guides like the ones just described, how do you choose and formulate actual learning objectives? Basically there are two approaches: either start by selecting content or topics that what you want students to know (the cognitive approach) or start with what you want students to do (the behavioral approach). In effect the cognitive approach moves from the general to the specific, and the behavioral approach does the opposite. Each approach has advocates, as well as inherent strengths and problems. In practice, teachers often combine or alternate between them in order to give students some of the advantages of each.

From general to specific: selecting content topics

The cognitive approach assumes that teachers normally have a number of long-term, general goals for students, and it begins with those goals. It also assumes that each student work toward long-term, general goals along different pathways and using different styles of learning. Because of these assumptions, it is necessary to name **indicators**, which are examples of specific behaviors by which students might show success at reaching a general learning goal. But it is neither desirable nor possible for a list of indicators to be complete— only for it to be representative (Gronlund, 2004). Consider this example from teaching middle-school biology. For this subject you might have a general goal like the following, with accompanying indicators:

Goal:

The student will understand the nature and purpose of photosynthesis.

Indicators:

1. explains the purpose of photosynthesis and steps in the process
2. diagrams steps in the chemical process
3. describes how plant photosynthesis affects the animal world
4. writes a plan for how to test leaves for presence of photosynthesis
5. makes an oral presentation and explains how the experiment was conducted

Using a strictly cognitive approach to planning, therefore, a teacher's job has two parts. First she must identify, find, or choose a manageable number of general goals— perhaps just a half dozen or so. (Sometimes these can be taken or adapted from a curriculum framework document such as discussed earlier.) Then the teacher must think of a handful of specific examples or behavioral indicators for each goal— just a half dozen or so of these as well. The behavioral indicators clarify the meaning of the general goal, but are not meant to be the only way that students might show success at learning. Then, at last, thoughtful planning for individual lessons or activities can begin. This approach works especially well for learning goals that are relatively long-term— goals that take many lessons, days, or weeks to reach. During such long periods of teaching, it is impossible to specify the exact, detailed behaviors that every student can or should display to prove that he or she has reached a general goal. It is possible, however, to specify general directions toward which all students should focus their learning and to explain the nature of the goals with a sample of well-chosen indicators or examples (Popham, 2002).

The cognitive, general-to-specific approach is reasonable on the face of it, and in fact probably describes how many teachers think about their instructional planning. But critics have argued that indicators used as examples may not in fact clarify the general goal enough; students therefore end up unexpectedly— as Casey Stengel said at the start of this chapter— "someplace else". Given the general goal of understanding photosynthesis described above, for example, how are we to know whether the five indicators that are listed really allow a teacher to grasp the full meaning of the goal? Put differently, how *else* might a student show understanding of photosynthesis, and how is a teacher to know that a student's achievement is s a legitimate display of understanding? To some educators, grasping the meaning of goals from indicators is not as obvious as it should be, and in any case is prone to misunderstanding. The solution, they say, is not to start planning with general goals, but with specific behaviors that identify students' success.

From specific to general: behavioral objectives

Compared to the cognitive approach, the behavioral approach to instructional planning reverses the steps in planning. Instead of starting with general goal statements accompanied by indicator examples, it starts with the identification of specific behaviors—

concrete actions or words— that students should perform or display as a result of instruction (Mager, 2005). Collectively, the specific behaviors may describe a more general educational goal, but unlike the indicators used in the cognitive approach, they are not a mere sampling of the possible specific outcomes. Instead they represent all the intended specific outcomes. Consider this sampling of behavioral objectives:

Objectives: Learning to use in-line roller blade skates (beginning level)

1. Student ties boots on correctly.
2. Student puts on safety gear correctly, including helmet, knee and elbow pads.
3. Student skates 15 meters on level ground without falling.
4. Student stops on demand within a three meter distance, without falling.

The objectives listed are not merely a representative sample of how students can demonstrate success with roller-blading. Instead they are behaviors that every student should acquire in order to meet the goal of using roller blades as a beginner. There simply are no other ways to display learning of this goal; getting 100 per cent on a written test about roller blading, for example, would not qualify as success with this goal, though it might show success at some other goal, such as verbal knowledge about roller blading. Even adding other skating behaviors (like "Student skates backwards" or "Student skates in circles") might not qualify as success with this particular goal, because it could reasonably be argued that the additional skating behaviors are about skating at an advanced level, not a beginning level.

In the most commonly used version of this approach, originated by Robert Mager (1962, 2005), a good behavioral objective should have three features. First, it should specify a behavior that can in fact be observed. In practice this usually means identifying something that a student does or says, not something a student thinks or feels. Compare the following examples; the one on the left names a behavior to be performed, but the one on the right names a thinking process that cannot, in principle, be seen:

Behavioral objective	***Not* behavioral object**
The student will make a list of animal species that live in the water but breathe air and a separate list of species that live in the water but do not require air to breathe.	The student will understand the difference between fish and mammals that live in the water,

The second feature of a good behavioral objective is that it describes conditions of performance of the behavior. What are the special circumstances to be provided when the student performs the objective? Consider these two examples:

Special condition of performance *is* specified	**A special condition of performance is not**
Given a list of 50 species, the student will circle those that live in water but breathe air and underline thosethat live in water but do not breathe air.	After three days of instruction, the student will Identify species that live in water but breathe air, as well as species that live in water but do not breathe air.

The objective on the left names a special condition of performance— that the student will be given a particular kind of list to work from— which is not part of the instruction itself. The objective on the right appears to name a condition— "three days of instruction". But the condition really describes what the teacher will do (she will instruct), not something specific to students' performance.

The third feature of a good behavioral objective is that it specifies a minimum level or degree of acceptable performance. Consider these two examples:

Specifies minimum level	**Does *not* specify minimum level**
Given a list of 50 species, the student will circle all of those that live in water but breathe air and underline all of those that live in water but do not breathe air. The student will do so within fifteen minutes.	The student will circle names of species that live in water but breathe air and underline those that live in water but do not breathe air.

The objective on the left specifies a level of performance— 100 per cent accuracy within 15 minutes. The objective on the right leaves this information out (and incidentally it also omits the condition of performance mentioned on the left).

Behavioral objectives have obvious advantages because of their clarity and precision. They seem especially well suited for learning that by their nature they can be spelled out explicitly and fully, such as when a student is learning to drive a car, to use safety equipment in a science laboratory, or install and run a particular computer program. Most of these goals, as it happens, also tend to have relatively short learning cycles, meaning that they can be learned as a result of just one lesson or activity, or of just a short series of them at most. Such goals tend not to include the larger, more abstract goals of education. In practice, both kinds of goals— the general and the specific- form a large part of education at all grade levels.

Finding the best in both approaches

When it comes to teaching and learning the large or major goals, then, behavioral objectives can seem unwieldy. How, a teacher might ask, can you spell out all of the behaviors involved in a general goal like *becoming a good citizen*? How could you name in advance the numerous conditions under which good citizenship might be displayed, or the minimum acceptable level of good citizenship expected in each condition? Specifying these features seems impractical at best, and at times even undesirable ethically or philosophically. (Would we really want any students to become "minimum citizens"?) Because of these considerations, many teachers find it sensible to compromise between the cognitive and behavioral approaches. Here are some features that are often part of a compromise:

- When planning, think about BOTH long-term, general goals AND short-term, immediate objectives. A thorough, balanced look at most school curricula shows that they are concerned with the general as well as the specific. In teaching elementary math, for example, you may want students to learn general problem solving strategies (a general goal), but you may also want them to learn specific math facts (a specific objective). In teaching Shakespeare's plays in high school, you may want students to be able to compare the plays critically (a general goal), but doing so may require that they learn details about the characters and plots of the major plays (a specific objective). Since general goals usually take longer to reach than specific objectives, instructional planning has to include both time frames.
- Plan for what students do, not what the teacher does. This idea may seem obvious, but it is easy to overlook it when devising lesson plans. Consider that example again about teaching Shakespeare. If you want students to learn the details about Shakespeare's plays, it is tempting to plan objectives like "Summarize the plot of each play to students", or "Write and hand out to students an outline of the plays". Unfortunately these objectives describe only what the teacher does, and makes the assumption (often unwarranted) that students will remember what the teacher says or puts in writing for them. A better version of the same objective should focus on the actions of students, not of teachers— for example, "Students will write a summary, from memory, of each of the major plays of Shakespeare". This version focuses on what students do instead of what the teacher does. (Of course you may still have to devise activities that help students to reach the objective, such as providing guided practice in writing summaries of plays.)
- To insure diversity of goals and objectives when planning, consider organizing goals and objectives by using a systematic classification scheme of educational objectives. At the beginning of this section we stated that there is a need, when devising goals and objectives, for both the specific and the general. Actually a more accurate statement is that there is a need for goals and objectives that refer to a variety of cognitive processes and that have varying degrees of specificity or generality. One widely used classification scheme that does so, for example, is one proposed 50 years ago by Benjamin Bloom (1956) and revised recently by his associates (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001). We describe this system, called a taxonomy of objectives, in the next section.

Taxonomies of Educational Objectives

When educators have proposed taxonomies of educational objectives, they have tended to focus on one of three areas or domains of psychological functioning: either students' cognition (thought), students' feelings and emotions (affect), or students' physical skills (psychomotor abilities). Of these three areas, they have tended to focus the most attention on cognition. The taxonomy originated by Benjamin Bloom, for example, deals entirely with cognitive outcomes of instruction.

Bloom's Taxonomy

In its original form, **Bloom's Taxonomy** of educational objectives referred to forms of cognition or thinking, which were divided into the six levels (Bloom, et al., 1956). Table 31 summarizes the levels, and offers two kinds of examples— simple ones based on the children's story, *Goldilocks and the Three Bears*, and complex ones more typical of goals and objectives used in classrooms. The levels form a loose hierarchy from simple to complex thinking, at least when applied to some subjects and topics. When planning for these subjects it can therefore be helpful not only for insuring diversity among learning objectives, but also for sequencing materials. In learning about geography, for example, it may sometimes make sense to begin with information about specific places or societies (knowledge and comprehension), and work gradually toward comparisons and assessments among the places or societies (analysis and synthesis).

Table **12.2.1**: Bloom's Taxonomy of Objectives: cognitive domain

Type or level of learning	Simple example	Classroom example
Knowledge: recall of information, whether it is simple or complex in nature	"Name three things that Goldilocks did in the house of the three bears."	"List all of the planets of the solar system." "State five key features of life in the middle ages."
Comprehension: grasping the meaning of information, by interpreting it or translating it from one form to another	"Explain why Goldilocks preferred the little bear's chair."	"Convert the following arithmetic word problem to a mathematical equation." "Describe how plants contribute to the welfare of animal life."
Application: using information in new, concrete situations	"Predict some of the things Goldilocks might have used if she had entered your house."	"Illustrate how positive reinforcement might affect the behavior of a pet dog." "Use examples from the plot to illustrate the theme of novel."
Analysis: breaking information into its components to understand its structure	"Select the part of *Goldilocks and the Three Bears* where you think Goldilocks felt most comfortable."	"Compare the behavior of domestic dogs with the behavior of wolves." "Diagram the effects of weather patterns on plant metabolism."
Synthesis: putting parts of information together into a coherent whole	"Tell how the story would have been different if it had been three fishes."	"Design an experiment to test the effects of gravity on root growth." "Write an account of how humans would be different if life had originated on Mars instead of Earth."
Evaluation: judging the value of information for a particular purpose	"Justify this statement: *Goldilocks was a bad girl.*"	"Appraise the relevance of the novel for modern life." "Assess the value of information processing theory for planning instruction."

Such a sequence does not work well, however, for all possible topics or subjects. To learn certain topics in mathematics, for example, students may sometimes need to start with general ideas (like "What does it mean to multiply?") than with specific facts (like "How much is 4 x 6?") (Egan, 2005). At other times, though, the reverse sequence may be preferable. Whatever the case, a taxonomy of cognitive objectives, like Bloom's, can help to remind teachers to set a variety of objectives and to avoid relying excessively on just one level, such as simple recall of factual knowledge (Notar, et al., 2004).

Bloom's Taxonomy revised

A few years ago two of Benjamin Bloom's original colleagues, Linda Anderson and David Krathwohl, revised his taxonomy so as to clarify its terms and to make it more complete (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001; Marzano, 2006). The resulting categories are summarized and compared to the original categories in Table 32. As the chart shows, several categories of objectives have been renamed and a second dimension added that describes the kind of thinking or cognitive processing that may occur. The result is a

much richer taxonomy than before, since every level of the objectives can now take four different forms. *Remembering*, for example, can refer to four different kinds of memory: memory for facts, for concepts, for procedures, or for metacognitive knowledge. Table 12.2.2 gives examples of each of these kinds of memory.

Table 12.2.2 : Bloom's Taxonomy of cognitive objectives—revised

Original term from Bloom's Taxonomy (1956)	**Revised term emphasizing cognitive processing (2001)**	**A new dimension added: types of knowledge learned (2001)**	**Example of cognitive process *remembering* combined with possible *types* of knowledge**
Knowledge	Remembering	• factual knowledge • conceptual knowledge • procedural knowledge • metacognitive knowledge	**Memory for facts:** *recalling the names of each part of a living cell*
Comprehension	Understanding		**Memory for concepts:** *recalling the functions of each part of a living cell*
Application	Applying		**Memory for procedures:** *recalling how to view a cell under a microscope*
Analysis	Analyzing		**Memory for metacognition:** recalling not the names of the parts, but a *technique* for remembering the names of the parts of a living cell
Evaluation	Evaluating		
Synthesis	Creating		

Caption: The revision to Bloom's Taxonomy distinguishes between cognitive processes (left-hand column in the table) and types of knowledge learned (right-hand column). The original version has terms similar to the cognitive processing terms in the revised version. According to the revised version, any type of knowledge (from the right-hand column) can, in principle, occur with any type of cognitive processing (left-hand column).

Taxonomies of affective objectives and psychomotor objectives

Although taxonomies related to *affect*, or the feelings and emotions of students, are used less commonly than cognitive taxonomies for planning instruction, various educators have constructed them. One of the most widely known was also published by colleagues of Benjamin Bloom and classifies affect according to how committed a student feels toward what he is learning (Krathwohl, Bloom, & Masia, 1964/1999). Table 33 summarizes the categories and gives brief examples. The lowest level, called *receiving*, simply involves willingness to experience new knowledge or activities. Higher levels involve embracing or adopting experiences in ways that are increasingly organized and that represent increasingly stable forms of commitment.

Table 12.2.3 : Taxonomies of objectives: affective domain and psychomotor domain

Affective domain		Psychomotor domain	
Receiving	Willingness to attend to particular experience	Imitation	Repeating a simple action that has been demonstrated
Responding	Willingness to participate actively in an experience	Manipulation	Practice of an action that has been imitated but only learned partially
Valuing	Perception of experience as worthwhile	Precision	Quick, smooth execution of an action that has been practiced
Organization	Coordination of valued experiences into partially coherent wholes	Articulation	Execution of an action not only with precision, but also with modifications appropriate to new circumstances
Characterization by a value complex	Coordination of valued experiences and of organized sets of experiences into a single comprehensive value hierarchy	Naturalization	Incorporation of an action into the motor repertoire, along with experimentation with new motor actions

Taxonomies related to abilities and skills that are physical, or psychomotor, have also been used less widely than affective taxonomies, with the notable exception of one area of teaching where they are obviously relevant: physical education. As you might expect, taxonomic categories of motor skills extend from simple, brief actions to complex, extended action sequences that combine simpler, previously learned skills smoothly and automatically (Harrow, 1972; Simpson, 1972). One such classification scheme is shown in Table 33. An example of a very basic psychomotor skill might be imitating the action of throwing a ball when modeled by someone else; an example of the latter might be performing a 10 minute gymnastics routine which the student has devised for himself or herself. Note, though, that many examples of psychomotor skills also exist outside the realm of physical education. In a science course, for example, a student might need to learn to operate laboratory equipment that requires using delicate, fine movements. In art classes, students might learn to draw, and in music they might learn to play an instrument (both are partly motor skills). Most first graders are challenged by the motor skills of learning to write. For students with certain physical disabilities, furthermore, motor skill development is an important priority for the student's entire education.

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12.3: Students as a Source of Instructional Goals

So far our discussion of instructional planning has described goals and objectives as if they are selected primarily by educators and teachers, and not by students themselves. The assumption may be correct in many cases, but there are problems with it. One problem is that choosing goals and objectives *for* students, rather than *by* students, places a major burden on everyone involved in education— curriculum writers, teachers, and students. The curriculum writers have to make sure that they specify standards, goals, and objectives that are truly important for students to learn (what if it really does *not* matter, for example, whether a science student learns about the periodic table of the elements?). Teachers have to make sure that students actually become motivated to learn the specified goals and objectives, even if the students are not motivated initially. Students have to master pre-set goals and objectives even if they might not have chosen them personally. Some critics of education have argued that these requirements can be serious impediments to learning (Kohn, 2004). The problems are widespread and especially noticeable in two forms of teaching. One is with the youngest students, who may especially lack patience with an educational agenda set by others (Kohn, 1999; Seitz, 2006). The other is with culturally diverse classrooms, where students and their families may hold a variety of legitimate, but unconventional expectations about what they should learn (J. Banks & C. Banks, 2005).

In response to concerns like these, some educators advocate planning instruction around goals set or expressed either by students themselves or by the cultures or communities with which students identify. Their suggestions vary in detail, but can be organized into two broad categories: (l) emergent curriculum and (2) multicultural and anti-bias curriculum.

Emergent curriculum

An **emergent curriculum** is one that explicitly builds on interests expressed by students, rather than goals set by curriculum writers, curriculum documents, or teachers. As you might suspect, therefore, instructional planning for an emergent curriculum does not have the same meaning that the term has had in the chapter up to now. Instead, since an emergent curriculum by definition unfolds spontaneously and flexibly, students' interests may be predictable, but usually not very far in advance (Peterson, 2002). Suppose, for example, that a first-grade teacher plans a unit around Halloween, and that as one of the activities for this unit she reads a book about Halloween. In listening to the book, however, the students turn out to be less interested in its Halloween content than in the fact that one of the illustrations in the book shows a picture of a full moon partially hidden by clouds. They begin asking about the moon: why it is full sometimes but not other times, why it rises in different places each month, and whether the moon really moves behind clouds or whether the clouds actually do the moving. The teacher encourages their questions and their interest in moon astronomy. Over the next days or weeks, she arranges further activities and experiences to encourage students' interest: she sets aside her original plans about Halloween and finds books about the moon and about how the solar system works. She invites a local amateur astronomer to visit the group and talk about his observations of the moon. Several children build models of the moon out of paper mache. Some find books describing trips of the space shuttles to the moon. Others make a large mural depicting a moonscape. And so on; the original goals about Halloween are not so much rejected, as set aside or forgotten in favor of something more immediately interesting and motivating.

While these activities could in principle happen because of recommendations from a curriculum document, the key point about emergent curriculum is that they happen for a very different reason: these activities happen and the goals emerge because the children *want* them. A teacher's challenge is therefore not planning activities that match predetermined curriculum goals or objectives, but to respond flexibly and sensitively as students' interests become known and explicit. Teachers' responsiveness is facilitated by two practices that are especially prominent when a teacher adopts an emergent approach to curriculum. The first is careful, continuous *observation of students*. The teacher watches and listens, and may keep informal written records of students' comments and activities. The information allows her to respond more effectively to the interests they express, and at the same time it provides a type of assessment of students' progress— information about what the students are actually learning.

A second strategy that facilitates teachers' success is *curriculum webbing*, a process of brainstorming connections among initiatives suggested by students and ideas suggested by the teacher. In some cases webs can be created jointly with students by brainstorming with them about where their current interests may lead. In other cases they can be created independently by the teacher's own reflections. In still others, when a classroom has more than one adult responsible for it, they can be created jointly with fellow teachers or teacher assistants. The latter approach works especially well in preschool, kindergartens, or special education classrooms, which often have more than one adult responsible for the class (Vartuli & Rohs, 2006).

To some, emergent curriculum may seem like a formula for curriculum and management disasters. But the approach has often proved quite successful, particularly in early childhood education and the earliest grade levels of elementary school (Seitz, 2006; Wurm, 2005). Something akin to emergent curriculum is quite possible, in principle, even with older students. In Chapter 8, for example, we described a high school program in which students began with problems and experiences that were personally relevant, and discussed the problems with classmates to formulate research problems which they then studied more formally and systematically (Hawkins, 2006). In essence this strategy created an emergent curriculum analogous to the ones described above for young children. What the high school students studied was not predetermined, but emerged from their own expressed interests.

Multicultural and anti-bias education

A *culture* is an all-encompassing set of values, beliefs, practices and customs of a group or community— its total way of life. Cultures may be shared widely, even by much if not all of an entire nation, or they may be shared by relatively few, such as a small community within a large city. Sometimes the term *culture* is even applied to the way of life of an individual family or of a specialized group in society; some might argue, for example, that there is a culture of schooling shared by teachers, though not necessarily by all students.

Because culture by definition touches on all aspects of living, it is likely to affect students' perspectives about school, their ways of learning and their motivations to learn. The differences go beyond obvious differences in holidays, language, or food preferences. In some cultures, for example, individuals keep good eye contact with someone to whom they are speaking, and expect the same from others. In other cultures, such behavior is considered intrusive or overly aggressive, and avoiding eye contact while speaking is considered more respectful. Or another example: in some cultures it is expected that individuals will be punctual (or on time), whereas in others punctuality is considered overly compulsive, and a more casual approach to time is the norm. Students regularly bring differences like these to school, where they combine with expectations from teachers and other school staff, and contribute indirectly to differences in achievement and satisfaction among students.

To be fully effective, therefore, instructional planning has to take into account the diversity in students' cultural backgrounds, whether the differences are observable or subtle. Planning also has to work deliberately to reduce the social biases and prejudices that sometimes develop about cultural differences. **Multicultural education** and **anti-bias education** are two terms referring to these purposes. Their meanings often overlap significantly, depending on the context or on who is using the terms. Generally, though, the first term— multicultural education- has somewhat more to do with understanding the differences among cultures. The latter term— anti-bias education —has more to do with overcoming social prejudices and biases resulting from cultural differences. For convenience in this chapter, we will use the single term *multicultural education* to refer to both understanding differences and overcoming prejudices.

Fully effective multicultural education has several features. The most obvious and familiar one is **content integration**: the curriculum uses examples and information from different cultures to illustrate various concepts or ideas already contained in the curriculum (Vavrus, 2002). In studying holidays, for example, an elementary- school teacher includes activities and information about Kwanzaa as well as Christmas, Hanukkah, or other holidays happening at about the same time. In studying the US Civil War, another example, a middle-years teacher includes material written from the perspective of African-American slaves and Southern landowners. In teaching Language arts, students learn basic vocabulary of any non-English languages spoken by some members of the class.

But there is more to multicultural education than integrating content from diverse cultures. Among other features, it also requires an **equity pedagogy**, which is an effort to allow or even encourage, a variety of learning styles— styles at which students may have become skillful because of their cultural backgrounds (Crow, 2005; C. Banks & J. Banks, 1995). In elementary language arts, for example, there may be more than one "best" way to tell a story. Should a student necessarily have to tell it alone and standing in front of the whole class, or might the student tell it jointly with a friend or in a smaller group? In learning to write a story, is legitimate variety also possible there? Should a written story necessarily begin with a topic sentence that announces what the story is about, or can it save a statement of topic for the ending or even it leave it out altogether in order to stimulate readers to think? The best choice is related in part to the nature and purpose of the story, of course, but partly also to differences in cultural expectations about story telling. Choosing a story form also points toward another feature of multicultural education, the **knowledge construction process**, which is the unstated, unconscious process by which a cultural group creates knowledge or information. The popular media, for example, often portray Hispanic- Americans in ways that are stereotypical, either subtly or

blatantly (Lester & Ross, 2003). A fully multicultural curriculum finds way to call these images to the attention of students and to engage them in thinking about how and why the images oversimplify reality.

Yet there is even more to a fully multicultural education. In addition to content integration, equity pedagogy, and knowledge construction, it fosters **prejudice reduction**, or activities, discussions and readings that identify students' negative evaluations of cultural groups (Jacobson, 2003; J. Banks & C. Banks, 2004). The activities and discussions can of course take a somewhat philosophical approach— examining how students feel in general, what experiences they remember having involving prejudice, and the like. But the activities and discussions can also take a more indirect and subtle form, as when a teacher periodically speaks in a student's native language as a public sign of respect for the student. Gestures and discussions like these are especially effective if they contribute to the fifth element of multicultural education, **empowering the school and social structure**, in which all teachers and staff members find ways to convey respect for cultural differences, including even during extra-curricular and sports activities. A sports team or a debate club should not be limited to students from one cultural background and exclude those from another— or more subtly, accept everyone but give the more desirable roles only to individuals with particular social backgrounds. To the extent that cultural respect and inclusion are school-wide, teaching and learning both become easier and more successful, and instructional planning in particular becomes more relevant to students' needs.

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12.4: Enhancing Student Learning Through a Variety of Resources

Whether instructional goals originate from curriculum documents, students' expressed interests, or a mixture of both, students are more likely to achieve the goals if teachers draw on a wide variety of resources. As a practical matter, this means looking for materials and experiences that supplement— or occasionally even replace— the most traditional forms of information, such as textbooks. Precisely what resources to use depend on factors unique to each class, school, or community, but they might include one or more of the following.

The Internet as a learning tool

The Internet has become a fixture of modern society, and it offers a huge variety of information on virtually any topic, including any school subject and any possible grade level from kindergarten through university. At the time of writing this book (2007), about two-thirds of all households in the United States and Canada have at least some sort of Internet access, and virtually 100 per cent of public and private schools have some access (Parsad & Jones, 2006). These circumstances make the Internet a potential major resource for teachers and students— a virtual library many times larger than even the largest physical (or "bricks and mortar") libraries in the world.

But the vastness of the Internet is not entirely a blessing. A major problem is that the sheer volume of information available, which can sometimes make searching for a specific topic, article, or document overwhelming and inefficient. Search engines (teachers should be aware of the privacy policies of various search engines as most will track the behavior of students which can conflict with school policies) can help with this problem, though they do not solve it completely. When searching the term *photosynthesis*, for example, Google and other similar search engines return over six *million* web pages that discuss or refer this topic in some way! If a teacher is planning a unit about photosynthesis, or if a student is writing an essay about it, which of these web pages will prove most helpful? Choosing among web pages is a new, somewhat specialized form of *computer literacy*, one that can be learned partially by trial-and-error online, but that also benefits from assistance by a teacher or by more experienced peers (Ragains, 2006).

Another problem with the Internet is inequity of access. Even though, as we mentioned above, virtually all schools now have access of some sort, the access is distributed quite unevenly across communities and income groups (Skinner, Biscope, & Poland, 2003; Parsad & Jones, 2005). For one thing, the large majority of Web pages are posted in English, and this fact naturally poses a challenge for any students who still learning to read or write English. For another, schools vary widely in how much Internet service they can provide. In general, well-to-do schools and those in cities provide more access than those located in less well-off areas or in rural areas— though there are many exceptions. A richly endowed school might have an Internet connection in every classroom as well as multiple connections in a school library or in specialized computer rooms. Students as well as faculty would be able to use these facilities, and one or more teachers might have special training in Internet research to help when problems arise. At the other extreme, a school might have only a few Internet connections for the entire school, or even just one, located in a central place like the library or the school office. Usage by students would consequently be limited, and teachers would essentially teach themselves how to search the Internet and how to troubleshoot technical problems when they occur.

In spite of these problems, the Internet has considerable potential for enhancing students' learning, precisely *because* of its flexibility and near universality. Some of the best recent successes involve the creation of a **learning commons** (sometimes also called an *information commons* or *teaching commons*), a combination of a website and an actual, physical place in a school or library that brings together information, students and teachers so that both (though perhaps especially students) can learn (Haas & Robertson, 2004; Beagle, 2006). A learning commons includes an online library catalogue and online Internet service, but it also offers other services: online information and advice about study skills, for example, as well as access to peer tutors and support groups, either online or in person, that can help with difficulties about writing or doing assignments. As you might suspect, using a learning commons effectively sometimes requires reorganizing certain features of teaching and learning, chiefly toward greater explicit collaboration among students and teachers.

Using local experts and field trips

Two other ways of enhancing learning include bringing local experts to the classroom and taking the class on field trips outside the classroom. Both of these strategies help to make learning more vivid, as well as more relevant to the particular community and lives that students lead.

Local experts

Classroom visits by persons with key experience can often add a lot to many curriculum subjects and topics. In one tenth grade science class studying environmental issues, for example, the teacher invited the city forester, the person responsible for the health of trees planted in city parks and along city boulevards. The forester had special knowledge of the stresses on trees in urban environments, and he was able to explain and give examples of particular problems that had occurred and their solutions. In a second grade class with many Hispanic students, on the other hand, a teacher aide was able to serve as an expert visitor by describing her memories of childhood in a Spanish-speaking community in New Mexico. Later she also recruited an older Hispanic friend and relative to the class to describe their experiences growing up in Central America. She also acted as their English-Spanish interpreter. In all of these examples, the experts made the learning more real and immediate. Their presence counteracted the tendency to equate school learning with book-based knowledge— a common hazard when basing instructional planning primarily on curriculum documents.

Field trips

In addition to bringing the world to the classroom by inviting visitors, teachers can do the converse, they can take the classroom to the world by leading students on field trips. Such trips are not confined to any particular grade level. In the early grades of elementary school, for example, one common goal of the curriculum is to learn about community helpers— the police, firefighters, store owners, and others who make a community safe and livable. As indicated already, representatives of these groups can visit the class and tell about their work. But the class can also visit the places which these people tell about: a police station, a fire hall, a local retail store, and the like. Such trips offer a more complete picture of the context in which community professionals work than is possible simply from hearing and reading about it. The benefits are possible for older students as well. In learning about water-borne diseases as part of a biology class, for example, one middle-school class took a field trip to the local water-treatment facility, where staff members explained where the town's water came from and how the water was cleaned to become drinkable at any tap.

From a teacher's point of view, of course, there are certain risks about arranging classroom visitors or field trips. One is that a visitor may turn out not to communicate well with children or young people— he or she may assume too much prior knowledge, for example, or veer off the chosen topic. Another problem is that field trips often require additional funds (for admission fees or to pay for a bus), and require support from additional adults— often parents— to supervise students outside of school. Some of these problems are by-passed by arranging "virtual" field trips and hearing from "virtual" visitors: using computer software or media to show students places and activities which they cannot visit in person (Clark, 2006). Generally, though, a computer-based experience cannot compare with a real trip or visitor in vividness, and the benefits of actual, in-person field trips or visitors often therefore outweigh the challenges of arranging them.

Service learning

Still another way to enhance learning is to incorporate **service learning**, which is activity that combines real community service with analysis and reflection on the significance of the service (Johnson & O'Grady, 2006; Thomsen, 2006). Picking up trash in an urban stream bed, for example, is a community service which students can perform. To transform this service into service *learning*, students also need to note and reflect on the trash that they find; talk and write about the ecological environment of the stream and of the community; and even make recommendations for improving the local environment. To accomplish these objectives, service learning activities should not be sporadic, nor used as a punishment— as when a teacher or principal assigns trash pick-up as an after- school detention activity.

Under good conditions, service learning enhances instructional plans both morally and intellectually. Morally, it places students in the role of *creating* good for the community, and counteracts students' perception that being "good" simply means complying with teachers' or parents' rules passively. Intellectually, service learning places social and community issues in a vivid, lived context. The environment, economic inequality, or race relations, for example, are no longer just ideas that people merely talk about, but problems that people actually act upon (Dicklitch, 2005).

As you might suspect, though, making service learning successful is not automatic. For one thing, service learning lends itself well only to certain curriculum areas (for example, community studies or social studies). For another, some students may initially resist service learning, wondering whether it benefits them personally as students (Jones, Gilbride-Brown, & Gasiorski, 2005). Also, some service projects may inadvertently be invented only to benefit students, without adequate consultation or advice from

community members. Bringing food hampers to low-income families may seem like a good idea to middle-class students or instructors, but some families may perceive this action less as a benefit than as an act of charity which they therefore resent. But none of these problems are insurmountable. Evaluations generally find that service learning, when done well, increases students' sense of moral empowerment as well as their knowledge of social issues (Buchanan, Baldwin, & Rudisill, 2002). Like many other educational practices, insuring success with service learning requires doing it well.

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12.5: Creating Bridges Among Curriculum Goals and Students' Prior Experiences

To succeed, then, instructional plans do require a variety of resources, like the ones discussed in the previous section. But they also require more: they need to connect with students' prior experiences and knowledge. Sometimes the connections can develop as a result of using the Internet, taking field trips, or engaging in service learning, particularly if students are already familiar with these activities and places. More often than not, though, teachers need to find additional ways to connect curriculum with students' experiences— ways that fit more thoroughly and continuously into the daily work of a class. Fortunately, such techniques are readily at hand; they simply require the teacher to develop a habit of looking for opportunities to use them. Among the possibilities are four that deserve special mention: (1) *modeling* behavior and *modeling representations* of ideas, (2) *activating prior knowledge* already familiar to students, (3) *anticipating preconceptions* held by students, and (4) providing *guided and independent practice*, including its most traditional form, *homework*.

Modeling

The term *modeling* can mean either a demonstration of a desired behavior or a representation of an important theory, idea, or object. Each of these meanings can link curriculum goals with students' prior knowledge and experience.

Modeling as a demonstration

In the first meaning, **modeling** refers to performing or demonstrating a desired new behavior or skill, as when a teacher or classmate demonstrates polite behaviors or the correct solution to a math problem. In this case we say that the teacher or classmate *models* the desired behavior, either deliberately or in the course of other ongoing activity. Students observe the modeled behavior and (hopefully) imitate it themselves. Research repeatedly shows that modeling desired behaviors is an effective way to learn new behaviors, especially when the model is perceived as important (like the teacher), similar to the learner (like a student's best friend), or has a warm, positive relationship with the learner (like the teacher or the student's friend) (Bandura, 2002; Gibson, 2004). Modeling in this sense is sometimes also called *observational learning*. It has many of the same properties as the classic operant conditioning discussed in Chapter 2, except that reinforcement during observational learning is witnessed in others rather than experienced by the learner directly. Watching others being reinforced is sometimes called *vicarious reinforcement*. The idea is that if, for example, a student observes a classmate who behaves politely with the teacher and then sees that classmate receive praise for the behavior (vicarious reinforcement), the student is more likely to imitate the polite behavior that he saw. As in classic operant conditioning, furthermore, if the student observes that politeness by classmates is ignored (extinction or no reinforcement), then the student is much less likely to imitate the politeness. Worse yet, if the student observes that negative behaviors in others lead to positive consequences (like attention from peers), then the student may imitate the negative behaviors (Rebellon, 2006). Cursing and swearing, and even bullying or vandalism, can be reinforced vicariously, just as can more desired behaviors.

Modeling— in this first sense of a demonstration— connects instructional goals to students' experiences by presenting real, vivid examples of behaviors or skills in a way that a student can practice directly, rather than merely talk about. There is often little need, when imitating a model, to translate ideas or instructions from verbal form into action. For students struggling with language and literacy, in particular, this feature can be a real advantage.

Modeling— as simplified representation

In a second meaning of modeling, a **model** is a simplified representation of a phenomenon that incorporates the important properties of the phenomenon. Models in this sense may sometimes be quite tangible, direct copies of reality; when I was in fourth grade growing up in California, for example, we made scale models of the Spanish missions as part of our social studies lessons about California history. But models can also be imaginary, though still based on familiar elements. In a science curriculum, for example, the behavior of gas molecules under pressure can be modeled by imagining the molecules as ping pong balls flying about and colliding in an empty room. Reducing the space available to the gas by making the room smaller, causes the ping pong balls to collide more frequently and vigorously, and thereby increases the pressure on the walls of the room. Increasing the space has the opposite effect. Creating an actual room full of ping pong balls may be impractical, of course, but the model can still be imagined.

Modeling in this second sense is not about altering students' behavior, but about increasing their understanding of a newly learned idea, theory, or phenomenon. The model itself uses objects or events that are already familiar to students— simple balls and their behavior when colliding— and in this way supports students' learning of new, unfamiliar material. Not every new concept or idea

lends itself to such modeling, but many do: students can create models of unfamiliar animals, for example, or of medieval castles, or of ecological systems. Two-dimensional models— essentially drawings— can also be helpful: students can illustrate literature or historical events, or make maps of their own neighborhoods. The choice of model depends largely on the specific curriculum goals which the teacher needs to accomplish at a particular time.

Activating prior knowledge

Another way to connect curriculum goals to students' experience is by **activating prior knowledge**, a term that refers to encouraging students to recall what they know already about new material being learned. Various formats for activating prior knowledge are possible. When introducing a unit about how biologists classify animal and plant species, for example, a teacher can invite students to discuss how they already classify different kinds of plants and animals. Having highlighted this informal knowledge, the teacher can then explore how the same species are classified by biological scientists, and compare the scientists' classification schemes to the students' own schemes. The activation does not have to happen orally, as in this example; a teacher can also ask students to write down as many distinct types of animals and plants that they can think of, and then ask students to diagram or map their relationships— essentially creating a *concept map* like the ones we described in Chapter 8 (Gurlitt, et al., 2006). Whatever the strategy used, activation helps by making students' prior knowledge or experience conscious and therefore easier to link to new concepts or information.

Anticipating preconceptions of students

Ironically, activating students' prior knowledge can be a mixed blessing if some of the prior knowledge is misleading or downright wrong. Misleading or erroneous knowledge is especially common among young students, but it can happen at any grade level. A kindergarten child may think that the sun literally "rises" in the morning, since she often hears adults use this expression, or that the earth is flat because it obviously *looks* flat. But a high school student may mistakenly believe that large objects (a boulder) fall faster than small ones (a pebble), or that a heavy object dropped (not thrown) from a moving car window will fall straight down instead of traveling laterally alongside the car while it falls.

Because misconceptions are quite common among students and even among adults, teachers are more effective if they can **anticipate preconceptions of students** wherever possible. The task is twofold. First the teacher must know or at least guess students' preconceptions as much as possible in advance, so that she can design learning activities to counteract and revise their thinking. Some preconceptions have been well-documented by educational research and therefore can in principle be anticipated easily— though they may still sometimes take a teacher by surprise during a busy activity or lesson (Tanner & Allen, 2005; Chiu & Lin, 2005). Exhibit 9.8 lists a few of these common preconceptions. Others may be unique to particular students, however, and a teacher may only by able to learn of them through experience— by listening carefully to what students say and write and by watching what they do. A few preconceptions may be so ingrained or tied to other, more deeply held beliefs that students may resist giving them up, either consciously or unconsciously. It may be hard, for example, for some students to give up the idea that girls are less talented at math or science than are boys, even though research generally finds this is not the case (Hyde & Linn, 2006).

Table **12.5.1** : Several misconceptions about science

Misconception	What to do
Stars and constellations appear in the same place in the sky every night.	Ask students to observe carefully the locations of a bright star once a week for several weeks.
The world is flat, circular like a pancake.	Use a globe or ball to find countries located over the horizon; use computer software (e.g. Global Earth) to illustrate how a round Earth can look flat up close.
Dinosaurs disappeared at the same time that human beings appeared and because of human activity.	Construct a timeline of major periods of Darwinian evolution.
Rivers always flow from North to South.	Identify rivers that flow South to North (e.g. the Red River in North Dakota and Canada); talk about how Southern locations are not necessarily "lower".
Force is needed not only to start an object moving, but to keep it moving.	Explain the concept of *inertia;* demonstrate inertia using low-friction motion (e.g. with a hovercraft or dry- ice puck).
Volume, weight, and size are identical concepts.	Have students weigh objects of different sizes or volumes, and compare the results.
Seasons happen because the Earth changes distance from the sun.	Explain the tilt of Earth's axis using a globe and light as a model; demonstrate reduced heating of surfaces by placing similar surfaces outdoors at different angles to the sun's rays.
Sources: Chi, 2005; D. Clark, 2006; Slotta & Chi, 2006; Owens, 2003.	

The second task when anticipating preconceptions is to treat students' existing knowledge and beliefs with respect even when they do include misconceptions or errors. This may seem obvious in principle, but it needs remembering when students persist with misconceptions in spite of a teacher's efforts to teach alternative ideas or concepts. Most of us— including most students— have reasons for holding our beliefs, even when the beliefs do not agree with teachers, textbooks, or other authorities, and we appreciate having our beliefs treated with respect. Students are no different from other people in this regard. In a high school biology class, for example, some students may have personal reasons for not agreeing with the theory of evolution associated with Charles Darwin. For religious reasons they may support explanations of the origins of life that give a more active, interventionist role to God (Brumfiel, 2005). If their beliefs disagree with the teacher's or the textbook, then the disagreement needs to be acknowledged, but acknowledged respectfully. For some students (and perhaps some teachers), expressing fundamental disagreement respectfully may feel awkward, but it needs to be done nonetheless.

Guided practice, independent practice, and homework

So far, we have focused on bridging the goals or content of a curriculum to events, beliefs, and ideas from students' lives. In studying human growth in a health class, for example, a teacher might ask students to bring photos of themselves as a much younger child. In this case a concept from the curriculum— human growth— then is related to a personal event, being photographed as a youngster, that the student finds meaningful.

But teachers can also create bridges between curriculum and students' experiences in another way, by relating the *process* of learning in school with the *process* of learning outside of school. Much of this task involves helping students to make the transition from supervised learning to self-regulated learning— or put differently, from practice that is relatively guided to practice that is relatively independent.

Guided practice

When students first learn a new skill or a new set of ideas, they are especially likely to encounter problems and make mistakes that interfere with the very process of learning. In figuring out how to use a new software program, for example, a student may unknowingly press a wrong button that prevents further functioning of the program. In translating sentences from Spanish into English in language class, for another example, a student might misinterpret one particular word or grammatical feature. This one

mistake may cause many sentences to be translated incorrectly, and so on. So students initially need **guided practice**— opportunities to work somewhat independently, but with a teacher or other expert close at hand prevent or fix difficulties when they occur. In general, educational research has found that guided practice helps all learners, but especially those who are struggling (Bryan & Burstein, 2004: Woodward, 2004). A first-grade child has difficulty in decoding printed words, for example, benefits from guidance more than one who can decode easily. But both students benefit in the initial stages of learning, since both may make more mistakes then. Guided practice, by its nature, sends a dual message to
students: it is important to learn new material well, but it is also important to become able to use learning without assistance, beyond the lesson where it is learned and even beyond the classroom.

Guided practice is much like the concepts of the *zone of proximal development* (or *ZPD*) and *instructional scaffolding* that we discussed in Chapter 2 in connection with Vygotsky's theory of learning. In essence, during guided practice the teacher creates a ZPD or scaffold (or framework) in which the student can accomplish more with partial knowledge or skill than the student could accomplish alone. But whatever its name— guided practice, a ZPD, or a scaffold— insuring success of guidance depends on several key elements: focusing on the task at hand, asking questions that break the task into manageable parts, reframing or restating the task so that it becomes more understandable, and giving frequent feedback about the student's progress (Rogoff, 2003). Combining the elements appropriately takes sensitivity and improvisational skill— even artfulness— but these very challenges are among the true joys of teaching.

Independent practice

As students gain facility with a new skill or new knowledge, they tend to need less guidance and more time to consolidate (or strengthen) their new knowledge with additional practice. Since they are less likely to encounter mistakes or problems at this point, they begin to benefit from **independent practice**— opportunities to review and repeat their knowledge at their own pace and with fewer interruptions. At this point, therefore, guided practice may feel less like help than like an interruption, even if it is well-intentioned. A student who already knows how to use a new computer program, for example, may be frustrated by waiting for the teacher to explain each step of the program individually. If a student is already skillful at translating Spanish sentences into English in a language class, it can be annoying for the teacher to "help" by pointing out minor errors that the student is likely to catch for herself.

By definition, the purpose of independent practice is to provide more self-regulation of learning than what comes from guided practice. It implies a different message for students than what is conveyed by guided practice, a message that goes beyond the earlier one: that it is now time to take more complete responsibility for own learning. When all goes well, independent practice is the eventual outcome of the zone of proximal development created during the earlier phase of guided practice described above: the student can now do on his or her own, what originally required assistance from someone else. Or stated differently, independent practice is a way of encouraging *self-determination* about learning, in the sense that we discussed this idea in Chapter 6. In order to work independently, a student must set his or her own direction and monitor his or her own success; by definition, no one can do this for the student.

Homework

The chances are that you already have experienced many forms of homework in your own educational career. The widespread practice of assigning review work to do outside of school is a way of supplementing scarce time in class and of providing independent practice for students. Homework has generated controversy throughout most of its history in public education, partly because it encroaches on students' personal and family-oriented time, and partly because research finds no consistent benefits of doing homework (Gill & Schlossman, 2004; Kohn, 2004). In spite of these criticisms, though, parents and teachers tend to favor homework when it is used for two main purposes. One purpose is to review and practice material that has already been introduced and practiced at school; a sheet of arithmetic problems might be a classic example. When used for this purpose, the amount of homework is usually minimal in the earliest grades, if any is assigned at all. One educational expert recommends only ten minutes per day in first grade at most, and only gradual increases in amount as students get older (Cooper & Valentine, 2001).

The second purpose for supporting homework is to convey the idea of schoolwork being the "job" of childhood and youth. Just as on an adult job, students must complete homework tasks with minimal supervision and sometimes even minimal training. Doing the tasks, furthermore, is a way to get ahead or further along in the work place (for an adult) or at school (for a child). One study in which researchers interviewed children about these ideas, in fact, found that children do indeed regard homework as work in the

same way that adults think of a job (Cornu & Xu, 2004). In the children's minds, homework tasks were not "fun", in spite of teachers' frequent efforts to make them fun. Instead they were jobs that needed doing, much like household chores. When it came to homework, children regarded parents as the teachers' assistants— people merely carrying out the wishes of the teacher. Like any job, the job of doing homework varied in stressfulness; when required at an appropriate amount and level of difficulty, and when children reported having good "bosses" (parents and teachers), the job of homework could actually be satisfying in the way that many adults' jobs can be satisfying when well-done.

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12.6: Planning for Instruction as well as for Learning

This chapter started with one premise but ended with another. It started with the idea that teachers need to locate curriculum goals, usually from a state department of education or a publisher of a curriculum document. In much of the chapter we described what these authorities provide for individual classroom teachers, and how their documents can be clarified and rendered specific enough for classroom use. In the middle of the chapter, however, the premise shifted. We began noting that instruction cannot be planned simply for students; teachers also need to consider involving students themselves in influencing or even choosing their own goals and ways of reaching the goals. Instructional planning, in other words, should not be just *for* students, but also *by* students, at least to some extent. In the final parts of the chapter we described a number of ways of achieving a reasonable balance between teachers' and students' influence on their learning. We suggested considering relatively strong measures, such as an emergent or an anti-bias curriculum, but we also considered more moderate ones, like the use of the Internet, of local experts and field trips, of service learning, and of guided and independent practice. All things considered, then, teachers' planning is not just about organizing teaching; it is also about facilitating learning. Its dual purpose is evident in many features of public education, including the one we discuss in the next two chapters, the assessment of learning.

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

13: Observations as a Skill

13.1: The Role of Observation

13.2: Becoming a Skilled Observer

13.3: Observation and Documentation Dos and Don’ts

13.4: Conclusion and References

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13.1: The Role of Observation

Observations are conducted every day in early childhood classroom environments. Teachers are constantly surveying the environment and completing safety checks to make sure the equipment and materials are safe for the children to use. Teachers also perform daily health screenings to ensure their children are healthy enough to participate in program activities. Beyond the standard safety check and health screening, teachers have many other important tasks and duties that they must do in order to maintain a copacetic classroom environment. Intentional teachers use their observations to plan and implement curriculum, set up engaging learning environments, monitor the children's social interactions, track behaviors, communicate with families, and assess each child's progress and development. Essentially, observations help teachers be more accountable. By conducting regular observations intentional teachers can:

1. Evaluate program effectiveness
2. Evaluate teacher effectiveness
3. Make improvements to ensure quality practices
4. Plan and implement developmentally appropriate curriculum
5. Measure and assess a child's development
6. Develop respectful family partnerships
7. Understand the cultural practices and family structure
8. Select effective learning strategies to support and accommodate the diverse needs of children
9. Ensure ethical conduct and professional standards of practice
10. Teach with confidence

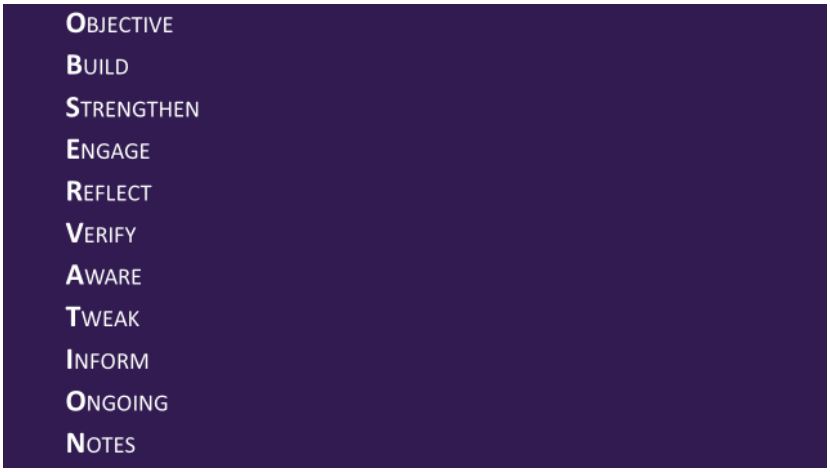


Figure 1.1: COC OER [1]

Pin It! Observation

Observation is defined as "the process of gathering information about objects and events using senses of sight, smell, sound, touch and taste, noticing specific details or phenomena that ordinarily might be overlooked" (CDE, 2016 p. 64).[2]

If we want to understand children, we must first watch them and listen to them. Then, we must try to make sense of what we observed and give it meaning. The role of observation is to provide teachers with information and evidence that they will need to make informed decisions on how to best support the children in their care. With each observation, you will get a glimpse into a child's developing mind. Not only will you see a child's personality emerge, you will be able to see what a child can do. As you watch your children, you will see how they problem solve when conflicts arise and how they cope with the stress from being in a group setting. You will learn about their individual needs and their cultural practices. When you watch children closely, their interests and abilities are revealed. With each observation, you will gain useful insight that will help you become an intentional teacher.

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13.2: Becoming a Skilled Observer

To truly observe a child, you must be present, knowledgeable, inquisitive and intentional. With every observation, you will sharpen your skills as you learn how to effectively gather objective evidence and detailed data.

Be present: To capture all the individual mannerisms, subtle social nuances, non-verbal body language and dynamic conversations that occur throughout the day you must be attentive, focused and ready to go at any given moment. Children move fast. When we blink, we are bound to miss some little detail or precious moment, that's a given. Being present takes considerable effort and careful planning.

Be knowledgeable: Understanding the core concepts of early childhood education is extremely important if you are to set reasonable expectations and plan developmentally appropriate learning experiences. Familiarizing yourself with child development theories will help you understand and appreciate why children do what they do. Learning about the key principles in early care and education will provide you with a solid foundation and a wide range of instructional strategies to support a child's development.

Be inquisitive: Think of yourself as a researcher. Your primary mission is to investigate the children in your care by routinely gathering evidence, using a variety of observation methods and tools. As a good researcher you will need to ask some thoughtful questions. These questions will guide you as you plan purposeful observations and as you select your method of observation. Here are some sample questions you may ask yourself: What activities interest Max? How many times did Stevie hit today? What skills did Hazel master today with this activity, and what skills need further support? How long did Zoey stay engaged while playing in the sandbox? What milestones will this activity support? By a sking thoughtful questions, you will learn more about the children in your care and you will do a better job at supporting each child's individual needs. Rather than fixating on a child's behavior, in time you will begin using focused observations to try and figure out the reasons why a child acts the way they do.

Be intentional: As you organize learning experiences, set up the classroom and outside environment, assess children's developmental progress, engage in activities, and interact with your children and families – you must have a thoughtful plan of action in place. "Intentional teaching means that everything you do as a teacher has a specific goal and purpose" (Gordon & Browne, 2016 p. 103). Even as spontaneous situations arise, intentional teachers must make the most of teachable moments. Intentional teachers conduct regular observations and gather objective documentation data to be accountable for the actions they take, the plans they generate and the assessments they make.

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13.3: Observation and Documentation Dos and Don’ts

Whether performing a planned or spontaneous observation here are some helpful tips to ensure you are recording quality evidence:

Table 13.3.1: Observation and Documentation Do’s and Don’ts

Observation and Documentation DOs:	Observation and Documentation DON’Ts
1. Note the date, time, setting, 2. Note the child (or children) involved 3. Record only the facts – in a concise (to the point) manner 4. Record the facts in the order as they occur and exactly as you see it 5. Collect vivid details and quotes 6. Use a variety of Observation Methods 7. Observe with an open heart, an open mind and a clear lens, free of bias 8. Be attentive and alert, and use all your senses 9. Note what the child CAN DO rather than what he cannot do 10. Keep a low profile and respect the children’s space while they are playing	1. Do not interfere or pressure the children to perform 2. Do not assume or state your opinion while recording evidence 3. Do not record anything you do not see 4. Do not label behaviors, actions or feelings 5. Avoid using subjective, bias or judgmental terms 6. Avoid using exaggerations and conditional words 7. Do not summarize information 8. Avoid using generalizations or vague terms

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13.4: Conclusion and References

To become a skilled observer takes time and practice (Gronlund & James, 2013). You will need to figure out your rhythm so that you can incorporate observation and documentation into your regular routine. As an intentional teacher, you will want to plan systematic observations so that you can document each child's unique qualities, interests, developmental strengths and needs, as well as uncover their cultural practices, approaches to learning and play preferences throughout the school year. As you gather evidence you will want to be as objective as you can be, and you will have to recognize your biases. As you collect your documentation on each child, you will want to organize it in a chronological manner and store it safely. Lastly, be sure to observe every child in your class, be aware that some children may catch your attention more than others for one reason or another. In the next chapter, we will examine several observation tools and techniques that you will want to use as part of your regular observation routine to ensure high-quality practices.

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

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14.1: APA Formatting- The Basics

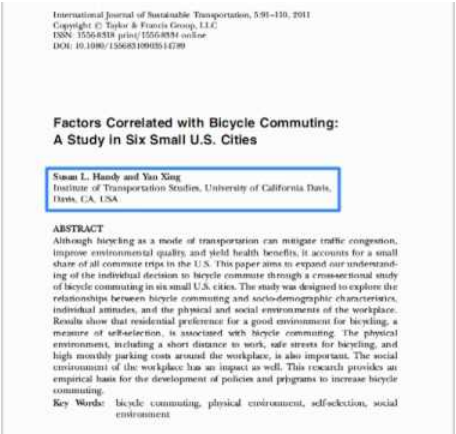
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14.2: Library and Research Sources



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Factors Correlated with Bicycle Commuting: A Study in Six Small U.S. Cities

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ABSTRACT
Although bicycling as a mode of transportation can mitigate traffic congestion, improve environmental quality, and yield health benefits, it accounts for a small share of all commute trips in the U.S. This paper aims to expand our understanding of the individual decision to bicycle commute through a cross-sectional study of bicycle commuting in six small U.S. cities. The study was designed to explore the relationships between bicycle commuting and socio-demographic characteristics, individual attitudes, and the physical and social environments of the workplace. Results show that residential preference for a good environment for bicycling, a measure of self-selection, is associated with bicycle commuting. The physical environment, including a short distance to work, safe streets for bicycling, and high monthly parking costs around the workplace, is also important. The social environment of the workplace has an impact as well. This research provides an empirical basis for the development of policies and programs to increase bicycle commuting.
Key Words: bicycle commuting, physical environment, self-selection, social environment

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14.3: Appendix C- The Reflective Practitioner

The experience in reflective teaching is that you must plunge into the doing, and try to educate yourself before you know what it is you're trying to learn.

—Donald Schön, 1987

Donald Schön, a philosopher and educational researcher, makes an important observation: learning to teach often means making choices and taking actions without knowing in advance quite what you need to learn or what the consequences will be. The problem, as we have pointed out more than once, is that classroom events are often ambiguous and ambivalent, in that they usually serve more than one purpose. A teacher compliments a student's contribution to a discussion: at that moment she may be motivating the student, but also focusing classmates' thinking on key ideas. Her comment functions simultaneously as behavioral reinforcement, information, and expression of caring. At that moment complimenting the student may be exactly the right thing to do. Or not: perhaps the praise causes the teacher to neglect the contributions of others, or focuses attention on factors that students cannot control, like their ability instead of their effort. In teaching, it seems, everything cuts more than one way, signifies more than one thing. The complications can make it difficult to prepare for teaching in advance, though they also make teaching itself interesting and challenging.

The complications also mean that teachers need to learn from their own teaching by reflecting (or thinking about the significance of) their experiences. In the classrooms, students are not the only people who need to learn. So do teachers, though what teachers need to learn is less about curriculum and more about students' behavior and motivation, about how to assess their learning well, and about how to shape the class into a mutually supportive community.

Thinking about these matters begins to make a teacher a reflective practitioner (Schön, 1983), a professional who learns both *from* experience and *about* experience. Becoming thoughtful helps you in all the areas discussed in this text: it helps in understanding better how students' learning occurs, what motivates students, how you might differentiate your instruction more fully, and how you can make assessments of learning more valid and fair.

Learning to reflect on practice is so important, in fact, that we have referred to and illustrated its value throughout this book. In addition we devote this entire appendix to how you, like other professional teachers, can develop habits of reflective practice in yourself. First, we describe what reflective practice feels like as an experience, and offer examples of places, people, and activities that can support your own reflection on practice. Then we discuss how teachers can also learn simply by observing and reflecting on their own teaching systematically, and by sharing the results with other teachers and professionals. This is an activity we mentioned in this book previously; we call it *teacher research* or *action research*. As you will see, reflective practice not only contributes to teachers' ability to make wise decisions, but also allows them to serve as effective, principled advocates on behalf of students.

Resources for professional development and learning

At some level reflection on practice is something you must do for yourself, since only you have had your particular teaching experiences, and only you can choose how to interpret and make use of them. But this rather individual activity also benefits from the stimulus and challenge offered by fellow professionals. Others' ideas may differ from your own, and they can therefore help in working out your own thoughts and in alerting you to ideas that you may otherwise take for granted. These benefits of reflection can happen in any number of ways, but most fall into one of four general categories:

- talking and collaborating with colleagues
- participating in professional associations
- attending professional development workshops and conferences
- reading professional literature

In the next sections we explore what each of these activities has to offer.

Colleagues as a resource

Perhaps the simplest way to stimulate reflections about your own teaching is to engage fellow teachers or other colleagues in dialogue (or thoughtful conversation) about teaching and learning: What do you think of this kind of experience? Have you ever

had one like it yourself, and what did you make of it? Note that to be helpful in stimulating reflection, these conversations need to be largely about educational matters, not about personal ones ("What movie did you see last night?"). Dialogues with individual colleagues have certain advantages to more complex or formal professional experiences. Talking with an individual generally allows more participation for both of you, since only two people may need to express their views. It also can provide a measure of safety or confidentiality if your conversation partner is a trusted colleague; sometimes, therefore, you can share ideas of which you are not sure, or that may be controversial.

A somewhat more complex way of stimulating reflection is group study. Several teachers at a school gather regularly to bring themselves up to date on a new curriculum, for example, or to plan activities or policies related to a school-wide theme (e.g. "the environment"). Group meetings often result in considerable dialog among the members about the best ways to teach and to manage classrooms, as well as stories about students' behavior and learning experiences. For a beginning teacher, group study can be a particularly good way to learn from experienced, veteran teachers.

Sharing of ideas becomes even more intense if teachers collaborate with each other about their work on an extended basis. Collaboration can take many forms; in one form it might be "team teaching" by two or more teachers working with one group of students, and in another form it might be two or more teachers consulting regularly to coordinate the content of their courses. Collaborations work best when each member of the team brings responsibilities and expertise that are unique, but also related to the other members' responsibilities. Imagine, for example, a collaboration between Sharon, who is a middle-years classroom teacher, and Pat, who is a resource teacher—one whose job is to assist classroom teachers in working with students with educational disabilities or special needs. If Pat spends time in Sharon's classroom, then not only will the students benefit, but they both may learn from each other's presence. Potentially, Pat can learn the details of the middle-years curriculum and learn more about the full range of students' skills—not just those of students having difficulties. Sharon can get ideas about how to help individuals who, in a classroom context, seem especially difficult to help. Achieving these benefits, of course, comes at a cost: the two teachers may need to take time not only for the students, but also to talk with each other. Sometimes the time-cost can be reduced somewhat if their school administrators can arrange for a bit of extra planning and sharing time. But even if this does not happen, the benefits of collaboration will be very real, and often make the investment of time worthwhile.

Professional associations and professional development activities

Another way to stimulate reflection about teaching is by joining and participating in professional associations— organizations focused on supporting the work of teachers and on upholding high standards of teaching practice. Exhibit 1 lists several major professional associations related to education and their Internet addresses. Most of them are composed of local branches or chapters serving the needs of a particular city, state, or region.

Exhibit 1: A selection of professional associations related to education

- American Association for the Mentally Retarded (AAMR)
- Association for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, & Dance (AAHPERD)
- Association for Experiential Education (AEE)
- Association for Retarded Citizens (ARC)
- ENC Online Resources for Math and Science Education
- National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE)
- National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC)
- National Council for Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM)
- National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS)
- National Council for Teachers of English (NCTE)
- National Science Teachers Association
- Organization of American Historians (OAH)

To achieve their purposes, a professional association provides a mixture of publications, meetings, and conferences intended for the professional development of educators, including classroom teachers. Typically the publications include either a relatively frequent newsletter or a less frequent journal focused on issues of practice or research. Very large associations often publish more than one newsletter or journal, each of which is focused on a particular topic or type of news (for example, the National Education Association in the United States publishes eight separate periodicals). Some also publish online journals (there are several listed as

part of Exhibit 2 or online versions of print journals. Whatever format they take, professionally sponsored publications stimulate thinking by discussing issues and dilemmas faced by professional educators, and sometimes also by presenting recent educational research and the recommendations for teaching that flow from that research. We discuss ways of using these publications further in the next section of this chapter

Exhibit 2: A sampling of journals related to professional education

- CSS Journal: Computers in the Social Studies—dedicated to the encouragement of the use of computers and related technology in K-12 social studies classrooms.
- Education Policy and Evaluation—published by the College of Education at Arizona State University
- Educational Theory—publishes work in the philosophy of education and other disciplines.
- Harvard Educational Review—quarterly journal that provides an inter-disciplinary forum for innovative thinking and research in education.
- Journal of Computing in Higher Education—publishes articles that contribute to our understanding of the issues, problems, and research associated with instructional technology
- Revista Iberoamericana de Educacion—Revista de la OEI.
- Scholarly Electronic Journals—Trends and Attitudes: A Research Proposal

Meetings and conferences sponsored by a professional association also take a variety of forms. Depending on the size of the association and on the importance of the topic, a meeting could be as short as a one half-day workshop or as long as a full week with many sessions occurring simultaneously. Sometimes, too, an association might sponsor a more extended course—a series of meetings focused on one topic or problem of concern to teachers, such as classroom management or curriculum planning. In some cases, the course might carry university credit, though not always.

As you might expect, the size of a professional association makes a difference in kinds of professional development experiences it can provide. In general, the smaller the association, the more exclusively it focuses on local news and educational needs, both in its publications and in its meetings or other activities. At a professional development workshop sponsored by a local teachers' association, for example, you are relatively likely to see colleagues and acquaintances not only from your own school, but from other neighboring schools. Locally sponsored events are also more likely to focus on local issues, such as implementing a new system for assessing students' learning within the local schools. In general, too, local events tend to cost less to attend, in both time and money.

By the same token, the larger the association, the more its professional development opportunities are likely to focus on large-scale trends in education, such as the impact of the *No Child Left Behind* legislation we discussed in Chapter 1 or the latest trends in using computer technology for teaching. Conferences or other professional development events are more likely to span several days and to be located outside the immediate town or region whether you live and work. You may therefore see fewer of your everyday colleagues and acquaintances, but you may also have a greater incentive to make new acquaintances whose interests or concerns are similar to your own. The event is more likely to feature educators who are well-known nationally or internationally, and to call attention to educational trends or issues that are new or unfamiliar.

Whether large or small, the activities of professional associations can stimulate thinking and reflecting about teaching. By meeting and talking with others at a meeting of an association, teachers learn new ideas for teaching, become aware of emerging trends and issues about education, and confront assumptions that they may have made about their own practices with students. Professional meetings, conferences, and workshops can provide these benefits because they draw on the expertise and experience of a wide range of professionals—usually wider than is possible within a single school building. But compared simply to talking with your immediate colleagues, they have a distinct disadvantage: they take effort and a bit of money to attend, and sometimes they are available at convenient times. Well-balanced professional development should therefore also include activities that are available frequently, but that also draw on a wide range of expertise. Fortunately, an activity with these features is often easily at hand: the reading of professional publications about educational research and practice.

Reading and understanding professional articles

Although publications about educational issues and research can take many forms, they tend to serve three major purposes in some sort of combination. A publication could either (1) provide a framework for understanding teaching and learning, (2) offer advice

about how to teach, or (3) advocate particular ideas or practices about education. Benefiting from a professional publication depends partly on understanding which of these purposes a particular article or book is emphasizing.

Three purposes of educational publications

Consider the first purpose, to provide a framework for understanding teaching and learning (Hittleman and Simon, 2005). A "framework" in this context means a perspective or general viewpoint for understanding specific events and actions. They are much like the theories described earlier in this book, though not always as formal or broad. A published article might propose, for example, a way of understanding why certain students are disrespectful in spite of teachers' efforts to prevent such behavior (perhaps they are reinforced by peers for being disrespectful). It might offer evidence supporting this perspective. In doing so, the author provides a sort of "theory of disrespectful behavior," though he or she may not call it a theory explicitly.

A second purpose is to offer advice about appropriate teaching practices. An article intended for this purpose, for example, might suggest how to introduce reading instruction to first graders, or how to use fiction to teach high school history, or how to organize a class to include a student with a disability. Often giving such advice overlaps with the first purpose, providing a framework for understanding, since thinking about an educational issue in a particular way may imply certain ways of dealing with it in practice.

A third purpose of a published article is to advocate ideas and persuade others to take actions benefiting students and society. It might take a position about important issues in education: Is it a good idea or not to retain (or hold back) a student in grade level for another year if the student fails the curriculum the first time? Should schools teach about sexuality? Should girls learn science in classrooms separate from boys? In advocating for ideas or policies about such matters, the article may express concern about what is good, ethical or desirable in education, not just about what is factually true or practical. The author may seek explicitly to persuade readers of the author's point of view. These features do not mean, however, that you need to give up thinking for yourself. On the contrary, when reading an advocacy-oriented article, reflection may be especially important.

Whatever its purpose—understanding, advice, or advocacy—an article or book about a professional issue can stimulate thinking about what you know and believe about teaching and learning. It should therefore create, rather than undermine, your individuality as a teacher. Think of professional reading as a dialogue or conversation about education: some of the comments in the conversation will probably be more helpful than others, but each participant contributes somehow, even if none can give a final answer or everlasting truth. It is the same with publications; some may be more helpful than others, but none will be so perfect that you can afford to cease further reading or further thinking. If you are about to begin a teaching career, for example, you may be especially interested in anything published about classroom management, but less interested in the problems of administering schools or in the political issues that usually accompany educational systems. Yet some publications may discuss these latter issues anyway, and eventually you may find yourself more concerned about them than at the start of a career. Your job, as a reflective teacher, will be sort out the currently useful articles (or parts of articles) from ones you cannot use immediately.

To experience educational publications in this way, however, you must think of the authors as your collaborators as well as general authorities. As a reader, you need to assume that you are entitled to consider an author's ideas, but not obligated to accept it without journals related to professional education question. There are several strategies for developing this attitude, but to keep the discussion focused, we will look at just two. We have already discussed the first strategy, which is to understand the purposes of any particular piece of research which you encounter, in order to assess its current usefulness to your daily work and your long-term professional goals. We have already indicated several general purposes of educational research publications, but we will go into more detail about this in the next section. The second strategy for relating to authors as collaborators is to think about how you yourself might contribute to professional knowledge by engaging in research of your own, even as a classroom teacher—an activity often called action research (Mills, 2006; Stringer, 2007). At the end of this chapter we discuss what action research involves, and how you might consider using it.

Authors' assumptions about readers

Authors of professional articles and books also make assumptions about their readers, and it helps to be aware of these while you read. The assumptions affect the style, content, and significance of the author's ideas in ways that are both obvious and subtle.

One assumption is about the response which an author expects from you, the reader: does he or she expect you actually to do something new, or simply to consider doing something new? Or does the author just want you to be aware of a new idea? Consider, for example, an article reviewing best practices about inclusion of students with special needs. The author may imply, or even urge

you to take a moral position: you should include these students, the author may seem to say. But in a different article—one recommending particular teaching practices—the author may merely ask you to think about alternatives to your normal ways of teaching. Certain strategies worked under certain teaching conditions, the author says, so simply consider whether they might work for you as well.

A second, less obvious difference among professional publications is in their un-stated assumptions about prior experiences and attitudes of readers. This assumption may be either helpful or frustrating, depending on you actual prior background. A piece intended as a "framework for understanding" may assume, for example, that you are familiar with basic theories of learning already. If you have read and understood what we outlined in Chapter 2 of this book, the article may turn out to be relatively accessible or understandable to you even if you have relatively little experience in actual classroom teaching, and even if you have never studied learning theories in detail. The article might seem more accessible than you expect because, for example, it focuses primarily on how teacher's praise affects students' learning, an idea with which you may be somewhat familiar already.

On the other hand, a professional publication may assume that you have taught school for a number of years already, or that you are at least familiar with classroom life from the point of view not of students, but of a teacher. An author writing about "withitness" (discussed in Chapter 7), for example, may make this assumption, since the concept originated by observing teachers managing large group classroom activities. If you yourself are experienced at actual teaching, reading about withitness may trigger a lot of questions about just how withit teachers are able to be in practice, and about whether in fact they always need to be withit. You can also ask yourself these questions even if you have not yet been a teacher yourself, of course, but they may seem less immediate or urgent.

A professional article intended to advocate for a particular educational policy or practice may make very different assumptions about you as a reader. It may assume, for example, that you do in fact enjoy persuading others of your point of view, even when others initially disagree or react indifferently. This sort of assumption may show up as much in what the writing omits, as in what it includes: if the term cooperative learning activity is used without explanation, for example, the researcher may be assuming not only that you are the sort of person— perhaps a teacher—who knows what that term means already, but also that you already believe in the value of cooperative learning and are motivated to explain its value to others.

In making these distinctions among published articles, keep in mind a point we made at the outset: that an individual article usually serves more than one purpose at a time and makes more than one assumption about your prior knowledge and about how you are supposed to respond to the article. The differences are only about emphasis. To illustrate these ideas about the purposes and effects of research, look in the next section at three examples of actual published articles relevant to education. The studies are not a full cross-section of educational research or publications, but they do suggest some of the variety possible (and necessary) among them. Each example serves a mixture of purposes, but also emphasizes one purpose in particular (perspective-taking, teaching recommendations, or advocacy) described earlier. The authors of each example also make particular assumptions about you, the reader—about the intellectual work which the authors expect you to do and about the motivations which they assume you have or hope that you will acquire. For each example, we describe the reactions of one of us (Kelvin Seifert) as he read the article.

Example #1: How do children acquire moral commitments?

In 1997, Herbert Saltzstein and several colleagues published a research-oriented article about how children acquire moral beliefs (Saltzstein, et al., 1997). The group of researchers were all graduate students and professors of psychology, working mostly at the City University of New York. When Kelvin read of their affiliation with psychology, he suspected that they would talk about moral beliefs in general, and not necessarily about moral issues in classrooms, such as cheating or treating classmates with care and respect. Still, the article interested Kelvin as a former teacher and current university professor, because he had long been concerned with fostering qualities like integrity, honesty, cooperation, and loyalty in students. If Kelvin could find out about the mechanism or process by which children acquire mature moral beliefs, he reasoned, maybe he could modify his teaching to take advantage of that knowledge.

So Kelvin began reading the article. He discovered some parts were challenging and required careful reflection, whereas others were easier to read. One of the most challenging passages came almost immediately, in the second and third paragraphs; these paragraphs, it seemed, required a bit of prior knowledge about theories of moral development. But Kelvin was willing to

concentrate more fully on these paragraphs, because he expected that they might clarify the rest of the study. Here are the paragraphs, and some of Kelvin's thoughts as he read them:

Initial problem: We began by re-examining the phenomenon of heteronomy, Piaget's assertion (1932/1965) following Kant (1785/1959) that young children equate moral obligation with deference to authority when justifying their moral judgments. The concept is important because it is central to the organismic account of moral development as a series of differentiations and integrations…. [p. 37]	This was one of the difficult paragraphs, perhaps especially because Kelvin had never read the specific book by Piaget or by the philosopher Kant. But Kelvin did recall reading, at various times over the years, about Piaget's views on moral development. Piaget believed that at first, children define morality in terms of what adults think: an action is "good" if and only if adults (e.g. parents) consider it good, and "bad" if and only if adults consider it bad. This is the idea of "heteronomy" to which Saltzstein is referring. Children, in this view, take quite awhile to develop or "grow" into truly autonomous moral beliefs. Autonomous beliefs form slowly out of earlier beliefs, in the way that a young plant or animal might grow. This is the "organismic account of moral development" that Saltzstein is talking about.
…This account has been challenged by Turiel's domain theory (Turiel, 1983). According to Turiel and his colleagues, even young children intuitively distinguish moral from conventional rules. [p. 37]	Here was an idea that was intriguing! Saltzstein and his colleagues were pointing to research (by the person cited, named Turiel) that suggests that even preschoolers know the difference between truly moral rules and merely conventional rules. Apparently they believe, for example, that it would be wrong to steal toys or to hit someone, even if adults gave you permission to do so. But apparently they also know that it would be OK for traffic lights to use different colors—for red to mean "go" and green to mean "stop"—provided that everyone agreed on changing the rule. That is what the researcher named Turiel apparently meant by distinguishing convention from morality.

The introduction continued in this challenging style for about two pages, requiring Kelvin to read slowly and carefully in order to understand its points. Kelvin was not discouraged from continuing, though, because he wanted to find out more about how, in general, children acquire moral beliefs. Did moral beliefs take time to develop—did they "grow" on children slowly after initially being borrowed from parents or other adults? In this case, then maybe Kelvin owed it to his students to adopt and express desirable moral attitudes myself, so as to provide a good model for their developing beliefs. Or were students' key moral beliefs already in place when they entered school—almost as if "hard wired" in their minds, or at least already learned during infancy and the preschool years? In this second case, it might still be desirable for Kelvin to adopt positive moral attitudes, but not for the purpose of modeling them for students. Students already "hard wired" for key moral beliefs might not need a model so much as an enforcer of desirable moral behaviors. Concerning the issue of cheating, for example, the students might already understand the undesirable nature and implications of this behavior. As a result they might not need demonstrations of honest integrity from their teacher as much as affirmations from the teacher of the importance of honesty and integrity, along with consistent enforcement of appropriate sanctions against cheating when it did occur.

For Kelvin, therefore, the outcomes of research on moral development—including Saltzstein's that he was currently reading—posed issues of classroom management, both in university classrooms and in public school classrooms. So Kelvin read on.

Saltzstein proposed resolving the issues about the origins of moral development by distinguishing between moral conflicts and moral dilemmas:

Moral conflicts are conflicts between moral duty or right and a non-moral desire. An example might be the conflict between whether to return a wallet to its rightful owner or keep the coveted wallet with its extra cash. In contrast, moral dilemmas are conflicts involving two moral rights or duties. For example, [a person might feel a dilemma between] whether to steal a drug to save a spouse's life. [p. 38]	The distinction between conflicts and dilemmas looked promising to Kelvin. Moral conflicts looked fairly simple in cognitive terms, even if they were sometimes difficult emotionally. The "right" action was obvious. Moral dilemmas were more complex cognitively as well as emotionally, because two "goods" were being weighed against each other. The moral alternatives might both be right and wrong at the same time, and their relative "rightness" might not be immediately obvious.

Saltzstein and his colleagues proposed that when young children show awareness of moral rules, they may be doing so in the simpler context of moral conflicts. A young child might believe that you should return a dollar to its owner, even if the child has trouble in practice overcoming a selfish impulse to keep the dollar. The same child might have trouble deciding, however, whether it is "right" to inform his teacher if a best friend has cheated on a test. In that case two moral principles compete for attention—honesty and loyalty to a friend. To sort out the implications of choosing between these principles, a young child might need to rely on older, wiser minds, such as parents or other adults. The minute that he or she does so, the child is showing the moral heteronomy that Piaget used to write about and that Saltzstein referred to early in the article

Understanding these ideas took effort, but once Kelvin began figuring them out, the rest of the article was easier to follow. In reading the remaining pages, he noted in passing that the researchers used several techniques common in educational research. For example, they interviewed participants, a common way of gathering systematic information about individuals' thinking. They also imposed controls on their procedures and on the selection of participants. Procedures were controlled, for example, by posing the same three moral dilemmas and to all participants, so that individuals' responses could be compared meaningfully. The selection of participants was controlled by selecting two age groups for deliberate comparison with each other—one that was seven years old and the other that was eleven. Since the researchers wanted to generalize about moral development as much as possible, but they obviously could not interview every child in the world, they sampled participants: they selected a manageable number (sixty-five, to be exact) from the larger student population of one particular school. In a second part of the investigation, they also selected a comparable number of children of the same two ages (7 and 11) from the city of Recife, located in Brazil. The Brazilian group's responses were compared deliberately with the American group's responses, in order to allow for the impact of cultural beliefs on moral development in general. Kelvin recognized this research strategy as an example of using control groups. In research terms, the Brazilian group "controlled for" the impact of American culture on children's moral beliefs, and vice versa, the American group controlled for the impact of Brazilian culture on children's moral beliefs. Altogether, these techniques helped insure that the interviews of children's moral beliefs really illustrated what they were supposed to illustrate—that they were reliable and valid, in the senses that we discussed in earlier chapters. As Kelvin noticed Saltzstein's attention to good research techniques, he gained confidence in Saltzstein's observations and in the interpretations that the authors made from them.

What did Saltzstein and his colleagues find out—or more to the point, what did Kelvin Seifert learn from what Saltzstein and his colleagues wrote about? There were three ideas that occurred to Kelvin. One was that in everyday life, children probably deal with moral beliefs of all levels of cognitive complexity, and not just "simple" moral conflicts and "complex" moral dilemmas. Saltzstein found that children's solutions to moral dilemmas depended a lot on the content of the dilemma. Children advocated strongly for truthfulness in some situations (for example, in deciding whether to tell the teacher about a friend's cheating), but not in other situations (like in deciding whether to back up a friend who is being teased and who has lied in an effort to stop the teasing). But it was rare for all children to support any one moral principle completely; they usually supported a mix

Another idea that Kelvin learned from Saltzstein's research was about how children expressed moral heteronomy versus moral autonomy. Age, it seemed, did not affect the beliefs that children stated; younger and older children took similar positions on all dilemmas initially. But age did affect how steadfastly children held to initial beliefs. Younger children were more easily influenced to switch opinions when an adult "cross-examined" with probing questions; older children were more likely to keep to their initial position. Moral heteronomy was revealed not by a child's views as such, but by the kind of dialogue a child has with adults.

A third idea that Kelvin learned was about children's perceptions of adults' moral beliefs. Saltzstein found that even though older children (the 11-year-olds) showed more moral autonomy (were more steadfast) than younger children, they tended to believe that adults thought about moral issues in ways similar to children who were younger. In the "teasing" dilemma mentioned above, for example, the 11-year-olds opted much more often than 7- year-olds for remaining loyal to a friend, even though doing so meant further untruthfulness with peers. Yet the 11- year-olds also more often stated a belief that adults would resolve the same dilemma in a way characteristic of 7- year-olds—that is, by telling the truth to peers and thus betraying loyalty to a friend. This finding puzzled Kelvin. Why should older, and presumably more insightful, children think that adults are more like younger children than like themselves? Saltzstein suggested an interpretation, however, that helped him make sense of the apparent inconsistency:

…Consistent with our past research, children attributed the kinds of moral choices made by younger children to adults. In our view, this finding tends to support a constructivist rather than a [social modeling] view of morality, which would predict that the child's judgments mirror (or develop toward) their representation of adult judgments. [p. 41]	In other words, thought Kelvin, if children learned moral beliefs by imitating (or modeling themselves after) parents or other adults, then they ought to see themselves as resembling adults more and more as they get older. Instead, they see themselves as resembling adults less, at least during middle childhood. This would happen only if they were preoccupied with "constructing" their own beliefs on the basis of their experiences, and therefore failed to notice that adults might also have constructed beliefs similar to their own.

Relevance: a framework for understanding moral development

The article by Saltzstein offered a way to understand how children develop moral beliefs, and especially to understand the change from moral heteronomy to moral autonomy. By imposing controls on the procedures (uniform interviews) and on the selection of participants (particular ages, particular societies or cultures), the researchers eliminated certain sources of ambiguity or variability in children's responses. By framing their project in terms of previous theories of moral development (Piaget's, Turiel's), furthermore, they made it easier to interpret their new results in the general terms of these theories as well. In these ways the investigation aspired to provide a general perspective about children's moral development. Providing a framework for understanding, you recall, is one of the major purposes of many professional publications.

But note that the authors paid a price for emphasizing this purpose. By organizing their work around existing general theory and research, they had to assume that readers already had some knowledge of that theory and research. This is not an unreasonable assumption if the readers are expected to be fellow researchers; after all, many of them make a living by "knowing the literature" of psychology. But assuming such knowledge can be an obstacle if the authors intend to communicate with non-psychologists: in that case, either the authors must make more of an effort to explain the relevant background research, or readers must educate themselves about the research. The latter activity is not necessarily difficult (the background knowledge for Saltzstein's work, for example, took me only a few paragraphs to explain in writing), but it must be done to make full sense of research that tries to provide a universal framework of psychological knowledge.

The reader's role: interested observer of children

In conducting and reporting their research, Saltzstein and his colleagues were not presenting themselves as school teachers, nor were they expecting readers necessarily to respond as teachers. As they put it in the first paragraph of the article, they sought to offer "a more contextualized perspective for understanding the development of moral judgments" [p. 37]. Unlike most teachers, they seemed indifferent to recommending how children's moral judgements ought to be fostered. Observation of children was their purpose, not intervention. The meaning of the term "contextualized perspective" was not obvious to Kelvin when he first read it, but eventually it became clearer: they were talking about the importance of distinguishing among types of moral decisions and moral beliefs. They did sometimes note information relevant to teaching—for example, they pointed out that for cultural reasons, teachers in Brazil do not command high respect and therefore compared to American children, Brazilian children may feel less compelled to tell the truth to their teachers. But this comment was not the primary focus of their research, nor did the authors discuss what (if anything) it might imply about teaching in the United States.

Yet the non-teaching perspective of the article did not keep Kelvin, a long-time school teacher and current university teacher, from reflecting on the article in terms of its educational relevance. As we mentioned already, Kelvin was attracted to the article because of his own concerns about character development in students—how do they acquire moral beliefs and commitments, and how

should he help them in doing so? Kelvin did not really expect to find an answer to the second of these questions, given the "observation" orientation of the authors. He did hope to find an answer to the first, although even here he also expected that to make allowances for the fact that research interviews are not usually identical to classroom situations. Children might respond differently when interviewed individually by a researcher, compared to how they might respond to a teacher in class. Or perhaps not. So in reflecting on the article, Kelvin had to note the context and purposes of Saltzstein's study, and to remind himself that once a teacher went beyond simply observing children to intervening on their behalf, the teacher might be led to different conclusions about children's moral development. But in spite of these cautions—or maybe because of them—Kelvin found much food for thought in the article related to teaching.

Example #2: Learning disability as a misleading label

In 2006, Ray McDermott, Shelley Goldman, and Hervé Varenne published an article that discussed the use of disability categories in education. The article attracted Kelvin's attention because he had been concerned for a long time about the ambiguities of disability categories (see Chapter 5 of this book) as well as about their potential for stigmatizing individuals. He expected the article to document additional problems with labeling when a student is from a non-white ethnic group. Kelvin's expectation was fulfilled partially, but he was surprised also to encounter an additional and tougher message in the article. Here is how the study began:

Since about 1850 . . . classifying human beings by mental ability, accurately or not, has been a politically rewarded activity. Those with power have placed others, usually the downtrodden, into ability and disposition groups that they cannot escape. . . . People who live together in a culture must struggle constantly with the constraints…of systems of classification and interpretation used in the culture.	Kelvin had a mixed reaction to this opening. In one way it seemed to say something familiar—that classification systems (such as categories for disabilities) may create problems for individuals. But the tone of the paragraph sounded more severely critical than Kelvin had expected: it was saying that power governed all classifications, implying that misclassifications may be widespread or even universal.

Kelvin's initial hunch was therefore that the article would express a radically critical view of disability classifications—particularly as they affect the "downtrodden," which presumably included children from minority ethnic groups. His expectation proved correct as the authors explained their point of view, which they called a *cultural approach* to understanding disability. Using learning disabilities (LD) as an example, here is how they explained their position:

We are not as interested in LD behavior as in the preoccupations —as seen from the level of classroom organization—of all those adults who are professionally poised to discover LD behavior. We are less interested in the characteristics of LD children than in the cultural arrangements that make an LD label relevant.	At this point Kelvin was not sure if he wanted to continue reading the article because it seemed like it might not be relevant to classroom life specifically. It also implied a severe criticism of professional educators —implied that they are too eager to find examples of LD and for this reason may misclassify students. On the other hand, Kelvin was already aware that LD are an especially ambiguous category of disability; maybe the article would help to show why. So he kept reading.

The authors continued by outlining the history of LD as a category of disability, describing this category as an outgrowth of the general intelligence testing movement during the twentieth century. By the 1970s, they argued, the concept of LD offered a way to classify children with academic difficulties without having to call the children mentally disabled. Because of this fact, the LD category was needed—literally—by well-off parents who did not want their children treated or educated as children with mental disabilities. LD as a concept and category came to be applied primarily to children from the white middle-class, and mental disability became, by default, the equivalent category for the non-white and poor.

To support this assertion, the authors reported a classroom observation of three non-white boys—Hector, Ricardo, and Boomer—while they worked together to design an imaginary research station in Antarctica. Citing actual transcripts of conversation while the boys worked, the authors concluded that all three boys showed intelligence and insight about the assignment, but that the teacher was only aware of the contributions of one of the boys. Hector systematically hid his knowledge from the teacher's view by getting Boomer to speak for their group; Ricardo participated well in the group work but was rarely acknowledged by the other two boys. Boomer received considerable praise from the teacher, thanks to his speaking for the group. Yet the teacher was never aware of

these subtleties. The authors blamed her oversight not on the teacher herself, but on an educational and cultural system that leads educators to classify or typify students too quickly or easily. Here is how they put it:

The American classroom is well organized for the production of display of failure, one child at a time if possible, but group by group if necessary…Even if the teacher manages to treat every child as capable, the children can hammer each other into negative status; and even if both…resist dropping everyone into predefined categories, the children's parents can take over, demanding more and more boxes with which to specify kinds of kids doing better than other kinds of kids. In such a classroom, if there were no LD categories, someone would have to invent them.	When Kelvin read this conclusion, he did not really disagree, but he did feel that it was beside the point for most teachers. Maybe children do get classified too easily, he thought, but a teacher's job is not just to lament this possibility, as the authors seemed to be doing. Instead their job is to help the real, live children for whom they have daily responsibility. What teachers need are therefore suggestions to avoid misclassifying students by overlooking key information about them. Kelvin wished, at the end, that the authors had made some of these suggestions.

Relevance: a critical framework

In this study the authors offered a sort of backhanded framework of thinking about categories of disability; or more precisely they offered a framework for understanding what the categories are not. In essence they said that disability categories describe qualities "in" students only in the sense that educators and others happen to think of disability categories in this way. An equally reasonable way to think about disabilities, they argued, is that modern society is organized so that its citizens have to be classified for many different reasons. Educators are simply helping to implement this society-wide expectation. A frequent result in classrooms is that teachers classify students too easily and that key evidence of students' capacity is overlooked.

In making this argument, the authors implied an indirect recommendation about how to teach, though the recommendation actually focused on what teachers should not do. Instead of (mis)identifying children with learning difficulties, the authors implied, teachers and other educators should stop concerning themselves with classifying children, and seek to reorganize classrooms and schools so that classification is less important. "Change the school," they wrote, "and LD becomes less relevant." This conclusion may be an important reminder, but it is not especially helpful as a recommendation to practicing teachers, who usually need to know about more than what to avoid.

The readers' role: concerned advocate for social justice

It is not surprising that the article lacked concrete recommendations for teaching, given that the authors seemed to speak to readers not as classroom teachers, but as general critics of society who are concerned about fairness or social justice. Their comments made two assumptions: first, that readers will want to minimize unfair stereotypes of students, and second, that readers will seek greater fairness in how teachers treat students. For readers who happen to be teachers themselves, the first of these assumptions is a reasonable one; most of us would indeed like to minimize unfair stereotyping of students. The second is also reasonable, but perhaps not in a way that the authors intended. Teachers probably do try their best to treat students fairly and respectfully. Their responsibilities usually mean, however, that they can only do this conveniently with their own students; the time available to work toward general social justice is often limited. (As you might suspect, Kelvin was not fully satisfied after he finished reading this article!)

Example #3: The impact of bilingualism on reading

In 1995, three education professors—Robert Jiménez, Georgia García, and David Pearson—published a study about the impact of bilingualism on children's ability to read English (1995). The three specialized in curriculum studies, literacy acquisition, and bilingual language development, and were therefore motivated by a concern for the academic success of bilingual children and especially by concern for identifying why bilingual children sometimes have difficulty learning to read English. Too much research on bilingualism, they argued, was based on what they called a "deficit" framework: it focused on what bilingual children lacked compared to monolinguals. They sought an alternative framework, one focused on bilingual students' competence, and especially on their competence to read a second language.

To search for this alternative, the researchers mounted a large research program, and the article published in 1995 was one of the studies resulting from this research. It caught Kelvin's interest not only because of its topic, but because of its approach. Instead of surveying dozens of students with a questionnaire, as researchers sometimes do, these investigators relied on just three students studied intensively. Each student became a case study and included detailed, lengthy observations and interviews of that particular

student. Each student was chosen deliberately for a particular purpose. One was a highly proficient reader who was also bilingual (Spanish and English); a second was a marginally proficient reader who was bilingual (Spanish and English); and a third was a highly proficient reader who was monolingual in English. To qualify for the study, furthermore, each student had to be comfortable reflecting on and talking about their own reading processes, so that the authors could interview them at length on this topic. The researchers asked each student to read six one-page passages in English and (where relevant) in Spanish. They invited all three to think aloud about their reading as they went along, commenting on how they figured out particular words or passages. The oral readings and think-aloud commentaries were taped and transcribed, and became the information on which the authors based their conclusions and recommendations.

Using these procedures, Jiménez, García, and Pearson discovered important differences among the three girls. The proficient bilingual, Pamela, used her growing knowledge of each language to help in learning vocabulary from the other language. When she encountered the English word “species” , for example, she guessed correctly that it meant the same as the similar Spanish word “especies”; and when she encountered the Spanish “liquído,” she guessed correctly that it meant the English “liquid.” Her focus on learning vocabulary was stronger than for the proficient monolingual, Michelle, who commented less on specific words than how the overall reading passages related to her prior general knowledge. The difference presumably stemmed from Michelle’s greater familiarity with English vocabulary—so much greater, in fact, that Michelle did not need to think about individual words deliberately. Both Michelle and Pamela differed, however, from the less-proficient bilingual reader, Christine. Like Pamela, Christine focused on vocabulary, but she did not think of her native Spanish as a resource for this task. When reading a Spanish word, she was sometimes reminded of English equivalents (“cognates,” as language teachers call them), but she did not use her much greater knowledge of Spanish to assist with her more limited English. She did not search for equivalent words deliberately, as Pamela did.

Relevance: recommendations for teaching english as an additional language

The authors of this article focused more directly on particular learning behaviors than did the authors of the two articles described earlier. Jimenez and his colleagues emphasized the importance of regarding a child’s native language as a strength in the process, not a liability, and they then pointed out the importance of facilitating vocabulary development. But they did not claim this recommendation to be appropriate for all children or for all forms of bilingualism. They only focused on a particular pair of languages (Spanish and English in the USA), and on three combinations of skill level in these two languages. These are common bilingual experiences in the United States, but they are not the only ones, either in the United States or elsewhere in the world.

For other bilingual situations, their conclusions might not hold true. For some students (e.g. Chinese Americans), the native language and the second language are much more different in vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar than Spanish is to English, and therefore may provide less of a resource to a child learning to read. In some settings, relationships between languages are more equal than in the United States. In Canada, for example, both the numbers and the overall social status of English speakers and French speakers are more equal than in the United States. In both of these situations, if a child fails to learn to read the second language, it may not be for the reasons suggested by Robert Jiménez, but for other reasons, ranging from difficulties with reading per se to cultural differences in how a child expects to be taught (Johnson, 2004).

The reader’s role: both teacher and researcher

In the published article describing their research, Jiménez, García, and Pearson assumed that readers have some familiarity with bilingual students and with issues related to teaching reading. They began their article by describing previous research studies in these areas—more than a dozen of them, in fact. In the middle they described numerous responses of the three bilingual students to the passages they were asked to read. At the end of the article they made specific suggestions for teaching, such as “focus more on vocabulary development”. When Kelvin read these various sections, he found that his prior knowledge of and reflections about teaching helped to make sense of them. But he also found that did not need to be an expert in bilingualism order to understand the authors’ messages—he had never, in fact, taught English as a Second Language, nor had he ever conducted research on reading or bilingual language development.

Action research: hearing from teachers about improving practice

Each of the professional articles just described offers ideas and recommendations that can stimulate reflection about teaching and learning. But they all suffer from a particular limitation: Although they often relate to teachers and classrooms, teachers’ role in

influencing in designing and interpreting a study is minimal. In the world of educational research, persons other than teachers—typically professors, educational administrators, or other professional researchers—tend to speak on behalf of teachers. All three of the articles described earlier in this chapter had this feature. Persons other than teachers chose the research topics.

The information that emerges from this arrangement often still relates to teaching and learning, and may contain useful insights for classroom work. But by definition, it is framed by people whose interests and fundamental commitments may not be identical with classroom teachers. As a result, the studies are somewhat more likely to attend to problems posed by academic disciplines or by educational administrators. Two of the studies which we described earlier—the ones about moral development and about labels for disabilities—showed this quality. Classroom teachers are concerned, of course, about both moral development and categorizing of students. But if teachers had designed the two projects themselves, they might have re-framed both of them to focus more explicitly on the challenges of classroom teaching. In studying moral beliefs, for example, teachers might have focused more squarely on how to foster moral beliefs in their students. In studying inclusive education, they might have focused more fully on the practical difficulties faced by teachers in assessing students' learning disabilities with validity.

The nature of action research

In view of these issues, a particularly important kind of investigation for teachers is action research (sometimes also teacher research), an activity referring to systematic, intentional inquiry by teachers for the purpose of improving their own practice (Stenhouse, 1985; Brydon-Miller, Greenwood, & Maguire, 2003; Russell, T. & Loughran, J. 2005). Action research is not to be confused with research about teaching and learning, which are investigations by professional researchers on topics of teachers, teaching, or learning.

Action research has several defining characteristics, in addition to being planned and conducted by teachers. First, it originates in the problems and dilemmas of classroom practice, or in chronic problems with certain students, materials, or activities. Second, its outcomes offer information focused on particular teachers and classrooms, rather than about teachers in general or students in general. Although this feature might make action research seem less useful as a source of advice or knowledge that is truly general, supporters argue that focusing on specific learning contexts makes action research more credible or valid as a source of practical information and ideas. It is, they argue, simply more attuned to the context of real classrooms (St. Clair, 2005). Third, while the audience for action research can certainly include professors and educational administrators, the audience tends to be other teachers (Fenstermacher, 1994; Ackerman & MacKenzie, 2007). Action research is therefore in an especially strong position to provide "insider" perspectives on educational problems.

Action research in practice

Action research makes a number of assumptions as a result of its nature and purposes (Richardson, 1994; Schmuck, 2006). To varying degrees, most such studies support some combination of these ideas:

- that teaching is itself really a form of research
- that action research, like teaching itself, requires substantial reflection
- that collaboration among teachers is crucial for making teacher research meaningful, and for the improvement of teaching
- that teachers' knowledge of teaching has to be shared publicly, especially when gained systematically through action research

To see how these features look in practice, look at several examples of action research studies.

Example #1: Focusing on motivating students

A number of years ago, Patricia Clifford and Sharon Friesen published an account of their effort to develop a classroom program based on students' out-of-school interests and experiences (1993). Clifford and Friesen were co-teachers in a double-sized classroom which deliberately included children from first, second and third grades. Their interest in students' out-of-school experiences grew out of three more basic questions about teaching, which they phrased like this:

- How can curriculum remain open to children's unique experiences and connect with the world they know outside the school? Too often, the official school curriculum lacked meaning for children because it seemed cut off from the rest of the world. The result was unmotivated students and poor learning.
- Why is imaginative experience the best starting place for planning? The teachers felt that imaginative experiences—make-believe play, stories, poems—provided access to children's lives outside school—their make-believe play, or their stories or

poems. Perhaps somehow these could be connected to the goals of the official curriculum.
- What happens when teachers break down the barriers between school knowledge and real knowledge? In drawing on children's outside experiences, would children actually become more motivated or not? Would they take over the program, and fail to learn the official curriculum goals?

To answer these questions, the teachers kept extensive diaries or journals for one entire school year. These became the "data" for the research. In the journals, they described and reflected on their daily teaching experiences. The teachers also talked with each other extensively about classroom events and their significance, and the results of the conversations often entered the journals eventually during the research. In their journal, for example, the teachers recorded an experience with students about ways of telling time. In preliminary discussions the students became interested in how a sundial worked. So the teachers and students went outside, where they created a human sundial, using the students themselves. The teachers' journal kept a chronicle of these events, and noted the comments and questions which students developed as a result:

- If you stood in the same place for a whole day you would see your shadow change places because the earth changes position.
- Why is my shadow longer than I am in the evening, but shorter at noon?
- Clouds can block the sun's rays so sundials won't work on rainy days.
- How did people start to tell time?

As the year evolved and observations accumulated and were recorded, the teachers gradually began to answer their own three questions. They found, for example, that connecting the curriculum with children's interests and motives was most effective when they could establish a personal bond with a child. They also found that imaginative expression helped certain children to feel safe to explore ideas. They found that blending school-based and personal knowledge caused children to learn much more than before—although much of the additional knowledge was not part of an official curriculum. With these conclusions in mind, and with numerous examples to support them, Clifford and Friesen published their study so that others could share what they had learned about teaching, learning, and students.

The study by Clifford and Friesen is interesting in its own right, but for our purposes think for a moment about their work as an example of action research. One of its features is that it formed part of the normal course of teaching: the authors were simply more systematic about how they observed the students and recorded information about classroom events. Another feature is that the research required conscious reflection over an extended time: their journals and conversations contained not only descriptions of events, but also interpretations of the events. A third feature is that the study involved collaboration: it was not just one teacher studying the major questions, but two. Th fourth feature is that the teachers not only developed their results and conclusions for themselves, but also shared them with others. These four qualities make the study by Clifford and Friesen a clear example of teacher research. Note, though, that sometimes studies conducted by teachers may not show all of these features so clearly; instead they may show some of the key features, but not all of them, as in the next two examples.

Example #2: Focusing on development

Since 1981, Vivian Paley has published a series of short books documenting and interpreting her observations of young children in classrooms (1981, 1986, 1991, 1998, 2000, 2005). Paley was interested in how young children develop or change over the long term, and in particular how the development looks from the point of view of a classroom teacher. In one of these books, for example, she observed one child in particular, Mollie, from the time she entered nursery school just after her third birthday until after the child turned four years old (Paley, 1986). Her interest was not focused on curriculum, as Clifford and Friesen's had done, but on Mollie as a growing human being; "the subject which I most wished to learn," she wrote, "is children" (p. xiv). Paley therefore wrote extended narrative (or story-like) observations about the whole range of activities of this one child, and wove in periodic brief reflections on the observations. Because the observations took story-like form, her books read a bit like novels: themes are sometimes simply suggested by the story line, rather than stated explicitly. Using this approach, Paley demonstrated (but occasionally also stated) several important developmental changes. In Mollie at Three (1988), for example, she describes examples of Mollie's language development. At three years, the language was often disconnected from Mollie's actions—she would talk about one thing, but do another. By four, she was much more likely to tie language to her current activities, and in this sense she more often "said what she meant." A result of the change was that Mollie also began understanding and following classroom rules as the year went on, because the language of rules became more connected in her mind to the actions to which they referred.

Vivian Paley's book had some of the characteristics of action research—but with differences from Clifford and Friesen's. Like their research, Paley's "data" was based on her own teaching, while her teaching was influenced in turn by her systematic observations. Like Clifford and Friesen's, Paley's research involved numerous reflections on teaching, and it led to a public sharing of the reflections—in this case in the form of several small books. Unlike Clifford and Friesen, though, Paley worked independently, without collaboration. Unlike Clifford and Friesen, she deliberately integrated observation and interpretation as they might be integrated in a piece of fiction, so that the resulting "story" often implied or showed its message without stating it in so may words. In this regard her work had qualities of what some educators call arts-based research, which are studies that take advantage of an artistic medium (in this case, narrative or story-like writing) to heighten readers' understanding and response to research findings (Barone and Eisner, 2006). If you are studying the use of space in the classroom, for example, then aesthetically organized visual depictions (photos, drawings) of the room may be more helpful and create more understanding than verbal descriptions. If you are studying children's musical knowledge, on the other hand, recordings of performances by the children may be more helpful and informative than discussions of performances.

Example #3: Focusing on collaboration

In 1996, an example of action research was published that was intended simultaneously for classroom teachers and for university researchers, and which focused on the challenges of collaboration among educators (Ulichny & Schoener, 1996). A teacher (Wendy Schoener) and a university researcher (Polly Ulichny) explored how, or even whether, teachers and university researchers could participate as equals in the study of teaching. Wendy (the two used first names throughout when they published their experiences) was a teacher of adults learning English as a Second Language (ESL); Polly was a specialist in multicultural education and wanted to observe a teacher who was successful at reaching the ethnically diverse students who normally study ESL. Polly therefore asked Wendy for permission to study her teaching for an extended period of time—to visit her class, videotape it, interview her about it, and the like.

What followed is best described as an extended negotiation between teacher and professor for access to Wendy's class, on the one hand, and for mutual respect for each other's work, on the other. In the published article, the negotiations are described separately by each participant, in order to honor the differences in their concerns and perspectives. Before, during, and after the observations, it was necessary for Polly and Wendy each to adjust expectations of what the other person could do and was willing to do. As the authors put it, some things were "easy to hear" from the other and some things were "hard to hear". Wendy, as a teacher, found it easier to hear criticisms of her teaching if they came from herself, rather than from the higher-status university professor, Polly. Polly, for her part, found it easier to hear Wendy's comments if she matched Wendy's self-criticisms and evaluations with some of her own experiences. Polly therefore made sure to tell Wendy about dilemmas and problems she experienced in her own (university) teaching. Because they needed to adjust to hearing and talking with each other, the two educators eventually focused less on Polly's original purpose—studying multicultural teaching—and more on the problem of how teachers and university researchers might collaborate effectively.

Overall, this study qualifies as a piece of action research, though it is not fully focused on classroom teaching. For example, the teachers did collaborate and reflect on their experiences, but not all of the reflection was about teaching in classrooms. The rest was about the relationship between Wendy and Polly. While the problem selected was originally about classroom teaching—Wendy's—it did not originate with the classroom teacher (Wendy) or concerns she had about her own classroom; instead it was chosen by the university researcher (Polly) and her desire to study multicultural teaching. The researchers did share what they learned by publishing their observations and ideas, but their published report speaks only partly to classroom teachers as such; in addition it speaks to academic researchers and educators of future teachers.

By pointing out differences among these examples of action research, we do not mean to imply that one is "better" than another. The point is simply to show how diverse studies by teachers can be and to appreciate their differences. Whatever their specific features, classroom studies by teachers hold in common the commitment to giving a voice to teachers as they reflect on problems and challenges intrinsic to classroom life. This goal can be accomplished in more than one way: through journals and other record-keeping methods, through oral discussions with colleagues, and through written reflections created either for themselves or for others concerned about teaching and learning. Diversity among topics and methods in action research studies should not surprise us, in fact, since classrooms are themselves so diverse.

The challenges of action research

Well and good, you may say. Action research offers teachers a way to hear each other, to learn from their own and other's experience. But there are also a few cautions to keep in mind, both ethical and practical. Look briefly at each of these areas.

Ethical cautions about action research

One caution is the possibility of conflict of interest between the roles of teaching and conducting action research (Hammack, 1997). A teacher's first priorities should be the welfare of his or her students: first and foremost, you want students to learn, to be motivated, to feel accepted by their peers, and the like. A researcher's first priorities, however, are to the field or topic being studied. The two kinds of priorities may often overlap and support each other. Vivian Paley's observations of children in her classes, described earlier, not only supported her children's learning, but also her studies of the children.

But situations can also occur in which action research and teaching are less compatible, and can create ethical dilemmas. The problems usually relate to one of three issues: privacy, informed consent, or freedom to participate. Each of these becomes an issue only if the results of a research project are made public, either in a journal or book, as with the examples we have given in this chapter, or simply by being described or shared outside the classroom. (Sharing, you may recall, is one of the defining features of action research.) Look briefly at each of the issues.

Insuring privacy of the student

Teachers often learn information about students that the students or their families may not want publicized. Suppose, for example, you have a student with an intellectual disability in your class, and you wish to study how the student learns. Observing the student work on (and possibly struggle with) academic activities may be quite consistent with a teacher's responsibilities; after all, teachers normally should pay attention to their students' academic efforts. But the student or his family may not want such observations publicized or even shared informally with other parents or teachers. They may feel that doing so would risk stigmatizing the student publicly.

To respect the student's privacy and still study his learning behavior, the teacher (alias the "action researcher") therefore needs to disguise the student's identity whenever the research results are made public. In any written or oral report, or even in any hallway conversation about the project, the teacher/researcher would use a pseudonym for the student, and change other identifying information such as the physical description of the student or even the student's gender. There are limits, however, to how much can be disguised without changing essential information. The teacher could not, for example, hide the fact of the intellectual disability without compromising the point of the study; yet the intellectual disability might be unusual enough that it would effectively identify the student being studied.

Gaining informed consent

Students may not understand what is being studied about them, or even realize that they are being studied at all, unless the teacher/researcher makes an explicit effort to inform them about the action research and how she will use the results from it. The same is true for the students' parents; unless the teacher-researcher makes an effort to contact parents, they simply will not know that their child's activities are being observed or may eventually be made public. Students' ignorance is especially likely if the students are very young (kindergarten) or have intellectual or reading difficulties, as in the example we described above. As an action researcher, therefore, a teacher is obliged to explain the nature of a research project clearly, either in a letter written in simple language or in a face-to-face conversation, or both. Parents and students need to give clear indications that they actually understand what class activities or materials will constitute data that could be made public. In most cases, indicating informed consent means asking students' parents signing a letter giving permission for the study. Sometimes, in addition, it is a good idea to recheck with students or parents periodically as the project unfolds, to make sure that they still support participation.

Insuring freedom to participate

When a student fails to participate in an ordinary class activity, most teachers consider it legitimate to insist on the student's participation—either by persuading, demanding, or (perhaps) tricking the student to join. Doing so is ethical for teachers in their roles as teachers, because teachers are primarily responsible for insuring that students learn, and students' participation presumably facilitates learning. If a teacher designates an activity as part of an action research project, however, and later shares the results with them, the teacher then also becomes partly responsible for how other teachers use knowledge of the research study. (Remember:

sharing results is intrinsically part of the research process.) The resulting dual commitment means that "forcing" a student to participate in an action research activity can no longer be justified solely as being for the student's own educational good.

Much of the time, a simultaneous commitment to both teachers and students presents no real dilemma: what is good for the action research project may also be good for the students. But not always. Suppose, for example, that a teacher wants to do research about students' beliefs about war and global conflict, and doing so requires that students participate in numerous extended group discussions on this topic. Even though the group discussions might resemble a social studies lesson and in this sense be generally acceptable as a class activity, some parents (or students) may object because they take too much class time away from the normal curriculum topics. Yet the research project necessitates giving it lots of discussion time in class. To respond ethically to this dilemma, therefore, the teacher may need to allow students to opt out of the discussions if they or their parents choose. She may therefore need to find ways for them to cover an alternate set of activities from the curriculum. (One way to do this, for example, is to hold the special group discussions outside regular class times—though this obviously also increases the amount of work for both the teacher and students.)

Practical issues about action research

Is action research practical? From one perspective the answer has to be "Of course not!" Action research is not practical because it may take teachers' time and effort which they could sometimes use in other ways. Keep in mind, though, that a major part of the effort needed for action research involves the same sort of work—observing, recording information, reflecting—that is needed for any teaching that is done well. A better way to assess practicality may therefore be to recognize that teaching students always takes a lot of work, and to ask whether the additional thoughtfulness brought on by action research will make the teaching more successful.

Looked at in this way, action research is indeed practical, though probably not equally so on every occasion. If you choose to learn about the quality of conversational exchanges between yourself and students, for example, you will need some way to record these dialogues, or at least to keep accurate, detailed notes on them. Recording the dialogues may be practical and beneficial—or not, depending on your circumstances. On the other hand, if you choose to study how and why certain students remain on the margins of your class socially, this problem too may be practical as action research. Or it may not, depending on whether you can find a way to observe and reflect on students' social interactions, or lack thereof. Much depends on your circumstances—on the attention you can afford to give to your research problem while teaching, in relation to the benefits that solutions to the problems will bring students later. In general any action research project may require certain choices about how to teach, though it should not interfere with basic instructional goals or prevent coverage of an important curriculum. The main point to remember is that action research is more than passive observation of students and classrooms; it also includes educational interventions, efforts to stimulate students to new thinking and new responses. Those are features of regular teaching; the difference is primarily in how systematically and reflectively you do them.

Benefiting from all kinds of research

Although we authors both feel a degree of sympathy for the nature and purposes of action research, we are not trying to advocate for it at the expense of other forms of educational research or at the expense of simply reading and understanding professional publications in general. The challenge for you, as a classroom teacher, is to find the value in all forms of professional development, whether it be participation in a professional association, reading general articles about research, or engaging in your own action research. To the extent that you draw on them all, your ways of learning about teaching will be enriched. You will acquire more ways to understand classroom life, while at the same time acquiring perspective on that life. You will learn ways to grasp the individuality of particular students, but also to see what they need in common. You will have more ways to interpret your own experiences as a professional teacher, but also be able to learn from the professional experience of others. Realizing these benefits fully is a challenge, because the very diversity of classrooms renders problems about teaching and learning complex and diverse as well. But you will also gain good, professional company in searching for better understanding of your work—company that includes both educational researchers, other professional teachers, and of course your students.

Appendix summary

The complexities of teaching require teachers to continue learning throughout their teaching careers. To become a lifelong reflective practitioner, teachers can rely on colleagues as a resource, on professional associations and their activities, and on

professional publications related to educational issues and needs. Understanding the latter, in turn, requires understanding the purposes of the published material—whether it is offering a general framework, recommending desirable teaching practices, or advocating for a particular educational policy or need. Interpreting published material also requires understanding the assumptions that authors make about readers' prior knowledge and beliefs.

An important additional strategy for becoming a reflective practitioner is action research—studies of teaching and learning designed and carried out by teachers in order to improve their own practice. By nature, action research studies are highly relevant to classroom practice, but there are also cautions about it to keep in mind, both ethically and practically.

Further Resources

The two following websites belong to professional organizations dedicated to action research.

- The first belongs to the Society for Community Research and Action, a division of the American Psychological Association. It promotes and publishes action research in many professions, one of which is education.
- The second website belongs to the Action Research Special Interest Group of the American Educational Research Association; as you might suspect from its name, it focuses exclusively on action research by educators.

This website offers the lectures notes and videos of class sessions in a course about reflective practice offered at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) in Cambridge, Massachusetts. The materials are of high quality, and go into much more detail about the concept than is possible in this appendix.

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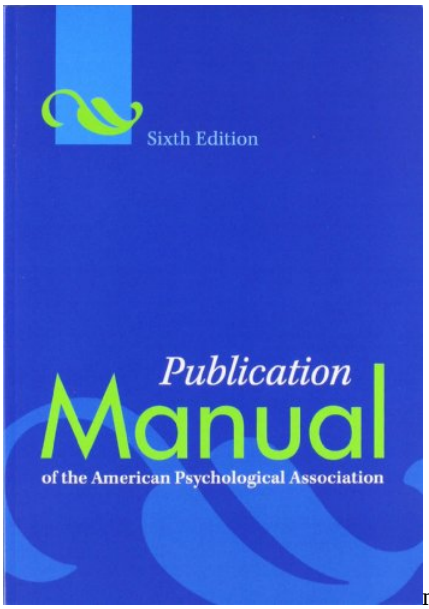
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American Psychological Association (APA) Style is a method of formatting and referencing works in research papers and



manuscripts. This style is most commonly practiced by academics within the social sciences, including the fields of nursing, psychology, and political science, and economics. APA style provides writers with a consistent formula for acknowledging the works of others using parenthetical in-text citations and a page listing all references. Additionally, APA style makes use of specific guidelines concerning the structure, content, and order of each page of a research paper or manuscript. Adhering to the uniform standards of APA style will enhance your paper's organization and allow readers to review your work with greater clarity.

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14.5: APA Order of Major Sections

Careful adherence to these conventions is likely to make a good initial impression on the reader, while carelessness may have the opposite effect. When the major sections of a paper are carefully arranged in the appropriate order, the reader may be more inclined to show an interest in the paper's ideas.

How should the major sections of an APA-style paper be arranged?

- **Title Page** : acts as the first major section of the document
  - Presents a running head and begins the document's pagination
  - Includes the paper's full title centered in the upper half of the page
  - Contains the name(s) of the writer(s) and their institutional affiliation
- **Abstract** : acts as the second major section of the document
  - Presents a single-paragraph summary of the paper's contents
  - Contains approximately 150 to 250 words
  - Includes select keywords for easy access by researchers
- **Main Body** : acts as the third major section of the document
  - Presents a report of the writer(s)' research and findings
  - Includes four sections (typically): the introduction, method, results, and discussion
  - Provides the reader with pertinent information about the paper's topic
- **References page** : acts as the fourth major section of the document
  - Presents a compilation of the sources cited in the paper
  - Provides a comprehensive list of works that appear as in-text citations in the paper
  - Details the full source information for each entry

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14.6: APA Title Page Formatting

Placement

As the first major section of the document, the title page appears at the top of the first page.

Components

The title page is comprised of a few key elements:

- Running head (or shortened title) and label
- Page number
- Full title of the paper
- Author byline: first name(s), middle initial(s), and last name(s)
- Affiliated Institution(s) or Organization(s)
- Author note (optional)

Follow your instructor's directives regarding additional lines on the title page. Some professors require further information, including the date of submission, course number or title, or name of the professor.

General Format

Like the rest of the paper, the title page should be double-spaced and typed in Times New Roman, 12 pt. The margins are set at 1" on all sides.

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How should the running head be formatted on the title page?

The running head and label is flush with the upper left-hand corner of the title page, while the page number is flush with the upper right-hand corner of the page. The label "Running head" should only appear on the title page; on all other pages, simply include the shortened title of the paper. All letters of the running head should be capitalized and should not exceed 50 characters, including punctuation, letters, and spaces.

Example of a correctly formatted running head on the title page:

Running head: EFFECTS OF NUTRITION ON MEMORY

Note: The title page is distinct in that the shortened title of this page is preceded by the label "Running head" followed by a colon; ***no other page*** *of the document features this label.*

How should the full title of the paper be formatted?

The full title of the paper is centered in the upper half of the page, and the first letter of each major word is capitalized. The paper's title should be a maximum of 12 words and fill one or two lines; avoid using abbreviations and unnecessary words. Do not format the title with bold, italics, underlining, or quotation marks.

How should the author byline be formatted?

The author byline is comprised of the author(s)' first name(s), middle initial(s), and last name(s); this line follows after the full title of the research paper. Note that two authors are separated by the word and, but more than two authors' names are separated by commas.

What should the institutional affiliation include?

Following the author byline is the institutional affiliation of the author(s) involved with the research paper. Include the name of the college or university you attend, or the name of the organization(s) that provided support for your research.

Any additional lines of information requested by your professor may be situated after the institutional affiliation. If your instructor requires you to include an author's note, position it in the lower half of the title page.

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Beginning at the top of a new page, the main body of the research paper follows the abstract and precedes the References page. Comprised of the introduction, method, results, and discussion subsections, the main body acts as the third major section of the document and typically begins on the third page of the paper.

General Format

Like the rest of the paper, the pages of the main body should be double-spaced and typed in Times New Roman, 12 pt. The margins are set at 1” on all sides. While the running head is flush with the upper left-hand corner of every page, the page number is flush with the upper right-hand corner of every page. Note that all letters of the running head should be capitalized and should not exceed 50 characters, including punctuation, letters, and spaces.

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The full title of the paper is centered directly above the introduction with no extra space between the title and the first paragraph. Avoid formatting the title with bold, italics, underlining, or quotation marks. The first letter of each major word in the title should be capitalized. Unlike other sections of the main body, the introduction does not require a heading or label.

When writing each paragraph, note that the APA recommends using two spaces after sentences that end in a period; however, sentences that end in other punctuation marks may be followed by a single space.

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14.8: APA In-Text Citations

An essential component of a research paper, in-text citations are a way of acknowledging the ideas of the author(s) of a particular work.

Each source that appears as an in-text citation should have a corresponding detailed entry in the References list at the end of the paper. Including the required elements in every citation allows other researchers to easily track the references used in a paper and locate those resources themselves.

There are three pieces of information that should be included in a citation after quoting another writer's work: the author's last name, the year of publication, and the page number(s) of the quoted material, all of which are separated by commas. The page number should follow a lower-case letter '*p*' and a period.

- Basic structure: (Author, Year of Publication, p. 142)
  - **Example : (Kutner, 2003, p. 451) [1]**

If the quoted material was taken from more than one page, use two lower-case letter '*p*'s.

- Basic structure: (Author, Year, of Publication, pp. 194-196)
  - **Example : (Kutner, 2003, pp. 451-452) [1]**

How should multiple authors of a single source be cited?

There are a few guidelines to follow when citing multiple authors for a single source. Separate the names of the source's authors by using commas. Depending on the location and instance of the citation, an ampersand(&), the word *and*, or the term *et al*. may also need to be used.

When should an ampersand be used?

Ampersands (&) should only be used in parenthetical in-text citations. An ampersand separates the last and second to last author of a cited work.

- **Example: Research has demonstrated that "synesthesia appears quite stable over time, and synesthetes are typically surprised to discover that other people do not share their experiences" (Niccolai, Jennes, Stoerig, & Van Leeuwen, 2012, p. 81). [1]**

When should the word *and* be used?

The word and should only be used in a sentence or paragraph; do not use it in a parenthetical in-text citation. The last and second to last author of a cited work are separated by the word *and*.

- **Example: Niccolai, Jennes, Stoerig, and Van Leeuwen (2012) observed that "synesthesia appears quite stable over time, and synesthetes are typically surprised to discover that other people do not share their experiences" (p. 81). [1]**

When should the term *et al*. be used?

When citing a single work with many authors, you may need to substitute some of the authors' names with the term *et al*. The term*et al*. should not be italicized in your paper, and a period should be placed after the word *al* as it is an abbreviated term. Follow these guidelines regarding the usage of *et al*.:

Use *et al*.:

- The first time and every time you cite a source with at least six authors.
  - **Example: The in-text citation of *Zoonoses: Infectious diseases transmissible from animals to humans*, a book authored by Krauss, Weber, Appel, Enders, Isenberg, Schiefer, Slenczka, von Graevenitz, and Zahner, would appear as follows: [2] (Krauss et al., 2003, p. 91)**
  - As Krauss et al. (2003) observed, …
- Every following time (after the first instance) that you cite a source with at least three authors.

- **Example: Citing the article "Modality and variability of synesthetic experience" by Niccolai, Jennes, Stoerig, & Van Leeuwen would appear as follows: [1] The first instance: (Niccolai, Jennes, Stoerig, & Van Leeuwen, 2012, p. 81)**
- Every following instance: (Niccolai et al., 2012)

Avoid using *et al.*:

- The first time you cite a source with up to five authors.
  - Instead, list all of the authors at their first mentioning.
- To cite a work that only has two authors.
  - Instead, always list the two authors' names in every citation (separated by either an ampersand or the word and, depending on the location)

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14.9: APA References Page Formatting

Placement

The References page is located at the end of the main body of the paper and begins at the top of a new page. Appendices, footnotes, and additional materials should follow after the References page.

General Format

Like the rest of the paper, the References page should be double-spaced and typed in Times New Roman, 12 pt. The running head should appear flush with the upper left-hand corner of the page, and the page number should appear at the upper right-hand corner of the page.

The title of the References page is capitalized and centered at the top of the page without any formatting, including bold, italics, underlining, or quotation marks. Avoid mislabeling the References page as “Works Cited,” “Sources,” or “Bibliography.”

Entries

Each entry should be formatted as a hanging indentation: the first line of each citation should be flush with the left margin while each subsequent line of the citation is indented five spaces from the left margin. Alphabetize the entries in the References page based on the authors’ last names (or the first word of a work’s title, if a work does not name any authors). Though it will vary from source to source, the general structure of a print book citation is as follows:

Author Last Name, Initials. (Year of publication). *Title of the work.* Publication city: Publishing Company.

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Following is a list of sample citations for commonly used sources. Consult the current edition of the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (6th ed.) for a complete list of guidelines for formatting entries on the references page.

Print Examples

Single-Authored Book

Hoppensteadt, F. C. (1997). *An introduction to the mathematics of neurons: Modeling in the frequency domain.* New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Book with Multiple Authors

Two or more authors

Pandi-Perumal, S. R., Cardinali, D. P., & Chrousos, G. (2007).*Neuroimmunology of sleep*. New York, NY: Springer.

Seven or more authors

Krauss, H., Weber, A., Appel, M., Enders, B., Isenberg, H. D., Schiefer, H. G., . . . Zahner, H. (2003). *Zoonoses: Infectious diseases transmissible from animals to humans.* Washington, DC: ASM Press.

Book by an Association or Organization

American Psychological Association. (2010). *Publication manual of the American Psychological Association* (6th ed.). Washington, DC: Author.

Article or Chapter in an Edited Collection

Riding, R. (2001). The nature and effects of cognitive style. In Sternberg, R. J., & Zhang, L.-F. (Eds.), *Perspectives on thinking, learning, and cognitive styles* (pp. 47-72). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Collected Content in an Edited Book

Single editor

Gray, W. D. (Ed.). (2007). Integrated models of cognition systems. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Multiple editors

Reynolds, W. M., & Johnston, H. F. (Eds.). (1994). *Handbook of depression in children and adolescents*. New York, NY: Plenum Press.

Article in Print Periodical

With DOI

Marsh, J. K., & Ahn, W. (2012). Memory for patient information as a function of experience in mental health.*Journal of Applied Cognitive Psychology*, *26*(3), 462-474. doi:10.1002/acp.2832

Without DOI

Murphy, V. M. (1960). Anxiety: Common ground for psychology and sociology. *The American Catholic Sociological Review*, *21*(3), 213-220.

Electronic Examples

Book in Electronic Form

Levitin, D. J. (2002). *Foundations of cognitive psychology: Core readings*. Retrieved from http://ehis.ebscohost.com

Article in Online Periodical

With DOI

Oruç, I., Krigolson, O., Dalrymple, K., Nagamatsu, L. S., Handy, T. C., & Barton, J. S. (2011). Bootstrap analysis of the single subject with event related potentials. *Journal of Cognitive Neuropsychology, 28*(5), 322-337. doi:10.1080/02643294.2011.648176

Without DOI

Niccolai, V., Jennes, J., Stoerig, P., & Van Leeuwen, T. M. (2012). Modality and variability of synesthetic experience.*The American Journal of Psychology*, *125*(1), 81-94. Retrieved from JSTOR database at http://www.jstor.org/

Article from a Webpage

By Multiple Authors

Vorvick, L. J., Longstreth, G. F., & Zieve, D. (2011, January 10). E. coli enteritis. Retrieved from http://www.nlm.nih.gov/medlineplus/ency/article/000296.htm

By an Organization/Group

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (2012). Lead. Retrieved from http://www.cdc.gov/niosh/topics/lead/

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Water, carbon and nitrogen cycle. (n.d.) Retrieved from http://www.etap.org/demo/biology_files/lesson6/instruction4tutor.html

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