

Foundations of Education

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Title Page

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Editor: Jennifer Margolis

Citation for this Text:

Remix of the following Texts:

1. **Jacqueline M. DiSanto**, Hostos Community College. (n.d.). Foundations of education. Pressbooks. <https://library.achievingthedream.org/hostoseducation/>
2. **Wells, M.** (n.d.). Foundations of American Education: A Critical Lens. Pressbooks. <https://viva.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofamericaneducation/>

Introduction

Dear students, colleagues, and readers,

As we delve into the pages of this comprehensive history of education textbook, we are honored to introduce a work that not only chronicles the evolution of educational systems but also sheds light on the contemporary challenges that our students confront. Our journey through the annals of education is not just a recounting of facts, but an exploration of the transformative power of knowledge and the intricacies of a system that shapes societies and individuals alike.

Education has always been a dynamic force, adapting to the changing needs of societies and the aspirations of individuals. In the pursuit of knowledge, students have always been at the center, eager to unravel the mysteries of the world and better themselves in the process. However, the modern landscape of education presents us with both opportunities and obstacles that warrant thoughtful consideration.

One pressing concern faced by our students today is the soaring cost of textbooks. As educators, we recognize that the availability of resources is vital to the learning process. The burden imposed by exorbitant textbook prices can hinder students' ability to access essential learning materials, potentially limiting their academic success. This textbook, in its digital form, aims to contribute to the solution by embracing electronic formats that are more accessible and affordable. Through this choice, we hope to ease the financial strain on our students and foster a more inclusive learning environment. We must be mindful that the digital divide still persists, and not all students have equal access to technology. As we celebrate the advantages of e-books, let us also advocate for equitable distribution of resources, ensuring that all students can harness the potential of digital learning.

Our exploration of the history of education would be incomplete without addressing the disparities that plague the American educational landscape. The United States, a land of diversity and opportunity, has unfortunately witnessed the perpetuation of inequities within its education system. The disparities in funding, resources, and educational quality have deep-rooted implications, perpetuating cycles of disadvantage that hinder social mobility. It is incumbent upon us, as educators and scholars, to raise awareness of these issues and advocate for meaningful reforms that strive for a more just and equitable education system for all.

Furthermore, the restriction of curriculum in certain states within the U.S. is a topic that cannot be ignored. Education, often considered a pillar of societal progress, should encourage critical thinking, diverse perspectives, and open discourse. Yet, the imposition of rigid curricular limitations stifles creativity and narrows the educational experience. This textbook serves as a testament to the importance of exploring a broad range of topics, fostering intellectual curiosity, and nurturing a generation of learners who are unafraid to question and explore.

This textbook is not a mere compilation of historical facts, but an invitation to critically examine the multifaceted dimensions of education. As we turn its pages, let us reflect on the challenges our students face, from financial burdens to the digital divide and educational inequalities. Let us acknowledge the immense potential of electronic resources while advocating for their widespread accessibility. And let us remain steadfast in our commitment to a more inclusive, equitable, and intellectually enriching education system.

This has not been a small undertaking- and while we did not write this text from scratch, we spent hundreds of hours across a two-year period to create an open and applicable textbook which we hope better meets the needs of our students. Creating an Open Educational Resource (OER) text is a fluid process, involving many months of writing and re-writing, and critical collaboration amongst colleagues.

We are especially grateful to the following OER Foundations of Education textbooks for their original work in the following texts:

1. **Jacqueline M. DiSanto**, Hostos Community College. (n.d.). Foundations of education. Pressbooks.
<https://library.achievingthedream.org/hostoseducation/>
2. **Wells, M.** (n.d.). Foundations of American Education: A Critical Lens. Pressbooks.
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We recognize the enormous amount of work that went into these OER texts. Thanks to their having created the original OER texts, we had the great privilege to build on their work and offer newer texts for our students. Other future authors may additionally recreate a text for their students as this is the iterative process of creating OER texts and for this open creative academic process, we are immensely grateful.

We also wish to acknowledge **Amy Hofer, Jen Klaudinyi**, and all the library staff across the state who support and promote OER through workshops and grants. This is a critical equity initiative which increases access for all, and notably historically-underserved communities across the state. It also allows everyday teachers and faculty to engage in textbook creation, and this is no small feat.

We could not have published this OER if it was not for our amazing readers: **Andreina Velasco, Dot McElhone, Nadia Raza, Hugo Nava- Sanchez, Gabe Hunter-Bernstein, Lorraine Adams and Pam Morse**. We are grateful for their thoughtful comments during the writing and rewriting process. Last, but not least, a huge thanks to **Jennifer Margolis** for reviewing the entire text at the end. Your thoughtful feedback helped us to make this a better textbook!

Sincerely,

Tanya, Kanoe, Lisa and Ceci

1. Why Teach?

“One of the lessons that I grew up with was to always stay true to yourself and never let what somebody else says distracts you from your goals. And so when I hear about negative and false attacks, I really don’t invest any energy in them, because I know who I am.”

Michelle Obama (personal communication, May 31, 2017)



Image 1.1

Learning Objectives

- Determine your beliefs, motivation and goals for becoming a teacher
- Learn about experiences from Elementary, Middle and High school teachers as well as the perspectives of Bilingual and Special Education teachers
- Reflect on the qualities of an effective teacher
- Summarize the focal points for teacher content and pedagogical knowledge: philosophy, content, and communication

- Understand the role of reflection in teaching practice

In this chapter, we will begin to peer behind the scenes of what it means to be a teacher in the United States. We'll walk through a day in the life of a teacher, break down what is involved to become a teacher, and close with characteristics of effective teachers.

1.1 A Day in the Life

To get started, let's drop into four different classrooms to get a feel for a day in the life of an elementary teacher, a secondary (high school) teacher, a special education teacher and an immersion/bilingual teacher. In the following situations, imagine what it might be like to be a teacher in each setting.

Elementary Perspective

The school doors open at 7 AM, and you greet children as they enter the cafeteria for breakfast. Once morning duty is over, you hurry to your classroom to await the 25 students that will come filing in momentarily. You make sure materials and directions for tasks are ready and calming music is playing. As students enter, you gather signed forms and respond to notes from families, help students with their morning activities, take attendance, and hold a morning meeting. The rest of the day, you are simultaneously teaching the content areas—English, math, science and social studies—and social skills as students navigate group work and friendships. Various other educators drop in throughout the day:



Image 1.2

the reading specialist to work with a group of readers who need extra support, the occupational therapist to help a student with some motor skills still developing, the speech pathologist to help students with articulation and language development, the instructional coach and sometimes the principal to give you feedback on your instruction.

A day in the life of an elementary educator could involve students collaborating to create products of learning.

Pauses throughout the day from the busy pace of classroom life include related arts, where students go to learn about music, visual art, library, P.E., and more while you meet with your grade level for team planning; and lunch and recess, which involve scarfing down your lunch while getting your students through the lunch line, figuring out who changed their lunch choice or left their lunch at home, opening mustard packets, reminding students to eat while they talk with friends, and hopefully scuttling off to check your school mailbox and take a bathroom break. After a post-recess water break, you return to classroom instruction, with a few interruptions for students leaving early for doctor's appointments, a student needing to go to the nurse's office, another teacher popping in to borrow a book, or sometimes even a whole-school assembly for a class play or anti-bullying program.

When it is time to pack up for the day at 2:30, you make sure all students know how they are getting home that day, have their materials packed and ready to go, and then you bid them farewell at the door with a hug, high-five, or handshake as they head to their dismissal area. Once your room is empty, you go to monitor a dismissal area to make sure everyone is safe. After school, you might have a faculty meeting, a debrief with an instructional coach based on today's observation, or time to prepare tomorrow's instructional materials. You marvel at how quickly yet another day has passed in the life of an elementary school teacher.

Bilingual – Immersion Perspective



Image 1.3

You are a Kindergarten Spanish immersion teacher. The model you follow in your school is called 90/10 which means you teach 90% of the day in Spanish and 10% of the day in English. This model includes students who are native Spanish speakers and students who speak other languages. As a kindergarten teacher you would like to develop units of study ahead of time and plan the steps students will follow to achieve their learning goal. This will allow you to be prepared and for students to have a predictable routine and learning structures. You will also like to start early in the morning so that you can work and focus on your lessons before staff and students arrive. The reason behind this is that after a

day with kindergarteners, you will be exhausted and will not have the energy to plan and prepare for the following day. Therefore, think about this time for you to be on track and get ready for the day.

Students arrive and get their breakfast in the cafeteria where you pick them up. Since this is your first contact with students, you can greet them, and their families, and ask questions such as “how was your afternoon yesterday?” and maybe follow up on stories they have told you the day before. Students enjoy telling you stories, so this time is very valuable as you get to develop relationships with them. All of these conversations are held in Spanish as this is the target language.

Once students are done with their breakfast, they clean up their tables, they go to the restroom and line up to go to the classroom and start the learning. While students take turns going to the restroom, students play games, such as riddles; students are encouraged to bring their own riddles. This is a fun time for students as they get to laugh and guess, as some of the riddles, as you might know, are jokes as well. Students have the opportunity to tell their jokes and riddles in their mother tongue as some of them are not easy to translate. You can also take this time as an opportunity to develop language skills as well as critical thinking skills. In this class, students are the leaders/teachers. There is a teacher helper who leads the morning activity with the help of the teacher as well as the help of Susanita, the classroom puppet. You should see how much they love Susanita.

The rest of the day looks very similar to the one described in elementary. The only thing that varies, is that students are immersed in the target language, which in this case is Spanish. You, as the teacher, need to make sure students are not only learning reading, writing, science, math, etc., but are also learning the target language as they develop their English skills during their language time. Being an immersion teacher is very rewarding as you are encouraging and supporting students to be bilingual, biliterate and bicultural. This means that when students are bilingual, they can speak two languages; biliterate means that students can read and write in two languages; and bicultural means that students learn and appreciate their own culture and their classmate's culture as well.

Secondary Perspective

The bell rings at 8:15 AM, but you've already been at school for more than an hour—making copies, checking emails, and writing the plans and goals for the day on the board. As an English teacher, you've decided to work on writing fluency during this year, so as the students enter the classroom, they take out their journals and begin responding to the prompt on the board. Every day the class meets, the students will write for five minutes and then briefly discuss their responses with each other and as a whole group. You write alongside them to model what it looks like, and often share your own writing—at the beginning of the



Image 1.4

year, most of the students struggled to write for five straight minutes, but now nearly all of them have gotten the hang of it. The rest of the lesson involves a mini lesson on figurative language, small group discussions about students' literature circle books, and a whole group review game to prepare for the unit test on Wednesday.

The school adopted a block schedule last year, so your classes are 75 minutes long. You teach three of four blocks each day; today is an A day, which means the first block is 9th grade honors and the other two are 10th grade general English. Tomorrow, you will teach two blocks of 9th grade general and one block of 10th grade College Preparatory English. You hate these labels and what they do to the students in the room, and, as department chair, you have been working with your principal to remove such rigid tracking.

A day in the life of a high school teacher could involve guiding students in their work, as this English teacher is doing.

"Bear Block" falls between 1st and 2nd block, and ten students stream into the room to retake tests, make up missed homework, or just hang out and read. You glance at the learning management system and see that there are 45 essays waiting for you, but there won't be time to look more closely at them until later tonight. During lunch, some of your journalism club students are in the room, partially working on stories and layouts, but mostly sharing the latest news about their friends and acquaintances.

For the Professional Learning Community (PLC) meeting during fourth block, you will meet with the other 10th grade English teachers to look at the results of a common assessment. At some schools in the district, the grade-level teachers all teach the same lessons, but luckily at this school you have more freedom in how you teach the material. There is a new teacher on the team who is struggling with classroom management, so the first 15 minutes of the meeting is spent discussing some strategies that have worked in other teachers' rooms.

The end of the day comes at 3:15 PM, but it will be another hour or two before you head home—there are sub plans to finish for Thursday because you will be attending a district-wide training for working with English Language Learners, and you are hoping to send at least ten texts and emails to parents. The initial fear of parent contact faded quickly, and now it's one of your strengths—you reach out early and often, connecting with families around student successes first. Later, if students begin struggling, contact is much more seamless. It's been a long, exhausting day, but interacting with the students has made it all worth it.

Special Education Perspective



Image 1.5

You arrive early in the morning, an hour or so before teachers officially start the school day. You greet the office manager, principal, and custodian on the way to your classroom. Aside from these three, the building will be mostly empty for another half hour. You've found that this quiet morning time provides the best opportunity to catch up on Individualized Education Plan (IEP) paperwork, reflect on student data from the prior day, and make adjustments to instruction for the coming day. As the official start time for the school day draws close, you make a quick dash to the copy machine, fingers crossed that it isn't broken and that there isn't a line of teachers anxiously waiting their turn. It's your lucky day. Your last photocopies shoot out of the machine just as the overhead announcement calls teachers to report to their morning duty stations. You quickly drop the

copies off in your classroom, pick up your data binder, and dash out the door to the bus loop.

The bus loop is a flurry of activity. You greet students with high-fives, occasional hugs, and countless reminders to "use walking feet." Amid all of these informal greetings, you are slipping in some IEP services by completing morning check-ins with several students who have behavioral or social-emotional goals on their IEPs. From an outsider's view, these check-ins don't look that different from your interactions with any other student. However, intermixed with those high-fives and hugs you quietly assess needs, remind students of the goals they are working on, offer support where needed, and quickly make notes in your data binder. On this particular day, a third grader with autism reports that he is feeling like "a category 3 hurricane." You know he needs some quiet time before joining his homeroom class, so you walk him to the computer lab where he has an open invitation to help the instructional technology specialist get the computer lab set up for the day.

The halls begin to clear as the instructional day begins. You spend the next six hours in constant motion, serving 18 students across four grade levels. You transition between co-teaching in general education classes and pulling small groups of students to your own classroom for intensive intervention in literacy, math, or social skills. When co-teaching, your job is to supplement the general education teacher's deep knowledge of grade-level content with specialized instructional strategies that make content meaningful and accessible for students with disabilities and other learning differences. When providing intensive intervention, you implement research-based programs that target specific skills identified in your students' IEPs. Data collection is on-going and individualized for each student, so your trusty data binder is by your side in all settings.

Normally, you would end the school day completing check-outs with the same students you saw in the morning. Today, you assign that responsibility to a teaching assistant so you can participate in a special education eligibility meeting. It is the initial eligibility meeting for this student and her family. A team of educators work with the parents to determine if the first grader has a disability and needs special education. Her parents feel overwhelmed by the process and fearful when the team concludes that their daughter has an intellectual disability. This is a moment when your job and your passion meet. You assure the parents that the future is bright for their daughter, that the educational label does not change who she is or who she will be, and that you will highlight her strengths and address her needs as you plan her education with them as equal partners. The decisions that you will make with this family are new to them, but for you they are a familiar and important part of your day as an elementary special education teacher.

The scenarios above describe some typical teaching days, but not all days are the same in teaching. In fact, each one will be different in some way. Deciding to become a teacher is an exciting commitment to shaping the future, and it is both demanding and rewarding. We will take a closer look at the teacher's purposes and beliefs as we ask and reflect on what are the things that great teachers do differently.

1.2 Becoming a Teacher – Profile of Teachers Today

The National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) collects data on various aspects of education, one of which is the demographics of teachers and students. In the 2020–21 school year, there were 3.8 million full- and part-time public school teachers, including 1.9 million elementary teachers and 1.9 million secondary teachers. In 2020–21, of all public school teachers, ninety percent held a regular or standard state teaching certificate or advanced professional certificates while fifty-one percent hold masters degrees. In 2020–21, the average base salary (in current 2020–21 dollars) for full-time public school teachers was \$61,600.¹⁰ While salaries differ across the



Image 1.6

country, salary levels for teachers within states or school districts are often set based on teachers' years of experience and education credentials (commonly referred to as "steps and lanes").

Seventy-seven percent of public school teachers were female and 23 percent were male in 2020–21. In 2020–21, the proportion of K–12 public school teachers who were White (80 percent) was significantly higher than the proportion of K–12 public school students who were White (46 percent), whereas the proportion of teachers of other racial/ethnic groups was lower than the proportion of students in those groups. For instance, 9 percent of public school teachers were Hispanic, compared with 28 percent of public school students.

In 2020–21, of all public school teachers,

- 80 percent were White;
- 9 percent were Hispanic;
- 6 percent were Black;
- 2 percent were Asian;
- 2 percent were of Two or more races;
- Less than 1 percent were American Indian/Alaska Native; and
- Less than one-half of 1 percent were Pacific Islander.

Stop and Investigate – Demographics

Check out the demographics of teachers in your state or school district. How do they compare? Find the salary scale for teachers in your local school district. How does it compare?

The trends are clear: in the United States, we lack a racially and culturally diverse teaching force, and that trend has not changed much in the past 20 years. While the 2020-2021 school year included more Hispanic, Asian, and multi-racial teachers, teachers are still overwhelmingly White. In the same school year, however, students who attended public schools were only 45% White (NCES, 2020b). That means that generally, there are more White teachers and more students of color (Geiger, 2018). This trend is concerning, given that research shows that having teachers of color benefits all students, not just students of color (Wells, Fox, & Cordova-Cobo, 2016).



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=5#oembed-1>

Video 1.1

Increasing Diversity of Teachers Today

There are many reasons why teachers in the United States are not racially diverse. While the U.S. Supreme Court's 1954 decision in *Brown v. Board of Education* demanded all schools integrate to address some of the inequalities between separate schools for White and Black students, it did have other consequences that directly impacted the diversity of teachers in the United States. Recent reviews of archival data estimate that from 1964-1972, in 781 school districts across the south, 31.8% of Black teachers left the teaching profession (Thompson, 2019). Some were pushed out of the profession while others migrated north to continue teaching. Some Black teachers entered occupations which required lower skill levels. (Milner & Howard, 2004; Thompson, 2019). To make up for the loss, districts hired white teachers from both genders, who were new to the field or who lacked training.

Even though this historical antecedent did limit access to teaching jobs for Black people, racial discrimination in the hiring process continues to compound this issue. D'Amico et al. (2017) found that despite equally-qualified candidates applying for jobs in one large school district, White teacher candidates still received a disproportionate number of job offers: of the 70% White applicants, 77% received job offers, while of the 13% Black candidates, 6% received job offers (D'Amico, Pawlewicz, Earley, & McGeehan, 2017; Klein, 2017). Beyond the hiring process, retention of hired teachers is lower for teachers of color than for White teachers. For example, between the 2011-2012 and 2012-2013 school years, only 15% of White teachers left their jobs, compared to 22% of Black teachers and 21% of Hispanic teachers (U.S. Department of Education, 2016). Teacher disparities also exist within zip codes. Evidence indicates that teachers are tied to the communities they serve.

Research indicates that roughly 60 percent of educators choose to teach in a region close to their home, or to their university (Reininger, 2011). Beginning teachers may opt to teach near places which are familiar to them and they may already feel a sense of belonging in their home communities.

Recently, there have been efforts to capitalize on the connections teachers have with certain home communities. Those who reside within a community have relationships and networks centered within the region. Rather than recruit outsiders, or those who are from different areas, recent efforts have focused on

targeting individuals who live in the community. Recruiters believe these individuals may be more invested in the students and may be intrinsically motivated to help them succeed. Some regions have developed “Grow-Your-Own” initiatives and have developed scholarships to specifically target members of a community. The term, “Grow-Your-Own,” implies that a neighborhood can grow its own educators, rather than recruit teachers from far away places.

The term, “Grow-Your-Own” is relatively new, however, the idea of recruiting teachers from specific regions has been in existence for quite some time. School districts are now expanding this idea and are starting to reach out to students of color in the hopes that teachers can start to bridge the divide between educators and classroom populations.

Deeper Dive – Grow Your Own Initiative

Check out this inspiring article about the “Grow your Own” Initiative – [Oregon districts turn high school students into future teachers through 'Grow Your Own' efforts](#)

In order to combat the staffing shortages which are widespread due to the Covid-19 Pandemic, school districts have developed their own ways to harness the talent of those individuals who work within the community, or who work at the school. Bus drivers, education assistants, school volunteers and parents have begun to think about working as long-term substitute teachers. Some of these individuals attend community colleges to begin to obtain their teaching credential and learn about the pedagogical strategies of education pathways.

Critical Lens – Capitalizing Race Terms

You may have noticed in this section that races are capitalized (like White and Black). Capitalizing these names recognizes the people more than the color. In fact, the Associated Press recently [changed its writing style guide\[2\]](#) to capitalize Black and Indigenous when referring to racial categories.

1.3 What do Great Teachers Do Differently?

Reflect on your experience as a student in a K-12 classroom. Your experiences as a student may have been varied. If you cannot call to mind an experience easily, think about a learning experience from a coach, mentor or relative. Think of a task or situation where you learned a new skill or mastered a content area. When you think about your relationship with this individual, what three words come to mind?



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=5#oembed-2>

Video 1.2

Activity – Icebreaker

Can you name three Characteristics of an effective teacher?

- Think about a teacher who made a difference in your life and why?
- What specifically did they do or say that made a difference for you?
- How does this inform the kind of teacher you hope to be?
- This could have been a positive or negative teacher experience.

As a student, you may have attended school in a rural community, in a setting where there were small class sizes, in a school with a variety of students from various ethnic and cultural backgrounds. Or, you might have been in a school with a large population in an urban community. Consequently, as former students, you all bring these experiences and points of view with you into the classroom. Teachers who are effective in reaching students of diverse backgrounds recognize these various types of knowledge as student assets.

Students bring knowledge with them as they enter schools and classrooms. In fact, their first teachers are their parents, extended family members, and members of the church and community leaders. In these spaces, they begin to learn the values of their family. They learn the habits and customs regarding when to bring to another member of the family, or what work entails. They receive an education in these settings. The students bring this knowledge base with them to school. (Moises Esteban-Guitart, 2021).

When considering how students learn, one crucial factor involves the teacher and student relationship. As we examine the characteristics of effective and ineffective 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 Talk 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.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=5#oembed-3>

Video 1.3

1.4 Teacher Purposes and Beliefs

After watching the video from Rita Pearson, consider the importance of establishing caring and trusting relationships with your students, as well as the importance of believing in them by acknowledging any effort they are making.

Now, we are moving to another important aspect of teaching and that 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.

Teachers enter the profession for a variety of reasons. Some educators are motivated by intrinsic factors, such as the need to “give back” to the student population and help to inform the next generation. Some educators believe their work contributes to creating a more just society. Those who are motivated by intrinsic factors, or factors which are internal and come from within, often find that they pursue their passions. On the other hand, some teachers are also motivated by extrinsic factors. Extrinsic factors could include a reward, monetary compensation, or another external factor. No matter what your motivation is for teaching, all future educators need to understand teacher knowledge and how to apply it on a daily basis.

1.5 Teacher Knowledge: Content, Pedagogical and Curricular Knowledge

“Knowledge is power. Information is liberating. Education is the premise of progress, in every society, in every family” -Kofi Annan.

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: Understand the standards that are required to be taught through a culturally responsive lens. This means that teachers must understand the population they are working with so that standards can be addressed in a multicultural environment.

Pedagogical Content Knowledge: Understand what are the difficulties that students might encounter as they learn about a new topic. This means that teachers need to assess the developmental appropriateness of

the topic in relation to their students. In order to achieve this, teachers must develop close relationships with students to be able to learn about their background, motivations and learning styles in order to guide students' achievement of their goals.

Curricular Knowledge: Knowledge of curricular materials to teach particular topics and ideas. Teachers should be able to identify and evaluate different perspectives and points of view in a subject matter so that they avoid teaching stereotypes or implicit biases that are printed in some textbooks.

In addition to these three foci, a teacher needs to develop a philosophy, or purpose, in which they have a research based approach to the learning conditions, goals for learning and strategies to use in the classroom, so that students learn the content. The development of and adherence to a research based philosophy of teaching and learning serves as a teacher's guidelines for curricular choices, for the implementation of classroom community strategies, and for building relationships with students as well as colleagues. We will dig deeper into our philosophy of teaching as we advance in this text.

1.6 Lifelong Learning, Reflective Practitioner, and Mentoring



Image 1.4

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.

Let's embark on the journey of becoming reflective practitioners as becoming a master teacher takes continuous effort. Since teaching is a repeated process in which you plan, reflect, and adjust based on a student's learning, achievement and engagement, reflection is one habit that you must acquire to be able to improve your practice.

Dylan Wiliam describes this in the following video as the life-long process of a teacher.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=5#oembed-4>

Video 1.4

Dewey (1938) argued that reflective practice promotes a consideration for why things are as they are and how we might direct our actions and behavior through careful planning. When we underpin this planning with experience and theory, we become much more impactful. To make this point clear, we learn from reflecting on our experience and not solely from our experience. This means that it is the lessons we reflect on that move us forward.

Donald Schön (1987), a philosopher and educational researcher, took reflective practice a little further and defined two processes: reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action. This means that we need to observe, reflect and rapidly adjust our teaching in the moment, versus the process to reflect and look back to be able to adapt

our lessons. To elaborate on Schön's point, we can affirm that learning to teach often means making choices and taking actions without knowing in advance what we need to learn or what the consequences will be. Thinking about these notions encourages teachers to be reflective practitioners; a professional who learns both from experience and about experience.



Image 1.7

On the other hand, the Frankfurt school of critical social theory (1929), talks about the importance of moving from growing as an individual to changing a whole society; in this case, your classroom. According to these theorists, a “critical” theory may be distinguished from a “traditional” theory according to a specific practical purpose: a theory is critical to the extent that it seeks human “emancipation from slavery”, acts as a “liberating ... influence”, and works “to create a world which satisfies the needs and powers of” human beings (Horkheimer 1972b [1992, 246]). Because such theories aim to explain and transform all the circumstances that enslave human beings, many “critical theories” in the broader sense have been developed.



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Video 1.5

With these perspectives, we can argue that both schools of thought are beneficial when talking about reflective practitioners. Teachers who think about their practice, reflect on the impact of their practice, and evaluate their practice in terms of student understanding. Here, we move from our own personal growth to the growth and change of our society.

Now, let's talk about when we should start reflecting. A good starting point is for us to learn from our own teaching. We need to reflect, or think, about the implications that our own values and experiences bring to the classroom. With this being said, reflection on practice is something we must do for ourselves, since only we have had our particular teaching experiences and only we can choose how to interpret and make use of them. But this individual activity also may benefit from the perspective and feedback offered by fellow professionals. Others' ideas and values may differ from our own, and they can, therefore, help in working out our own thoughts and in bringing new ideas that we may otherwise take for granted. Collectively reflecting on

a subject area or lesson plan is an excellent way to help evolve ideas or strategies that can improve our own practice.

Reflection can happen in any number of ways, but here, we are going to list five general categories:

- Reflecting on your own practice
- Talking and collaborating with colleagues
- Participating in professional associations
- Attending professional development workshops and conferences
- Reading professional literature

John Kamal (2020), in his article *Making Time for Reflective Practice* shares some practical ideas and helpful tips to become an effective practitioner as you reflect on your own teaching practices. For example, taking notes after a lesson can support you as a teacher. You can reflect on the aspects of the lesson that went well and the aspects that need some adjusting. Reflecting on your practice is a powerful development tool for teachers. Teachers who consider these schools of thought, strategies, and expectations are on the path to becoming reflective practitioners, professionals who learn both from experience and about experience.

Critical Lens – Making Time for Reflective Practice

Read the article at <https://www.edutopia.org/article/making-time-reflective-practice>

Regarding mentoring, in the United States, there are some states who require mentoring programs for beginning teachers and administrators. For example, California, New York, Hawaii, Kansas, Pennsylvania, and other states have teacher induction requirements for first-year teachers. As a first-year teacher in these states, 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).

Conclusion

Why do teachers teach? It is something inside them. It is a drive, a force, a passion, a desire to engage with their students in order to watch them succeed. Choosing to be a teacher is not a monetary pursuit, as a teacher's salary is hardly adequate considering all that they give to their students. Becoming a teacher is often considered a calling. It is not for the light of heart, but rather, for those who love children and people, who have a passion for

education, and who understand its impact on improving lives and creating a more just society. Most teachers love to learn and hope to encourage that fundamental human process of discovery and growth in others.

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2. History of US Education

“The central role that slavery played in the development of the United States is beyond dispute. And yet, we the people do not like to talk about slavery, or even think about it, much less teach it or learn it. The implications of doing so unnerve us. If the cornerstone of the Confederacy was slavery, then what does that say about those who revere the people who took up arms to keep African Americans in chains? If James Madison, the principal architect of the Constitution, could hold people in bondage his entire life, refusing to free a single soul even upon his death, then what does that say about our nation’s founders? About our nation itself? Slavery is hard history. It is hard to comprehend the inhumanity that defined it. It is hard to discuss the violence that sustained it. It is hard to teach the ideology of white supremacy that justified it. And it is hard to learn about those who abided it.”

Hasan Kwame Jeffries – [“Teaching Hard History”](#) by SPLC



Image 2.1

Learning Objectives

- Examine events, legislation, and people who shaped the US school system.
- Highlight the contributions of certain individuals whose work impacted the development of US schools in equitable and inequitable ways.
- Demonstrate how schools have always reflected historical and cultural realities of the times such as systemic racism, white supremacy, genocide, classism, and sexism.
- Analyze how systems of oppression in US schooling serve to perpetuate such inequality.

“Out of slavery — and the anti-black racism it required — grew nearly everything that has truly made America exceptional: its economic might, its industrial power, its electoral system, diet and popular music, the inequities of its public health and education, its astonishing penchant for violence, its income inequality, the example it sets for the world as a land of freedom and equality, its slang, its legal system and the endemic racial fears and hatreds that continue to plague it to this day. The seeds of all that were planted long before our official birth date, in 1776, when the men known as our founders formally declared independence from Britain.” [The 1619 Project](#)

Pause and Ponder – Questions to Consider

- Why is it so difficult for educators to address the topic of slavery and racism?
- Why do you think we are starting a chapter on the history of education in the United States with the topic of slavery?
- Is this just about Black people or a legacy of systems of power and oppressions which impacted communities of color?
- How does such oppression persist today, and how should educators proceed?
- What responsibilities do educators have to disrupt systems of oppression?

What does the history of education have to do with that hard history referenced in the above quotes? The history of US education is inseparable from the history of nation-building, so we begin this chapter with this important framing. Because race is such a polarizing force in our nation today, we choose to focus on slavery as a way to frame the difficulty of teaching about history in the US. In this section, we will follow historical events through key periods of U.S history and identify the forces that left lasting influences on education in the United States.

“In the Preamble to the U.S. Constitution, the Founding Fathers enumerated the lofty goals of their radical experiment in democracy; racial justice, however, was not included in that list. Instead, they embedded protections for slavery and the transatlantic slave trade into the founding document, guaranteeing inequality for generations to come. To achieve the noble aims of the nation’s architects, we the people have to eliminate

racial injustice in the present. But we cannot do that until we come to terms with racial injustice in our past, beginning with slavery. (Hasan Kwame Jeffries <https://www.splcenter.org/20180131/teaching-hard-history>)

So much of the historical narrative has centered on the achievement and influence of the white men who had the power to control the narrative. The New York Times 1619 project attempts to reframe this history, beginning by identifying this nation's birth as the moment in 1619 when the first ship carrying slaves arrived in the British colony of Virginia (rather than July 4th, 1776) because chattel slavery served as a foundation of this nation's economic and political systems for the next 250 years.

Deeper Dive – 1619 Project and Black History timeline

Check out the [1619 Project](#)

Check out the [Black History Timeline](#)

The history of education in the US naturally reflects the history of the nation. The schools have typically taught students that slavery ended in the 19th century, a stance that disregards the formal and informal barriers that were created and maintained for another hundred years (and beyond). Following the Civil War, Jim Crow laws explicitly created separate systems for people of color, which were strictly maintained in structures such as schooling, healthcare, and the justice system and had far-reaching consequences across the generations, causing a significant wealth gap that persists to this day. When Jim Crow ended, these systems were embedded throughout society and served to disenfranchise communities of color in order to uphold and support white power structures (such as where people could live, work and go to school). While understanding the legacy of slavery is central to understanding our history in this country, racialized oppression impacted other oppressed peoples, notably the people who lived here first, the indigenous people of North America. Westward expansion, Christian missionaries, and the spread of disease brought destruction and genocide to native communities, their languages, cultural practices, and customs. More on these topics will be covered later in this chapter.

Our educational system has been centered around narratives of meritocracy and equality, those precious American ideals that suggest that if any person merely works hard enough, they can have access to the American dream. It is not typically taught that slavery was the economic engine that fueled the birth of this nation, nor that specific laws and policies maintained those inequalities through to the modern day. This lack of reflection on slavery's role in our collective history has been damaging because as a nation, we are now divided around these issues. Many in the US society struggle to understand the lived experiences of BIPOC communities because they do not match the stories with which they were raised, particularly the myths of meritocracy and equality.

Teachers who address slavery in the classroom must consider how they can empower students to process hard history. Author and educator Adrienne Stang and Harvard researcher Danielle Allen discussed the importance of beginning the lesson with affirmation and validation for how students feel and an acknowledgement of what they already know about slavery. Described as “co-processing,” this teaching tool enables the teacher to scaffold learning in order to empower students to move through a place of discomfort. Another example which includes a framework for teaching slavery includes Glenn Singleton's curriculum entitled, “Courageous Conversations.” Singleton's approach is unique because it utilizes four compass points to teach about the context in which slavery operated, including the moral, emotional, intellectual, and relational

perspectives to enable students to process this hard history. Stang and Allen also advocate using primary sources of people who were enslaved when possible, in order to center their voices in the text.

Supreme Court Justice Henry Blackmun argued “to get beyond racism we must first take account of race, there is no other way”. People in positions of power will reject and fight against the curriculum such as the 1619 project. When ignoring the racism that fueled this nation in the curriculum, many have argued that we, as a pluralistic nation, can not move forward. Teachers have an important role to play and need to learn how to lean into teaching hard history. Teacher prep programs should prepare educators to handle these topics effectively. People will disagree about this and feel discomfort. These issues have become highly politicized in this country and put a great deal of pressure on educators. Some districts and localities are not supportive of unearthing past wrongs, what they consider to be a shaming of the nation’s history and heroes. In this text, we continue to reshape the traditional narrative with a critical lens. We choose to include critical perspectives which traditionally have been left out because we know this is imperative to our nation’s healing and growth.

Critical Lens

Schools do not only control people; they also help control meaning. Since they preserve and distribute what is perceived to be ‘legitimate knowledge’—the knowledge that ‘we all must have,’ schools confer cultural legitimacy on the knowledge of specific groups. But this is not all, for the ability of a group to make its knowledge into ‘knowledge for all’ is related to that group’s power in the larger political and economic arena. Power and culture, then, need to be seen, not as static entities with no connection to each other, but as attributes of existing economic relations in a society. They are dialectically interwoven so that economic power and control is interconnected with cultural power and control. In the following article, Michael Apple, talks about how the educational system keeps this system of oppression – [Michael Apple on Ideology in Curriculum](#)

Precolonial America

In 1491, it is estimated that there were 2,000 distinct indigenous languages and approximately sixty million people. Many of these languages still exist today and carry clues of cultural, historical and traditional knowledge. The following video gives you a brief history of these complex and sophisticated communities which populated the Americas:



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Video 2.2

Much of what we know of these early communities comes from creation stories and archaeological evidence. In the following film, we learn about how Indigenous peoples were using agriculture, water management, deforestation practices, controlled burning, and urban development thousands of years before the arrival of Columbus. These practices were driven by a need for shelter, food and clothing for a growing population. Clearly, there were diverse systems of education to pass along such knowledge. The following film provides more detail about these innovative practices:



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Video 2.3

While the oral tradition was the predominant educational practice in the Americas, the Maya had highly developed disciplines in writing, astronomy, math, art and architecture. They invented the concept of zero, an accurate calendar, and the only fully developed system of writing in the Americas which have allowed archeologists a chance to study their ancient culture in more detail.



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Video 2.4

In most indigenous communities, storytelling was central to their education or transfer of knowledge. Stories were passed on from generation to generation. In the following video, Larry Cesspooch tells some of these stories and shares the history:



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Video 2.5

North America in the 17th Century

Public education, as we know it today, did not exist in the colonies. In the First Charter of Virginia in 1606, King James I set forth a religious mission for investors and colonizers to disseminate the “Christian Religion” among the Indigenous population, which he described as “Infidels and Savages.” His colonial and educational mission would impact settlement and education in North America for centuries.

Puritan Massachusetts

Puritans in Massachusetts believed educating children in religion and rules from a young age would increase their chances of survival or, if they did die, increase their chances of religious salvation. Puritans in Massachusetts established the first compulsory education law in the New World through the Act of 1642, which required parents and apprenticeship masters to educate their children and apprentices in the principles of Puritan religion and the laws of the commonwealth. The Law of 1647, also referred to as the Old Deluder Satan Act, required towns of fifty or more families to hire a schoolmaster to teach children basic literacy. Because of similar religious beliefs and the physical proximity of families’ residences, formal schooling developed quickly in the commonwealth of Massachusetts. Connecticut, New York, and Pennsylvania followed in Massachusetts’ footsteps, passing similar laws and ordinances between the mid- and late-seventeenth century (Cremin, 1972).

During this time, children learned to read at home using the Holy Scriptures and catechisms (small books that summarized key religious principles) as educational texts. The primers that were used “contained simple verses, songs, and stories designed to teach at once the skills of literacy and the virtues of Christian living” (McClellan, 1999, p. 3).

The importance of faith, prayer, humility, rewards of virtue, honesty, obedience, thrift, proverbs, religious stories, the fear of death, and the importance of hard work served as major moral principles featured throughout the texts. When Indigenous people were depicted or mentioned in texts, they were portrayed as “savages and infidels,” needing salvation through English cultural norms. In light of what we now know of the genocide of native peoples, the irony of who was performing the savagery should be re-examined.

Another form of education occurred in Dame schools. Dame schools were small private schools for young children run by women. Where available, some parents sent their children to a neighboring housewife who taught them basic literacy skills, including reading, numbers, and writing. Because families paid for their children to attend Dame schools, this form of education was mainly available to middle-class families. Teaching aids and texts included Scripture, hornbooks, catechisms, and primers (Urban & Wagoner, 2009).

More expensive than Dame schools, Latin grammar schools were also available. The Latin grammar schools were originally designed for only sons of certain social classes who were destined for leadership positions in church, state, or courts. The first Latin grammar school was established in Boston in 1635 to teach boys subjects like classical literature, reading, writing, and math at what we would consider the high school level today, in preparation to attend Harvard University (Powell, 2019).



Image 2.2 This illustrated alphabet from the 1721 *New England Primer* infuses religious and moral lessons into basic literacy skills.



Image 2.3

In Colonial America, education in the mid-Atlantic and southern colonies was heavily stratified and remained out of reach for most inhabitants. The early recorded history of US education mostly addresses the education of white children. The assimilationist education of native peoples is addressed later in the chapter. Starting in the 1600s, millions of enslaved Africans were brought to the colonies to fuel the industry and wealth that built this nation..

Deeper Dive – Understand Slavery

Resources to Help You Understand Slavery

- “Slavery to Mass Incarceration” [Slavery in America](#)
- 10 concepts of slavery offered from leading experts of the field through 10 videos: [Teaching Hard History: American Slavery | Classroom Videos | Learning for Justice](#)

It is important to note that enslaved people never stopped transferring knowledge, despite the horrific conditions of American slavery. The following video demonstrates the covert methods of communication they developed to communicate via their singing of spirituals.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=24#oembed-6>

Video 2.6

The institution of slavery meant that White landowners sent their children to private schools to train future land owners, and slaves were denied the right to an education. Literacy for enslaved people was outlawed and considered dangerous for white inhabitants who controlled all aspects of an evolving society. Nevertheless, brave individuals attempted to set up secret schools throughout the south. Northern schools for Blacks also faced harassment and threats. In the following articles, you can find more information regarding the education of African Americans, their literacy and the slavery of our ancestors.

Deeper Dive – Heroic Educators

Heroic Educators during this period

- [Steamboat School: Hopkinson, Deborah, Husband, Ron: 9781423121961: Amazon.com: Books](#)
- [Education of Slaves](#)

American Revolutionary Era

After the American Revolution, our new country was establishing its systems and identity. Many key Founders believed public education was a prerequisite to a democratic society. Three groups had distinct post-revolutionary plans for education and schooling, all of which were intended to serve as part of the founding process: Federalists, Anti-Federalists, and the lesser known Democratic-Republican Societies.

Federalist

“History has its eyes on you.”- from the musical “Hamilton”

Alexander Hamilton, George Washington, and John Adams, among other Federalists, focused on building a new nation and a new national identity by following the new Constitution, which consolidated power in a new federal government. The Federalists supported mass schooling for nationalistic purposes, such as preserving order, morality, and a nationalistic character, but opposed tax-supported schooling, viewing it as unnecessary in a society where elites rule.



Image 2.4

As a Federalist, Noah Webster believed education should teach morality. Noah Webster was one of the great advocates for mass schooling to teach children not just “the usual branches of learning,” but also “submission to superiors and to laws [and] moral or social duties.” Smoothing out the “rough manners” of frontier folk was very important to Webster. Furthermore, Webster placed great responsibility on “women in forming the dispositions of youth” in order to “control...the manners of a nation” and that which “is useful” to an orderly republic (Webster, 1965, 67, 69-77). Webster’s treatise on education and his spellers (like his 1783 American Spelling Book) were intended to develop a literate and nationalistic character to shape useful, virtuous, and law-abiding citizens with strong attachments to Federalist America.

Anti-Federalists

Anti-Federalists, on the other hand, were opposed to a strong central government, preferring instead state and local forms of government. The Anti-Federalists believed that the success of a republican government depended on small geographical areas, spaces small enough for individuals to know one another and to deliberate collectively on matters of public concern. Anti-Federalists feared concentrated power.

As an Anti-Federalist, Thomas Jefferson believed education should be locally controlled. An aristocrat whose genteel lifestyle was bolstered by his violent oppression of enslaved people, Jefferson put forth proposals to educate all white citizens in the state of Virginia. Jefferson proposed a system of tiered schooling. The three tiers were primary schools, grammar schools, and the College of William and Mary. The foundation of his tiered schooling plan included three years of tax-supported schooling for all white children with limited options for a few poor children to advance at public expense to higher levels of education. While he suggested very limited educational opportunities for women, no other key Founder advocated giving high-achieving scholars from poor families a free education. Religion was not a core curricular area in the primary and grammar schools. However, his plans were viewed as too radical by his aristocratic peers, and they correspondingly rejected his state education proposals.



Image 2.5

Pause and Ponder – Ideologies in Schools

Where do we see elements of these different ideologies in today's schools? What has remained and what has changed? What approach do you see as the most valuable in terms of today's public schools?

Early National Era (1789-1837)

During the early-to mid-nineteenth century, the United States was expanding westward, and urbanization and immigration intensified. This period of history was defined by the emergence of the common school movement and normal schools, though conflicts over the organization and control of education continued. This period also saw the advent of higher education.

The Common School Movement

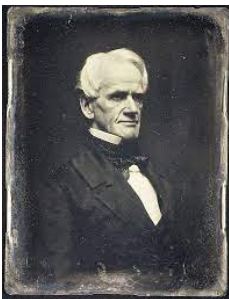


Image 2.6

Horace Mann established the common school movement and also advocated for normal schools to prepare teachers. He was Massachusetts's first Secretary of Education and Whig (formerly Federalist) politician, was the leader of the common school movement, which began in the New England states and then expanded into New York, Pennsylvania, and then into westward states.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=24#oembed-7>

Video 2.7

Common schools were elementary schools where all students—not just wealthy boys—could attend for free. Common schools were radical in their status as tax-supported free schooling, but their conservative-leaning curriculum addressed traditional values and political allegiance. Schooling offered increasing opportunities for children, especially those from working-class families, by teaching basic values including honesty, punctuality, inner behavioral restraints, obedience to authority, hard work, cleanliness, and respect for law, private property, and representative government (Urban & Wagoner, 2009).

The Development of Normal Schools

With the rise of common schools, Horace Mann then turned to how female teachers would be educated. For Mann, the answer was to create teacher training institutions originally referred to as normal schools. A French institution dating back to the sixteenth century, *école normale* was the term used to identify a model or ideal teaching institute. Once adopted in the United States, the institution was simply called a normal school.



Image 2.7

Catherine Beecher, the first well-known teacher, became an instructor at a normal school to prepare other teachers. She played a significant role in influencing women to join the profession in large numbers, and made it acceptable for women to leave home and travel afar to become teachers, especially in the western territories of the growing nation.

The first normal school in America was established in Lexington, Massachusetts in 1839 (now Framingham State University). They were primarily used to train primary school teachers, as middle and high schools did not yet exist. The curriculum included academic subjects, classroom management and school governance, and the practice of teaching. Teacher credentialing began and was regulated by state governments. Moreover, this contributed to the professionalization of teaching, and normal schools eventually became colleges or schools of education or full-fledged liberal arts and research institutes. Catherine Beecher was the first well-known teacher of the time and one of the normal schools' first teachers.

Administrators and policymakers began to see an opportunity in hiring women, mainly because they could justify paying them less than men, and because they were perceived to be gifted at working with children. As men were exiting the profession, more women were hired for less money to educate the growing ranks of students as common schools spread westward. Furthermore, once the profession was feminized, teaching became perceived as a missionary calling rather than an academic pursuit. While male policymakers insisted women were better nurturers and more suited to teaching morality and correct behavior in children, framing the discourse of teaching around a calling helped rationalize lower pay for women and fewer advancement possibilities.

Pause and Ponder – Females in the Educational System

How do you see the early roots of feminizing the teaching profession still in effect today?

Conflicts in the Common School Movement

The common school movement was not without its conflicts. Whigs (formerly Federalists), including Horace Mann, sought to establish state systems of schooling in order to create standardization and uniformity in curricula, classroom equipment, school organization, and professional credentialing of teachers across state schools. Democrats, however, often supported public schooling but feared centralized government, thus opposing the centralization of local schools under the common school movement. The battle between Whigs and Democrats during the nineteenth century represents one of the initial conflicts related to public schooling.

Another important conflict related to the common school movement was the clash between urban Protestants and Catholics. Typically from Protestant backgrounds, common school reformers continued to use the Bible as a common text in classrooms without considering the potential conflict this could generate in diverse communities. Horace Mann advocated using only generalized Scripture in order to prevent offending different sects. However, what appeared to Protestants as a generalization of Christian text was actually very insulting to Catholic immigrants, who were becoming the second largest group of city dwellers at the time. Protestant education leaders attempted to address this issue by reducing the religious content in the common school curriculum, but unhappy Catholic leaders created their own private parochial schools? This conflict generated a greater theoretical acceptance of the separation of church and state doctrine in publicly-funded common schools, though in practice, common schooling continued to infuse Protestant biases for over a century.

Common schools also faced conflict in Southern states, including Jefferson's Virginia, until after the Civil War. Planters had no interest in disturbing the status quo by educating poor whites or enslaved people. Driven by Southern aristocracy, education continued to be viewed as a private family responsibility and class privilege. As described previously, many southern states prohibited educating enslaved people and passed state statutes that attached criminal penalties for doing so, such as the ones below.



Image 2.8

Critical Lens – Excerpts

Excerpt from a 1740 South Carolina Act: *Whereas, the having slaves taught to write, or suffering them to be employed in writing, may be attended with great inconveniences; Be it enacted, that all*

and every person and persons whatsoever, who shall hereafter teach or cause any slave or slaves to be taught to write, or shall use or employ any slave as a scribe, in any manner of writing whatsoever, hereafter taught to write, every such person or persons shall, for every such offense, forfeit the sum of one hundred pounds, current money.

Excerpt from Virginia Revised Code of 1819: *That all meetings or assemblages of slaves, or free negroes or mulattoes mixing and associating with such slaves at any meeting-house or houses, &c., in the night; or at any SCHOOL OR SCHOOLS for teaching them READING OR WRITING, either in the day or night, under whatsoever pretext, shall be deemed and considered an UNLAWFUL ASSEMBLY; and any justice of a county, &c., wherein such assemblage shall be, either from his own knowledge or the information of others, of such unlawful assemblage, &c., may issue his warrant, directed to any sworn officer or officers, authorizing him or them to enter the house or houses where such unlawful assemblages, &c., may be, for the purpose of apprehending or dispersing such slaves, and to inflict corporal punishment on the offender or offenders, at the discretion of any justice of the peace, not exceeding twenty lashes.*

Enslaved people have often been depicted in many American history textbooks as passive toward their owners. This misrepresentation is quite problematic and gives people across races a whitewashed, inaccurate understanding of the history of the US and our own individual heritages. African Americans escaped, committed espionage on plantations, negotiated statuses, and occasionally educated themselves behind closed doors. For enslaved people, education and knowledge represented freedom and power, and once they were emancipated, they continued their relentless quest for learning by constructing their own schools throughout the South, even with minimal resources. African Americans placed an exceptional value on literacy due to generations of bondage and denial of access to reading and writing.

Critical Lens – Words Matter

You will notice in this chapter that we use the term “enslaved person” instead of “slave.” Part of critical theory involves questioning existing power structures, even in word choice. Recently, academics and historians have shifted away from using the term “slave” and have begun replacing it with “enslaved person” because it places “humans first, commodities second” ([Waldman, 2015, para. 2](#)).

While slavery continued throughout the South, segregation continued in the North. One of the first challenges to segregation occurred in Boston, Massachusetts. Benjamin Roberts attempted to enroll his five-year-old daughter, Sarah, in a segregated white school in her neighborhood, but Sarah was refused admission due to her race. Sarah attempted to enroll in a few other schools closer to her home, but she was again denied admission for the same reason. Mr. Roberts filed a lawsuit in 1849, Sarah Roberts v. City of Boston, claiming that because his daughter had to travel much farther to attend a segregated and substandard black school, Sarah was psychologically damaged. The state courts ruled in favor of the City of Boston in 1850 because state law permitted segregated schooling. This case would be cited in Plessy v. Ferguson in 1898 and in Brown v. Board of Education in 1954, both of which are pivotal to segregation cases in the US..

Post Civil War and Reconstruction (1863-1877)

Following the Civil War, significant restructuring of political, economic, social, and educational systems in the United States occurred. Political leaders considered education to be a necessary instrument in maintaining stability and unity. During this era, education was shaped by increasing influence of the federal government, the beginning of public education in the South, the Morrill Acts, and Native American boarding schools.

Increasing Influence of the Federal Government

Elazar (1969) asserted that “crisis compels centralization” (p. 51): when the nation undergoes a calamity, it eventually leads to the federal government exercising extra-constitutional actions on its own will or as a result of demands made by state and local governments. The post-Civil War Era provides one example of this effect. The U.S. Congress established requirements for the Southern states to reenter the Union. “Radical Republicans”, as they were identified after the Civil War, believed that the lack of common schooling in the South had contributed to the circumstances leading to war, so Congress required Southern states to include provisions for free public schooling in their rewritten constitutions. To learn more about these radical republicans, see the following video:



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Video 2.8

Segregated “Jim Crow” America

“After the Civil War, millions of formerly enslaved African Americans hoped to join the larger society as full and equal citizens. Although some white Americans welcomed them, others used people’s ignorance, racism, and self-interest to sustain and spread racial divisions. By 1900, new laws and old customs in the North and the South had created a segregated society that condemned Americans of color to second-class citizenship”. [Separate is not Equal](#)

Of course, southern states followed through with the requirements and drafted language supporting schools, but they created loopholes like separate and segregated schools in the “Jim Crow” era.



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Video 2.9

Jim Crow was the White Supremacy system set up to separate and control Black citizens in all areas of civic, political, economic, legal and social life and the schools played a large role. Black schools received substantially

lower funding than White schools, creating yet another form of institutionalized racism that would have long-lasting consequences for African American communities.

Critical Lens – Education of Black Children

- Learn more about the education of Black children in the Jim Crow South – [The Education of Black Children in the Jim Crow South](#)
- Learn more about the promise of Freedom – [Separate is not Equal](#)
 - “Now we are free. What do we want? We want education; we want protection; we want plenty of work; we want good pay for it, but not any more or less than anyone else...and then you will see the down-trodden race rise up.” —John Adams, a former slave
 - “Denied public educational resources, people of color strengthened their own schools and communities and fought for the resources that had been unjustly denied to their children. Parents’ demands for better schools became a crucial part of the larger struggle for civil rights”.

The Beginning of Education in the South

Following the Civil War, nearly four million formerly enslaved people were homeless, without property, and illiterate. In response, Congress created the Freedmen’s Bureau (officially referred to as the U.S. Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands). Supervised by northern military officers, the Freedmen’s Bureau distributed food, clothing, and medical aid to formerly enslaved people and poor Whites and created over 1,000 schools throughout the southern states. The Freedmen’s Bureau lasted only for seven years, but it represented a massive federal effort that provided some benefits.

In addition to Freedmen’s schools, Yankee schoolmarm also headed south as missionaries to help educate formerly enslaved people. They sought mutual benefits: to educate the illiterate and simultaneously secure themselves in the eyes of God. As missionaries, female teachers learned that their work was a calling to instill morality in the nation’s students, and this calling was pursued for the good of mankind instead of financial gain. This same missionary status fueled both the migration of teachers westward following national expansion and the thousands of schoolmarms that migrated to the South to educate formerly enslaved people who, they believed, had to be redeemed through literacy, Christian morality, and republican virtue (Butchart, 2010).

However, African Americans were primarily responsible for the education of their people. Formerly-enslaved people knew the connection between knowledge and freedom. Ignorance was itself oppressive; knowledge, on the other hand, was liberating. Literate African Americans were often teaching children and adults alike and creating their own one-room schoolhouses, even with limited resources. By 1866 in Georgia, African Americans were at least partially financing 96 of 123 evening schools and owned 57 school buildings (Anderson, 1988). The African American educational initiatives caught Northern missionaries off guard:

Many missionaries were astonished, and later chagrined...to discover that many ex-slaves had established their own educational collectives and associations, staffed schools entirely with black teachers, and were unwilling to allow their educational movement to be controlled by the ‘civilized’ Yankees.” (Anderson, 1988, p. 6)

In addition, industrial schools were built in the South for Black Americans. Southern policymakers, northern industrialists, and philanthropic groups partnered to establish industrial schools focused on vocational or trade skills. Southern policymakers benefited because industrial schools resulted in both segregating the workforce and higher education which aligned with their values. Northern industrialists benefited because they gained skilled laborers. Philanthropists believed they were giving Black Americans access to education and jobs.

Booker T. Washington advocated for the industrial schools being established for African Americans. Washington believed in giving Black people knowledge of the trades, in order to earn a living.

Two African American leaders in the late nineteenth century had different perspectives on newly-developed industrial schools. Booker T. Washington was born an enslaved person in 1856 and grew up in Virginia. He attended the Hampton Institute, whose founder, General Samuel Armstrong, emphasized that “obtaining farms or skilled jobs was far more important to African-Americans emerging from slavery than the rights of citizenship” (Foner, 2012, p. 652-653). Washington supported this view as head of the Tuskegee Institute in Alabama. In his famous 1895 “Atlanta Compromise” speech, Washington did not support “ceaseless agitation for full equality”; rather, he suggested, “In all the things that are purely social we can be as separate as the fingers, yet one as the hand in all things essential to mutual progress” (Foner, 2012, p. 653). Washington feared that if demands for greater equality were imposed, it would result in a white backlash and destroy what little progress had been made. The Tuskegee Institute offered vocational training programs to help Blacks find what was considered more “respectable” careers.



Image 2.9



Image 2.10

W.E.B. Du Bois viewed the situation differently. Born free in Great Barrington, Massachusetts in 1868, Du Bois was the first African American to earn a Ph.D. from Harvard University. He served as a professor at Atlanta University and helped establish the NAACP in 1905 to seek legal and political equality for African Americans. He opposed Washington’s pragmatic approach, considering it a form of “submission and silence on civil and political rights” (Urban & Wagoner, 2009, p. 176). He came from a very different background, lived in different circles in the North, and as a result, could envision a different future for Blacks, one that included upward mobility and higher educational aspirations. The two men are often contrasted for these different perspectives in what they felt was realistic for Black people of the time in terms of their education.

The Morrill Acts of 1862 and 1890



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Video 2.10

In addition to the Freedman’s Bureau, the federal government implemented two legislative acts related to

education. The Morrill Act of 1862 gave states 30,000 acres of land for each senator and representative it had in Congress in 1860. The income generated from the sale or lease of this land would provide financial support for at least one agricultural and mechanical (A&M) college, known as a land-grant institution (Urban & Wagoner, 2009). Land-grant institutions were designed to support the growing industrial economy. The second Morrill Act of 1890 required “land-grant institutions seeking increased federal support...to either provide equal access to the existing A&M colleges or establish separate institutions for the ‘people of color’ in their state” (Urban & Wagoner, 2009, p. 188). The Morrill Acts demonstrated how industrialization and westward expansion resulted in increasing involvement of the federal government in education policy to meet national needs.

Pause and Ponder

Whose land was the state giving? and educating whom?
Consider this in the context of the next section.

Native American Boarding Schools: Cultural Imperialism and Genocide



Native American boarding schools were designed to take away Indigenous culture and assimilate Indigenous children into mainstream American culture.

Critical Lens

Image 2.11

In the following clips, you can hear some real stories about cultural genocide:

- [Native American Boarding Schools: A Lost History](#) (6 min)
- [Native American Boarding Schools](#) (56 min)
- [How the US stole thousands of Native American children](#) (3 min)

Using its military, the federal government created over 400 Native American boarding schools across 37 states. The first and most famous of these was the Carlisle School, founded in Pennsylvania in 1879. The federal government convinced many Native American parents that these off-reservation boarding schools would educate their children to improve their economic and social opportunities in mainstream America. In

reality, these schools were intended to deculturalize Indigenous children. Supervisors at the boarding schools destroyed children's native clothing, cut their hair, and renamed many of them with names chosen from the Protestant Bible. The curriculum in these schools taught basic literacy and focused on industrial training; graduates of these boarding schools were to be sorted into agricultural and mechanical occupations. A total of 25 off-reservation boarding schools educating nearly 30,000 students were created in several western states and territories, as well as in the upper Great Lakes region. Based in ethnocentrism, the belief that their white protestant culture was superior to other cultures, these boarding schools relied on a harsh form of assimilation, a fundamental feature of common schooling.

Deeper Dive – Indigenous Boarding Schools

In the summer of 2021, the dark history of Indigenous boarding schools made headlines as Canadian authorities [discovered unmarked graves and remains of children\[3\]](#) killed at multiple boarding schools for Indigenous children. In July 2021, the U.S. [launched a federal probe\[4\]](#) into our own Indigenous boarding schools and the intergenerational trauma they have caused. These boarding schools are one way that education has been used to oppress and de-culturate a particular group of Americans who have experienced intergenerational trauma. Recognizing and teaching this tragic history is one small step toward dismantling the colonizer/settler/founders mythology.



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Video 2.11

Today

Throughout the centuries, the debate over what is taught in schools has always been fraught with conflict, and this modern era is no different. As a result, different schools of thought emerged in this conflict as you read about in chapter 3. If you follow the local news, you can't help but see that these battles are fought daily. One cannot deny the political nature of schooling, despite efforts to sanitize it, because schooling occurs in a cultural context and a public domain.

Pause and Ponder

Many schools have used indigenous symbols and stereotypes as their mascots and still do. What is the impact on native communities- and white communities when these practices persist? What impact does it have on young children and on our shared future as a pluralistic society?

The Progressive Era (1896–1917)

The Progressive Era was defined by reform across all aspects of society, and education was no exception. Many of the philosophies you learned about earlier in this chapter were established in the Progressive Era. Changes in education during this period included varying forms of progressivism, the emergence of critical theory, extending schooling beyond the primary level, and the development of teacher unions.

Differing Approaches to Progressivism

During the Progressive Era's focus on social reform, different approaches emerged. The administrative progressives wanted education to be as efficient as possible to meet the demands of industrialization and the economy. Efficiency involved centralizing neighborhood schools into larger urban systems, allowing more students to be educated for less money. Graded classes, specialized and differentiated subject areas, ringing bells, an orderly daily itinerary, and hierarchical management—with men serving as school board members, superintendents, and principals, and women on the bottom rung as teachers—also increased educational efficiency. Educational efficiency required preparing good workers for a rapidly changing economy. Administrative progressives adopted factory models in schools to become better at processing and testing the masses, a continued form of educational assimilation.

Similar to actual factories, factory models in education increased efficiency, which was important to administrative progressives.

Curricular or pedagogical progressives were focused on changes in how and what students were learning. Many of these progressives saw schooling as a vehicle for social justice instead of assimilation. John Dewey is often referred to as America's philosopher and the father of progressivism in education. In *Democracy and Education*, Dewey (1944) theorized two types of learning: “conservative,” which reproduces the status quo through cultural transmission

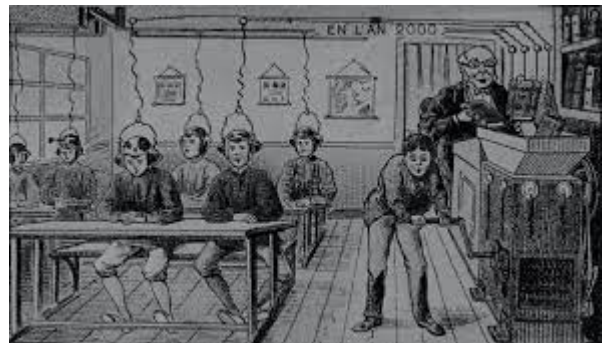


Image 2.12

and socialization, and “progressive,” which frames education more organically for the purposes of experiencing “growth” and activating “potentialities” (p. 41). For curricular and pedagogical progressives, “progressive” learning has no predetermined outcome and is always evolving, or progressing. Democratic education, Dewey believed, must build on the existing culture or status quo and free students and adults alike toward conscious positive change based on newly-discovered information, improvements in science, and democratic input from all members of the community, which added legitimacy to a society's growth.

John Dewey was known as the father of progressive education.

Dewey and like-minded progressives have often been referred to as social reconstructionists. They believed education could improve society. Dewey recognized “the ability of the schools to teach independent thinking

and the ability of students to analyze social problems” (Kliebard, 1995, p. 170). Dewey did not expect the school to upend society; rather, as institutions that reached virtually all youth, he saw schooling as the most effective means of developing the habits of critical thinking, cooperative learning, and problem solving so that students could, once they became adults, carry on this same activity democratically in their attempts to improve society. The progressives were often met with contempt because such critique threatened the existing socio-political system, which conservative individuals wished to preserve.

Emergence of Critical Theory

In Germany in 1923, critical theory was developed at The Frankfurt Institute of Social Research. With roots in German Idealism, critical theorists sought to interpret and transform society by challenging the assumption that social, economic, and political institutions developed naturally and objectively. In addition, critical theorists rejected the existence of absolute truths. Instead of blind acceptance of knowledge, critical theorists encouraged questioning of widely accepted answers and challenged objectivity and neutrality, noting that these constructs avoid addressing inequality in political and economic power, social arrangements, institutional forms of discrimination, and other areas. The original Frankfurt School theorists were dedicated to ideology critique and the long-term goal of reconstructing society in order to “ensure a true, free, and just life” emancipated from “authoritarian and bureaucratic politics” (Held, 1980, p. 15).



Image 2.13

A decade later amidst the Great Depression, America witnessed the emergence of its own Frankfurt School. In the United States, critical theory was aligned with social reconstructionism and situated in social foundations programs in various academic institutions, including its first department in Columbia University's Teachers College. Why would this movement find its home in American education? Educators were “a positive creative force in American society” that could serve as “a mighty instrument of...collective action” (Counts, 2011, p. 21). Critique, reflection, and action, often referred to as praxis, are intrinsically educational, and these actions transcend the mere transmission of knowledge and culture. America's social reconstructionists attempted to cultivate a specialized field that drew from many

academic disciplines in order to develop professional teachers' understanding of how schooling tended to reinforce, evangelize, or perpetuate a given social order. They repudiated a predetermined “blueprint” for training teachers, rejecting “the notion that educators, like factory hands, merely...follow blueprints” (Coe, 1935, p. 26).

Social reconstructionists viewed teachers as professionals who did not need “blueprints” to tell them exactly how to teach. More on philosophical approaches to education in chapter 3.

Pause and Ponder – What is the purpose of education?

Is it the transmission and indoctrination of the values, customs, ideologies, beliefs, and rituals?

OR

Should education serve as a means of critique and social reconstruction in order to improve society?

Deeper Dive

“It would seem to me that when a child is born, if I’m the child’s parent, it is my obligation and my high duty to civilize that child. Man is a social animal. He cannot exist without a society. A society, in turn, depends on certain things which everyone within that society takes for granted. Now the crucial paradox which confronts us here is that the whole process of education occurs within a social framework and is designed to perpetuate the aims of society. Thus, for example, the boys and girls who were born during the era of the Third Reich, when educated to the purposes of the Third Reich, became barbarians. The paradox of education is precisely this – that as one begins to become conscious one begins to examine the society in which he is being educated. The purpose of education, finally, is to create in a person the ability to look at the world for himself, to make his own decisions, to say to himself this is black or this is white, to decide for himself whether there is a God in heaven or not. To ask questions of the universe, and then learn to live with those questions, is the way he achieves his own identity. But no society is really anxious to have that kind of person around. What societies really, ideally, want is a citizenry which will simply obey the rules of society. If a society succeeds in this, that society is about to perish. The obligation of anyone who thinks of himself as responsible is to examine society and try to change it and to fight it – at no matter what risk. This is the only hope society has. This is the only way societies change”.

James Baldwin

Source: <https://richgibson.com/talktoteachers.htm>

Extending School Beyond the Primary Level

While high schools existed in New England towns since the establishment of the Boston Latin Grammar School in 1636, it was not until the early nineteenth century that high schools started appearing in urban areas, and they were not commonly attended until the early twentieth century. While common elementary schooling focused on teaching students morality, a differentiated curriculum in the early twentieth century high schools “reflected a new, largely economic, purpose for education” (Urban & Wagoner, 2009, p. 234). Debates arose around the high school curriculum: should it teach a classical curriculum, or focus on vocational training to meet the needs of the rapidly changing economy in the U.S.? In 1918, the National Education Association published a report called “The Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education” to establish the goals of high school education, including “health, command of fundamental processes, worthy home membership, vocation, citizenship, worthy use of leisure, and ethical character” to prepare students “for their adult lives” by “fitting [them] into appropriate social and vocational roles” (Urban & Wagoner, 2009, p. 271-272). The functionalistic nature of high school also resulted in the development of extracurricular programs including, but not limited to,

“athletics,” school “newspapers, and school clubs of various kinds” in order to teach “students the importance of cooperation” and to “serve...the needs of industrial society” (Urban & Wagoner, 2009, p. 272-276). This resulted in the high school becoming a major institutional mechanism in developing the future teenager.

Pause and Ponder

How did these “Cardinal Principles,” published over a century ago, shape your own high school experience?

Changes beyond high school also occurred in the Progressive Era. It was also during this period that the educational ladder expanded to include not only a system of elementary and high schools, but also junior high schools, community colleges, and kindergartens, which had served as separate private institutions since the mid-nineteenth century. Not only were more children attending school at this time, they were attending for longer periods of time due to protections developed through progressive child labor laws, especially the Child Labor Law of 1938.



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Video 2.12

Deeper Dive – Progressive Education in the 1940s



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Video 2.13

Intelligence Testing

It was introduced to education following World War I. Based on French psychologist Alfred Binet's work on intelligence, Louis Terman developed the Binet-Terman scale of intelligence and despite his own impoverished upbringing, eschewed a framework of intelligence based on biological factors. Terman redirected Binet's work and reduced intelligence to a single number on a scale that he termed the Intelligence Quotient (IQ). Terman associated intelligence with ethnicity, aligning with pernicious racist and Eugenist ideas of the time, linking certain intelligences to certain groups such as Blacks, Mexicans, Native Americans, and Southern Europeans and anyone with a perceived disability or difference. Furthermore, Terman portrayed intelligence as something fixed and hereditary, linking intelligence scores to the kind of educational or career opportunities people could access. These tests had tremendous far-reaching impacts as they were used to sort recruits for World War I, condemning those who scored lower to the front lines and the risk of death, and assigning those who scored higher to safer desk jobs.. Terman also strove to test and sort US school children, going on to create national exams to track the nation's school children in all grades, again with far-reaching consequences, including intergenerational damage. While there have been many well-documented critiques of the cultural bias in standardized tests of intelligence (such as Gould's *The Mismeasure of Man*), Terman and his colleagues wielded significant influence that still impacts and shapes schools today.

Pause and Ponder – Two professors discuss Terman

Watch the [Psychological Testing Movement](#) video and stop and ponder: How do you see Terman's influence in schools today?

Post World War II & Civil Rights Era (1940-1949)

In the decades following World War II, the U.S. prospered, and education saw many significant shifts, especially focusing on equality of educational opportunities. In this period, ongoing inequalities in educational opportunities led to limited federal funding; *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) deemed segregated schools illegal; and other minority groups continued to fight for equitable access to education.

Ongoing Inequities and Federal Funding

The 1945 Senate committee hearings on federal aid to education highlighted ongoing inequities in schooling, as well as the fact that “education was in a state of dire need” of financial resources and more equitable funding (Ravitch, 1983, p. 5). Most school funding came from property taxes, which continued to exacerbate inequities because Other changes took place following World War II to worsen already existing inequalities. After the War, “white flight” from the inner city to suburbs resulted in highly-segregated communities, falling urban property values, and rising suburban property values. White flight contributed to greater de facto segregation, and it increased segregated schooling and enhanced inequalities in school funding.

After Russia launched Sputnik in 1957, U.S. federal support of schools increased to allow for global competition.

In response, the federal government offered limited assistance. The National School Lunch Program was passed in 1946 in order to enhance learning through better nutrition. In response to the anxiety created over the launching of the Russian satellite Sputnik, Congress passed the 1958 National Defense Education Act, which provided increased federal funding for math, science, and foreign languages in public schools. While these examples are not exhaustive, they illustrate the piecemeal federal approach to funding public schools: if a problem was perceived as a crisis and reached the federal legislative agenda, it was more likely to attract congressional funding.

In 1965, President Johnson worked with Congress in order to pass what became known as the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA). The ESEA served as the largest total expenditure of federal funds for the nation's public schools in history. Aligned with Johnson's war against poverty, the purpose of the law included increased federal funding for school districts with high levels of poor students. The law included six Titles (sections). Title I served as the primary legislative focus and included about 80 percent of the law's total funding. Title I funds were distributed to poorer schools districts in an attempt to remedy the unequal funding perpetuated by reliance on property taxes. Title VII, or the Bilingual Education Act of 1968, provided funds for schools with students who were speakers of languages other than English. The other Titles provided federal funding for school libraries, textbooks and instructional materials, educational research, and funds to state departments of education to help them implement and monitor the law. This title funding resulted in the growth of state power alongside the expansion of federal power since states gained greater oversight of federal programs and mandates.

Separate is not Equal



Image 2.14

The landmark 1954 **Brown v. Board of Education** decision began the process of school desegregation, which took several decades.

In 1896, [Plessy v. Ferguson](#) established the separate-but-equal doctrine. In its decision, the U.S. Supreme Court circumvented the original intent of the Fourteenth Amendment's equal protection clause, which was intended to give all persons equal rights under the law. The Court strategically interpreted the clause to mean that as long as segregated public facilities were "equal," they were constitutional.

The 1954 [Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka](#) decision ended the separate-but-equal doctrine. Prior to this ruling, segregation was mandated by law (also called de jure segregation). The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) found five plaintiffs representing four different states (Delaware, Kansas, South Carolina, and Virginia) and the District of Columbia to challenge segregated primary and secondary schools. All five cases were heard under the name Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka. The Court ruled unanimously in 1954 to overturn Plessy. In his majority decision, Chief Justice Earl Warren made the following conclusion:

Segregation of white and colored children in public schools has a detrimental effect upon the colored children. The impact is greater when it has the sanction of the law, for the policy of separating the races is usually interpreted as denoting the inferiority of the Negro group...Any language in contrary to this finding is rejected. We conclude that in the field of public education the doctrine of 'separate but equal' has no place. Separate educational facilities are inherently unequal. ([347 U.S. 483, 1954](#))

Even though *Brown v. Board* found segregation unconstitutional, desegregation faced many challenges from White students, families, educators, and others. White Supremacists actively fought integration and used threats and ultimately force to intimidate communities of color who were trying to gain access. The US would continue to try to undo the harm of segregated schools for many decades to come, and that work continues, even as schools have grown more segregated in practice.

After ruling segregation unconstitutional, the Court then had to consider a reasonable set of remedies in order to ensure desegregation. In 1955, The Court ruled in [Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka II](#) that desegregation would occur “on a racially nondiscriminatory basis with all deliberate speed.” This vague language, particularly the phrase “all deliberate speed,” contributed to chaos and enabled state resistance, with each state and district deciding its own approaches or avoidance thereof (Ryan, 2010).

When attempted integration efforts occurred, they occurred on white terms, determined by white school boards. Desegregation efforts resulted in Black teachers losing their jobs and the closing of their schools. Black students were integrated into White schools and were suddenly being taught by White teachers while being subjected to an all-white curriculum that didn’t include their voices or perspectives. Black students and teachers alike experienced “cultural dissonance that exacerbated student rebelliousness, especially among African American boys.” Furthermore, “the actual implementation of integration plans and court orders remained largely in the hands of white school boards” (Fairclough, 2007, p. 396-400). Due to massive resistance to desegregation, Congress passed the 1964 Civil Rights Act in an attempt to force compliance. Following the passage of ESEA, which provided millions of federal dollars to each state, the federal government could now threaten non-compliant states (and school systems) with withholding these large sums of money annually under Title VI of the act if they did not comply with the mandate to desegregate schools.



Image 2.15

Deeper Dive – The unintended consequences of Brown vs Board of Education



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Video 2.14

As you see in the video above, Thousands of Black teachers and administrators were fired.

Why do you think such a decision was made and what impact did it have on Black children in particular, on desegregation efforts?

Busing children to different schools not in their neighborhoods was one attempt to increase racial diversity in schools.

Many urban school systems began drawing plans to bus white and non-white children to schools across neighborhoods in order to increase racial diversity in all of a district's schools (i.e., [Swann v. Charlotte-Mecklenburg Board of Education](#), 1971). However, in 1974 in [Milliken v. Bradley](#), the U.S. Supreme Court decided schools were not responsible for desegregation across district lines if their own policies had not explicitly caused the segregation. President Nixon, who opposed inter-district busing, argued that in order to protect suburban schools, inner city schools should be given additional funds and resources to compensate urban school children from the harms of past segregation and the legacies of inequitable funding (LCCHR, n.d.). According to Ryan (2010),



Image 2.16

"Nixon's compromise, broadly conceived to mean that urban schools should be helped in ways that [did] not threaten the physical, financial, or political independence of suburban schools... continues to shape nearly every modern education reform" (p. 5). The Milliken decision halted any possibility to integrate schools effectively. Due to the existence of de facto segregation, there was no way to significantly integrate students unless they crossed district boundaries.

Nixon also worked with Congress to pass the 1974 Equal Educational Opportunities Act. This legislation embodied the rights of all children to have equal educational opportunities, and it included particular consideration to Multilingual Learners. The EEOA prohibited states from denying equal educational opportunity on account of race, color, sex, or national origin. Moreover, the EEOA prohibits states from denying equal educational opportunity by the failure of an educational agency to take appropriate action to overcome language barriers that impede equal participation by its students in its instructional programs.

Increasing Access to Education for Minority Groups

The African American Civil Rights Movement gave hope to Mexican and Asian Americans, as well as women, people with disabilities, and to a lesser extent, Native Americans. Like African Americans, Mexican Americans utilized the courts to overturn segregated schools in the southwest, particularly in Texas and California. In fact, the earliest segregation case was filed by Mexican Americans in 1931 in [Lemon Grove, California](#)[7]. Other cases would be filed in the 1940s and 1950s, including [Mendez v. Westminster](#)[8] in 1947.

Women continued to fight for equal pay and respect in the workplace, and some success was achieved in the passage of Title IX as one of the amendments to the 1972 Higher Education Act. Title IX "prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex in any federally funded education program or activity" in "colleges, universities, and elementary and secondary schools," as well as to "any education or training program operated by a receipt of federal financial assistance," including intercollegiate athletic activities ([The U.S. Department of Justice, n.d.](#)).

A class action suit in San Francisco, California, led to legal rights for English Language Learners. In [Lau v. Nichols](#) (1974), parents of approximately 1,800 diverse multilingual students alleged that their Fourteenth Amendment equal protection rights had been violated because they could not access the language of instruction. The U.S. Supreme Court concluded that the school district violated Section 601 of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which banned discrimination based "on race, color, or national origin" in "any program or activity receiving federal financial assistance." As recipients of federal funds, schools were required to respond to the needs of English language learners effectively, whether this meant implementing bilingual education, English immersion, or some other method of instruction. The Court concluded, "There is no equality of treatment by providing students with the same facilities, textbooks, teachers and curriculum, for students who do not understand English are effectively foreclosed from any meaningful education."

Children with differing educational needs due to variety of differences and disabilities had been excluded

from many educational opportunities. Prior to 1972, students with special needs had no access to a public education and were largely neglected in terms of any academic development in institutions and private residences. In 1972, [Pennsylvania Association for Retarded Children \(PARC\) v. Commonwealth of Pennsylvania](#)^[9], guaranteed the rights of disabled children to attend free public schools. Congress followed up in 1973 by enacting the Rehabilitation Act, which guaranteed civil rights for people with disabilities, including appropriate accommodations and individualized education plans to tailor education for students based on their unique needs. Providing children special educational services in least restrictive settings was required by the 1975 Education for All Handicapped Children Act. “Least restrictive” essentially means that students with special needs should be in the same classrooms with other students as much as possible with the least restrictions possible. The video below shows the horrific atrocities that such students used to face in state-run boarding schools.

Pause and Ponder – Special Needs Students

How are students with special needs served today



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=24#oembed-15>

[foundationsofeducation/?p=24#oembed-15](https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=24#oembed-15)

Film 2.15

The 1980s and Beyond

In the 1980s and beyond, education saw increasing federal supervision and support, though ultimate control of education still remained with individual states. In this period, the Department of Education was established, and the A Nation at Risk report led to standards-based reforms like No Child Left Behind,.

Establishing the Department of Education

While the federal government has no constitutional authority over public education, its power and influence over schooling reached a pinnacle after the 1980s. In 1979, President Jimmy Carter created the federal Department of Education. Ronald Reagan, who succeeded Carter, tried and failed to abolish it. Reagan's neo-conservative followers largely consisted of traditionalists and evangelicals. The traditionalists believed moral standards and respect for authority had been declining since the 1960s, while evangelicals (also known as the Religious Right) were concerned by increasing U.S. secularism and materialism (Foner, 2012). For example, in [Engel v. Vitale](#) (1962), the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that directed prayer in public schools was a violation of the

First Amendment's Establishment Clause, which forbids the state (public schools and their employees) from endorsing or favoring a religion. While the Religious Right saw this decision as taking God out of America's public schools, the Court viewed separation of church and state as necessary to protect religious freedoms from government intrusion. As established earlier in this chapter, however, even when presented in secular terms, the moral values taught in the public schools were often based on or connected to Protestant Christianity, so church influence was never truly separated from schooling.

Pause and Ponder – Education in the US

Consider how education in the US is impacted by 3 different levels of government: local, state, and federal control.

Which historically has had the most control over schooling and curriculum?

How do these 3 levels of governance provide a check and balance system to US schools? How might they not?

A Nation at Risk and Standards-Based Reform

In 1981, Reagan created the National Commission on Excellence in Education to address the perceived problems of educational decline. In 1983, the commission released a 71-page report entitled *A Nation at Risk*. The authors of the report, who were primarily from the corporate world, declared, "American students never excelled in international comparisons of student achievement and that this failure reflected systematic weaknesses in our schools and lack of talent and motivation among American educators" (Berliner & Biddle, 1995, p. 3). However, *A Nation at Risk* was somewhat "sensational" (Urban & Wagoner, 2009, p. 402), containing numerous claims that were uncorroborated or misleading generalizations as a pretense for a larger political agenda intended to discredit public schools and their teachers.

Developing the perception that America's schools were in crisis, *A Nation at Risk* justified a top-down, punitive approach to school reform. While state-by-state standards-based reform had been underway for several years as primarily, *A Nation at Risk* inspired new theories about 'systemic' reform, which emphasized renewing academic focus in schools, holding teachers accountable for educational outcomes, measured by students' academic achievement, and aligning teacher preparation and pedagogical practice with content standards, curriculum, classroom practice, and performance standards" (DeBray, 2006, p. xi).

Pause and Ponder – Standard-Based Reform

What are some of your own experiences with standards-based reform?

How has increasing standardization of schools helped or hurt your own learning experience?



Image 2.17

President George W. Bush signs into law the No Child Left Behind Act Jan. 8, 2002, at Hamilton High School in Hamilton, Ohio. The No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB, 2001) was an example of standards-based reform. As a bipartisan-passed reauthorization of the 1965 Elementary and Secondary Education Act, it was “the first initiative to truly bring the federal government as a regulator into American public education” (Fabricant & Fine, 2012, p. 13). Previously, the federal government’s control of schools typically extended only to funding; now, NCLB would hold schools, teachers, and students accountable for passing standardized tests given annually in math and reading in grades 3-12. The law also required states to

test English language learners for oral, written, and reading proficiency in English each year. Often unacknowledged, this bipartisan bill was intended to address inequities in US schools and while the implementation was far from perfect, certain aspects remain:

1. Accountability for student performance on biased standardized tests; public characterization of schools as succeeding or failing based on those scores
2. Heightened communication with parents and the community at large.
3. Data-driven decision making to guide school improvement (looking at relationship between academic achievement and race)
4. Enhanced preparation of educators; requirements for teachers to be “highly qualified” in their content areas (qualified math teachers are teaching math)

In the past, parents did not always know when schools were failing their children. NCLB sought to change that. ESEA was originally created to affect equity in terms of poverty in US schools. The federal government plays a role checking the local and state control of US schools.

Initially, there was strong progressive support for NCLB given the low standards and expectations of many schools attended primarily by students of Color and students from low income families. It was hoped that setting uniform standards would help raise achievement in those schools. However, NCLB’s acute focus on the results of narrow standardized tests resulted in teachers ‘teaching to the test’ using uniform curricula that have little or no connection to an increasingly diverse student population. Not only did NCLB publicize school performance on standardized tests, it punished schools that performed poorly. [Sentence elaborating on the punishment]. The punitive nature of the law harmed many students, teachers, and administrators. Madaus et al. (2009) asserted that as a result of changes arising from NCLB, testing “is now woven into the fabric of our nation’s culture and psyche,” which is evidenced by the fact that even “the valuation of homes in a community can increase or decrease based on [school] rankings” based on test scores (p. 4-5). NCLB is based on a theory of action that assumes that uniformity, standardization, centralization, and punitive measures can compel learning and decrease achievement gaps. The assumption that all children learn uniformly in all respects reveals a lack of understanding of the complexity of the learning process and the various demographic differences among children in a diverse society, including cultural, language, and ability differences.

Pause and Ponder

Can you think of a time when it was important for the federal government to intervene in America's schools?

Critical Lens – Standardized testing

In a society experiencing greater diversity, it is more important than ever to realize how culture plays a significant role in shaping children's school experiences, which makes standardized assessments all the more problematic as they tend to be culturally biased. Therefore, relying on standardized assessments in making conclusions about student achievement (or lack of achievement) limits teachers' opportunities to identify the true strengths and learning needs of their students. Rote memorization and test preparation skills can easily inhibit creativity and imagination, and such rigid approaches are teacher-centered and assimilatory.

In 2015, the No Child Left Behind Act (originally the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965) was reauthorized as the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA). The law:

- Advances equity by upholding critical protections for America's disadvantaged and high-need students.
- Requires that all students in America be taught to high academic standards that will prepare them to succeed in college and careers.
- Ensures that vital information is provided to educators, families, students, and communities through annual statewide assessments that measure students' progress toward those high standards.
- Helps to support and grow local innovations, including evidence-based and place-based interventions developed by local leaders and educators.
- Sustains and expands investments in increasing access to high-quality preschool.
- Maintains an expectation that there will be accountability and action to effect positive change in our lowest-performing schools, where groups of students are not making progress, and where graduation rates are low over extended periods of time ([U.S. Department of Education, n.d.](#)).

By specifically tying federal funds to standardized assessments, standardized curricula, and accountability measures, along with requiring states and state education agencies to devote extraordinary resources toward fulfilling these mandates through oversight, since 2001 the federal government has more actively controlled America's public schools than ever before. Increased federal influence illustrates the underlying belief that if the U.S. is going to maintain economic superiority and global competitiveness, public schooling must become a national responsibility. Contemporary goals focusing on preparing children to compete globally are significant for a number of reasons, not the least of which include the evolving nationalization of our public schools and the simultaneous loss of local authority and discretion over fundamental matters related to student learning.

Conclusion

Education in the United States has a complicated past entrenched in religious, economic, national, and international concerns. In Colonial America, Puritans in Massachusetts expected that education would teach children the ways of religion and laws, vital to their own survival in a new world. Meanwhile, the Middle and Southern Colonies viewed education as a commodity for the wealthy families who could afford it, and a way to perpetuate their economic system. After the American Revolution, Federalists, Anti-Federalists, and Democratic-Republican Societies all had different perceptions of how schools should be organized to support our newly-established independent nation. In the Early National Era, common schools, normal schools, and higher education grew as education became more widely established. Many groups were excluded from the early educational system due to racism, sexism, classism, heterosexism, to name a few, reflecting the dominant narrative of the times which was white-centered, English-speaking, protestant, patriarchal and ableist.

Following the Civil War, the federal government was increasingly involved in education, including the temporary creation of the Freedmen's Bureau and subsequent federal funding of agricultural and mechanical colleges with the passage of the Morrill Acts. In the Progressive Era, efforts to maximize the efficiency of educational systems and to utilize education as a venue for social reform prevailed. After World War II, equitable access to education became a primary focus, as "separate-but-equal" doctrines were overthrown and schools grappled with institutional discrimination against non-White students, students with disabilities, women, and English Learners.

The 1965 Elementary and Secondary Education Act provided federal funds to public schools, while states and local school districts continued to exercise considerable discretion over curriculum, assessments, and teacher certification. In the 1980s and beyond, increased pressures for standardization and accountability resulted in standards-based reform, including the No Child Left Behind Act in 2001. More recently, education has been leveraged to support all of a students' developmental needs, not just academic. Common educational philosophies including perennialism, essentialism, progressivism, and social reconstructionism reflect varying beliefs about the roles education should fill.

Like learning, teaching is always developing; it is never realized once and for all. Our public schools have always served as sites of moral, economic, political, religious and social conflict and assimilation into a narrowly defined standard image of what it means to be an American. According to Britzman (as quoted by Kelle, 1996), "the context of teaching is political, it is an ideological context that privileges the interests, values, and practices necessary to maintain the status quo." Teaching is by no means "innocent of ideology," she declares. Rather, the context of education tends to preserve "the institutional values of compliance to authority, social conformity, efficiency, standardization, competition, and the objectification of knowledge" (p. 66-67).

It should be no surprise then that contemporary debates over public education continue to reflect our deepest ideological differences. As Tyack and Cuban (1995) have noted in their historical study of school reform, the nation's perception toward schooling often "shift[s]... from panacea to scapegoat" (p. 14). We would go a long way in solving academic achievement and closing educational gaps by addressing the broader structural issues that institutionalize and perpetuate poverty and inequality.

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3. Educational Philosophies

“Theories are more than academic words that folx with degrees throw around at coffee shops and poetry slams; they work to explain to us how the world works, who the world denies, and how the structures uphold oppression.”

Bettina L. Love, 2019

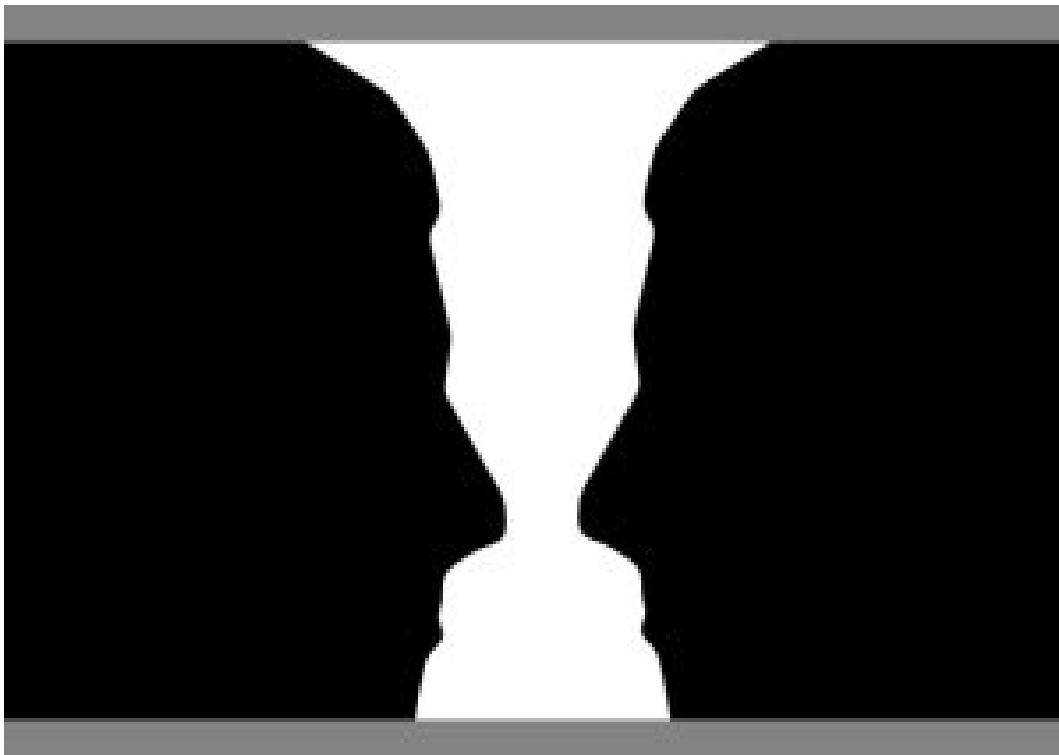


Image 3.1 What do you see? A white vase or two silhouettes?

Learning Objectives

- Learn the four key Educational Philosophies

- Explore non-systemically dominant educational systems and their philosophical roots
- Compare how the privileging of educational thought and philosophy in the US is based in social, political, and economic power
- Develop an initial personal philosophy of education through self-reflection and self examination taking into account narratives and counterstories

Activity – Educational Philosophy Assessment

In order to start reflecting on your own philosophy of education, complete the following:

- Educational Philosophies Self Assessment – https://evaeducation.weebly.com/uploads/1/9/6/9/19692577/self_assessment.pdf
- Scoring Guide for the Self Assessment: https://evaeducation.weebly.com/uploads/1/9/6/9/19692577/self_assessment_scoring_guide.pdf

What does this survey reveal about your underlying philosophy?

Do you agree or disagree with this assessment? Explain.

What might this survey reveal with your reasons in becoming a teacher?

Foundations of Educational Philosophy

Pause and Ponder – Education

You may have heard comments implying that education in the United States is not political, separate from religion, and accessible to everyone. The reality is that from its early existence in the western hemisphere in the 1600s, it was indeed political, religious, and accessible only to a select few. These traits continue to influence the evolution of education in the United States today.

The education system in the United States is a social institution. A social institution is a pattern of behaviors and social arrangements that have evolved to meet the needs of society. Quite often, how those needs are defined in official conversations is dependent on who has the social, economic, and legal power to do the defining.

Given this, and since the current system in the US was derived from a system that was explicitly designed to reproduce wealth and privilege for societal elites, it should be no surprise that the foundational theorists

upon which the US education rests are representative of a narrow range of perspectives on education. Many educational approaches, perspectives, and philosophies have been neglected in the development of the US system. For instance, the educational system in the US is not rooted at all in the philosophies of Aztec or Mayan civilizations. Nor does it include understandings about teaching, learning, or intellectual growth from Muslim, Hindu, or Yoruba societies. It is accurate to say the US system of education and the philosophies on which it rests are decidedly Eurocentric.

Critical Lens – Eurocentrism

Eurocentrism (also Eurocentricity) is a [worldview](#) that is centered on or privileges European-based [civilization](#) or a [biased](#) view that favors it over non-European-based civilizations.

In order to understand the educational system in the US in a way that supports educators in meeting the needs of all students, we offer the following orientation to the educational philosophies on which this system was founded.

A philosophy grounds or guides practice in the study of existence and knowledge while developing an ontology (the study of being) on what it means for something or someone to be—or exist. Educational philosophy, then, provides a foundation which constructs and guides the ways knowledge is generated and passed on to others. Therefore, when thinking and reflecting about your own philosophy of education, you need to acknowledge your values, beliefs and attitudes towards the educational system, as this will guide your practice. Therefore, it is of critical importance that teachers begin to develop a clear understanding of philosophical traditions and how the philosophical underpinnings inform their educational philosophies. 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.

Over the course of history, philosophy has experienced several paradigm shifts that influence teaching and learning. Philosophical traditions from the 19th century helped anchor the early foundations of educational philosophy and the development of public education in Europe and the United States.

Activity – Think and Reflect

Think and reflect on the following guiding questions:

- What does being a teacher mean to you?
- What are the skills that, from your perspective, effective teachers have?
- What should be taught?
- How should it be taught?
- What is knowledge?
- Why is it important to establish a trusting relationships between students, teachers and the community?

Whether you are aware or not, you have begun writing philosophical statements about education and being a teacher.

3.1 Philosophical Perspectives of Education

As students ourselves, we may have a particular notion of what schooling is and should be as well as what teachers do and should do. In his book entitled *Schoolteacher: A Sociological Study*, Dan Lortie (1975) called this the “apprenticeship of observation” (p. 62). Many people who pursue teaching think they already know what it entails because they have generally spent at least 13 years observing teachers as they work. The role of a teacher can seem simplistic because as a student, you only see one piece of what teachers actually do day in and day out. This one-dimensional perspective can contribute to a person’s idea of what the role of teachers in schools is, as well as what the purpose of schooling should be. The idea of the purpose of schooling can also be seen as an individual’s philosophy of schooling.

Philosophy can be defined as the fundamental nature of knowledge, reality and existence. In the case of education, one’s philosophy is what one believes to be true about the essentials of education. When thinking about your philosophy of education, consider your beliefs about the roles of schools, teachers, learners, families, and communities. There are four philosophical perspectives currently used in educational settings: essentialism, perennialism, progressivism, and social reconstructionism/critical pedagogy. Unlike the more abstract philosophical perspectives of ontology and axiology, these four perspectives focus primarily on what should be taught and how it should be taught, i.e. the curriculum. These are explained below.

3.2 Four Key Educational Philosophies

Essentialism

Essentialism adheres to a belief that a core set of essential skills must be taught to all students. Essentialists tend to privilege traditional academic disciplines that will develop prescribed skills and objectives in different content areas as well as develop a common culture. Typically, Essentialism argues for a back-to-basics approach on teaching intellectual and moral standards. Schools should prepare all students to be productive members of society. The Essentialist curriculum focuses on reading, writing, computing clearly and logically about objective facts concerning the real world. Schools should be sites of rigor where students learn to work hard and respect authority. Because of this stance, Essentialism tends to subscribe to tenets of Realism. Essentialist classrooms tend to be teacher-centered in instructional delivery with an emphasis on lecture and teacher demonstrations.



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Video 3.1

Perennialism:

Perennialism advocates for seeking, teaching, and learning universal truths that span across historical time periods. These truths, Perennialists argue, have everlasting importance in helping humans solve problems regardless of time and place. While Perennialism resembles essentialism at first glance, Perennialism focuses on the individual development of the student rather than emphasizing skills. Perennialism supports liberal arts curricula that helps produce well-rounded individuals with some knowledge across the arts and sciences. All students should take classes in English Language Arts, foreign languages, mathematics, natural sciences, fine arts, and philosophy. Like Essentialism, Perennialism may tend to favor teacher-centered instruction; however, Perennialists do utilize student-centered instructional activities like Socratic Seminar, which values and encourages students to think, rationalize, and develop their own ideas on topics.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=28#oembed-2>

Video 3.2

Progressivism

Progressivism focuses its educational stance toward experiential learning with a focus on developing the whole child. Students learn by doing rather than being lectured to by teachers. Curriculum is usually integrated across contents instead of siloed into different disciplines. Progressivism's stance is in stark contrast to both Essentialism and Perennialism in this manner. Progressivism follows a clear pragmatic ontology where the learner focuses on solving real-world problems through real experiences. Progressivist classrooms are student-centered where students will work in cooperative/collaborative groups to do project-based, expeditionary, problem-based, and/or service-learning activities. In progressivist classrooms, students have opportunities to follow their interests and have shared authority in planning and decision making with teachers.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=28#oembed-3>

Video 3.3

3.3 A Response to Dominant Systems:

Social Reconstructionism

Social reconstructionism was founded as a response to the atrocities of World War II and the Holocaust to assuage human cruelty. Social reform in response to helping prepare students to make a better world through instilling liberatory values. Critical pedagogy emerged from the foundation of the early social reconstructionist movement.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=28#oembed-4>

Video 3.4

Critical Lens – Liberatory Thinking

“Liberatory thinking is the re-imagining of one’s assumptions and beliefs about others and their capabilities by interrupting internal beliefs that undermine productive relationships and actions. Liberatory thinking goes beyond simply changing mindsets to creating concrete opportunities for others to experience liberation. The opportunities provides cover for and centers underrepresented and marginalized people. It pushes people to interrogate their own multiple identities in relation to others and to think about the consequences of our actions, especially for students of critical need. It explores how mindsets can impede or ignite progress in the classroom, school, and district.”

Chicago Public Schools

For more information in Liberatory Thinking, please refer to the [Equity Framework](#) from the Chicago Public Schools

Critical Pedagogy

Critical pedagogy is the application of critical theory to education. For critical pedagogues, teaching and learning is inherently a political act and they declare that knowledge and language are not neutral, nor can they be objective. Therefore, issues involving social, environmental, or economic justice cannot be separated from the curriculum. Critical pedagogy’s goal is to emancipate marginalized or oppressed groups by developing, according to Paulo Freire, conscientização, or critical consciousness in students.

Critical pedagogy de-centers the traditional classroom, which positions teachers at the center. The curriculum and classroom with a critical pedagogy stance is student-centered and focuses its content on social critique and political action.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=28#oembed-5>

Video 3.5

3.4 Ways of Knowing

Pause and Ponder – Ways of Knowing

In addition to the historically neglected thinkers and the theories presented above, it is important for educators to consider that there are many ways of knowing and acquiring knowledge

How do you know something is true?

In the US school system, for instance, students begin the day when a bell or signal goes off at the same predetermined time every day. This scheduling system shapes students' awareness of how days in their lives will most likely be structured. Consider an alternative: What would happen if the school day started every day when the sun passes a certain point across the horizon. What would students learn about the world? How would students' way of knowing about time and responsibility be changed?

Critical Lens – Cultural Practices

Here are two news stories with examples of cultural practices that are not taught in mainstream schools because they have been steered away from in this imperialistic, colonizing culture. Nevertheless, they have been sustained by thinkers and teachers and continue to be sustained today.

Culturally informed childbirth practices: [Navajo woman starts nonprofit to improve maternal health](#)

Traditional care of the land: [For tribes, 'good fire' a key to restoring nature and people](#)



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=28#oembed-6>

Video 3.6

3.5 Educational Thinkers

The thinkers and perspectives in the preceding section of this text are considered foundational thinkers in mainstream formal education in the US, other thinkers from the same time period and throughout history are considered foundational contributors to education throughout the world. Some of this has to do with the notion of US colonialism, imperialism, exceptionalism (the belief that the United States is either distinctive, unique, or exemplary compared to other nations), and the legacy of the enslavement of Black Americans in the United States. Because of these legacies, very few people of color were accepted into the cannon of formal educational thinkers. As a result, the US system has been shaped by a very narrow sample of foundational theorists, and many educators who trained in the 20th and 21st centuries in the US had their perspectives formed under this narrow umbrella.

The following individuals and theories are presented so that you can broaden your perspective and better serve all students during your career in education.

William Edward Burghardt Du Bois

Du Bois was an American sociologist, historian and Pan-Africanist civil rights activist. Du Bois completed his graduate work at the University of Berlin and Harvard University, where he was the first African American to earn a doctorate. He became a professor of history, sociology and economics at Atlanta University. Du Bois was one of the founders of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) in 1909.

In an effort to portray the genius and humanity of the Black race, Du Bois published *The Souls of Black Folk* (1903), a collection of 14 essays. The introduction of the book famously proclaimed that “the problem of the Twentieth Century is the problem of the color line.” Each chapter begins with two epigraphs – one from a White poet, and one from a Black spiritualist – to demonstrate intellectual and cultural parity between Black and White cultures.

A major theme of *The Souls of Black Folk* is the double consciousness faced by African Americans: being both American and Black. This was a unique identity which, according to Du Bois, had been a handicap in the past, but could be a strength in the future: “Henceforth, the destiny of the race could be conceived as leading neither to assimilation nor separatism but to proud, enduring hyphenation.”

Double consciousness is the internal conflict experienced by subordinated or colonized groups in an oppressive society. Originally, double consciousness was specifically the psychological challenge African Americans experienced of “always looking at oneself through the eyes” of a racist white society and “measuring



Image 3.2

oneself by the means of a nation that looked back in contempt". The term also referred to Du Bois's experiences of reconciling his African heritage with an upbringing in a European-dominated society.

More recently, the concept of double consciousness has been expanded to other situations of social inequality, notably women living in patriarchal societies as well as LGBTQ2S+ people living in homophobic and transphobic societies.

The idea of double consciousness is important because it illuminates the experiences of Black people living in post-slavery America, and also because it sets a framework for understanding the position of oppressed people in an oppressive world. As a result, it became used to explain the dynamics of gender, colonialism, xenophobia and more alongside race. This theory laid a strong foundation for other critical theorists to expand upon.

Carter Godwin Woodson



Image 3.3

Woodson was an American educator, historian, author, and the founder of the Association for the Study of African American Life and History. He achieved a graduate degree at the [University of Chicago](#) and in 1912 was the second African American, after [W. E. B. Du Bois](#), to obtain a PhD from [Harvard University](#). Woodson remains the only person whose parents were enslaved in the United States to obtain a [PhD](#). He taught at two [historically Black colleges](#): "[Howard University](#)" and "[West Virginia State University](#)". Woodson believed that education and increasing social and professional contacts among Black and white people could reduce racism, and he promoted the organized study of African-American history partly for that purpose. He would later promote the first Negro History Week in Washington, D.C., in 1926, forerunner of Black History Month.

Woodson published *The Education of the Negro Prior to 1861*. Believing that history belonged to everybody, not just the historians, Woodson sought to engage Black civic leaders, high school teachers, clergy, women's groups and fraternal associations in his project to improve the understanding of African-American history. He founded the Association for the Study of African American Life and History whose purpose he described as the "scientific study" of the "neglected aspects of Negro life and history" by training a new generation of Black people in historical research and methodology

bell hooks

hooks is a US based educational theorist and social activist. In *Teaching to Transgress: Education as the Practice of Freedom*, she argues that a teacher's use of control over students dulls the students' enthusiasm and teaches obedience to authority, and keeps students from learning critical thinking. hook's pedagogical practices exist as an interplay of anti-colonial, critical, and feminist pedagogies and are based on freedom. hooks also built a bridge between critical thinking and real-life situations, to enable educators to show students the everyday world instead of the stereotypical perspective of the world. hooks argues that teachers and students should engage in interrogations of cultural assumptions that are supported by oppression.

note: bell hooks intentionally does not capitalize her name, which follows her critical stance that language, even how we write one's own name, is political and ideological.



Image 3.4

Henry Giroux



Image 3.5

Giroux is a foundational critical theorist in the US and Canada, best known for his pioneering work in critical pedagogy in K-12 and higher ed. His work advocates supporting students developing a consciousness of freedom and connecting knowledge to power, and the ability to take constructive action. His latest work examines the pitting of people against each other through the lens of class, race, and any other differences that don't embrace white nationalism.

3.6 Latin American Thinkers

We will now analyze the impact of the pedagogical practice, as well as the educational thought, of different key educators in Latin America. These educators influenced a cultural change with ideas and concepts that modified the parameters of the educational system that was established in Latin America.

Some of these educators have not been recognized in the educational system around the world. However, their work has been a catalyst in giving way to cultural and educational transformations in Latin America. The following educators stand out for their innovative tendencies who fought for an educational system to which all people had access.

When studying these Latin American educators, it should be noted that they generated a change that had a great impact on socio-cultural problems and that their success, or failure, depended on the government policies carried out in the corresponding countries.

Deeper Dive – Latin American Thinkers

You can watch the history of each Latin American thinkers in Spanish in the following video:



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=28#oembed-7>

Video 3.7

Paulo Reglus Neves Freire

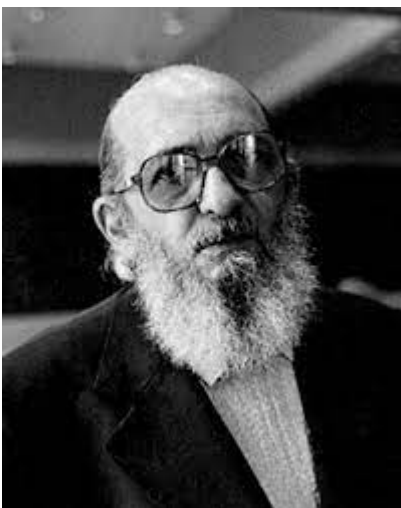


Image 3.6

Freire is a Brazilian philosopher and educator, was one of the most influential thinkers behind social reconstructionism. He criticized the banking model of education in his best known writing, *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, which is generally considered one of the fundamental texts of the critical pedagogy movement. Banking models of education view students as empty vessels to be filled by the teacher's expertise, like a teacher putting "coins" of information into the students' "piggy banks." Instead, Freire supported problem-posing models of education that recognized the prior knowledge everyone has and can share with others. Conservative critics of social reconstructionists suggest that they have abandoned intellectual pursuits in education, whereas social reconstructionists believe that the analyzing of moral decisions leads to being good citizens in a democracy.

The installment dedicated to Paulo Freire covers the different stages of the life of the Brazilian pedagogue and politician. The documentary shows his Christian roots and his first steps related to literacy and adult education in Brazil, especially the one carried out in Angicos. Then, it continues with Freire's years in exile, which included a diverse tour of Chile, the US, Nicaragua, etc. and the publication, in 1970, of two of his most important works: *Education as a practice for freedom* and *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. At the same time, it is argued that these works strengthened a political idea that became the organizer of the movement of the oppressed in Latin America.

Pause and Ponder – Dominant Narrative

The work of Freire, Giroux, and hooks are included as necessary responses to the exclusionary and marginalizing nature of the dominant narrative of educational systems. Even today, although educators may study their work, the systems they're employed with tend to perpetuate the inequalities and dynamics Freire, Giroux, hooks, and others address.

Gabriela Mistral

Mistral, pseudonym of Lucila Godoy Alcayaga, was a Chilean poet, diplomat and pedagogue. She received the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1945 for her poetic work, she was the first Ibero-American woman and the second Latin American person to receive a Nobel Prize.

Her political-ideological profile is represented as a hybrid between her Catholic, but not conservative, beliefs and her liberal traits, although she is not strictly defined as liberal. Her words and poetry, which frequently gave life to various newspaper articles, generated multiple conflicts with the most conservative sectors of society. Mistral, however, continued on her way and affirmed her work in the rural and indigenous sectors. During her trip to Mexico, at the invitation of Vasconcelos, she fulfilled her full potential as a teacher, promoting a pedagogy based on the child, with Christian roots and that took into account the singularities of the rural and indigenous areas in which she worked. In 1945 she became the first woman to receive the Nobel Prize for Literature, something that made visible the impact of her teaching practice, intellectual and poetic practice.



Image 3.7

Domingo Faustino Sarmiento



Image 3.8

Sarmiento was an Argentine politician, writer, teacher, journalist, serviceman and statesman; governor of the province of San Juan between 1862 and 1864, president of the Argentine Nation between 1868 and 1874, national senator for his province between 1874 and 1879 and minister of the interior in 1879.

His controversial, anti-racist and unitary side is reaffirmed, and the fact that he belongs to a generation that understood writing as a political practice. He questioned what was the best educational system for all of the students in Latin America. He starts investigating the opposite approaches of education in Massachusetts and Prussia. He believed that the students had a better option to succeed and learn independently in a society under the Prussian system, which was centralized and under the management of the state. The educational system in Massachusetts, on the contrary, was decentralized and the society was the principal entity to promote education. Therefore, the habits of each state were instilled in the students. For example, a republican state will have a republican approach to education and he did not agree

with this approach. Therefore, after his investigations he laid the programmatic foundations of a national educational system, in where it was centralized and Popular Education was provided to all of the children in Argentina.

Later on, his side as a statesman is taken up again with the contributions he made in the elaboration of the Law of Common Education of Buenos Aires (1875) and the sanction under his presidency of the National Law of Common Education (1884).

Jesualdo Sosa

Sosa, better known as Jesualdo, was a Uruguayan teacher, writer, pedagogue and journalist. His teaching led him to dedicate himself with greater purpose and knowledge on the activities, interests and needs of the child.

Starting from a critique of the traditional school and the capitalist system, Sosa combined there a proposal with Escolanovist overtones, which promoted the autonomy of children, their creativity, their expression, their work training, and was articulated with the activities of the community. That experience was collected in *Vida de un maestro*, a production that, despite the censorship attempts it suffered from dictatorial governments, was able to expand worldwide. After that publication, his life is described as a time of maturation, systematization and recognition, which gave him the chance to be called to collaborate in different parts of Latin America.

Simón Narciso de Jesús Carreño Rodríguez

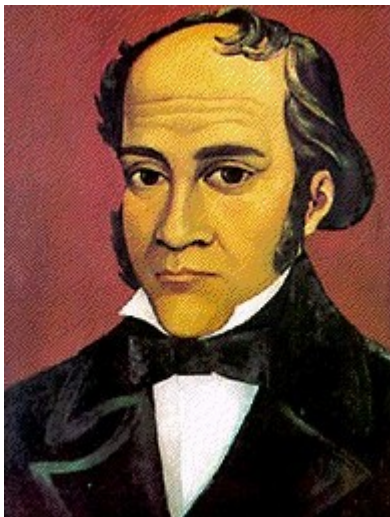


Image 3.9

de Jesús Carreño Rodríguez was a Venezuelan hero, educator, and politician. He was the tutor of Simón Bolívar and Andrés Bello. He contributed concepts and ideas including written works aimed at the process of freedom and American integration.

In the seventh installment, Simón Rodríguez is recognized as a great precursor of our American pedagogical thought, as a fighter for the emancipation of Latin America and for public education for all as a form of social progress. His philosophy favored the equality in education as he believed this was a right for all citizens. He highlights his conception of equality, which was not restrictive as he believed that equality started in educational practices. He sacrificed all his belongings and left everything for his ideals. In the miniseries,

José Vasconcelos Calderón

Vasconcelos Calderón was a Mexican lawyer, politician, writer, educator, public official and philosopher. He was part of the revolutionary movement led by Francisco Madero, which promoted the democratic transformation of a country that, at that time, was shaken by the dictatorships of Porfirio Díaz Mori. As a result of a political setup, Vasconcelos became Secretary of Education of the Federal Government (1921-1924). His management in this position is distinguished as short and intense, since there he carried out, with the support of Gabriela Mistral, his most recognized work, promoting high culture, rural literacy missions and muralism as ways of recovering Latin American roots. His work, *The Cosmic Race*, is considered a condensation of his position in favor of mestizaje, which is the biological and cultural encounter or its arrangement between different ethnic groups, in which they mix, giving birth to new species of families and new genotypes. This was a very controversial work as it was not aligned with the thinking of the people from this time.



Image 3.10

José Carlos Mariátegui

Mariátegui, La Chira, was a Peruvian writer, journalist and political thinker, a prolific author despite his early death. He is also known in his country by the name of El Amauta. He was one of the main scholars of Socialism in Latin America.



Image 3.11

“The revolution is not only the fight for bread, but also the conquest of beauty” is a representative phrase of José Carlos Mariátegui, which marks the beginning of the installment referring to the Peruvian writer, journalist and intellectual. At first, the documentary goes through what is considered his first school, recounting his initial steps in the writing of the newspaper *La Razón*, where he grew as a journalist and became involved in workers’ struggles and reformist ideals. Then it is analyzed how during his exile in Europe, Mariátegui was nurtured by Marxist ideas, the struggles of Italian workers and began to work on the notion of indigenism as a creative and revolutionary myth. During his return, it is stated that he strengthened his political proposal of autochthonous socialism, marked by a juxtaposition between Marxist theory, Latin Americanism and indigenism, with a strong emphasis also on gender equality and the depatriarchalizing of educational practices. These aspects are present in its most important editorial offering, *Amauta*. In 1928, he created the Peruvian Socialist Party and published *Seven Interpretive Essays on Peruvian Reality*, from which he criticized the liberal model of education (which placed the problem of indigenous

people in education) and the lack of their recognition as subjects of law.

José Julián Martí Pérez

Martí Pérez was a writer and politician of Cuban origin. Democratic republican politician, thinker, journalist, philosopher and Cuban poet, creator of the Cuban Revolutionary Party and organizer of the War of 95 or Necessary War, named after the Cuban War of Independence. He suffered the vicissitudes of critical thought from a very young age, when he was imprisoned and exiled. Strongly involved in the struggles against Spanish colonization and US interference in the Caribbean, he claimed Bolivarian principles. His political and educational thought is described through four topics: the decolonization of Latin American knowledge, the formation of good people and the role of love in pedagogy, the special place given to creative work and the recovery of Latin American identity. In 1892, a time of exile, he founded the Cuban Revolutionary Party as a tool for the independence of the island and finally died on the battlefield years later.



Image 3.12

Jorge J. E. Gracia

Gracia was born in Cuba in 1942 and was a Cuban refugee in the USA. He studied at both Universidad de La Habana and Escuela Nacional de Bellas Artes San Alejandro in Havana before moving to the U.S., where he earned a degree in philosophy from Wheaton College in 1965. He went on to receive a master's degree in philosophy from University of Chicago in 1966, a licentiate in medieval studies from Pontifical Institute of Medieval Studies in 1970 and his doctorate in medieval philosophy from University of Toronto in 1971.

Gracia's areas of research included metaphysics, ethnic and racial issues, philosophy of religion, and medieval and Latin American philosophy. These topics led him to author over 20 books and edit more than two dozen volumes of works by others. One of his most notable contributions was his 1984 edited anthology on Latin American philosophy, "Philosophical Analysis in Latin America," which was the first work of its kind published in English by a philosopher.

Beyond his vast collection of writings, he was also a leader for many important organizations. He was the founding chair for the American Philosophical Association's Committee for Hispanics in Philosophy and sat as president of the Society for Medieval and Renaissance Philosophy, Society for Iberian and Latin American Thought, American Catholic Philosophical Association and the Metaphysical Society of America.

Gracia worked for the State University of New York at Buffalo from 1971 until he retired in January 2020 as SUNY Distinguished Professor and Samuel P. Capen Chair in the departments of philosophy and comparative literature.

Héctor-Neri Castañeda

Castañeda was a Guatemalan American philosopher who emigrated to the U.S. in 1948 as a refugee. He attended the University of Minnesota to earn his bachelor's, master's and PhD degrees.

After graduating with his PhD, Castañeda studied at Oxford University for a year before returning to the U.S. to work at Duke University for a short period of time. He went on to work at Wayne State University, where he founded the philosophical journal [Noûs](#), which is still in production to this day.

Eventually, he moved to Indiana University in 1969 and became the Mahlon Powell Professor of philosophy as well as that university's first dean of Latino affairs.

Castañeda is most notable for developing the [guise theory](#), which applies to the analysis of thought, language and the structure of the world through abstract objects. He is also credited with the discovery of the concept of the quasi-indexical or quasi-indicator. This is a linguistic expression in which a person referencing another can shift from context to context, much like in the way 'you' can refer to a specific person in one context and another person in a different context.

In addition to his research, he was awarded a fellowship from the Guggenheim Foundation and received grants from the National Endowment for the Humanities, the Andrew W. Mellon Foundation and the National Science Foundation. He was also given the Presidential Medal of Honor by the government of Guatemala in 1991, among many other accomplishments.

Activities – Personal Philosophy of Education

In order to start building your own personal philosophy of education, it's important to be able to articulate how you will incorporate diverse perspectives and ways of knowing into your teaching.

Instructions:

1. Watch "The Danger of a single story" TED talk by Chimamanda Ngozi Adichie



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<https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=28#oembed-8>

Video 3.8

2. Select a mainstream-culture based single story about education and analyze it. Examine how an ideology or stereotype is perpetuated through it
3. Explore some or all of the story's origins functions impact on education
4. Then examine the alternative stories: those told by the survivors of the single story
5. Propose ways to change the story both in your teaching and in the educational system in general

Conclusion

Like learning, teaching is always developing; it is never realized once and for all. Our public schools have always served as sites of moral, economic, political, religious and social conflict and assimilation into a narrowly defined standard image of what it means to be an American. According to Britzman (as quoted by Kelle, 1996), "the

context of teaching is political, it is an ideological context that privileges the interests, values, and practices necessary to maintain the status quo.” Teaching is by no means “innocent of ideology,” she declares. Rather, the context of education tends to preserve “the institutional values of compliance to authority, social conformity, efficiency, standardization, competition, and the objectification of knowledge” (p. 66-67).

It should be no surprise then that contemporary debates over public education continue to reflect our deepest ideological differences. As Tyack and Cuban (1995) have noted in their historical study of school reform, the nation’s perception toward schooling often “shift[s]... from panacea to scapegoat” (p. 14). We would go a long way in solving academic achievement and closing educational gaps by addressing the broader structural issues that institutionalize and perpetuate poverty and inequality.

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Videos

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4. Students, Educators and Community

"It becomes imperative to understand how to build positive social relationships that signal to the brain a sense of physical, psychological and social safety so that learning is possible."

-Zaretta Hammond, 2014



Image 4.1

Learning Objectives

- Identify the many ways in which students, educational staff and communities differ
- Describe bilingual learning and the importance of honoring different cultures, languages, races, religions
- Learn about motivation and the factors which influence student's success in the classroom
- Articulate ways that interactions among differences in learning, trauma histories, and language acquisition create a power dynamic in the classroom

- Identify the effects of childhood trauma on student learning and behavior
- Articulate trauma informed practices and explain the value of using them in a diverse classroom
- Reflect on the importance of building relationships with your students

When you imagine your future classroom, what does it look like? In what ways will your students be alike? In what ways will they be different?

The dimensions along which your future students will differ are numerous and vary widely. There are many ethnic and cultural factors to consider, such as gender, religion, ethnicity and language. What effect will this have on the learning environment and climate of your classroom? Additionally, your students will have differences in styles of learning, degrees of motivation, emotional well-being, wealth, access to resources, and social skills amongst others. Students also vary in need, and could have cognitive and, or physical impairments. Many of your students will embody several of these characteristics at the same time. Other factors reflect where a student is from, including their cultural values and heritage. The environment also plays a role in student disposition. For example, the student's home life and experiences help to shape what they bring with them to the classroom setting. Regardless of the origin or type of factors that work together to make each student unique, a well-prepared teacher needs to be knowledgeable of how student diversity affects their classroom and their teaching. This chapter will review the array of student differences, with specific attention to the needs of emergent bilingual students, and the importance of childhood trauma and social and emotional learning in today's classrooms.

4.1 Autobiography

Across the United States, the tapestry of the K-12 student population has changed dramatically over the last twenty years and is continuing to evolve. For example, in 2019, bilingual students constituted an average of 14.8 percent of total public school enrollment in cities, 10.0 percent in suburban areas, 7.0 percent in towns, and 4.4 percent in rural areas. As a future teacher, it is important to think about the student population you will be working with in the future.

This section will explore key issues related to getting to know your students' biographies. This exploration of student biographies begins with an understanding of our own autobiographical narrative. We will build on our autobiographical narratives by learning more about ourselves as learners, and how our own learning styles could influence our future instructional practices.

Autobiographical Narratives

Every student brings unique talents and skills to the classroom. As educators, it is our job to find out what these talents are so that we can build upon them within the classroom. According to Herrera (2010), "understanding the core aspects of each student is essential to the process of identifying the skills and knowledge that he or she brings to the classroom" (p. 7). Autobiographical narratives are one of the key tools that educators can use to learn about the core aspects of each individual student biography.

Autobiographical narratives pull from research on Biography Driven Instruction (BDI). Biography-Driven Instruction (Herrera, 2016) is a communicative method of teaching and learning that helps teachers understand and maximize assets of the student biography to provide a more culturally responsive approach to teaching.

Creating Autobiographical Narratives

Consider writing autobiographical narratives at the beginning of the term and revisit near the end. Reflect on your growth: How has your thinking evolved? What have you learned about yourself this term?

When creating autobiographical narratives, it is essential to consider the student population for whom you wish to develop the narratives with, as this will largely influence the design of your own narrative. For example, students at the Kindergarten level will need a much different autobiographical narrative than students in 12th grade. In addition, you will want to think about how much information you would like to gather directly from the students. Depending on the age, needs, and even language proficiency levels of your students, some autobiographical narratives can be added to/completed by parents or primary caregivers.

Once you have established these basic parameters, you will want to determine what information you would like to gather. This information can range from very general to very specific. A good recommendation is that you try to gather information about each of the following four dimensions of the students biography:

1. Sociocultural (SC)

- Where were they born?
- Where were they raised?
- Are they in foster care?
- Who is their caregiver?
- What kinds of activities reflect their livelihood, inclusive of jobs and hobbies?
- Who are the most important people in their lives?

2. Linguistic (LG)

- What is their first language?
- What is their second language?
- What do they consider their strengths/weaknesses to be when it comes to language?

3. Academic (AC)

- Where did they go to school?
- What special programs were they involved in at school?
- Did they participate in any sports?
- What did they like most/least about school?

4. Cognitive (COG)

- What is the student's learning style?
- What do they consider their strengths when it comes to learning?
- What do they struggle with when it comes to studying?

As part of this course, you may be asked to complete your own autobiographical narrative. When creating it, please keep the above four dimensions in mind. Each dimension plays a critical role in defining who you are as an individual and future teacher.

For more information on Biography Driven Instruction:

[Phenomenological Research on Biography-Driven Instruction Use in Highly Diverse Classrooms](#)

For an example of an autobiographical narrative:

[Dr. Perez's Autobiographical Narrative](#)

Applying Autobiographical Narratives

Using insights gleaned from students' autobiographical narratives, teachers have the knowledge they need to make critical adaptations to their instructional practices to better meet the needs of their student populations. A few of these adaptations have been identified below based on the potential information that could have been learned about the four dimensions of the student biography.

1. *Sociocultural (SC)*

- Invite family members, caregivers, or foster parents in to share information about their cultural background.
- Ask a family member, caregivers, or foster parents to share expertise related to their professional practices.
- Have the student share information about another city, state, or country they may have lived in and/or traveled to at some point in their lives.

2. *Linguistic (LG)*

- Have students use their first language to promote development/transfer as they acquire English.
- Provide specific interventions for students to help them address areas where they may be struggling.
- Capitalize on students strengths' and make them language models for the class.

3. *Academic (AC)*

- Build on prior academic experiences to support new learning in the classroom.
- Promote active engagement in school activities, sports, and/or other programs.

4. *Cognitive (COG)*

- Incorporate multiple learning styles.

- Provide learning strategies to support students in and outside the classroom setting.

These are just a few ways you can apply the information learned from autobiographical narratives in the classroom.

Individually brainstorm some additional ways you might use the information from autobiographical narratives. Write down at least three ideas on a separate sheet of paper.

Beyond the extensive list of diverse elements above, as an educator, one will also be faced with the variations of ways in which students learn, feel about themselves as learners, and are motivated to learn. In future courses that you will take to prepare yourself for being the best possible teacher, you will learn much more about these factors, but for our purposes, let's take a brief look at each of these.

4.2 Student Diversity

As you were reflecting at the beginning of this chapter, when you envision your future classroom full of students, you can ask again some questions such as: what does it look like? It may help to consider your past experiences in classrooms. How does it sound? What do your students have in common? How do they differ? Reflecting on these questions is valuable. Hopefully, you will come to understand that you are not going to be teaching a class of students, as much as a collection of individuals, each with their own strengths, talents, weaknesses, personalities and needs. There are many ways in which your future students may differ. The following is a brief overview of some of the myriad factors that will make your students unique and, in some cases, challenging.

As defined by the National Education Association, diversity is “the sum of the ways that people are both alike and different” (para. 1). The NEA goes on to list a variety of dimensions that are included in diversity. Some of these are: “race, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, language, culture, religion, mental and physical ability, class and immigration status” (para. 1, www.nea.org, n.d.). It is such diversity that creates both richness and challenge within a classroom. The variety of students in one's classroom provide many opportunities for learning and growth for everyone in that community. Concurrently, such diversity brings with it many related challenges such as the need for differentiated learning techniques to meet the needs of



Image 4.2

every student. Individual perspectives relating to diversity can provide the fuel for bullying and harassment of students. And these are just two potential issues; there are many more.

Pause and Ponder – Diversity

Race · Ethnicity · Sexual Orientation · Language · Culture · Religion · Mental and Physical Ability · Socioeconomic Status · Immigration Status

- What does each of these mean to you?
- Where do you fit in each of these categories?
- What was your school like regarding these aspects of diversity?
- Is anything missing?

Another term we encounter often regarding today's classrooms is *multicultural*. When you think of the word *culture*, what comes to mind? The word means different things to different people. *Culture* includes the many things that combine to make one community or group distinct from another, such as their values, clothing, religion, holidays, traditions, language, music, literature, beliefs and expectations (Alsubaie, 2015; Perso, 2012). If we understand culture that way, it is clear that everyone is coming from their own unique cultural experience, including students and teachers. The culture of the teacher and the students in one classroom will affect the education process found there (Alsubaie, 2015).

It is, therefore, very important to seek to understand both your own background and cultural beliefs and those of your students. As stated by Alsubaie (2015) "teachers who learn more about their students' backgrounds, cultures and experiences will feel more capable and efficient in their work as teachers" (p. 88). The more aware you become of your own personal set of beliefs, values and expectations, and even of your own biases, the better able you will be to seek to understand your future students. In addition to learning about student experiences and backgrounds, it is also important to address what drives students to seek knowledge and motivation.

Activity – Diversity

You might identify your own attitudes toward diversity by remembering certain pivotal moments in your life. Ask yourself the following questions:

- Recall the incident in which you first became aware of differences. What was your reaction? Were you the focus of attention or were others? How did that affect how you reacted to the situation?
- What are the "messages" that you learned about various "minorities" or "majorities" when you were a child? At home? In school? Have your views changed considerably since then? Why or why not?
- Recall an experience in which your own difference puts you in an uncomfortable position vis-à-vis the people directly around you. What was that difference? How did it affect you?
- How do your memories of differences affect you today? How do they (or might they) affect your teaching?

(The Regents of the University of Michigan, 2016)

4.3 Motivation

Motivation to learn is very complex, and includes cultural background, our own developmental level, beliefs in the value of learning (in general or something in particular) and the belief in our ability to be successful (academic-self-concept comes into play here). In future classes, you will study educational psychology. One definition from that discipline for motivation is as follows:

“Motivation is an internal state that activates, guides and sustains behavior. Educational psychology research on motivation is concerned with the volition or will that students bring to a task, their level of interest and intrinsic motivation, the personally held goals that guide their behavior, and their belief about the causes of their success or failure.”

As a teacher, you are tasked with helping to motivate your students to learn. As you just learned with the autobiography narratives, it is best to begin by knowing about yourself first so that you can enhance a student’s unique talents and skills to the classroom. You need to learn about their histories, background and culture in order to understand what motivates them.

One of the most difficult aspects of becoming a teacher is learning how to motivate your students. Some educators and even researchers state that students who lack that intrinsic motivation will not learn effectively. They won’t retain information; they won’t participate; and, some of them may even become disruptive. However, in her book *Cultivating Genius*, Dr. Ghodly E. Muhammad states: “For one, I have never met an unmotivated child in my years working with youth. I have, however, “met” unmotivating curriculum and instruction.” (p.65). Therefore, as educators, it is our responsibility to start including students, and a diverse workforce that includes people of color when re-writing the curriculum.

Pause and Ponder – Motivation

Reflect on the different ways you were motivated as a student:

- Was the focus on intrinsic or extrinsic motivation?
- Were you motivated to succeed by cooperating with others?
- Were you motivated to succeed as an individual?
- Does competition or cooperation motivate you?
- What challenges stand in the way of success?
- Based on your experiences why is it important for you to understand about motivation?

Thus far, we have addressed the multiplicity of ways students are unique. Another way to enhance learning involves the awareness of learning styles.

4.4 Learning Styles

Everyone has a way in which they feel that they learn best. It can be through listening, watching, touching or doing, or a combination of any of them. This can also affect what tools best help a student in the classroom. Some will do well just reading the textbook, some may need hands-on experiments, or charts and graphic

organizers. There is no one size fits all approach to learning, which is one of the great challenges that teachers face and one of the reasons why observation and relationships should be at the core of teaching.

Pause and Ponder – Learning Styles

Reflect on your learning style as a student:

- In what way do you learn best?
- How do you study?
- What was your favorite subject, why?
- Who was your favorite instructor, why?
- How were your learning style and your friends' different?
- Did you have friends who needed to take notes, while others learned just by listening to the teacher?

There are certainly many types of learning styles. Here are three theories theories that explain different learning styles: Multiple Intelligence Theory, The VARK Approach, and The Equity Framework.

Howard Gardner's **Multiple Intelligence Theory** recognizes that different people have different ways, or combinations of ways, of relating to the world. Gardner explains eight different types of intelligence:

1. Verbal (prefers words)
2. Logical (prefers math and logical problem solving)
3. Visual (prefers images and spatial relationships)
4. Kinesthetic (prefers body movements and doing)
5. Rhythmic (prefers music, rhymes)
6. Interpersonal (prefers group work)
7. Intrapersonal (prefers introspection and independence)
8. Naturalist (prefers nature, natural categories)

Another approach to learning styles is called the **VARK Approach**, which focuses on learning through different senses (Visual, Aural, Reading/Writing, and Kinesthetic):

- Visual learners prefer images, charts, and the like.
- Aural learners learn better by listening.
- Reading/writing learners learn better through written language.
- Kinesthetic learners learn through doing, practicing, and acting."

Another, and more current approach to learning is the **Equity Framework** from Dr. Gholdy E. Muhammad, which focuses on reimagining the standards we set for teaching and learning. The four-layered equity framework includes the learning goals of:

1. Identity development
2. Skill development
3. Intellectual development

4. Criticality

Having an understanding that students come from different cultures, and learn differently based on their educational values, will lead you to seek out many teaching strategies as well as realizing the importance of observation and relationships. Taking the time to get to know your students and how they learn as well as having a large toolkit of strategies, will help you to accommodate your students' needs. This can also be referred to as differentiated learning or differentiated instruction. Differentiated instruction, according to Tomlinson (as cited by Ellis, Gable, Greg & Rock, 2008, p. 32) is the process of “ensuring that what a student learns, how he or she learns it, and how the student demonstrates what he or she has learned is a match for that student's readiness level, interests, and preferred mode of learning.” By the time you are ready to teach, you should be prepared to observe, develop strong relationships and differentiate your instruction and all of this will be based on your knowledge of your students and how they learn best.

At this point, we have discussed the diverse perspectives of students and talked about their cultural experiences, learning styles, motivation, and home settings. In addition to these factors, some students arrive in the classroom with multiple ways of communicating; therefore, we are shifting our focus to bilingualism and the historical context of language acquisition in the U.S.

4.5 Bilingualism – Emergent Bilinguals

Bilingualism is not a rare phenomenon; in fact, there are approximately 33 million bilingual people worldwide, accounting for 43% of the population. – Pew Research Center, 2022.

Bilingual education is not an invention of the 1960s. Contrary to popular misconception, earlier waves of immigrants often enrolled their children in bilingual or non-English-language schools — public and private. In 1839, Ohio became the first state to adopt a bilingual education law, authorizing German-English instruction at parents' request. Louisiana enacted an identical provision for French and English in 1847, and the New Mexico Territory did so for Spanish and English in 1850. By the end of the 19th century, about a dozen states had passed similar laws. Elsewhere, many localities provided bilingual instruction without state sanction, in languages as diverse as Norwegian, Italian, Polish, Czech, and Cherokee. Enrollment surveys at the turn of the 20th century reported that at least 600,000 primary school students (public and parochial) were receiving part or all of their instruction in the German language — about 4% of all American children in the elementary grades. That's larger than the percentage of students enrolled in Spanish-English programs today. (Until recently, German was the dominant minority language.)

However, political winds shifted during the World War I era. Fears about the loyalty of non-English speakers in general, and of German Americans in particular, prompted a majority of states to enact English-only instruction laws designed to “Americanize” these groups. Some went so far as to ban the study of foreign languages in the early grades — a restriction that was struck down as unconstitutional in 1923. Nonetheless, by the mid-1920s, bilingual schooling was largely dismantled throughout the country. English-only instruction continued as the norm for LEP students until its failure could no longer be ignored. LEP students in English-only classrooms were falling behind in their academic studies and dropping out of school at alarming rates.

The Bilingual Education Act of 1968 — passed during an era of growing immigration and an energized civil rights movement — provided federal funding to encourage local school districts to try approaches incorporating native-language instruction. Most states followed the lead of the federal government, enacting bilingual education laws of their own or at least decriminalizing the use of other languages in the classroom. Soon after, the Supreme Court recognized that leaving LEP students to “sink or swim” in English-only classrooms made “a mockery of public education” — which must be equally available to all students. The court's decision in the landmark *Lau v. Nichols* case required schools to take “affirmative steps” to overcome language

barriers impeding children's access to the curriculum. Congress immediately endorsed this principle in the Equal Educational Opportunity Act of 1974.

Deeper Dive – Demographics

Bilinguals represent about 20 percent of the population in the United States. According to the US Census Bureau, in 2019 the five most frequently spoken languages in the home other than English are:

1. Spanish or Spanish Creole
2. Chinese
3. Tagalog
4. Vietnamese
5. Arabic

For more detailed information, visit [What Languages Do We Speak in the United States?](#)

Neither the Bilingual Education Act nor the Lau decision requires any particular methodology for teaching LEP students. That is, there is no federal mandate for bilingual education (although a few states mandate it under certain circumstances). What civil rights laws do require are educational programs that offer equal opportunities for LEP children. To enforce this principle, the federal courts and the federal Office for Civil Rights apply a three-step test to ensure that schools provide: • Research-based programs that are viewed as theoretically sound by experts in the field; • Adequate resources — such as staff, training, and materials — to implement the program; and • Standards and procedures to evaluate the program and a continuing obligation to modify a program that fails to produce results. Politically inspired efforts to eliminate bilingual education, such as the Unz initiative in California, would have a hard time passing this test. States or school districts that persist in such civil rights violations could face severe sanctions, including the loss of all federal education funding. This information is based on an analysis by the National Association of Bilingual Education.

But what does it mean to be bilingual, and what are the terms that are used in the United States to refer to students who are learning another language? According to Oxford Dictionary (2022), bilingualism is the ability of an individual, or the members of a community, to use two languages effectively. In the United States, the term *English Language Learner* (ELL) has been used predominantly as a label to students who are developing their language proficiency in English. ELL is also the preferred term by state and federal agencies since it used to determine protected status for students who fall under this category.

However, the term ELL tends to devalue the language(s) in which these students are proficient. The term *emergent bilingual* has begun to replace the term ELL because it values the *funds of knowledge* (see video below) and language competencies the students already have while celebrating their identity as someone becoming bilingual. Bilingualism or the students' emerging bilingualism is shown as an asset rather than a deficit.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=30#oembed-1>

Video 4.1

As educators, it is our duty to ensure students acquire the content standards that have been written for all students, as well as the academic language proficiency within all content areas for emergent bilinguals, while we ensure their heritage and culture are celebrated in the class.

Activity – Bilingualism

Please read the following Poem in Spanish:

En secreto

recogí el vaso en que habías bebido

y lo llevé a mi casa.

Por las tardes, cuando llego del colegio,

Lo coloco bajo el grifo

Y veo flotar un beso en el agua.

-Jairo Anibal Niño

Reflect on the following guiding questions as you read and re-read the poem:

- If you are native Spanish speaker, or learned Spanish as your second language, how did you feel when reading a poem in a language that was familiar to you?
- How did your fluency level in Spanish make you feel? Why?
- In what ways could you, as an instructor, help support the content to someone who might not understand Spanish?

While motivation, learning styles and bilingualism influence student learning, there is a growing body of research which suggests that intellectual abilities can be developed and are not fixed. In this next section, consider how one's presence of mind affects knowledge acquisition.

4.6 Growth Mindset or Fixed Mind-set?

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 be 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.

Critical Lens – Growth Mindset

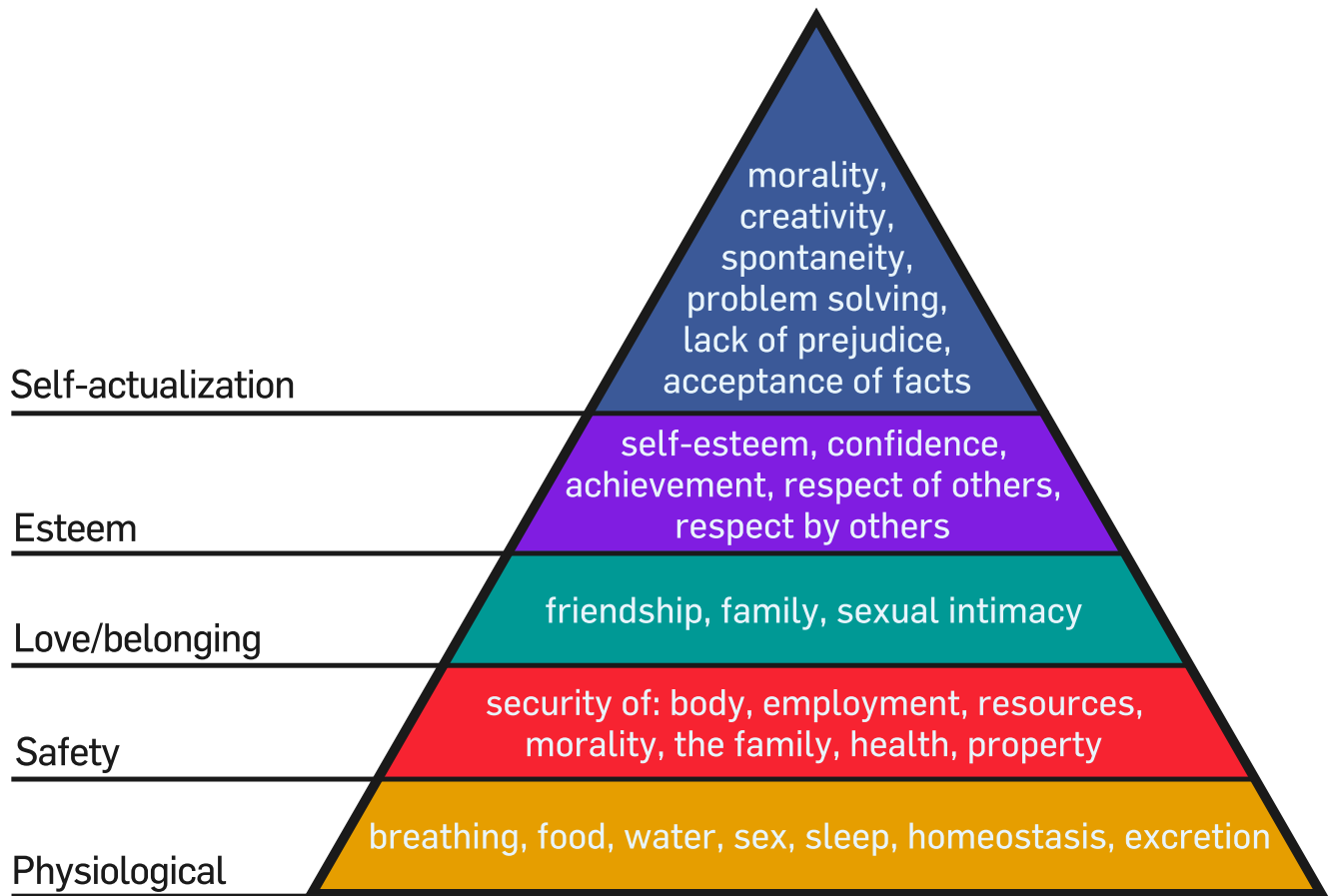
The growth mindset encourages educators to praise student's efforts and not necessarily their ability. [Dr. J. Luke Wood](#) critiques this approach and states that the growth mindset is deficient as an approach that does not call out, explicitly, for students, that sometimes no matter how hard one works, a racist and classist system might inhibit their ability to succeed. He argues that the concept is incomplete and that it hurts students of color, especially boys.

In the article [Prominent Scholar Calls Growth Mindset A "Cancerous" Idea, In Isolation](#), Dr. Wood states: "if you are a person who has never been told that you have the ability to do the work, how will you be able to do so? We need to praise their effort and ability. If you come from a community where you have never received messages like that from faculty members and educators, it's important at some point to be able to hear, you know what? You have the ability to do this. I believe in your ability to do this."

Therefore, it is important for educators to look at student's strengths and praise their effort and ability.

When thinking about what drives each individual student, it's essential to also think about a set of basic human needs. One theory to consider is Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs.

We will learn more in depth about Maslow's Hierarchy of needs in a later chapter. However, it is appropriate here to add a brief overview of his research and findings as it relates to student's motivation. Maslow's hierarchy of needs is represented below. At the base of the pyramid are all of the physiological needs that are necessary for survival. These are followed by basic needs for security and safety, the need to be loved and to have a sense of belonging, and the need to have self-worth and confidence.



According to Maslow's theory, humans have several innate needs and those needs are ranked in terms of a hierarchy. If one of these needs is not achieved, it will rule the individual's life. If we are talking about our diverse students, we need to understand different cultures and their unique values. For instance, countries such as the United States whose culture looks for a significant set of rules and guidelines in their lives, might have safety as the top of their pyramids. On the other hand, Latin American countries, well known for their nurturing characteristics, might have social needs at the top of their pyramid.

Among the plethora of distinct values across cultures, we are going to highlight research from Zaretta Hammond and Geert Hofstede.

The research of Zaretta Hammond (2015) addresses the difference between collectivistic vs individualistic cultures and its impact on motivation. "Collectivistic societies emphasize relationships, interdependence within a community, and cooperative learning. Individualistic societies emphasize individual achievement and independence" (Hammond, 2015, p. 25).

Features of Individualist and Collectivist Cultures

Table 4.1 Hammond, 2015 Culturally Responsive Teaching and the Brain

Individualism	Collectivism
Focus on independence and individual achievement	Focused on interdependence and group success
Emphasizes self reliance and the belief that one is supposed to take care of himself to get ahead	Emphasizes reliance on the collective wisdom or resources of the group and the belief that group members take care of each other to get ahead
Learning happens through individual study and reading	Learning happens through group interaction and dialogue
Individual contributions and status are important	Group dynamics and harmony are important
Competitive	Collaborative
Technical/analytical	Relational

In addition to individualist and collectivist communities noted above, students bridge home and school cultures as they walk into the classroom each day. In fact, upon entering any U.S. public school today, you will likely see evidence that our schools have become very diverse and that students from diverse cultures are present in our educational system. However, we need to ask if all our students are included in our learning. We can think of different learning styles and motivation, but have we ever thought about different cultures and how these impact our teaching and learning?

Think about how you might approach each child, while learning and respecting their culture and values, in order to improve your interactions with them. An easy or flexible child will not need much extra attention unless you want to find out whether they are having difficulties that have gone unmentioned. A slow to warm up child may need to be given advance warning if new people or situations are going to be introduced. Some students might be perceived as unmotivated or feisty; therefore, we may need to give them extra attention and make them feel welcome. Rather than believing that discipline alone will bring about improvements in children's behavior, our knowledge of our students, their cultures, along with the curriculum we use, may help a teacher and all the educators to gain insight to work more effectively with a child.

Critical Lens – Hip-Hop, Grit and Academic Success

As we learn about building relationships, learning styles and growth mindset, let's watch the following TedTalk and reflect on another way to embrace culture and learning styles.

Video 4.2



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=30#oembed-2>

4.7 Childhood Trauma

Earlier, we mentioned how a student's environment, including characteristics and situations present in their home setting also impact students. You can now see how many factors combine to create each unique student that you will teach, as well as how challenging it can be to meet the needs of such a variety of learners. Another external issue which new teachers should be aware of is that of childhood trauma. While there is enough information on this topic to fill its own textbook, having a brief overview of the information will be beneficial to your understanding of a diverse array of students.

What is Trauma?

The brain responds to many different stimuli. Using the metaphor of a house, we can imagine that the brain has an upstairs section and a downstairs section. The upstairs part of the brain is called the Prefrontal Cortex (PFC). This part of the brain controls many of the academic skills teachers expect of students such as planning, impulse control, executive functioning and organization. The downstairs portion of the brain consists of the Limbic system including our Amygdala. The Amygdala is involved in the brain's fight or flight response. Over time, we were conditioned to be in survival mode. When the body experiences a traumatic event, such as abuse, or another highly stressful event, the upstairs portion or Prefrontal cortex shuts down and the body depends on the downstairs brain. When this happens, the executive functioning, planning and decision making portion of the brain becomes inoperable. Of course, smaller doses of stress, such as the ability to focus under pressure while playing sports or performing a musical piece can be beneficial because the brain is able to release cortisol and this can actually aid in our performance. However, higher levels of stress can be poisonous for our bodies.

According to the Child Welfare Information Gateway (2014), trauma is “an emotional response to an intense event that threatens or causes harm. This harm can be physical or emotional, real or perceived, and it can threaten a child or someone close to him or her. Trauma can be a result of a single event, or it can result from exposure to multiple events over time” (p. 2). There are many events that might possibly cause trauma.

These include, but are not limited to physical, emotional or sexual abuse, neglect, effects of poverty, being separated from your loved ones, bullying, domestic or community violence through which harm to a loved one or pet has been witnessed, accidents, natural disasters, and behavior that is unpredictable due to addiction or mental illness (Child Information Gateway, 2014, p. 2). A traumatic experience is very often overwhelming to the individual, extremely painful or frightening, and includes a loss of control and the inability to regulate one's emotions. It is vital to remember that a traumatic experience overwhelms one's ability to cope and that this can be different for each person. Therefore, due to a variety of factors (such as resilience) what might be traumatic to one student might not be to another. Again, this is not a “one size fits all” scenario. Each student is an individual. In fact, students may be supported by other forms of external guidance. Examples of structural support can come from extended family members, mentors, peers, counselors, and school staff members.

How Trauma Affects the Brain

There is no shortage of information regarding how trauma affects brain development, but very basically, “when a stressful experience (such as being abused, neglected, or bullied) overwhelms the child's natural ability to cope” this can cause a “fight, flight or freeze” response. This response results in changes in the body, including an accelerated heart rate and higher blood pressure. This also results in changes in how the brain “perceives and responds to the world”. The result of this can be that the “trauma interferes with normal development and can have long lasting effects” (above information from Child Welfare Information Gateway, 2014, p. 2).

How Trauma Affects Learning and Classroom Environment

There are many different types of trauma. It is estimated that by the age of 16, approximately 2 out of every 3 children will experience a traumatic event, according to the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. At least 1 in 7 children experienced child abuse or neglect, and these statistics are underreported, so this figure is likely to be higher. As a result, students who enter the classroom may have feelings of anxiety and may be triggered to get into fight or flight mode.

A variety of learning related tasks are affected by trauma. Students who have experienced trauma may have difficulty regulating emotions. They may have impaired cognitive functions. The ability to organize material sequentially may be difficult. Transitions may be problematic. Problem solving might be hard. They may be self-protective, easily frustrated, and have inconsistent moods. This is just a brief non-inclusive list of some of the ways in which your classroom could be impacted by students with a background of child trauma.



Image 4.4

Trauma Informed Practice-Trauma Informed Care

Educators can begin to understand how to address issues of trauma when interacting with students. The first step is to build and foster a strong relationship with students. Developing a caring atmosphere allows students to feel safe. When you notice changes in student behavior, you can begin to assess the situation and employ strategies to help students. While this list is not meant to be exhaustive, here are some factors educators can look for.

There are many different signs of trauma in students:

- Overreactions to everyday challenges
- Negative outbursts or aggression
- Frequent stomach aches or headaches
- Appearing very sad
- Inappropriate social interactions
- Trouble with executive functions like focus, organization, and self-regulation
- Falling behind with classwork

Trauma Informed Care is a term used with patients in a clinical setting which includes the desire to have a complete understanding of a patient's situation and life history. While the classroom is not a clinical setting, having an awareness of the characteristics, behaviors, and family life of a student can greatly help to inform educator decision making in the classroom.

Some students can exhibit difficult behaviors because of their backgrounds while some will not. All students need to be understood and supported. According to the Substance Abuse for Mental Health Administration (2014), the components of trauma-informed care consist of the creation of a safe environment, supporting and teaching emotional regulation and building relationships and connectedness. Knowing your student is vital. Trying to understand your students' trigger points is also of key importance. "An emotional trigger point is an event, thing, experience, potentially even an individual who cause the mind and body to react" ([Baton Rouge Behavioral Hospital](#)). Keep in mind that students sometimes have strong reactions to external stimuli and that they are not



Image 4.5

trying to push your buttons (We Are Teachers Staff, 2018). Student behaviors are often the result of being triggered by something (such as a loud noise or yelling) that may not startle another student. The primary function of the triggered response is to help the child achieve safety in the face of perceived danger. Seek first to understand the child's behavior and change your thinking from "what is wrong with this student?" to "what has this student been through?" (Bashant, 2016).

If relationship building, support, understanding and the creation of a safe environment (which all are unique to the needs of each child) are key to working with your students, what doesn't work is equally apparent. Sadly, it is often the first thing educators turn to when these behaviors appear. The research is clear that punishment of this behavior not only does not work, it is highly detrimental to the student. According to NEA Today (2016), because traumatic experiences directly shape your students' brains, the disruptive behavior that is witnessed and often punished isn't willful disobedience or defiance, but a subconscious effort to self-protect. Students whose behavior is perceived as disruptive may be acting out because their brains are screaming: Flight! Flee! Freeze! Their goal is to be safe. Respond in ways that help to make your students feel connected and safe first, and then revisit possible consequences for any broken rules.

Starr Commonwealth Chief Clinical Officer, Dr. Caelan Soma (2018) [offered these tips](#) for understanding and working with students who have experienced trauma.

1. They are not trying to push your buttons.
2. They worry about what is going to happen next.
3. Even if the situation doesn't seem that bad to you, it is how the child feels that matters, not how you feel.
4. Trauma does not always have to be associated with violence
5. You don't need to know how the trauma was caused to be able to help.
6. They need to feel that they are good at something and that they can have a positive influence on the world.
7. There is a direct connection between stress and learning.
8. Self-regulation is a challenge.
9. You can ask kids directly what you can do to help them make it through the day.
10. Be supportive of students with trauma even when they are outside of your classroom.

There are numerous videos, books, and articles regarding trauma informed best practices. At the end of this chapter, there is a link to the National Child Traumatic Stress Networks Child Trauma Toolkit for Educators. This free and easy to download resource has numerous tips and suggestions for teachers.

In addition to implementing elements of trauma-informed practice into teaching, educators must also recognize and reflect upon their own cultural and racial biases when interacting with marginalized students. For example, when we conceptualize the idea of trauma, we sometimes do not consider the ways in which the historical and socioeconomic disparities have impacted specific groups of students for generations. For example, Native American students may have experienced school settings which have forced them into schools where they had to assimilate into federally mandated boarding schools. For many Native American students, attending a school where they had to be isolated from their families is, in fact, a traumatic event. The effects of these historical events continue to impact Native American communities. According to the Suicide Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, the rate of suicide is nearly four times higher for Native Americans between the ages of 15-24 than that of their white counterparts.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=30#oembed-3>

Video 4.3

Although trauma-informed care continues to be promoted in some schools, educators must think carefully about the communities they serve when implementing these practices in schools.

For example, using aspects of trauma-informed care, educators must attend to the values of Native American students and integrate the “cultural traditions of valuing reciprocal relationships with all living things” into their practice. Teachers must develop an understanding of the experiences of Native students in school and how families approach the tradition of schooling in America. Instead of focusing on the traumatic experiences of communities, continue to view the assets students bring with them into the classroom.

The following video gives an overview of mindset/asset framing and motivation. It also integrates structural realities of how schools cause trauma and undermine motivation.



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Video 4.4

One major asset students bring with them into the classroom involves self-awareness and interpersonal skills. Everyday decisions are often based upon how one feels at the moment. Educators can learn to address the relationship between emotional regulation and learning in this next section.

Deeper Dive – Trauma Informed and Culturally Informed Teaching

When we consider how trauma informed teaching can at the same time be culturally responsive, it leads us to consider focusing on the assets our students bring to the classroom community.

[Why Our Trauma-Informed Teaching Must Be More Culturally Responsive](#)

Deeper Dive – Additional Resources

- [10 Things About Childhood Trauma Every Teacher Needs to Know \(STARR Commonwealth\)](#)

- A great resource for teachers regarding trauma is the [National Child Traumatic Stress Network Child Trauma Toolkit for Educators](#)
- [NYSED Social Emotional Benchmarks](#)
- [NYSED Social Emotional Learning Information](#)
- [The How and Why of Trauma-Informed Teaching](#)
- One of the first studies on trauma informed practices in public school was covered in a full-length documentary entitled: Paper Tigers. It can be rented on numerous sites, including on YouTube : [Paper Tigers](#)

Relationship Building

Over the course of your journey to become a teacher you will most likely learn a lot about the value of forming positive relationships with your students. It may seem like a “no-brainer”, but its importance cannot be overstated. According to the Room 241 Team (Concordia University Portland, 2018), “...for children who have been affected by trauma, strong connections are vital. Rich relationships with teachers help children form the foundations of resilience” (para. 3). Venet (2018) echoed the value of relationship building as part of the delicate balancing act of working with trauma-affected students. The author stated that “...students who have experienced trauma, start by flipping the traditional classroom paradigm: Relationships have to come before content...” (para. 6). The more you know and understand your students, the better equipped they will be to face the challenges of learning.

Ten ways that a teacher can build relationships with their students:

1. Greet each student every day with both a hello and a good-bye.
2. Use letters and questionnaires to help you find out about your students.
3. Get parent input if you can.
4. Appeal to your students’ interests.
5. Speak to students with respect.
6. Attend after school activities.
7. Let students inside your world (with appropriate boundaries, of course).
8. Let your students have a voice.
9. Be real.
10. Trust that they will all do great things

Connell (2016)

In consideration of teacher-student relationships, be sure to always remember the importance of listening. So

many students are not listened to at home. People are distracted. Do your best to have your students feel heard and valued. It can make all the difference in the world.



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Video 4.5

Conclusion

Every year teachers will meet new groups of students. Every class consists of a unique combination of individuals. They will vary by many factors related to diversity. Some will have experienced many childhood traumas, while some will have experienced few or none. Their experience and maturity in relation to social emotional learning will differ as well. However, one thing will remain constant. Your students will do best in a positive environment where mutual respect is fostered. Strong teacher-student relationships are the cornerstone of these classrooms. Having knowledge about yourself, child development and differentiated instruction will help you to have a greater understanding of your students. You will be learning this as you move forward in your education. What you cannot be taught is to care about forging these relationships in the first place. That must already be a part of who you are.

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5. Building a Classroom Community

“To teach in a manner that respects and cares for the souls of our students is essential if we are to provide the necessary conditions where learning can most deeply and intimately begin...”

bell hooks, 1994



Image 5.1

Learning Objectives

- Differentiate between classroom management and creating an equitable classroom community for all students

- Identifying key components to constructive communication
- Identify basic principles for learning and academic achievement in building a collaborative classroom environment that honors all identities
- Name several steps to respond to conflicts and behavior issues in the classroom that includes restorative justice
- Describe contemporary issues that affect the classroom environment

When you think about your school days, what are your fond memories? Maybe the teacher who taught so well; the teacher who connected deeply making you love the subject that you did not even think of; those study halls; those fun club activities; and of course, your school friends! But, did you ever think how do the teachers make this all happen? How was this teaching and learning possible, given the array of subjects you learn at school, the variety of topics you cover in each subject, and the need to teach diverse students with different learning abilities and needs? How did the teachers make their teaching effective?

Many of you will agree that if you are to teach effectively and for students to learn, you may need to have a plan to deliver your class. But keep in mind that you may have the best content-wise lesson plan for your class and you may even have the best resources to deliver your instruction, however, if you want to be a successful teacher, you need to also create the atmosphere for teaching and learning. Hence, in order to create an atmosphere for learning, classroom management plan serves as a prerequisite for effective teaching and learning (Allen, 1996).

Activity – Case Scenario

Joey comes to school in the morning, and one of his classmates makes a negative comment about his shirt. It's already been a rough morning—he accidentally overslept his alarm and his grandma was yelling at him to hurry up so he wouldn't be late—so he snapped at his classmate, "Oh shut up." His teacher overhears and says, "We don't use that language at school, so now your card is on yellow." He tries to explain: "But he—" but his teacher interrupts. "Oh, now you're talking back to me? That's a red card and now you have a silent lunch."

What do you think of the teacher's response? How might you approach Joey?

In the example above, you can see how some traditional approaches to behavior management—including card-flipping systems and silent lunch—don't get to the root of the problem and actually can cause more harm, making them ineffective practices. In this chapter, we will investigate and reflect on the elements of the classroom environment, how trauma impacts classroom environments, critical community stakeholders in classroom environments, and strategies for building a positive classroom environment.

5.1 Elements of classroom environment

In this section, we will differentiate between classroom management and efforts to create an equitable classroom community for all students

In order for students to be successful at school, we must first carefully craft a supportive, learning-centered classroom environment. There are many aspects to consider when designing your classroom environment. Some are within your direct control as an educator, and even though others might appear out of reach, when you develop strong relationships with your students, you can do the imaginable.

Let's focus on three specific things you can control as you craft your own classroom environment: physical set-up, overall atmosphere, and student behavior and attitudes towards learning. Together, you may hear these elements referred to as "classroom management." The idea behind this term is that you have certain systems in your classroom that need to be "managed," or organized, in order to scaffold your students' success. However, this term has had a lot of criticism lately as the word "management" holds a power dynamic that we want to avoid in our classrooms. Instead, we want to create a welcoming environment that focuses on enhancing the strengths of students.

- **Physical set-up:** One component of classroom management is the physical arrangement of the room. Where will students keep their personal belongings? How will students access instructional materials throughout the day? A clear organizational system within the physical arrangement of the room is necessary. How are desks and tables arranged? Can all students easily see the teacher, classmates and the board? Are there spaces for students to participate in whole-group, small-group and individual learning?

Are learning materials (including math manipulatives, paper, pencils, science notebooks, and books for reading) easily accessible and organized? Are students with disabilities able to access the materials and move around the classroom easily? Can emergent bilinguals understand where to access the materials?

- **Overall atmosphere:** Does the classroom feel structured, warm, and welcoming, or does it feel cold, sterile, and depersonalized? Do students see themselves in the environment? Does it reflect their cultures, values and traditions? Does the teacher interact with students in positive ways that build their trust, or does the teacher yell at students and talk down to them? Do students feel like this is a "home" for them and their learning, or do they count down the hours each day until they can leave?
- **Agreements:** Has the teacher created community agreements with students? Are there clear expectations of how students should learn in the classroom? Are the systems in place for students to respect their own learning and the learning of others? Is the teacher acknowledging the work that all of the students are doing individually and as a group? Are the agreements for all of the students, or are some students in certain groups offered more attention and maybe more rewards or more consequences compared with similar behaviors in their peers? Is there a communication system in place so educators, students, and families know these agreements and how the performance of their specific student measures up?



Image 5.2

These elements are essential for new teachers to have at the forefront as this will ensure a proactive and warm approach to creating a classroom environment. According to Canter, an assertive teacher "clearly and firmly expresses their needs. They have positive expectations of students, and this is reflected in their words and actions. Because they say what they mean and mean what they say, students know the limits in the classroom.

When they must respond to inappropriate behavior, they are consistent and fair. Because students are not required to play guessing games with the teacher, and because they consider the teacher as fair, the teacher is respected and the teacher's expectations are met." (Canter, 2010)

We talked about some elements that might be beyond the teacher's control in the classroom, such as trauma that students may have experienced previously, or what resources families or communities have access to or lack. However, as stated before, when teachers develop strong relationships with students and their families, guiding them through the system and how to find support systems will be within your reach as an educator.

Another example that may seem out of reach is that cultural differences manifest themselves as apparent "misbehavior." For example, if an educator comes from a culture where young people should look their elders in the eyes to show respect, they may accidentally label "misbehavior" in students who come from cultures where avoiding eye contact is actually a sign of respect. Zaretta Hammond, in her book *Culturally Responsive Teaching and the Brain*, states that we must use culture as a trust builder. In order for educators to understand about culture and its impact on student-teacher relationship, she has created a visual called the Culture Tree.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=32#oembed-1>

Video 5.1

Watch the above video to understand the various levels of Hammond's Cultural Tree.

Hammond's "cultural tree" identifies three levels of culture:

1. **Surface level** (the leaves): This level is made up of cultural aspects you can see, like food, dress, etc.
2. **Shallow culture** (the trunk): This level includes cultural aspects that are less explicit, like concepts of time, personal space, and eye contact.
3. **Deep culture** (the roots): This level is the collective unconscious, the beliefs and norms that provide the foundation for culture. Examples include concepts of fairness, concepts of self, and spirituality.

Therefore, the job of educators and teachers is to learn about different cultures and acknowledge those differences in the classroom as well as share their own culture and experiences with students. This will allow students to feel welcome and appreciated as well as develop a strong sense of belonging.

Trauma, resources, and culture, sometimes are not considered as part of "creating a welcoming classroom environment". However, these aspects have a big impact on the overall classroom environment, and therefore are important to be aware of. For this reason, we intentionally refer to "classroom environment" throughout this chapter because we feel it is more inclusive of the many contexts and systems that impact your students' learning success.

Critical Lens – Race and Classroom Management

While we like to think of our classrooms as fair, equitable places when it comes to classroom management, the reality is that this isn't always true. Teachers of all races are more likely to punish Black students ([Smith, 2015](#)), and Black girls are seven times more likely to be suspended than White

girls ([Finley, 2017](#)). Sometimes, getting in trouble at school is an entry point into the juvenile detention system, leading to what is known as the “[school-to-prison pipeline](#).” It is important for educators to be aware of these statistics and trends in order to proactively support all students’ success within the classroom and beyond.

What will you do to reflect on your own biases?

5.2 Trauma in the Educational Setting

In chapter 4, we explained in detail what it means for students to have trauma and its impact in the classroom as well as the difficulty that students experience with regulating their emotions. Therefore, when thinking of a classroom environment, teachers need to make sure they are creating a warm and welcoming environment where all students can thrive.

On the other hand, we need to focus on the trauma our students of color experience just for being students of color. In her book *Cultivating Genius*, Gholdy Muhamad (2022), talks about racial trauma. She states that educators talk a lot about emotional trauma or trauma from childhood but educators talk less about the effects of racial trauma in schools for students. What happens when teachers think less about other people who share the same race or identity of their students? Do teachers think this type of thinking never manifests or makes its way into classrooms? We don’t leave our racism, biases, political agendas, or ideologies at home when we enter classroom spaces. When deficit thinking leads to trauma, our students may be affected for the rest of their lives. Our young people may feel like they don’t belong; they may feel worthless or that they are not good enough. Their academics and engagement are negatively affected as a result. This can follow them throughout their lives and disrupt their joy.

Therefore, teachers need to self reflect on their own biases. They need to name them and work towards disrupting this kind of thinking so that we can dismantle the systems of oppression that permeate our institutions.

Adverse Childhood Settings

Our students, like Joey, come to school each day wearing an invisible backpack, filled with all of the experiences they have had in life. Some of these invisible backpacks are light because our students’ experiences thus far have been loving, safe, and predictable. Unfortunately, too many of our students wear heavy backpacks full of experiences that have been frightening, unpredictable, and unsafe. These experiences can be characterized as Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACEs). Childhood exposure to abuse, neglect, and household dysfunction may lead to increased social, emotional, and behavioral difficulties as well as decreased academic performance in the educational environment. Additionally, traditional means of interventions and support may not be successful in modifying behaviors for the long-term. Meeting the needs of our students impacted by adverse childhood experiences requires a shift in the educational setting to focus on the consistent development of healthy relationships between students and staff including the implementation of trauma-informed classrooms and interventions.

Learn more about ACEs according to Nadine Burke Harris in the following TedTalk:



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Video 5.2

ACES in the Classroom

Our students' invisible backpacks can be filled with experiences that weigh them down and impact their ability to function successfully in the educational environment. These can be single-episode experiences, such as a house fire or car accident, or the more complex experience of developmental traumas. Developmental traumas can include ongoing physical, sexual, and emotional abuse, physical and emotional neglect, and household dysfunction. Abuse is defined by a caregiver's action, or failure to act, resulting in death, significant physical or emotional harm, or the exploitation of a child under the age of 18 (Child Welfare Information Gateway, n.d.). Physical neglect can include failure to consistently meet basic needs such as food and shelter, as well as failure to provide a safe, clean environment. Failure to provide adequate medical and dental care are also forms of neglect, though families without resources are subject to these issues and, as a result, children experience a lack of adequate care, beyond their families' control. Emotional neglect involves the failure to meet or recognize a child's emotional needs. Household dysfunction is the most common adverse childhood experience in childhood as many of the characteristics are often co-occurring. This category includes a variety of factors impacting caregivers such as divorce or separation, alcohol and/or substance abuse, mental health issues, domestic violence, and incarceration (Felitti et al., 1998).

In Oregon, teachers are considered mandatory reporters even when they are outside of the school. That means that you are legally obligated to report any signs of abuse or neglect of a child to the appropriate authorities, which in this case is Child Protective Services. You can also report it to your supervisor and/or counselor so that they can guide you on how to report what you are concerned about. Failure to do so can lead to the loss of your job.

Bullying in the Classroom

While ACEs occur outside of the classroom setting, another element of trauma for students in school can be bullying. In 2017, about 20 percent of students ages 12–18 reported being bullied at school during the school year (U.S. Department of Justice, 2017). In order for behavior to be considered bullying, the behavior must be aggressive and include:

1. **An imbalance of power.** Students who bully use their power—such as physical strength, access to embarrassing information, or popularity—to control or harm others. Power imbalances can change over time and in different situations, even if they involve the same people.

2. **Repetition of behavior.** Bullying behaviors happen more than once and establish a pattern of behavior. One stand-alone hurtful comment or action is not the same as bullying.

There are generally three types of bullying: verbal bullying, social bullying, and physical bullying. Verbal bullying is saying mean things and includes behaviors such as teasing, name calling, inappropriate sexual comments, taunting and threatening to cause harm. Social bullying, sometimes referred to as relational bullying, involves hurting someone's reputation or relationships. Social bullying includes leaving someone out on purpose, telling other children not to be friends with someone, spreading rumors about someone, and/or embarrassing someone in public. Physical bullying involves hurting a person's body or possessions. Physical bullying includes behaviors such as kicking or hitting, spitting, tripping or pushing, taking or breaking someone's things, and/or making rude or mean hand gestures. In 2017, about 42 percent of students who reported being bullied at school indicated that the bullying was related to at least one of the following characteristics: physical appearance (30%), race (10%), gender (8%), disability (7%), ethnicity (7%), religion (5%), and sexual orientation (4%) (U.S. Department of Justice, 2017).



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Video 5.3

Pause and Ponder – Bullying

- What kinds of bullying have you seen/experienced/been a part of?
- How did this make you feel?
- Were you ever a bystander and did not intervene?
- What did that feel like for you?

Cyberbullying, also referred to as electronic bullying, is bullying that takes place using electronic technology. Examples of cyberbullying include mean text messages or emails, rumors sent by email or posted on social networking sites, and embarrassing pictures, videos, websites, or fake profiles.

Unlike traditional bullying, cyberbullying can happen 24 hours a day, 7 days a week, and reach a student even when they are alone. It can happen any time of day or night. Cyberbullying messages can be posted anonymously and distributed quickly to a wide audience. It can be difficult and sometimes impossible to trace the source. Deleting inappropriate or harassing messages, texts, and pictures can be extremely difficult after they have been posted or sent.

In our increasingly technological world, instances of cyberbullying are becoming more common. Cyberbullying is particularly hard to control because it can happen anytime, anywhere, and evidence of the original creator of hurtful content can be deleted or obscured. Bullying and cyberbullying have significant implications when it comes to trauma and our students' school and life experiences. Children who are cyberbullied or bullied in school are more likely to use drugs and alcohol, skip school, be unwilling to attend school, receive poor grades, have lower self-esteem and more health problems. There can also be the most devastating of consequences: a child committing suicide.



Image 5.3

As an educator, you are in a position to prevent bullying or intervene when it happens. Later in this chapter, we will discuss how to create a positive classroom environment for students in order to mitigate the chances of bullying in school and beyond.

Activity – Stop and Investigate

Explore [StopBullying.gov](https://stopbullying.gov) or one of the [bullying resources from Harvard's Making Caring Common project](#)[2]. What did you find, and how could this information help you as you create a classroom environment that actively interrupts bullying?

5.3 Families and the Community

Pause and Ponder – Families

Imagine you hear a teacher saying to another teacher in the hallway, “Families don’t come to conferences because they just don’t care about their kids.”

- How would hearing that statement make you feel as a teacher?
- A student?
- A family member?

This statement in the box above is one you may have already heard from teachers talking about their students' families, or is one you will likely hear sometime during your teaching career. This statement conveys a deficit view of families by positioning families as “uncaring,” while the reality is likely quite different. Families might be unable to attend a conference due to various challenges with scheduling, transportation, childcare, or their

own negative experiences in school. This statement also reveals misunderstandings of the differences between family involvement versus family engagement, two terms that are often used interchangeably but actually are distinct concepts.

Family Involvement vs. Family Engagement

Family involvement tends to be more school-oriented, whereas family engagement tends to be more family-oriented. Ferlazzo (2011) described family involvement as the school holding the expectations for family participation and telling families what they need to do. In other words, the school does things “to” or “for” families and families respond. For example, consider when it is time for teacher conferences: the school sends out a schedule, and the expectation is that families will come to school at the appointed time. The goal for these meetings is often a one-sided transition of information, where the teacher reports back to the family how the student is performing in class, while expecting the family to be somewhat passive acceptors of this information.

Family engagement, on the other hand, indicates working “with” families: sharing responsibility and working together to support children’s learning. In this case, when it is time for teacher conferences, the teachers are encouraged to work with families and find ways to communicate with all of them. While some families will come to school at the scheduled time, some might schedule a phone call when they are on break from work, while others might prefer to do FaceTime because they want to see the teacher. Teachers will also engage family members as contributors, asking them what they have seen at home, or what their celebrations, goals, or concerns are for their child’s learning.



Image 5.4

Schools cannot exist without families, and therefore there is a great need for partnerships between schools and families. Families can contribute to school communities in a variety of ways, even well beyond volunteering in classrooms or contributing to required fundraisers. Families can use their firsthand knowledge of the local community to help connect teachers with community agencies or experts for a field trip or classroom visits. All students bring a wealth of background experiences—often built with their families—to the classroom each day, which can help students connect to and understand learning goals and the world around them. Remember that while there are some more visible, traditional forms of

support (like volunteering or joining the PTA), families partner with educators in limitless ways to support a common goal: their child’s learning and growth.

Critical Lens – Cultural Norms for Family Engagement

Different cultures have different norms for how families should be involved in their child’s education. Some cultures believe that educators are the trained experts and leave their child’s learning fully up to

the school as a sign of respect for the teacher's position. Some cultures believe that families and teachers are co-educators. Be careful not to judge family engagement based on your own cultural background!

Building strong partnerships between schools and families also requires a reconfiguration of the traditional view of "family." Be careful not to assume that a student's family consists of a mother and father. Families might consist of same-sex parents, single parents, grandparents, aunts and uncles, step-parents, adopted parents, foster parents, older siblings, and more. For this reason, using the word "family" instead of "parents" can be more inclusive. In addition, we need to view communities as part of families, and schools can engage with their community "families" in creative ways. For example, some schools have "grandmas." These community grandmas come into the classroom a few days a week to tell stories about their lives and listen to students share their own stories. This partnership demonstrates a beautiful way to build meaningful relationships between the school and community.

Pause and Ponder – School Experience

Think back to your own school experience.

- How was your family invited to be a part of a school/family partnership?
- Were there activities you looked forward to or dreaded your family being a part of at school?
- What are some ways you could envision building true family/community partnerships in your future classroom?

5.4 Interrupting Bias and Stereotypes in School/Family Partnerships



Image 5.5

Chimamanda Adichie (2009) warns us about stereotypes in her TED Talk, [The Danger of a Single Story](#) (video 5.4) as we previously studied in our final activity in chapter 3. The issue with stereotypes, she states, is that they are partial and provide one lens: “they make one story the only story.” Viewing children and families through one lens, a deficit lens, is harmful and imposes limits on what they can accomplish. This “single story” is especially likely to harm children and families of color.

Sometimes, single stories about our families—especially families and communities of color—can lead to stereotypes and assumptions that hurt our families and weaken school/family partnerships. Let’s look at two fairly common stereotypes.

One common stereotype is that families do not come to school because they do not care. In reality, there are many possible reasons why families do not come to school. Edwards (2016) offers that families of color may have had unpleasant experiences in schools themselves and are not willing to succumb to the “ghosts” of school again. As children they were not welcome or well-treated in school and cannot bring themselves to enter the buildings again; schools were traumatic

places.

Another common stereotype is that families have nothing to offer their children or school. In reality, families are their children’s first teachers. Deficit views of families negate the fact that prior to coming to school, children have learned their family’s language and culture by being immersed in them. Children learn their families’ and communities’ ways of knowing and being by interacting and engaging with community members and families.

To build stronger school/family partnerships schools can reframe the traditional reliance upon family involvement instead of family engagement. The norm for involving families is that the school dictates the needs and reaches out to families, telling them the needs. Instead, reframing this partnership to one of family engagement invites collaboration and shifts from a deficit orientation to a strengths-based perspective. Families have a lot to offer in an educator’s work toward building positive classroom environments, and schools need to take note of the resources available in their community and extend invitations for meaningful work.



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Video 5.4

5.5 Communication with Students

“Yet only through communication can human life hold meaning.” (Friere, 1970, p. 77). 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.



Image 5.6

Pause and Ponder – Why Is It Important for Teachers to Have Good Communication Skills?

[Article by Freddie Silver](#)

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 an understanding of how to effectively communicate with all stakeholders.

Classroom events are often so complex that in order for teachers to have effective communication with their students, they need to start with building trusting relationships. Trusting relationships will ensure that students feel a sense of belonging and are eager to communicate their thinking, their learning and their needs. According to Aguilar (2017), building trust is difficult. "Whether in a conversation or during a class, whoever intends to build trust (the teacher, coach or principal) needs to have five positive or neutral interactions with another person; that is what it takes to build and maintain trust. Therefore, teachers need to understand the power of trusting relationships and the power of positive interactions with their students.

Pause and Ponder – Brené Brown explains what it really means to trust

<https://www.mindful.org/brene-brown-on-what-it-really-means-to-trust/>

Being respectful, friendly, diplomatic, a good listener and to be able to build a rapport all require good communication skills. Therefore, teachers also need to be culturally sensitive and learn about their students to understand their communication styles. For example, some students will use nonverbal communication and express themselves through their actions. Others are more verbal and can express their needs using their words. One way to manage these different styles of communication, and become comfortable with the key features of communication that are characteristic of classrooms, teachers need to learn about 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.

“The teacher’s thinking is authenticated only by the authenticity of the students’ thinking. The teacher cannot think for her students, nor can she impose her thoughts on them. Authentic thinking, thinking that is concerned about reality, does not take place in ivory tower isolation, but only in communication. If it is true that thought has meaning only when generated by action upon the world, the subordination of students to teachers becomes impossible. “ (Freire, 2000).

Communicating with Families and Caregivers

Teachers are responsible for keeping parents informed and involved to whatever extent is practical. Virtually all parents and caregivers understand and assume that schools are generally intended for learning, but communication can enrich their understanding of how this purpose is realized in their particular child’s classroom, and it can show them more precisely what their particular child is doing there. Such understanding in turn allows families and caregivers to support their child’s learning more confidently and in this sense contributes, at least indirectly, to a positive learning environment in their child’s class.

Pause and Ponder – Strategies for Communicating with Families

In the following article, you will find different strategies on how to communicate with families and caregivers in a culturally responsive manner – [Critical Practices for Anti-bias Education: Family and Community Engagement](#)

5.6 Strategies for Building a Positive Classroom Environment

The development of a strong sense of community and belonging in the classroom is essential to building relationships that may serve as protective factors for our students. Implementation of practices and approaches built around empathy, the ability to recognize and feel the emotions of others, has the ability to positively impact all students, but is critical to the success of students who have experienced adversity.

At times, it is difficult to separate our empathy with students from our sympathy for students. Some of our students experience such difficult lives and our sympathy leads us to expect less of them. Interacting with students from a place of sympathy does not build our connections with them and does not let them know we believe in them. The following table shows differences in statements focused on empathy versus sympathy.

Statements Focused on Empathy vs. Sympathy

Empathy

I can see you are frustrated right now. How can I help you?

Wow, you had a really hard morning. When I have a hard morning, sometimes I need a few minutes before I'm ready to work. Would you like some time before you get started?

I noticed you aren't with your friends like usual. Is there anything you want to talk about?

Can you tell me how you are feeling right now?

Sympathy

I'm sorry you're frustrated, but you need to get back to work.

Wow, what a horrible morning. You don't have to do this assignment.

Why weren't you with your friends today?

What's wrong?



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=32#oembed-5>

Video 5.5

It is our job as educators to create an environment that models empathy for students to facilitate trust and security. Bob Sornson (2014) states, "By helping children learn empathy, we raise the odds they will have strong positive social relationships, truly care for others, and be able to set appropriate limits in their own lives without using angry behaviors or words" (para. 2). Traditional elements of a classroom environment, including structured, predictable routines and morning meetings, can be expanded with the intention to increase opportunities for empathy on a daily basis. However, some traditional models of classroom management include practices that interfere with the development of healthy connections between teachers and our students. Building connections with students can be challenging at times and take effort and repeated attempts with students who have experienced adversity; furthermore, these relationships can be damaged quickly if we use practices that do not align with building empathy.

The following table provides an overview of some management practices to avoid and strategies to create a welcoming environment, though you will get much more in-depth information on how to create that positive culture as you continue in your pathway as a preservice teacher.

Creating a welcoming classroom environment – Here is a table of practices that work and practices that should be avoided

Practices to Avoid

- Clip charts and card-flipping systems
- Public humiliation/shaming
- Isolation
- Group punishment
- Assigning laps at recess
- Being a negative role model

Strategies to create a welcoming classroom environment

- Know your students
- Establish positive connections with families
- Routines
 - Schedules (with visual and verbal reminders)
 - Expectations and rehearsals of transition times
- Morning meetings
- Classroom responsibilities
- Individual contracts
- Explicit teaching of social/emotional skills (including mindfulness)

Activity – Stop and Reflect

Think about a classroom where you felt welcome. What did the teacher do or say to make you feel that way?

Do's and Don'ts

Don't: Clip Charts and Card-Flipping Systems

Clip charts and card-flipping systems, which often are based on a variant of a “stoplight model”—green indicating on-task behavior, yellow indicating a warning for misbehavior, and red indicating a repeated infraction—are punitive and shaming in nature and should be avoided in the classroom.

Clip charts and card systems are one genre of behavior management strategies that are punitive and shaming in nature. And as the word management suggests, this is a practice that creates a power dynamic that should not be present in a welcoming environment. The idea behind these systems is that when students break a rule or demonstrate an established misbehavior, they will be asked to “move their clip” (often lower down a chart of behavioral levels) or “flip a card” (often from green to yellow to red). Each clip or card level carries its own consequences. These systems are publicly shaming because students have to move their clip or flip their card in front of their peers, often after a teacher provides a verbal reprimand that the entire class hears. Also, any member of the classroom community—or even a visitor who steps into the classroom—can see at a glance how every child in the room is doing at any given moment. Using clip charts may activate a student's fight, flight, or freeze response, indicating the student no longer feels safe in the environment.

Don't: Public Humiliation/Shaming

It is never acceptable to yell at a student. It is even less acceptable to do it in a public environment. Frustration as a teacher is expected. We the adults, however, need to remain calm. Students look to

us to keep them safe, to protect them from those who may be shaming them for being “different” and humiliating them in front of their peers. We do not want to add to that shame and humiliation. Other forms of public humiliation and shaming can include visible punishments like writing a student’s name on the board or asking a student to stay in or away from a certain part of the classroom (i.e., standing in a corner or not joining the group on the carpet). (Do note that sometimes students need space to decompress and regulate their emotions, and this can be done without publicly humiliating the student.)

Don’t: Isolation

Additional practices that can activate this response include isolating students who are experiencing strong emotions. As adults, we feel a range of emotions throughout the day. Our students can experience this same range of emotions. If our classrooms are not based on empathy and understanding, we may exacerbate the situation by sending the student out of the room or to a calm-down space as a punitive response to their emotion. An empathetic response validates the student’s feelings and may need to set a limit or consequence if safety is a concern.

Don’t: Group Punishment

Group punishment occurs when one student or a small group of students demonstrate off-task behavior and consequences are applied for all the students in the class, whether or not they participated in this off-task behavior. You might have heard statements like, “If anyone talks during snack time, no one gets to go outside for recess,” or “If any student shouts out during this activity, no one gets added game time.” These kinds of punishments are not realistic or reasonable. Some students who struggle with self-regulation skills become the scapegoat for “ruining it” for all the students in the class, which can lead to resentment from their peers and exclusion from their peer group.

Don’t: Assign Laps at Recess

A common consequence for misbehavior or noncompliance with classroom policies (such as completing homework) is asking the student to walk laps at recess. This practice is not productive for several reasons. First, it associates exercise with punishment. Students need to have positive associations with exercise in order to maintain their own physical health; if walking is something one only does when they are in trouble, they are less likely to continue this healthy behavior for their own well-being. Secondly, it takes away the unstructured break time from the students who often need it most. Students who need constant redirection for socializing or being on the move during class, for example, would definitely benefit from ample opportunities to socialize and move at recess!

Don’t: Be a Negative Role Model

Role modeling is critical in the development of empathy. Unfortunately, we are not perfect and, at times, we may model inappropriate behaviors. For example, a student may have something that does not belong to them and, out of frustration, we go over and grab it from the student. Later that day, the same student wants something someone else has and goes over and grabs it from them. Our typical response would be some sort of consequence, leaving the student feeling as if “it isn’t fair.” In reality, we modeled the behavior and provided a consequence to the student for using an adult-modeled behavior. These moments will happen and are opportunities for us to acknowledge our behavior and repair the relationship with the student. A response oriented toward repairing the relationship may sound like this: “Joey, I’m sorry. Earlier I grabbed something from your hands.

When you did the same thing to Raúl, I gave you a consequence. I need help remembering to do the right thing sometimes too. Do you think you could help me?" This response models for Joey that even adults make mistakes and how to recover and repair when they occur.

The practices listed above can trigger a student's automatic fear response. A student in a fight, flight, or freeze state struggles to learn and is no longer thinking through their choices. As educators, we need to minimize the use of these practices and replace them with those that build our students' emotional intelligence.

Do: Know Your Students

Positive relationships that affirm students' membership in the classroom community are a foundation of a welcoming classroom environment; therefore, educators need to develop individual relationships with their students as much as possible. Get to know your students as individuals through activities like beginning-of-the-year "getting to know you" surveys, sitting with your students during lunch, chatting during less structured time like breaks or recess, and asking families for their tips (after all, families have known our students for far longer!). Attend sporting events, performances, and other activities that students invite you to. Use the information you gather to work personalized references into classroom instruction, but make sure you do so equitably.

At the same time, remember that your job is not to be a student's friend. You are still the professional adult, and you must keep this professional boundary in mind. The age of your students also plays a role. A kindergarten teacher being invited to a child's birthday party is quite different from a high schooler inviting a teacher to a birthday party.

Do: Establish Positive Relationships with Families

From the very beginning of the school year, reach out to families in a variety of ways—phone calls, notes, messages through your school's learning management system—to establish positive relationships. Provide specific, positive feedback on what you are seeing their child accomplishing in the classroom to demonstrate to families that you know their child as an individual. Some teachers like to use "surprise" notes home that highlight positive achievements and accomplishments for individual students for families to celebrate. (Be sure to send these notes home for all children—you may wish to keep track to make sure you are equitably distributing these positive notes.) While the beginning of the school year can be hectic, investing time up front in building positive relationships means that when you need more support later if an issue arises, you'll have a partnership already built with the family.

Also, keep in mind that educators and families share a common goal: wanting what is best for their children. Sometimes educators and families may have different perspectives on how to get to that same outcome. Remembering that families and educators are partners in this common goal can help when conflicts do arise. [This Edutopia article](#) shares some communication strategies to try with families at the beginning of the year.

Do: Routines

As human beings, we feel safe when we know what to expect. Routines help our students know

what to expect. Established and predictable routines can include visual and verbal reminders for the flow of a typical day in the classroom, such as a posted schedule with the times and activities listed. These routines are also explained and practiced with the students frequently at the start of the school year. Routines can include special greetings, expectations for various parts of the day like arrival and departure, and procedures for accessing materials like writing utensils during instruction. Predictable routines create a feeling of safety and security for students as they can reasonably expect to know what is coming next. Preparing students repeatedly, ahead of time, for any changes in the routine also facilitates trust within the environment and can act as a preventative measure for those who experience dysregulation related to change.

Do: Morning Meetings

One daily routine that can build empathy and community is a morning meeting. These classroom community gatherings can occur on a classroom carpet or at their desks and typically include both academic and social-emotional activities. For example, students may engage in special morning greetings with their peers and the teacher can talk about the plans for the day. Morning meetings are a fantastic opportunity to build in activities which increase a sense of belonging and community in the classroom. Allowing students to openly express how they feel in the classroom and about the environment helps to give them a voice and feel like they are a valued member of the group. At the secondary level, educators can allot a few minutes at the beginning of each class to complete a brief check-in with their students. This can include asking non-threatening questions or providing students the opportunity to share on a rotating basis. At times, the secondary level is overlooked when conversations about building emotional intelligence are discussed. These students are undergoing significant developmental changes and also need the opportunity to be heard and have a sense of belonging. Minor modifications to daily interactions with students build in opportunities for empathy and social-emotional development. This increases their exposure to healthy, prosocial skills which can increase their ability to function in healthy relationships.

Do: Classroom Responsibilities

Classroom responsibilities, sometimes referred to as classroom jobs, provide students with ownership of the classroom environment. Common elementary classroom responsibilities include line leader, caboose, and paper passer. Students can also be “librarians” responsible for maintaining and organizing books in the classroom. Dr. Clayton also had what she called a “S.I.C.,” which stood for “student in charge.” This student would “take over” when Dr. Clayton was working with a small group, such as a reading group. Students would go to them to ask to use the bathroom, for example. (Side note: be sure the answer that they give is “yes”!) Responsibilities can continue into middle school and high school. Of course, a high school student is not interested in being the line leader, but they can be the teacher’s assistant for the day, such as running errands to the front office. Just be sure that these responsibilities rotate among students so that no favoritism is interpreted.

Do: Individual Contracts

Sometimes, certain students need more specific structures and rules that everyone in the class doesn’t need. Instead of creating a “one-size-fits-all” behavioral management system that actually does not meet the needs of all of your students, consider writing individual behavior contracts. These contracts should have specific, observable goals with clear time parameters, along with straightforward, tangible outcomes. For example, in Dr. Wells’s kindergarten class, she had one

student who was really struggling with self-regulation skills, but she also knew he was obsessed with Angry Birds. She created an Angry Birds behavior chart with this student only. After she chose a target behavior (such as listening and following directions the first time they are given, an important safety skill), she would establish criteria to set the student up for demonstrating the target behavior. At first, the goal might be that the student follows 1 out of 10 directions in one hour. Despite the nine times the student didn't follow directions, the student still earns the reward—in this case, playing a round of Angry Birds on the classroom tablet for five minutes—because they need to experience success first. Then, as this goal becomes easier, increase the challenge: now, the student needs to keep 5 out of 10 Angry Birds on his chart (signifying he listened 5 out of 10 times) in an hour. Next, expand the time slot. Perhaps the student has to keep 5 out of 10 birds for the whole morning, and then reset for the afternoon with the same expectations. If your behavior contract uses a chart like this one, remember to keep it private. Instead of taping it to the board for the entire class to see, consider keeping it on a clipboard and discretely marking on it, and then privately conferring with the student out of earshot of peers when the established time period has ended.

When making individual contracts, remember it is important to know your students, their needs, and their interests. While some students may have multiple areas for growth—shouting out and following directions the first time when given, for example—pick the one area you need to see growth in first for the student to feel safe and trusted. Also, be aware that individual contracts won't fix everything immediately: they take time, patience, and consistency.

Do: Teach Social/Emotional Skills and Mindfulness

The implementation of social-emotional learning activities into the curriculum can assist in the development of self-regulation and conflict resolution skills. If students are taught to recognize and regulate their own emotional states, they will be better able to recognize the states of others, remain in the thinking part of the brain and more likely to resolve conflicts in a way that is mutually beneficial. Skills such as using a regulation space, a place in the classroom where students can go when they need a break or need to regulate their emotions, must be taught repeatedly and should be taught to the whole class. This space should include sensory items such as stress balls, fidget sticks, and putty, as well as self-regulation tools such as social stories, coloring pages, deep breathing tools, and visual reminders for how to use the area. Normalizing the use of this space removes any stigma or punishment associated with experiencing strong emotions and makes the use of regulation skills a positive experience for students. Additionally, educators should role model the use of regulation skills to the class throughout the day. For example, using statements such as “Class, I am feeling frustrated right now. I can feel myself starting to get warm and my heart is going faster. I'm going to use Figure 8 Breathing to calm down.”

Do: Restorative Justice, Conflict Resolution and Problem Solving

Restorative Justice is a system of addressing behaviors which focuses on the learning through [reconciliation](#) with the classroom community. When a student misbehaves persistently and disruptively, you will need strategies that are more active and assertive and that lead to conflict resolution—the reduction of disagreements that persist over time. The conflict resolution strategies that educators and teachers advocate and use usually have two parts (Jones, 2004).[7] First, the strategies involve a way of identifying precisely what “the” problem is. Once this is done, they require reminding the student of classroom expectations and rules without apology or harshness, but with simple clarity and assertiveness. When used together, the clarification and assertion can not only

reduce conflicts between a teacher and an individual student, but also provide a model for other students to consider when they have disagreements of their own.

Critical Lens – Inclusive Practice

As you develop getting-to-know-you surveys or beginning-of-the-year activities, it is important to make sure all students will be able to answer the questions. Avoid questions that may be impacted by privilege such as those related to vacations or material items.

Restorative Justice, Conflict Resolution and Problem Solving

Step 1: Clarify and identify the problem: Classrooms can be emotional places even when its primary purpose is to promote “thinking” rather than the expression of feelings as such. The emotional quality can be quite desirable: it can give teachers and students “passion” for learning and respect or even good feelings for each other. But it can also cause trouble if students misbehave: at those moments negative feelings—annoyance, anger, discomfort—can interfere with understanding exactly what went wrong and how to set things right again. Allow all involved to calm down and then let each individual state their view of the problem. If the issue is between two students, let each share their side of the story. If the issue involves you and a student, let the student state his view, and then you share yours.

Step 2: Active and empathetic listening: Diagnosing accurately the conflict is necessary in order to resolve it. We need to use “Active Listening”—attending carefully to all aspects of what a student says and attempting to understand or empathize with it as fully as possible, even if you do not agree with what is being said (Cooper & Simonds, 2003). Active Listening involves asking a lot of questions in order continually to check your understanding. It also involves encouraging the student to elaborate or expand on his or her remarks, and paraphrasing and summarizing what the student has said in order to check your perceptions of what is being said. It is important not to move too fast toward “solving” the problem with advice, instructions, or scolding, even if these are responses that you might, as a teacher, feel responsible for making. Responding too soon in these ways can shut down communication prematurely, and leave you with an inaccurate impression of the source of the problem.

Depending on the issue, you may want to use Step 3 or skip this and use Step 4. For most conflicts that involve two students, we will use Step 4.

Step 3: Assertive discipline and “I” messages: Once you have listened well enough to understand the student’s point of view, it helps to frame your responses and comments in terms of how the student’s behavior affects you as a teacher. The comments should have several features:

- They should be assertive—neither passive and apologetic, nor unnecessarily hostile or aggressive. State what the problem is, as matter-of-factly as possible: “Joe, you are talking while I’m explaining something,” instead of either “Joe, do you think you could be quiet now?” or “Joe, be quiet!”

- The comments should emphasize I-messages, which are comments that focus on how the problem behavior is affecting the teacher's ability to teach, as well as how the behavior makes the teacher feel. They are distinct from you-messages, which focus on evaluating the mistake or problem which the student has created. An I-message might be, "Your talking is making it hard for me to remember what I'm trying to say." A you-message might be, "Your talking is rude."
- The comments should encourage the student to think about the effects of his or her actions on others—a strategy that in effect encourages the student to consider the ethical implications of the actions (Gibbs, 2003). Instead of simply saying, "When you cut in line ahead of the other kids, that was not fair to them," you can try saying, "How do you think the other kids feel when you cut in line ahead of them?"

Step 4: Negotiating a solution: The steps so far describe ways of interacting that are desirable, but also fairly specific in scope and limited in duration. In themselves, they may not be enough when conflict persists over time and develops a number of complications or confusing features. A student may persist, for example, in being late for class, in spite of diverse efforts by the teacher to modify this behavior. Two students may persist in speaking rudely to each other, even though the teacher has mediated this conflict in the past. Or a student may fail to complete homework, time after time. Because these problems develop over time, and because they may involve repeated disagreements between teacher and student, they can eventually become stressful for the teacher, for the student, and for any classmates who may be affected. Their persistence can tempt a teacher simply to announce or dictate a resolution—a decision that may simply leave everyone feeling defeated, including the teacher.

Often in these situations, it is better to negotiate a solution, which means systematically discussing options and compromising on one if possible. Negotiation always requires time and effort, though usually not as much as continuing to cope with the original problem, and the results can be beneficial to everyone. A number of experts on conflict resolution have suggested strategies for negotiating with students about persistent problems (Davidson & Wood, 2004). The suggestions vary in detail but usually include some combination of the steps we have already discussed above, along with a few others.

- Decide as accurately as possible what the problem is—Usually this step involves a lot of the active listening described above.
- Brainstorm possible solutions, and then consider their effectiveness—Remember to include students in this step; otherwise, you are simply imposing a solution on others, which is not what negotiation is supposed to achieve.
- Choose a solution, if possible by consensus—Complete agreement on the choice may not be possible, but strive for it as best you can. Remember that taking a vote may be a democratic, acceptable way to settle differences in many situations. If feelings are running high, however, voting has an ironic by-product: it simply allows individuals to "announce" their differences to each other and therefore maintain the conflict.

Pay attention later to how well the solution works—For many reasons, things may not work out the way you or the students hope or expect, and you may need to renegotiate the solution at a later time.

Pause and Ponder – Restorative Justice Practices

You can read more about restorative justice practices at Learning for Justice. <embed link <https://www.learningforjustice.org/magazine/spring-2021/toolkit-the-foundations-of-restorative-justice>>

Conclusion

Before students can learn, they must first feel safe, supported, and valued. Creating empathy-driven classroom environments involves intentional decisions about specific elements under the educator's control, such as an accessible physical arrangement of the classroom, an affirming atmosphere, and using humanizing management strategies while intentionally avoiding those that cause humiliation or shame. Additionally, educators can partner with critical community stakeholders, such as school social workers and family or community members, to access additional resources to support students' success.

Creating empathy-driven classroom environments also involves awareness of elements that are not under the educator's control. Adverse childhood experiences are common within our classrooms, with varying degrees of impact on the social, emotional, behavioral, and cognitive functioning of our students. Understanding the unique histories of each of our students is important, but so is uncovering who they are as individuals including what makes them resilient. A history of adverse experiences does not mean our students cannot learn and grow and develop healthy relationships. It means they have experiences that may change the path that gets them there and will need the positive adult connection we can provide as their teacher even more.

To create an empathy-focused classroom environment, there are certain elements to include—such as routines, morning meetings, and developing individual relationships with students—and elements to avoid, such as clip charts or card-flipping systems, group punishment, and public humiliation. Building and implementing a trauma-informed classroom with empathy at the core is a practice that supports all students and will increase a sense of community and belonging for all.

Building and modeling empathy fosters a reciprocal relationship in which students can feel educators' genuine care and concern for their best interests. We lay the foundation for our students' success by intentionally creating a humanizing classroom environment in which they can learn and grow.

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6. Teaching and Learning

“Pedagogy is always about power, because it cannot be separated from how objectives are formed, desires mobilized, how some experiences are legitimized and others are not, or how some knowledge is considered acceptable while other forms are excluded from the curriculum.”

Henry A. Giroux, 2013

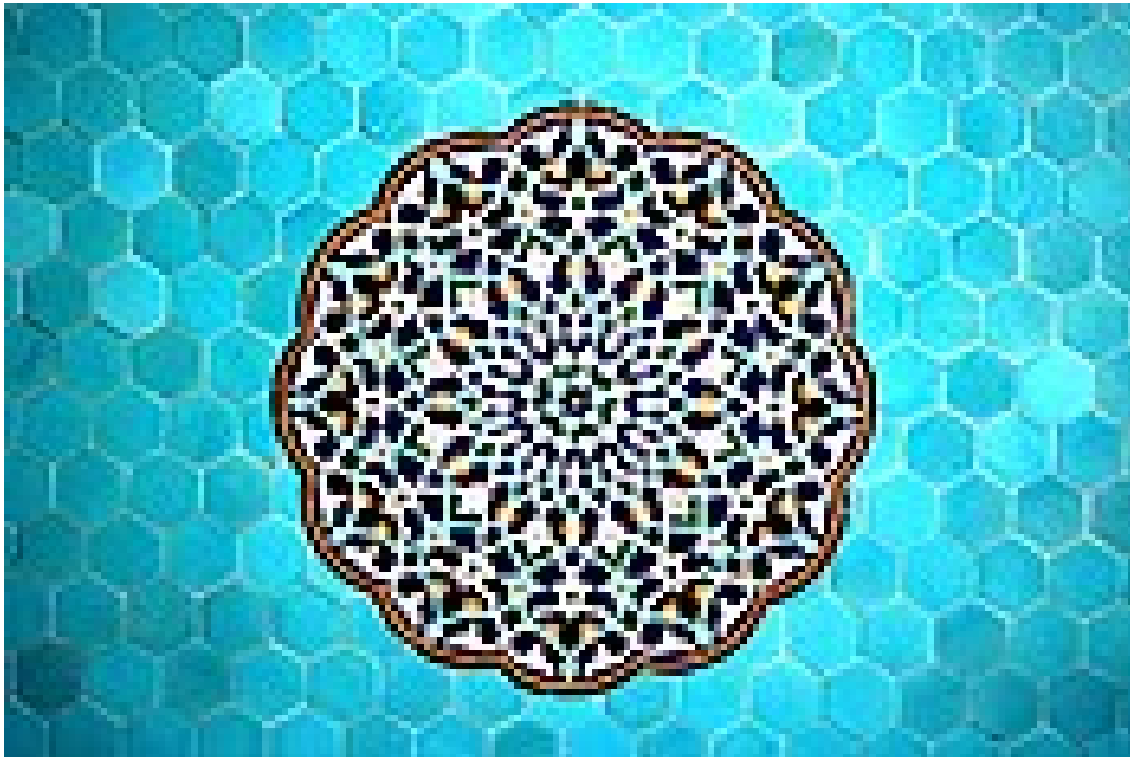


Image 6.1

Learning Objectives

- Introduce a variety of ways of knowing and pedagogical strategies
- Differentiate between dominant narratives and counternarratives
- Compare student-centered vs teacher-centered instructional strategies and the pedagogical approaches behind them
- Describe the characteristics of contemporary learners

Pedagogy is a word you will encounter often in your teacher prep path as well as your practice. Pedagogy is defined as the philosophy of teaching and learning. Pedagogical strategies are the things we do to bring about and support teaching and learning.

This chapter introduces a variety of general pedagogical strategies which span a broad spectrum, from student centered at one extreme to teacher centered at the other. Bloom (1956) created a hierarchy that classifies thinking from a low cognitive load, knowledge, to high cognitive load, creating. Bloom's Taxonomy is often used by effective teachers to write clear learning objectives to meet the standards of the lesson. There are many ways to approach the art and science of teaching and learning, depending on whose cultures and histories we focus on. This chapter is intended to provide a brief intro to various ways of serving the needs of diverse learners.

6.1 Ways of Knowing and Learning

Stop and Think

Have you ever stopped to consider what you know and how you know it? Maybe you know how to ice skate, or that the freezing point of water is 32 degrees Fahrenheit, or that you should brush your teeth each morning. Perhaps you know how to divide fractions or read music. You might know your sister is mad because of the way she looked at you this morning. Think of an example of something you do every day. How do you know how to do this task?

To learn is 'to gain knowledge or skill by studying, practicing, being taught, or experiencing something', based on the Merriam-Webster online dictionary. This definition suggests that learning is something you gain or acquire and there are multiple ways to acquire knowledge. Schools are not the only place people learn. We begin to acquire knowledge from the moment we are born.

There are three general types of knowledge that we acquire, as described in the Western world. The most basic is **knowledge by acquaintance**: developed as a direct result of *awareness and interaction with the world* (attributed to Bertrand Russell). A second kind of knowledge is **factual or declarative knowledge** and is often referred to as *knowledge that we acquire when we learn the capitals of states, types of dog breeds, or the names of scientists*. A third is **procedural knowledge** and can be described as *knowing how to do something*:

ice skate, make cookies, kick a ball, speak, write your name, etc. Schools focus mostly on declarative and procedural knowledge (Saks et al, 2021).

In a teacher education program, for example, a student may memorize principles of culturally responsive teaching as declarative knowledge, but may have little grasp of how these principles would be used in a classroom. What the student needs is to develop procedural knowledge so that they can actually develop an understanding of how to teach in a culturally responsive way. The distinction between declarative and procedural knowledge is embodied in the work of learning theorists, such as Benjamin Bloom. Bloom's analysis contrasted lower levels of learning (i.e., knowledge, comprehension), which emphasized facts, concepts, and rules, and "higher-order" learning (i.e., application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation), which emphasized how knowledge is used as part of higher level cognitive processes. His taxonomy is frequently referred to in the US education system and will be reviewed later in the chapter. Blooms Taxonomy is also addressed in the context of assessment in Chapter 8.

Procedural knowledge is not always more complex and can be quite simple, such as knowing how to brush one's teeth. Also, procedural knowledge is often "automated" due to frequent repetition, so we may engage in the procedure without much conscious awareness. For adults, driving a car in familiar surroundings may become an automated procedure. We often will not recall how many lights we stopped at on our way home, for example. Reading also becomes an automated process, no longer requiring full conscious effort to decode and comprehend familiar text. It is sometimes declarative knowledge that challenges us, when the topic is less familiar or infrequently accessed, such as when asked about elements in the periodic table or leaders of the 18th century in Latin America.

Most learning combines both declarative and procedural knowledge. You know the elements necessary for a persuasive essay and you apply them creatively to suit your needs based on what you know of your intended audience or the teacher for whom you are writing the assignment. In many cases, teachers' instructional goals include acquisition of both declarative and procedural knowledge. We rarely learn facts for their own sake (though sometimes it might seem like it) but instead develop knowledge so that we can apply it for specific purposes.



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Video 6.1

Over the past few decades, research in social and cognitive psychology, as well as anthropology has made it clear that learning takes place in settings that have specific cultural and social norms. These norms or expectations influence the learning and transfer significantly. (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000) This is why it's critical that teachers create classrooms where the norms and expectations create strong conditions for learning for each of their students. One way to support all learners in achieving academic success is to implement culturally responsive teaching strategies. Key characteristics of culturally responsive pedagogy (Hammond, 2014) include:

- communicating high expectations,
- actively engaging students in learning,
- providing an appropriate level of challenge to increase intellectual capacity,
- having a positive perspective on parents and families, and
- helping students understand how the curriculum links to their everyday lives.

Just under 100 years ago, simple reading, writing, and calculating were the goal of schooling. Basic declarative and superficial procedural knowledge were sufficient. Educational systems did not typically train people to think and read critically, to express themselves clearly, or to solve complex problems. Now, complex literacy skills are required of almost everyone to navigate in our current global landscape. Demands for more sophisticated skills at work have increased dramatically. Meaningful participation in the democratic process has become increasingly complicated as local, national, and international issues are increasingly intertwined. New science of learning is providing knowledge to significantly improve people's abilities to become active learners who seek to understand complex subjects and are better prepared to transfer what they learn to new problems and settings. It is imperative that teachers learn and implement strategies that nurture the academic potential of all students, regardless of background, experience or identity, so they can succeed in our increasingly complex world.

6.2 The Dominant Narrative

There's an old saying in the US. There are three sides to a story: one side, the other side, and what really happened. In any society, the side of the story that is most upheld by the political, legal, and economic structures of that society is called the **dominant narrative**.

Formal public education in the US is firmly grounded in the dominant narrative. The dominant narrative includes stories about who we are and what the country is. One example of a dominant narrative in US history lessons is how westward expansion gave people in the US economic opportunity. Additional examples of dominant narrative in the field of teacher education are the commonly taught ideas around how children learn, what the best way is for them to demonstrate learned knowledge, and values around sharing that knowledge in a competitive or collaborative way.

Counter narratives highlight alternative ideas to dominant narratives. Counter narratives can include facts that haven't been shared in common history lessons. One example of this would be the genocide of indigenous peoples during colonization from the perspective of the people who experienced and fought it (rather than westward expansion and nation building).

As teachers, we can begin to make room for counternarratives by learning about multiple ways of knowing, multiple ways of demonstrating knowledge, and the many varied understandings of what knowledge is important to a community. Can you think of a local issue in your community and how different sides of the issue might be presented? Furthermore, how might an educator present such an issue, in a way that allows students to critically think about the issue?



Image 6.2

6.3 Instructional Strategies and Approaches

There are multiple ways to deliver instruction and their degree of success varies based on both the strategy implemented and the needs, background, preferences and readiness of the learner. Education researcher and professor John Hattie spent more than 15 years reviewing studies on what impacts student learning outcomes. After reviewing over 1,200 studies he identified 7 major sources that contribute to learning; the [student](#), the

[home](#), the [school](#), the [curricula](#), the [teacher,teaching and learning approaches](#), and the classroom (John Hattie, 2012).

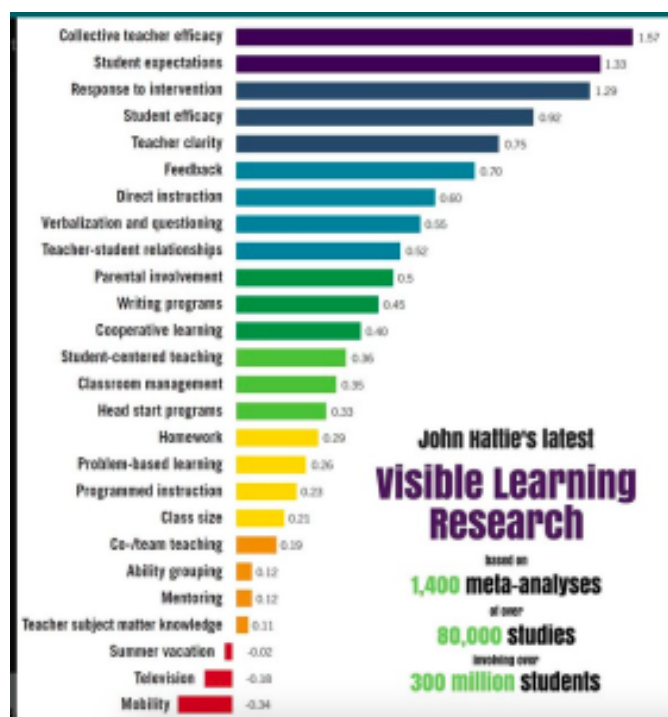


Image 6.3

This visual to the left includes some of the many variables Hattie reviewed while conducting his meta analysis of education research. Hattie found that .4 was the average effect or impact size of the various interventions he studied. Thus, strategies that yield above .4, on the right hand, teal colored section of the graphic, are considered more successful in leading to student progress. The higher the effect size, the greater the positive impact on learning. A larger, more comprehensive list of strategies that impact learning can be found in his publications. You will find elements of some of these strategies within the common instructional approaches that follow.

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 Image 6.3, 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).

Active Learning

The Socratic method, originally formulated by the Greek Philosopher Socrates in 399 BCE, is a teaching method where the instructor asks questions designed to understand the point of view of the students. This was a radical approach for its time because it placed the learning more in the hands of the student. Teachers have been using this method for centuries and it has taken many forms but the intent was always to critically engage students in the learning. As active learners, students are motivated to ask questions and make sense of what they are learning. All students have the opportunity to reflect on a prompt, work in a pair or small group, and interact with the material. Active learners are asking questions, conversing about a topic and interacting with others to learn.



Image 6.4

Drill and Practice



Image 6.5

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, typically limited to declarative knowledge, 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

Lecture is a convenient instructional strategy. Material can be delivered efficiently since there are no interruptions from students. A lecture can allow the teacher to relate new material to other topics in the course, define and explain key terms, and relate material to students' interests. It is one type of direct instruction.

Lecture is an instructional strategy that places students in a passive role. Essentially the lecturer is the expert and the students are having knowledge, declarative or procedural, 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, sometimes taking notes.

Some lectures may include visuals such as PowerPoint presentations.

Often lecture topics are not remembered well because retrieval pathways to memory have not been established by students actively participating in the instruction. Students don't typically have the opportunity to take the presented material and create their own meaning. The lecturer usually does not know if students understand the topic because there is no feedback from students (Lujan, H. & DiCarlo, S, 2006).

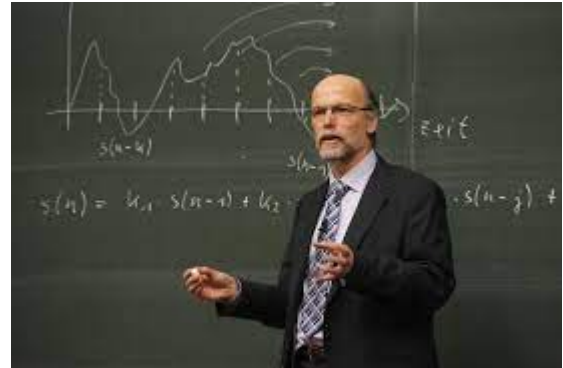


Image 6.6

Question and Answer

The technique of question and answer allows the application of knowledge by students and offers some opportunity for participation. By asking questions, teachers are inviting brief responses from students, who incorporate their prior knowledge and some interpretation in their responses. This gives some indication of whether students are understanding the material being presented. Questions serve both to motivate students to listen and to assess how much and how well they are learning 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 the 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 sometimes the research they have conducted](#). At times, the teacher may assign students' individual concepts to speak about during the discussion. Some control of the course the discussion takes depends on the 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 begin the next day with important content that had been overlooked or dismissed during the discussion.

In order to ensure equitable discussions, teachers need to incorporate strategies so all students contribute to the conversation and all student voices are heard. In addition, for effective class discussions students need to listen to what their classmates are saying in order to consider multiple perspectives, consider new ideas, and sometimes revise their own thinking. It's helpful for all when the teacher, or better yet, a student, summarizes the important points (Brookfield & Preskill, 2012).

An example of a type of discussion you may have experienced in middle or high school is a [Socratic seminar](#). A

Socratic seminar is a formal discussion, usually based on a piece of text, in which the leader, who may initially be the teacher but should eventually be a student, asks open-ended questions. Teachers often ask that students support their ideas with evidence from the text and/or their personal experiences. Students listen closely to the comments of others, think critically for themselves, and express their own thoughts in response to the ideas of their peers (Israel, 2002).

If you would like to design a socratic seminar, please watch the following video:



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Video 6.2

Think Aloud

Thinking aloud makes the invisible visible. When students think aloud they allow their teachers and peers to follow their reasoning. This strategy is commonly used when solving math problems or trying to comprehend a challenging reading passage but it can be applied to any content area. Effective teachers model thinking aloud frequently with their students to demonstrate how they might approach difficult math problems, approach complex text, and engage with cognitively demanding concepts.

Teachers can verbalize their questions and wonderings as they think aloud so that students can see that problem solving is not a simple, linear process. By modeling this process of [Thinking out](#) loud students can verbalize their inner speech and this outward verbalization can direct future problem-solving. Think-alouds can be used to model comprehension processes such as predicting, creating mental images, connecting new information to prior knowledge, monitoring comprehension, and applying steps in a sequence. (Farr & Conner, 2015) When students think aloud they learn how their own learning works and the teacher has the opportunity to informally assess the depth of their understanding or the types of misconceptions they might hold. This cyclical process allows the teacher to modify future instruction based on what students reveal as they think aloud.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=34#oembed-3>

Video 6.3

Inquiry

When students investigate so they can 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. The questions posed should be open ended so the learner has space to hypothesize and inquire

about the topic. 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 or to choose questions of interest creates a level of investment and lays the foundation for an 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 must 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 facilitator, 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 allow students to experience productive struggle.

“[Productive struggle](#) is the “sweet spot” in between scaffolding and support. Learning happens when students stretch beyond their comfort zone. Rather than immediately helping students at the first sign of distress, we should allow them to work through these stretch zones independently before we offer assistance.

That may sound counterintuitive, since many of us assume that helping students learn means protecting them from negative feelings of frustration. But for students to become independent learners, they must learn to persist in the face of challenge.” (Barbara Blackburn, 2018, p.1)

Inquiry based learning requires time and patience; however this teaching strategy lays groundwork for real-world learning in which students will engage in throughout their lives (Sharples, Collins, FeiBt, Gaved, Mulholland, Paxton, & Wright, 2011).



Image 6.7

Project Based Learning

Project-based learning is an approach that gives students the opportunity to develop knowledge and skills through engaging projects set around challenges and problems they may face in the real world. In project-based learning (PBL), there is often a “[public product](#)” that becomes a culminating event at the end of a project and allows students to showcase their learning. It is a natural extension of inquiry learning. “Effective PBL requires students to engage in [sustained inquiry](#), observation, and hopefully fieldwork to help them develop into advocates for causes they’re exploring.” (Jorge Valenzuela, 2021)

Four major concepts form the foundation of project based learning; active construction, situated learning, social interactions, and cognitive tools. Active construction refers to learners actively constructing meaning

based on their experiences and interactions with the world rather than being passive recipients of learning. It's based on situated learning because it occurs in an authentic, real-world context that can directly involve students and it includes ongoing opportunities for social interaction during the learning through discussions and sharing of ideas in the classroom. Lastly, PBL incorporates the use of cognitive tools such as organizers, data displays, software, and presentation resources that support student learning. (Krajcik & Blumenfeld, 2014)

When done well, PBL inspires students to question, think critically, and draw connections between their learning and the real world. The model of project based learning can vary from one school to the next or even from one project to another, however, the following critical elements are always present:

- Organization around an open-ended driving question or challenge
- Integration of essential abstract academic content and skills into the project development
- Use of inquiry to learn or create something new
- Application of critical thinking, problem-solving, collaboration, and communication ("21st-century skills")
- Student voice and choice
- Opportunities for feedback and revision
- Presentation of the problem, process, and final project

An example of Project Based Learning – video clip



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=34#oembed-4>

Video 6.4

Community Based Learning

Community Based Learning(CBL) is a “broad set of teaching/learning strategies that enable youth and adults to learn what they want to learn from any segment of the community.an approach that gives students the opportunity to learn through engagement with community.” At its best, Community-Based Learning integrates community engagement, school-community partnerships, and critical social-justice based reflection to meet the learning needs of the students while reciprocally supporting the needs of community partners. When taught with intention, the engagement inherent in Community Based Learning works to create an environment full of potential for students and community partners to improve the world around them by expanding the classroom into the world outside of the school grounds.

Community Based Learning can take the following forms of curricular involvement:

- Direct Service: cleaning up litter on a beach or serving food in a soup kitchen
- Indirect Service: fundraising or gathering signatures for a petition
- Apprenticeships: volunteering while learning a trade

—



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=34#oembed-5>

Video 6.5

Check out this inspiring CBL project: *“Service Learning and The Power of One”*

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lpck_d0Ph5c

Video 6.6

Collaborative Learning

“Collaborative learning” encompasses a range of approaches that involve students in joint intellectual efforts or in the efforts of students and teachers together. Working in groups of two or more, students work to gain understanding, develop solutions, or create a product. Most collaborative learning activities center on students’ exploration or application of the course material rather than relying simply on the teacher’s presentation of it. It is a significant shift away from the typical teacher centered or lecture-centered classroom. (Smith & MacGregor, 1992)

It is based on the assumptions that learning is an active, constructive process that depends on rich contexts. Collaborative learning also recognizes that learners are diverse and that learning is inherently social. As Jeff Golub explains, “Collaborative learning has as its main feature a structure that allows for student talk: students are supposed to talk with each other....and it is in this talking that much of the learning occurs.” (Golub, 1988) Collaborative learning produces intellectual synergy through mutual exploration, meaning-making, and feedback. It often leads to deeper understanding and sometimes a whole new understanding for students. The image below outlines an example of a process to promote collaboration in the classroom. It involves student conversation prompts to encourage them to ask questions. This process also enables them to listen and then summarize the statements of other classmates so they can come to an understanding and work together as they learn.



Image 6.8

The most structured example of collaborative learning is cooperative learning. In cooperative learning, the development of interpersonal skills is as important as the learning of content itself. Many cooperative learning tasks include both academic and social skills as objectives. Strategies often involve assigning roles within each small group (such as recorder, participation encourager, summarizer) to ensure the positive interdependence of group members and to enable students to practice different skills. Setting aside time for students to reflect on how they are doing and on the group process is embedded within the approach so that students become more effective working in future groups. (Johnson, Johnson and Holubec, 1990).

Cooperative learning's emphasis on social skills aligns well with the current educational focus on social emotional learning (SEL) in the classroom. The relationship skills developed by working interdependently in groups address a component of one of the Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL) framework's key elements of SEL. When teachers design collaborative learning thoughtfully, including intentional grouping, clear guidelines for interacting and expectations for outcomes, students develop active listening, clear communication, negotiation skills, and the ability to work with diverse individuals.

6.4 Creating Learning Goals

Teaching is a complex endeavor and many tools have been developed to organize instruction and ensure lessons are purposeful and lead all students to learn. Benjamin Bloom (mentioned earlier) created a hierarchical classification of thinking that has been used for classroom instruction. It relies on a continuum of cognitive complexity from simple to complex and concrete to abstract (Armstrong, 2010). It is a commonly used resource

for writing objectives with verbs classified by level. The verbs at the top of the pyramid (Image 6.4) are believed to represent higher-order thinking skills while the ones at the bottom are more basic.



Image 6.9

Bloom's taxonomy underwent a major revision by Krathwohl & Anderson (2001). Image 6.9 names the various levels of Blooms Taxonomy. The pyramid begins with **Knowledge** and increases the cognitive load of the learner. The verbs associated with differing levels of thinking skills required for any given task provide guidance as a teacher writes lesson outcomes 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 amongst all skills in the spectrum.

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." Most teachers often combine the two and include both declarative and procedural knowledge within their objectives. 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.

Using Bloom's Taxonomy for Creating Learning Objectives

Oregon provides guidance for developing learning goals for students based on students' current abilities and baselines skills and in alignment to the Oregon state standards (Oregon Department of Education). Teachers, often working in grade level teams or professional learning communities (PLCs), develop objectives to guide their day to day teaching. They check for understanding using observations, exit tickets, or work samples to determine if students are learning and they adjust their teaching accordingly to support student progress (Fisher & Frey, 2014). This may include reteaching parts of the lesson, differentiating instruction for groups of students, providing additional practice opportunities, or moving quickly through a concept that seems to already have been grasped by students.

Lesson plans often include 2 or 3 objectives. This allows the teacher to scaffold instruction, providing lots of support when introducing a concept and then scaling back support to encourage student independence, based on the work of Lev Vygotsky (Wood, Bruner, and Ross, 1976). Students bring varying levels of readiness to learn a concept or complete a task. If teachers offer support to students during the learning process, they can assist them in accessing more complex tasks. Using Bloom's Taxonomy can help teachers create objectives that start with tasks requiring lower order thinking skills, and move to tasks that require higher order thinking. By including multiple objectives in progression, a teacher can measure what objective the students have not met yet and focus on addressing those specific parts of the lesson.

Critique of Bloom's Taxonomy

Both Bloom's Taxonomy and its 2001 revision tend to meet the needs of bureaucratized institutional teaching systems. Public education in the US is trending towards creating distinct, measurable outcomes to demonstrate student learning. Bloom's taxonomy gives educators a relatively straightforward framework to accomplish these goals.

However, the progression of Bloom's Taxonomy through hierarchical levels is rigid and is not representative of the way many people learn. The taxonomy directs educators toward its "top" level at the risk of devaluing the other levels. The distinction between the categories is artificial since any learning involves many processes. The classification of learning into discrete levels may undermine the holistic, interrelated, and interdependent nature of the levels that Bloom's Taxonomy attempts to capture. (Fadul, J. A. (2009).

"Collective Learning: Applying distributed cognition for collective intelligence". The International Journal of Learning. 16 (4): 211–220.) Further, from the perspective of this counter narrative, its rigidity does not leave much room for cultural inclusivity.

You may wonder why and how critiques emerge about well established concepts like Bloom's Taxonomy. One avenue of critique arises from the realm of **critical theory**. Critical theorists attempt to understand and dismantle the societal frameworks that cause and contribute to oppression. Critical theorists assert that academia itself has played a role in perpetuating these oppressions, and advocate for reimagining the status quo. One way to support this kind of inquiry is to learn about different educational systems around the world. It can give us ideas and fresh perspectives. Another reason is that comparing outside or nondominant systems to our own highlights the assets and deficits that might be invisible to us because we are so immersed in the environment. You will learn more about this as you progress through your studies to become a teacher.

Consider

After reading about Bloom's Taxonomy, its critiques, and how objective writing can be approached, what questions or critiques do you have about the following sample learning objectives? For example, critiquing some of the following objectives would involve a teacher asking themselves: is this really what we want students to learn? Why 85%? Why do we care? Is this valuable in the big scheme?

Sample Objectives

Remember: The student will be able to list the parts of a salmon with 85% accuracy.

Understand: The student will be able to paraphrase research on the effectiveness of vaccination policies with 85% accuracy.

Apply : The student will be able to create a graph of emissions of greenhouse gasses over time with 85% accuracy.

Analyze: The student will be able to explain the various ways to solve a math equation with 85% accuracy.

Evaluate: The student will be able to evaluate the effectiveness of U.S. propaganda during WWII with 85%.

Create: The student will be able to construct a program for addressing food disaster relief with 85% accuracy.

Conclusion

You may be familiar with the slogan “knowledge is power.” There’s a lot of truth to that statement. You may also be familiar with the saying: “the hand that rocks the cradle rules the world.” As teachers, we have the power to shape not only what our students learn, but what our students learn is important, and how they learn those things. Reflection on this dynamic can give us the opportunity to consider how to introduce ways of teaching and learning that have been devalued and erased from mainstream education through the process of colonization and homogenization of the curriculum. In order to do this, teachers must be in touch with the communities they teach, and the historical and political forces that have brought us to where we are today.

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7. Curriculum and Academic Standards

“If we start with Blackness (which we have not traditionally done in schooling) or the group of people who have uniquely survived the harshest oppressions in this country, then we begin to understand ways to get literacy education right for all”

Gholdy Muhammad, 2020



Image 7.1

Learning Objectives

- Define the purpose of a curriculum
- Examine the sociological influences of the four curricula within the context of today's politicized society
- Examine the cognitive and affective domains of curricula
- Identify equity-focused practices regarding curricular approaches, pedagogy and classroom community

Curriculum, according to John Dewey (1902) “...is a continuous reconstruction, moving from the child’s present experience out into that represented by the organized bodies of truth that we call studies... are themselves experience...” (p. 11–12). This chapter will focus on the different types of curricula and the relationship between curricula, cognition, and affect.

7.1 The Purpose of a Curriculum

What is the importance of a curriculum? Answers will vary. According to the United States Department of Education the purpose of having a curriculum is to provide teachers with an outline for what should be taught in classrooms. The United States Department of Education wants to ensure that students are exposed to rigorous curricular goals to ensure that they are prepared for real-world experiences that will make students college and career ready. Most schools look to local or state authorities for guidance regarding a curriculum.



Image 7.2

Most countries of the world have unified standards and a central curriculum. The United States, however, has never had a unified curriculum or even standards until attempts were made through federal legislation such as *No Child Left Behind* and the state-led initiative called *the Common Core*. This is because education started as a local affair in the United States. Core Knowledge Pioneer E.D. Hirsch argued that all children in the United States should have foundational essential knowledge, especially in grades K-8. This issue has been debated for hundreds of years in the United States due to the differing agendas of federal, state and local governments and different philosophies regarding the purpose of

education. Local communities want a say in what is taught in their local schools, especially of late, controversial themes such as evolution, racism, climate change, amongst other hot topics. Education is indeed highly politicized today.

There is immense power in determining what students will learn, with many competing forces at play. Because schooling in the United States is left to the jurisdiction of individual states, certain content is viewed, valued, and taught differently depending on the collective values of the state or county. While school districts provide a curriculum, teachers will pick and choose what they focus on. Teachers have more power than some might think. Once the classroom door is closed, teachers teach largely based on who they are and what they believe in- even as they use a district curriculum. There are many ways to teach about Martin Luther King, for example. One teacher might focus on how much progress has been made in terms of racial justice, while another teacher will focus on the lack of racial justice. Imagine how different learning could be if more complex and important details were a part of the curriculum for all students.

But, what is the curriculum that each U.S. state follows? In 1990 a movement began in the United States to establish national educational standards for students across the country. The goals were (a) outlining what students were expected to know and do at each grade level and (b) implementing ways to find out if they were meeting those standards. Currently 41 states and the District of Columbia have adopted the [Common Core State Standards](#) (CCSS). The four states that never adopted the Standards are Virginia, Texas, Alaska, and Nebraska and the four states who have successfully withdrawn from the Common Core curriculum are Arizona, Oklahoma, Indiana, and South Carolina. The states who have not adopted the CCSS have the responsibility to review their academic standard on an ongoing basis to provide quality education to their students. Wikipedia

Who influences which curriculum is chosen? What is their agenda? Do they always have the best interests of students in mind? Who do you think should decide?

Table 7.1

Parents and Community Members	Parents are the taxpayers in the district, so they have a vested interest in the way their children are taught. Do all parents/caregivers understand how the educational system works? Do some parent groups have more power than others based on things like socioeconomic status?
Special Interest Groups	Special interest groups advocate for particular policies and focus on education. These groups can be composed of people from a specific culture, ethnicity, or religious group and may lobby for changes in education through a political lens based on their political party affiliation.

State Legislatures	State legislatures play a vital role in education because they set the state budget for education and pass laws pertaining to the educational system statewide. Some policies are influenced by state legislators and the state's department of education. State legislators tend to focus on what best meets the needs of all students but could be influenced by politicized lobbyists and groups.
Textbooks and Testing Companies	The states that represent the greatest possible business for the publishers can have tremendous influence over which curriculum is used.

Teachers	Teachers can lobby for particular types of curricula. They are likely the most expert regarding the curriculum -but not necessarily without personal bias or agendas.
School Boards	School boards are composed of elected volunteers and they are often in the position of making decisions regarding curriculum choices.

7.2 Sociological Influences of the Four Curricula

There are four different types of curricula that educators have to address in the classroom; these four are the explicit, implicit, null, and extracurricular. The most obvious curriculum in the classroom is the **explicit curriculum** because that is the curriculum that has been approved by each state. The **extracurricular curriculum** also exists for such activities as academic clubs, band and chorus, or sports. The curriculum that is not so obvious is the **implicit curriculum** or **hidden curriculum** which teaches things not explicitly stated, and the **null curriculum** is information that students may never be exposed to because they are completely excluded from the explicit curriculum. Each of these curricula will be explained below with examples to illustrate what each entails.



Image 7.3

Explicit Curriculum

Explicit instruction is a curriculum that has been intentionally designed, field tested by educators, and disseminated publicly, often with resources that will help teachers facilitate classroom instruction. A curriculum is guided by standards. It is important to differentiate between standards and curriculum:

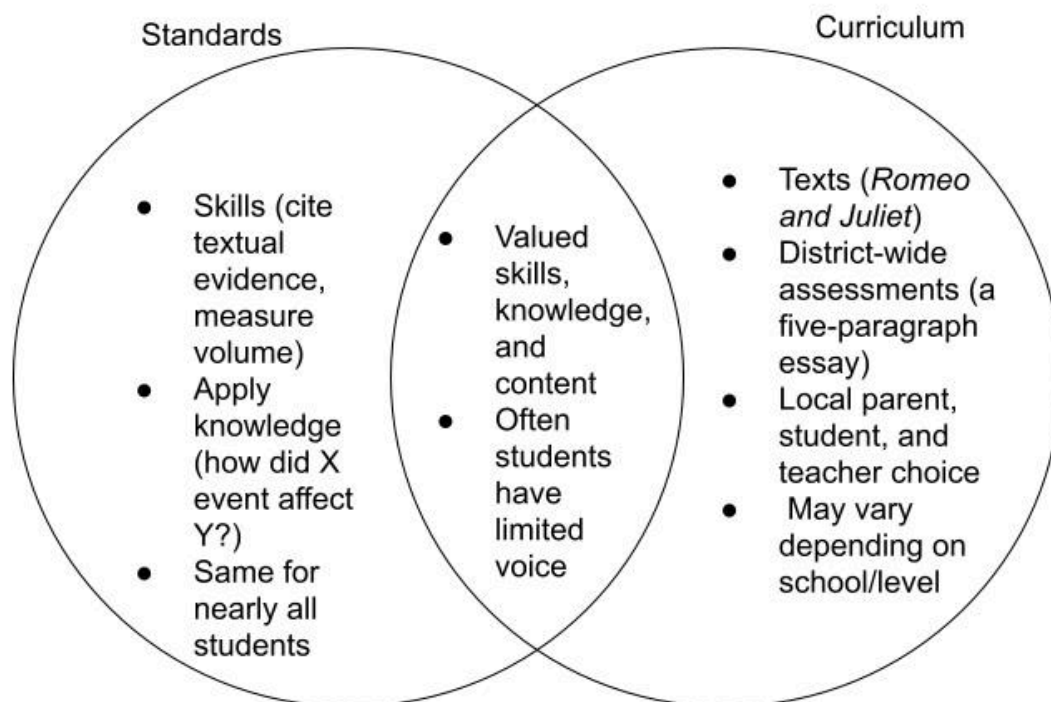


Image 7.4

While NY has an organized statewide digital curriculum that all educators can access, Oregon has adopted the same Common Core state standards but does not have a statewide curriculum. Instead, [Oregon has district curricula which follow the Common Core standards](#) (see video 7.2 for more information about the Common Core Movement). What are the advantages of a system such as the system in New York? They are able to share curriculum, ideas, and lesson plans across districts. This makes a difference when some districts have access to a lot more resources than others. When teachers in a district can only share within its district, there is a limit to what they can achieve. For example, If a district just started a dual immersion program and no one else has such a program, they have to start from scratch and work alone, whereas in a statewide approach, resources are widely shared.

Implicit Curriculum (also known as the Hidden Curriculum)

The implicit curriculum involves hidden lessons that emerge from the culture of the local school district school and the values, behaviors, attitudes, and beliefs that have been defined by the district. Bruner (1960) addressed the need to cultivate an understanding of ideas by including content beyond the explicit curriculum. An example of an implicit curriculum is character education. Character education may address values that are not

part of the state-approved curriculum. While character education can be found in the explicit curriculum, the nuances of the character education program may be informed by many factors present in the local school district including the school community's cultural expectations, values, and perspectives. A character education program may also include specific curricular topics which may contain varying ideological and/or cultural messages. Teaching strategies that connect the school to the community like problem-based learning or applied learning, can also be part of the implicit curriculum.

Pause and Ponder – Hidden Curriculum

Everything that goes on in school that is not part of an official lesson is part of the hidden curriculum. What messages do schools and teachers send by

- requiring students to walk in a line?
- having students ask permission to use the restroom?
- creating contests in the classroom based on individuals' achievements rather than mutually beneficial collaborative partnerships?
- having same-age groupings in classes vs mixed-age groupings?

It is important that schools and educators consider that all schools have a hidden curriculum, and that it is largely outside of our consciousness. With attention and reflection, this curriculum can be brought into sharper focus. In the late 1970s, Jean Anyon did a [study](#) of different kinds of schools in the United States and described her observations about socioeconomic class and how SE class is perpetuated by a kind of hidden curriculum. She observed that schools in wealthier communities provided more autonomy and freedom to their students thus encouraging students towards executive and leadership roles, while students in poorer communities were given less autonomy and freedom, and subsequently encouraged towards more working and middle class roles. Ultimately, Anyon concluded that students were being prepared for certain kinds of work, in her words: “differing curricular, pedagogical, and pupil evaluation practices emphasize different cognitive and behavioral skills in each social setting and thus contribute to the development in the children of certain potential relationships to physical and symbolic capital, to authority, and to the process of work” (Anyon, 1970)

The Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation funded a survey of U.S. public school teachers' from 2010 to 2012 in both English language arts and math classes in seven large metropolitan areas. The study examined teaching-effectiveness or differences in classrooms taught by the same teacher; and whether factors such as student demographics play a role. The [study found](#) that “whenever there was a classroom of predominantly students of color, teachers were systematically less likely to use proven instructional models they used with White students.”

The fact that low income students, students of color and underserved emergent bilinguals, routinely receive less instruction in higher order skills development than other students is evident in our educational system. The curriculum is typically less challenging and more repetitive, with teachers reinforcing what they believe students should be able to do on specific tasks and focusing on the lower skills in Bloom's Taxonomy. This type of instruction denies students the opportunity to engage in what neuroscientists call a productive struggle that actually grows our brain. As a result, a disproportionate number of culturally and linguistically diverse students are dependent learners.



Image 7.5

Zaretta Hammond, in her book *Culturally Responsive Teaching and the Brain* (2015), explains what neuroscientists are talking about neuroplasticity with an emphasis on culture. She states that we, as future educators, spend a lot of our time learning about different theories but do not learn how to apply them in our everyday teaching. Her emphasis has been on linking the research about the brain and how it can be applied to a culturally responsive pedagogy. "Cognition and higher order thinking have always been at the center of culturally responsive teaching, which makes it a natural partner for neuroscience in the classroom" (Zaretta Hammon, p. 4). Therefore, we need to strive to facilitate student's cognitive growth so that they can activate their neuroplasticity and become independent learners.

In the table below, you will find the difference between a dependent learner and independent learner according to Zaretta Hammond (p.

Table 7.2

The Dependent Learner	The Independent Learner
Is dependent on the teacher to carry most of the cognitive load of a task	Relies on the teacher to carry some of the cognitive load temporarily
Is unsure of how to tackle a new task	Utilizes strategies and processes for tracking a new task
Cannot complete a task without scaffolds	Regularly attempts new tasks without scaffolds
Will sit passively and wait if stuck until teacher intervenes	Has cognitive strategies for getting unstuck
Doesn't retain information well or "doesn't get it"	Has learned how to retrieve information from long-term memory



Image 7.6

Teachers who understand the power of the hidden curriculum recognize their potential to develop the social emotional capacities of their students, and realize that taking time to develop the social emotional needs of their students can have life-changing consequences. Creating independent students with leadership capabilities will have a significant effect on their lives, as Hammond and Anyon point out. The hidden curriculum can be a double-edged sword with positive or negative implications for students. There are many teachers who don't necessarily recognize their own cultural frameworks and how they influence the hidden curriculum they are teaching or perpetuating. Understanding one's own cultural influences is critical for all teachers and should be required professional development for any current or future educators.

Deeper Dive – Jean Anyon

Jean Anyon's foundational article on how The Hidden Curriculum can transmit ideas about social class:

[Social Class and the Hidden Curriculum of Work](#)

Null Curriculum

Eisner (1985) defined null curriculum as information that schools do not teach:

“... the options students are not afforded, the perspectives they may never know about, much less be able to use, the concepts and skills that are not part of their intellectual repertoire” (Eisner,1985, p. 107).

There are several examples of null curriculum that can be identified in content areas. For example, in social studies, the teacher may give a general overview of the Oregon Trail in terms of westward progress, but leave out the impact on native peoples. Another example would be the exclusion of Darwin's theory of evolution from the official biology curriculum. Null content may represent specific facts omitted in a particular unit of

study. An example of this would be a social studies unit focusing on the New Deal may not reference the fact that the New Deal failed to resolve the problem of unemployment. Many educators would argue that racism has not been taught in US schools for most of the history of the United States, and recent attempts to rectify this have resulted in huge controversy.

Extra-Curricular Curriculum

Extra-curricular curriculum includes school-sponsored opportunities that fall outside of academic requirements prescribed on the local and state levels. Examples of extracurricular activities include participation in sports, music, student governance, yearbook, school newspaper, and academic clubs. Extracurricular participation is a strategy to promote school connectedness (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2009). Extracurricular activities are often associated with many positive outcomes such as higher academic achievement and decreased school dropout (Farb & Matjasko, 2012).

According to the United States National Center for Education Statistics (2012), sports are the most common type of extracurricular activity among secondary school students, with 44% of high school seniors reporting participation in some type of sport. Additionally, 21% of students participate in music activities, as well as clubs, such as academic (21%), hobby (12%), and vocational clubs (16%).

7.3 Racial Justice in the Curriculum

Recent concerns and protests about racial justice in the United States are another example of the tensions among explicit, implicit, and null curricula. Some schools may openly address and discuss protests for racial justice, while other schools may not mention them at all. The reasons for not addressing this topic range from not wanting to upset students or parents to openly racist thinking at the classroom, district, or state level. However, if something is never mentioned in school and therefore becomes part of the null curriculum, students take note of what is missing. [Milner \(2017\)](#) describes events like the violence in Charlottesville in 2017 as exactly the kind of topic that students must learn about in schools to cement the importance of social justice for future generations. Another example is Critical Race Theory. CRT seeks to address institutional and systemic racism and how certain ethnic groups historically have not had access to the same opportunities in housing, healthcare, justice, education, leading to an inequitable society. Critical Race Theory has become a hotly contested theory reflecting a very divided politicized US society, so much so that conservative legislators are taking steps to remove CRT from the classroom. All educators need to understand how racism has functioned in US society and what is the lens through which they will approach the topic. Following the death of George Floyd, we are in a time of awakening and social changes in the United States, and educators most certainly have an important role to play.



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Video 7.1

This article and video describe [a proposed 2023 bill](#) backed by Governor Ron DeSantis proposes to prevent Florida public schools from “making people feel “discomfort” or “guilt” based on their race, sex or national origin.”

Critical Lens – Curriculum in the News

- [DeSantis defends blocking African American studies course in Florida schools](#)
- [Ron DeSantis's war on “woke” in Florida schools, explained](#)

How much should the courts and the government control what goes on in the classroom

7.4 Cognitive and Affective Domains of Curricula

The curriculum can be viewed from varying perspectives. The cognitive perspective of the curriculum focuses primarily on the acquisition of knowledge. The affective perspective tends to go beyond the acquisition of knowledge to include the degree that students value the knowledge that is being delivered to achieve educational outcomes. These two perspectives of curricula allow people to consider not only the subject matter, but how the students react to the material being delivered.

The Cognitive Domain of Curricula

The cognitive domain of curricula deals with how students gain knowledge. In today's schools, this is often achieved by dividing the knowledge into separate content areas. This model prioritizes a content-specific instructional focus over social emotional learning.

Subject-Centered

The idea of subject-centered instruction separates instruction into distinct content areas. The skills and content contributing to the curriculum varies by subject. While this model was adopted in the United States in the 1870's, it is still in practice today, especially at the secondary level. The pros and cons of this model were outlined by Ornstein (1982).

Table 7.3

Pros of subject-centered Instruction	Cons of subject-centered instruction
Subjects are a logical way to organize and interpret learning.	The curriculum is fragmented, and concepts learned in isolation.
Such organization makes it easier for people to remember information for future use.	The curriculum is fragmented, and concepts learned in isolation.
Teachers (in secondary schools, at least) are trained as subject-matter specialists.	It deemphasizes life experiences and fails to consider the needs, interests and cultures of students.
Textbooks and other teaching materials are usually organized by subject.	The teacher dominates the lesson, allowing little student input
	Textbooks are not culturally responsive and usually include just one point of view
	The emphasis is on using lower-order thinking skills like teaching of knowledge, and the recall of facts.

Common Core Curriculum

The Common Core movement emerged in the early 2000s as a response to concerns about the variability and inconsistency in educational standards across different states. The idea was to establish a set of uniform, rigorous standards that would ensure all students were adequately prepared for college and the workforce, regardless of where they lived. The National Governors Association (NGA) and the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) led the effort, bringing together educators, researchers, and experts to develop the Common Core State Standards. The standards were released in 2010 and initially adopted by 45 states and the District of Columbia. E. D Hirsch, who founded the Common Core movement, advocates for a core curriculum where all students should know a common body of knowledge. This model takes a more interdisciplinary approach to ensure that all prescribed content is covered.



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Video 7.3

Opponents of this method argue that this approach doesn't take children's unique learning styles into consideration. For example, children with diverse needs may have difficulty thriving in such schools due to their prescribed curriculum and the lack of an individualized teaching approach. Many parents struggled to support their kids with new ways of doing math. There was increased pressure to test children and due to political pressures from both sides of the aisle, the movement has fallen out of favor. A final question looms over this topic, and that is: who decides what constitutes essential or common knowledge? In an increasingly divided society, there are no easy answers to this question.

Mastery Learning

Mastery learning includes multiple educational practices based on the principle that if students are given adequate time to study and have appropriate instruction most students can meet the learning standards set for the course. Mastery learning is based on the acknowledgement of the differing rate of time that students take to master material. Theoretically speaking, there could be the possibility that all students will be learning at different paces and the teacher will have to attend to the differences in the pace of instruction of all of their students (Block & Anderson, 1974).

Some advantages of this method is that educators take the time to know their students and therefore, focus their teaching based on the student's prior knowledge, interests, talents, and preferred ways of learning, making it a culturally responsive approach.

The Affective Domain of Curricula

The affective domain of curricula places emphasis on feeling and valuing in education. This is the aspect of the curriculum that emphasizes emotions and motivation. This domain is rooted in the belief that schools have responsibilities beyond the delivery of instruction. In this domain, the information is presented in a manner that guides students to seeing the value in the things they are learning in the classroom in a way that helps the students see the value in the material that is being covered in the course. It is the goal to make a lasting impression on the students, eliciting an emotional response from the students.



Image 7.7

Concerned with the affective side of his students' education, Paulo Freire developed a liberation pedagogy which has influenced generations of educators, centering the freedom and humanization of students. In his theory, students become active learners as educators pose worldly problems that relate to their lives and push them to analyze how and why those problems exist, leading to a cultural change. He encourages educators to teach through critical pedagogical methods that promote the connection of students to their environment.

The work of Freire inspired bell hooks (amongst many others) who added the concepts of self-care to Freire's liberatory approach. The Vietnamese Buddhist monk Thich Nat Hanh was another major influence for hooks particularly regarding health and well-being. Self-actualization cannot occur without self-care. Hooks' holistic concept of "Engaged Pedagogy" centers care and healing in the process of learning. Thich Nhat Hanh was concerned with the whole body, more than just the mind. This wholeness includes mind, body and spirit and emphasizes well-being, a somewhat radical notion in academia.

Deeper Dive: Mindfulness in Schools

The affective domain of curricula emphasizes emotions and motivation. Part of this is taking care of ourselves. Especially recently, educators have to navigate a system that is surrounded by negativity, racism, and hatred. In the following website [The Urban Mindfulness Foundation](#), educators, especially educators of color, can find several resources that will connect them with different people, experiences and feelings.

There is also a [REAL TALK](#) video that would teach educators, and other professions, what mindfulness means and the importance of practicing it on a daily basis in classrooms.

Sentipensante

[Laura Rendon](#) offers a transformative vision of education that emphasizes the harmonic, complementary relationship between the sentir of feeling, intuition, the inner life and the pensar of thinking, intellectualism

and the pursuit of scholarship; between teaching and learning; formal knowledge and wisdom; and between Western and non-Western ways of knowing. In the process she develops a pedagogy that encompasses wholeness, multiculturalism, and contemplative practice, that helps students transcend limiting views about themselves; fosters high expectations, and helps students to become social change agents. Teaching about social justice is central to developing this responsibility in students.

In this video, Laura Rendon describes what it means to be “una persona educada”, a person not only with academic knowledge but a person with wisdom, and responsibility for the world they are living in. She describes *contemplative education* and how we need to learn to cultivate this wisdom, compassion and humanity.



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Video 7.2

CONCLUSION

Curriculum has always been a political and controversial topic because defining what children learn has so much to do with determining what the political and societal future will be. In some states, educators are increasingly limited in what they can teach because education has long been a political battleground. In many cases however, educators have more autonomy than they realize. While it may be true that educators can not teach on certain controversial topics (such as racism or climate change) they are able to provide assignments and the autonomy for students to do research in those areas. While educators should never tell their students what to think, they can cultivate opportunities for their students to engage in critical thinking about important issues that impact our modern society.

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8. Assessment

“Mistakes are necessary for any learning to happen, and yet traditional grading treats mistakes as unwanted, unhelpful, and deserving of penalty.”

Joe Feldman



Image 8.1

Learning Objectives

- Identify some of the the historical factors that influence contemporary ideas about assessment
- Describe and critique the usefulness of Bloom’s Taxonomy
- Differentiate and describe forms of assessment and issues associated with grading
- Describe how grading practices can lead to more equitable outcomes

What is the purpose of assessment in schools? At the core, the purpose is to assess student learning, progress, and understanding to ensure that the teaching is appropriate and ultimately, successful. It provides

valuable information to teachers about their students' knowledge and abilities, as well as their own instructional methods. It involves gathering information about students' knowledge, skills, and abilities to inform instructional practices and enhance educational outcomes. For external stakeholders such as school boards, administrators, parents, there is an accountability mandate to ensure that students are receiving a high-quality education. Assessment is also tied to grading and performance, and has huge implications for students in terms of academic and professional goals. For many years, grading practices were accepted and not questioned. Recently and increasingly, grading and testing are being examined for fairness, appropriateness and equity. There is a growing recognition about the role of equitable grading and testing in creating a more just society.

8.1 Historical Context

Historically, unfair and discriminatory bias in assessment practices have been perpetuated over time, stemming from cultural, social, or systemic biases. The US educational system is still functioning within the legacy of these influences; learning assessment is naturally shaped by the same factors. These biases disproportionately disadvantage certain groups of individuals based due to issues such as race, ethnicity, gender, socioeconomic status, or cultural background. Because educational assessments have often reflected the dominant cultural norms and values of the society in which they were created, this has led to unequal opportunities and outcomes for marginalized groups.

Language barriers, biased questions and culturally unfamiliar content, for example, have unfairly disadvantaged students from non-dominant backgrounds. Addressing historical bias requires a critical examination of assessment tools, content, and methodologies to ensure they are inclusive, culturally sensitive, and reflecting diverse perspectives. By acknowledging and rectifying historical bias in assessment, educational institutions can strive for greater equity and provide a more accurate reflection of students' true capabilities and potential. What follows are just a couple of historical examples which shaped and influenced how educators assessed and tested students in US schools.

The Eugenics Movement: Intelligence Testing and Categorization

In the US, in order to justify the practice of enslavement of human beings, a type of racism emerged in the 1800's called scientific racism. Scientific racism attempted to justify the superiority of the white race by relying on pseudoscience. One way scientific racism manifested was in the Eugenics movement. Eugenics is a set of beliefs and practices that aim to improve the genetic quality of a human population. Eugenics became an academic discipline at many colleges and universities and received funding from many sources.

With the introduction of genetics, Eugenics became associated with genetic determinism, the belief that human character is entirely or in the majority caused by genes, unaffected by education or living conditions. Organizations were formed to win public support and sway opinion towards Eugenic values. At the beginning of the 1900's, educational academics



Image 8.3

were exploring ideas around “natural and genetically based” intelligence. They brought all their preconceived notions about racial and ethnic superiority to their explorations and devised intelligence tests that ended up often creating self-fulfilling prophecies. The legacy of this built-in systemic bias and implied White superiority live on today through IQ testing and standardized tests – up to and including college entrance exams.



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Video 8.1

Sputnik: Cold War Fears

The headlines on October 4, 1957 revealed that the Soviet Union had successfully launched Sputnik 1, the first man-made satellite. This event single-handedly launched America into a decades long endeavor to not only compete in the space program, but to evaluate and launch a new and purportedly improved educational system that would afford its students a curriculum of rigor, especially in the realms of mathematics and science. It would, presumably, prepare U.S. students to compete with other nations.



Image 8.2

This event also marked a pivotal reversal of progressive educational philosophy that prevailed during the 1950's. Some proponents of a more rigorous curricula contended that U.S. education was “soft,” that they relied too heavily on vocational training, and that teachers were not trained effectively. (Watters, 2015) Critics of the U.S. educational system included Arthur Bestor (Educational Wastelands 1953 and Restoration of Learning 1956). Bestor, professor of history at the University of Illinois wrote a Life magazine article, “What Went Wrong with US Schools?” He made

sharp comparisons to schools and the Sputnik satellite, contending that US students were simply not prepared. (Bestor, 1953)

These series of events set the stage for the educational reform measures of the next few decades in US public schools, a period marked by the need for rigor, accountability and competitive edge within the global sphere. Nearly two decades later, the historic report, A Nation at Risk (April 1983), would catapult a nation toward an increased urgency for rigor and competency. There was a sense that our very future as a world power hinged upon the success of our schools. Critics of progressive education, in particular, took aim at the US public school system. Their fears would cause a significant shift in the approach to US schools, bringing business and governmental leaders to the table for the next few decades with heightened expectations for assessing the progress of children in US schools.

We report to the American people that while we can take justifiable pride in what our schools and colleges have historically accomplished and contributed to the United States and the well-being of its people, the educational foundations of our society are presently being eroded by **a rising tide of mediocrity** that threatens our very future as a Nation and a people. – *National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983*

The emerging emphasis was on summative assessment in the form of increased standardized testing, and stakes became quite high in terms of their consequences for schools, communities and students. As US American students falter compared to other industrialized countries, policy makers have shifted toward a great concentration on high-stakes testing to increase student standing. Unfortunately, this emphasis on high-stakes testing has not yielded an increase in scores ([Michael Hout, 2012](#)).

8.2 Global Assessment

According to the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA), Reading Literacy scores, United States students earned an average score of 497, while students in Singapore earned the highest average, 535 and students in Lebanon tied with students in Kosovo for the lowest average of 347. This places United States students in the average range of reading. (Reading Literacy: Average Scores, 2015)

Mathematics Literacy scores revealed an average of 470 for U.S. students as compared to Singapore scores of 564 at the highest end and 328 from the Dominican Republic at the lowest end placing United States students as below average performers. (Mathematics Literacy: Average Scores, 2015)

Although students in the United States have demonstrated an interest and positive attitude toward science, the scores reveal a discrepancy between attitude and performance, with United States students scoring at an average of 496 as compared to a high of 556 (Singapore), and a low of Dominican Republic (332).



Image 8.4

8.3 High Stakes Testing and Accountability

High stakes testing is often used as a tool to hold schools and teachers accountable for student learning. It may even be viewed as the sole measure of student success. If student learning is measured through tests, then we must take into account the issue of bias particularly in standardized testing. Although most forms of assessment have some kind of implicit bias, standardized testing is rife with it (Couch et al., 2021, Taylor and Bobbit Nolan 2022.)

[Racist Beginnings of Standardized testing](#)

High-stakes testing has always been supported by both major political parties in the United States, and in 2002 the U.S. government passed the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) into law (United States Congress, 2002). As a policy, NCLB relies upon high-stakes testing as the central mechanism for school reform, mandating that all students be tested in reading and math in grades 3-8 and once in high school, with future provisions that students be tested at least once at the elementary, middle, and high school levels in science. If schools do not show consistent growth on these tests in subgroups related to race, economic class, special education, and English language proficiency, among others, they face sanctions such as a loss of federal funding, with the ultimate policy goal of all students reaching 100% proficiency by 2014 (Karp, 2006). In 2015, Every Student Succeeds Act was passed. ESSA takes steps to reduce standardized testing.



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Video 8.2

Accountability (holding teachers, schools, and districts responsible, or accountable, for increasing student learning and performance) carries both benefits and challenges. Of course, all educators and educational stakeholders share a common goal of advancing student learning. Testing provides an opportunity to understand what students have learned. They provide a common framework to measure students across age levels and geographic regions. However, accountability can be hard to measure, and sometimes standardized test scores become the primary way to measure teacher effectiveness. This measurement can be unfair, especially when we consider the varying resources allocated to schools, the cultural bias of standardized testing, and the reality that some students are not good test takers.

In an age of accountability and data driven curriculum, policy makers have supported standardized and other testing measures; however, some organizations have highlighted the importance of a balance between teaching and testing. The “Learning Is More Than a Test Score” campaign has brought to light the curricula omissions in favor of increased time for testing and preparation of testing. Studies reveal that students spend 20 to 50 hours each year taking tests while those in heavily tested grades spend 60 to more than 110 hours per year. These figures translate to additional pupil expenditures of \$700 to at time, more than \$1,000 per year and account for 20 to 40 minutes of lost instructional time each day (see footnote 1). The debate continues about the loss of academic time and dollars spent in relation to the benefits of test preparation in schools across the nation.

8.4 Types of Assessment

If used correctly, assessment is an integral part of the teaching/learning process. For teachers, it drives their instructions and for students, it drives their learning. If done well, the feedback that educators provide to students will guide them on how to achieve their goals. In this section, we are going to focus on different types of assessment.

Critical Lens – 14 Top Ways to Assess Students in Education



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Video 8.3

Diagnostic Assessment

The diagnostic assessment is a form of pre-assessment where teachers can learn about students' strengths, weaknesses, knowledge and skills before their instruction. This type of assessment is not usually graded as it is a baseline for teachers to know where to start in their lessons. With this form of assessment, teachers can plan meaningful and efficient instruction and can provide students with an individualized learning experience.

Formative Assessment

The formative assessment is one which occurs throughout a lesson or unit and may take a variety of forms. A teacher may determine what students know by question and answer formats, checklists, or by paper and pencil assignments. Likewise, games such as Kahoot and Jeopardy may assist in similar data collection. The informed teacher can utilize the results of the formative assessment to re-engage or to modify the teaching plans to meet the individual needs of the students. Formative assessments are typically lower stress than summative assessments; often students are not even aware their teachers are using the activity to assess their learning.

Summative Assessment

The summative assessment is the evaluation that is given at the conclusion of a unit or lesson. It may determine student placement or level of knowledge and is often thought of as a grade determinant. Results of summative

assessment are not used in lesson planning; rather, they are used to evaluate the mastery of material. It can take the form of a question and answer or paper and pencil approach like the formative assessment. Summative assessments also typically have one correct answer.

Formative Assessment	Both	Summative Assessment
	Are ways to assess pupils.	
<p>They are assessments that we carry out to help inform the learning 'in the moment'. Formative assessment is continuous, informal and should have a central and pivotal role in every classroom.</p> <p>If used correctly, it will have a high impact on current learning and help you guide your instruction and teaching</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Must evaluate pupils effectively • Are used for student feedback • Assist in future lesson planning 	<p>There are different types of summative assessments that we carry out 'after the event,' often periodic (rather than continuous), and are often measured against a set standard.</p> <p>Summative assessment can be thought of as helping to validate and 'check' formative assessment – it is a periodic measure of how children are, overall, progressing in their mathematics learning.</p>
Includes:		Includes:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quizzes • Talking in class • Creating diagrams or charts • Homework or classwork • Exit Surveys 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • End of year assessments • Midterm or end-of-term exams • End of term portfolios • Skills demonstration

8.5 Bloom's Taxonomy

Teaching is a complex endeavor and many tools have been developed to organize instruction and ensure lessons are purposeful and lead all students to learn. Bloom's Taxonomy has been used to both design instruction and assess learning for decades in the United States. The intent is to promote critical thinking and encourage educators to plan for the level of critical thinking. It provides a road map for teachers in terms of the level of complexity as it relates to the subject being studied. Do we want students to be able to answer questions on a test about the Civil War or produce a play with fellow students about the Civil War? Teachers need to define the level of complexity and then assess for that specifically. Once educators assess the learning, they subsequently can redesign the instructional approach. In this way, assessment and instructional design are involved in a symbiotic, organic and iterative process with each other. Effective instruction is dependent on ongoing assessment.

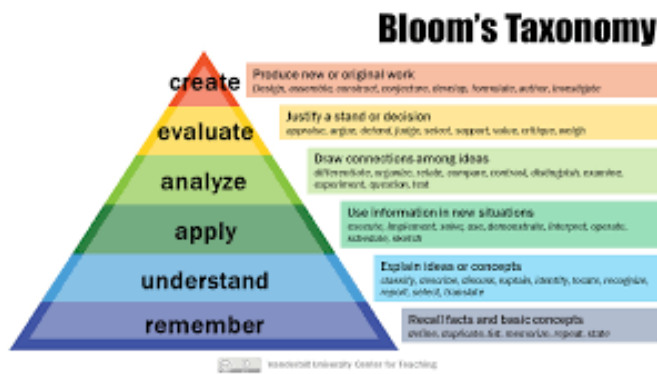


Image 8.5

such as *what did the Brown vs. Board of Education ruling actually mean for US Americans?* On the highest level, students must create a new idea or demonstrate their understanding. Bloom's Taxonomy is also used to formulate learning outcomes and drive assessment.



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Video 8.4

Bloom's hierarchical classification of thinking has been used for classroom instruction for decades. It relies on a continuum of cognitive complexity from simple to complex and concrete to abstract (Armstrong, 2010). It is a commonly-used resource for writing objectives with verbs classified by level. The verbs at the top of the pyramid (figure 8.5) are believed to represent higher-order thinking skills while the ones at the bottom are more basic.

Bloom's taxonomy underwent a major revision by Krathwohl & Anderson (2001). The image above shows the increasing cognitive load and provides a short definition of each level. The verbs associated with differing levels of thinking skills required for any given task provide guidance as a teacher writes outcomes for 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.

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. Most teachers often combine the two and include both declarative and procedural knowledge within their objectives. 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.

Designing and administering assessments that align with your standards and engage students at various levels of Bloom's Taxonomy is an important first step, but another key part of effective assessments is analyzing the data you collect. Analysis of data can occur on individual student, small group, or whole class levels. If many students demonstrate a similar misunderstanding on an assessment, that data indicates the teacher should re-teach that content to increase students' mastery. Data-driven instruction looks at the results of various assessments when considering next instructional steps. Assessment and grades are not the same. Grades can be a form of assessment, but not all assessments are graded. Assessments can include both quantitative and qualitative data. For example, observing students during an activity would not be a grade, but it would give you

important information about what a student does or does not understand. There are many practices that exist to support students during assessments, such as IEP accommodations, differentiated assessments, retakes, and no-zero policies.

8.6 Grading



Image 8.6

Grading involves assigning scores or labels—such as letter grades, rubric scores, complete or incomplete labels, or numeric values—to a student's performance on a task. Two forms of grading that you may have experienced in school include mastery grading and standards-based grading. Mastery grading means to structure courses in a way that allows students the time and flexibility to focus on mastering a standard rather than achieving a certain number or letter grade. Standards-based grading breaks down the subject matter into smaller “learning targets.” Each target (often phrased as an “I can” statement) is a teachable concept that students should master by the end of the course. Throughout the term, student learning on each target is recorded (Common Goal Systems, 2021). For example, in a simple grade on a report card, it may say the student received an A, or a percentage, such as 96%. In a standards-based report card, each target is broken down, such as “I can solve number sentences that have brackets”, with a score

of 1-4; then, “I can find the sum of two-digit numbers”, with a score of 1-4. In this scale, 1 indicates little or no mastery and 4 indicates advanced mastery. Teachers track student progress, give appropriate feedback, and adapt instruction to meet student needs.

The issue of grading is complex and often confusing for new teachers. There may be department-, school-, or district-wide rules about how many grades a teacher should have in a quarter or semester. Some parents and students are very focused on high grades, even if they don't reflect the student's actual level of understanding. Most would argue that the primary purpose of the grading system is to clearly, accurately, consistently, and fairly communicate learning progress and achievement to students, families, postsecondary institutions, and prospective employers (Great Schools Partnerships, 2021); if teachers do not provide timely and meaningful feedback, however, grading can sometimes interfere with assessments of students' actual understanding.

Grading for Equity

In an ideal world, grades and assessments are fair and impartial. However, the reality is that bias often creeps into assessment systems. One simple work-around is to use rubrics with specific criteria. David M [Quinn \(2021\)](#) conducted an experiment in which he gave teachers two second grade writing samples, one presented as a Black student's work and one as a White student's. Teachers gave the White student higher scores except when they used a grading rubric with specific criteria, which caused the pre-existing racial bias in the scores

to disappear. Therefore, rubrics not only help students know up front what expectations are for an assignment, but also reduce opportunities for bias to impact grading. See article below.

Pause and Ponder – How to Reduce Racial Bias in Grading by David M. Quinn

<https://www.educationnext.org/how-to-reduce-racial-bias-in-grading-research/>

Through his work as a teacher and administrator, Joe Feldman is a leading advocate for more equitable grading. He points out that students have to navigate very different grading systems in each of their classrooms, and it may not always lead to equitable grading despite the best intentions of their teachers. Educators tend to base their grading on participation, homework and timeliness. While educators do not consciously set up inequitable grading processes, these grading systems are often unexamined and result in negative and long-lasting consequences for students.

Critical Lens – Call to Action for Equitable Grading Practices

[grading:https://crescendoedgroup.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/10/Call-to-Action-for-Equitable-Grading-Oct-2018.pdf](https://crescendoedgroup.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/10/Call-to-Action-for-Equitable-Grading-Oct-2018.pdf)

Feldman describes the basis of the problem:

1. grading practices vary from teacher to teacher, and are largely subjective
2. Grades provide unclear and often misleading information to parents, students, and postsecondary institutions
3. Traditional grading practices are often corrupted by implicit racial, class, and gender biases
4. Most teachers use grading practices that use mathematically unsound calculations that depress student achievement and progress.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=39#oembed-5>

Video 8.5

*“Examining my own grading practice challenges what I’ve learned to do as a teacher in terms of what I think students need to know, what they need to show back to me, and how to grade them. This feels really important, messy, and really uncomfortable. It is ‘Oh my gosh, look what I’ve been doing!’ I don’t blame myself because I didn’t know any better. I did what was done to me. But now I’m in a place that I feel really strongly that I can’t do that anymore. I can’t use grading as a way to discipline kids anymore. I look at what I have been doing, and I have to do things differently”- **Call to Action For Equitable Grading, 2018***

Feldman’s Recommendations for Equitable Grading:

1. Practices that are mathematically sound: Using algorithms that conform to sound mathematical principles and reflect growth and learning as well as truly describe a student’s level of mastery. Examples: Using a 0-4 instead of a 0-100 point scale; avoiding giving students scores of zero; and weighing more recent performance and growth instead of averaging performance over time.
2. Practices that value knowledge, not environment or behavior. Evaluating students only on their level of content mastery, not how they act (or how teachers perceive or interpret their behavior). Examples: Not grading subjectively interpreted behaviors such as a student’s “effort” or “participation”, or on completion of homework; focusing grades on required content or standards, not extra credit or when work is turned in; not using grades to control students or reward compliance; and providing alternative consequences for cheating or missed assignments.
3. Practices that support hope and a growth mindset: Encouraging mistakes as part of the learning process and building students’ persistence and resilience. Examples: Allowing test/project retakes to emphasize and reward learning rather than penalize it; and replacing previous scores with current scores.
4. Practices that “lift the veil” on how to succeed: Making grades simpler to understand and more transparent. Examples: Creating effective, standards-aligned rubrics; using simplified grade calculations and standards-based scales and gradebooks.
5. Practices that build soft skills without including them in the grade: Supporting students’ intrinsic motivation and confidence rather than relying on an extrinsic point system. Examples: Using peer/self-evaluation and reflection; using a more expansive range of feedback strategies; building self-regulation.
6. Improved grading practices are accurate, bias-resistant, and motivate students in ways traditional grading does not,

Conclusion

As you can see, the stroke of a pen can have lasting impressions on the student. Grades can classify learners. They can motivate or squelch desire. They can encourage or demean. They can be used to punish or to teach. It is critical for educators to recognize that grades have long lasting consequences on the lives of your students.



Image 8.7

Activity – Questions to Consider

- Have you examined your own experiences with assessment (testing and grading) and what impact they have had so far in your own life?
- Have you reflected on how your own biases may shape your assessment strategies in the future?
- How will you communicate about assessment to future students?
- How will all of this impact how you plan curricula and evaluate student learning to benefit all learners equitably?

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9. Governance and Finance

“Funding education is not a mystery. It is a set of choices. It’s a function of leadership, & we have to have leaders who are willing to have the very real conversations that education costs more for certain children and that the...return on investment lowers our public welfare costs, lowers our incarceration rates and lowers all of the social welfare programs that we have to put in place.”

Stacey Abrams (“personal communication”, February 24, 2019)



Image 9.1

Learning Objectives

- Discuss the models of schools present in the United States today, including their funding, enrollment policies, and key characteristics.
- Learn about the inequities behind governing and financing of schools, and how they vary at the federal, state, and local levels
- Describe the current policies surrounding school choice, including charter schools and vouchers.

9.1 Governing Structures in US Schools



Image 9.2

In the United States, one must always consider the different levels of governance which impact US schooling: the federal, state and local governing bodies. Because US schooling was initially created and organized at the local level, the federal control is quite different from other countries in the world, in effect creating a more de-centralized system of governance for US schooling. While the original and less significant Department of Education was created in 1867, a more prominent cabinet-level agency was introduced in 1979 under the Carter administration. Historically, local and state educational offices and academic institutions have had significant power to make decisions.

The federal department of education performs duties such as:

- Making policies and regulations for different local educational offices.
- Strengthening educational regulations about civil rights.
- Cooperating with the majority of national federal agencies to support education events.
- Collecting, sorting and analyzing data on American educational institutions including schools, colleges, and universities.
- Improving student achievement for worldwide competitiveness.
- Making sure equal educational opportunities for young people.

Additionally, the United States Department of Education also cooperates with other governmental organizations to improve education quality for children from low-income households.

Key Parts of the United States Department of Education

- United States Secretary of Education: The Secretary is the top executive of the United States Department of Education. The main duties of the Secretary is to provide comments and suggestions on educational

policies and projects in the United States.

- Institute of Education Sciences (IES): IES usually carries out research and analysis in order to offer scientific evidence for domestic educational topics. Currently, IES has a number of National Centers for evaluating educational reports and data sets. So far, a large number of American local communities and academic organizations have benefited from the research outcomes of IES.
- Federal Student Aid (FSA): This sub-department in the United States Department of Education mainly supports student financial needs. Every year FSA deals with millions of applications and offers American students different types of grants, loans, and funds from FSA. Students may apply for financial support via some legal federal or private programs in many states and local offices.
- Student Achievement and School Accountability Programs (SASA): This part provides financial support especially for national colleges and universities in the U.S.A. Furthermore, a number of programs, such as the English Language Enhancement and the program for Homeless Children, are involved in better education quality.
- Office of Migrant Education (OME): The Office manages programs to provide academic support to children from migrant families. Typically, migrants in the U.S.A had poor working conditions so couldn't offer quality education experience to their children. OME aims to provide equal education opportunity to all students regardless of nations and religions.
- Office of Career, Technical, and Adult Education (OCTAE): OCTAE, as a sub-division of the United States Department of Education, makes policies for a wide range of educational subjects, such as the postsecondary education, career and technical education, adult education and literacy, rural education and college aid. The Office also carries out statistical research that focuses on high school or community colleges.

When considering how decisions concerning schools are made, there are various levels of involvement in educational governance at the federal, state and local levels:

The federal government has limited powers, but maintains influence through promoting educational policies and reforms and potentially withholding funding if regulations are not met.

The state government determines standards and policies for the state.

The local school district, sometimes called the local educational agency, is responsible for reporting and working with the state educational agency. At the local level, schools are combined by geographical lines to make up school districts. Finally, schools themselves follow a local governing structure.

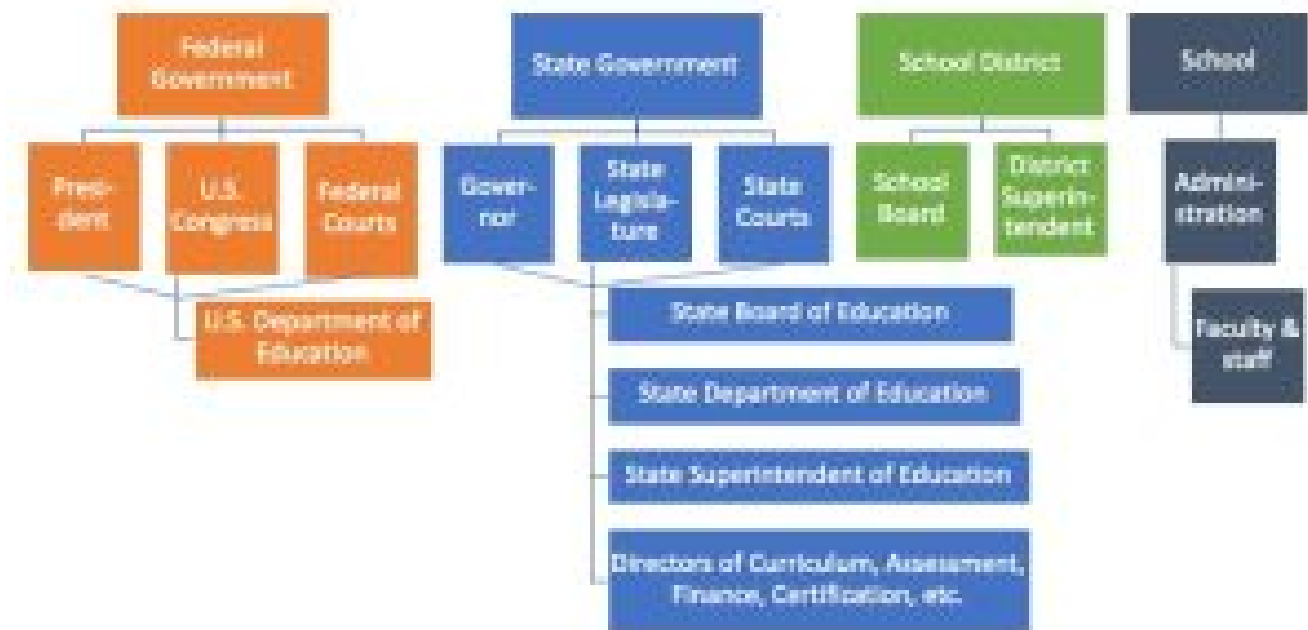


Image 9.3: School Governance at Federal, State, District, and School Levels (adapted from Powell, 2019)

Federal

As we stated before, the United States federal government does not have direct authority over schools in each state. It does not tell schools what to teach or how. The department maintains its power

through the distribution of federal education assistance. The head of the U.S. Department of Education is nominated by the president and approved by the Senate ([U.S. Department of Education, 2010](#)). It is important to note that federal education acts must include federal funding formulas and methods of distributing federal funds.

The US Department of Education is responsible for:

- promoting policies and reform efforts;
- providing federal assistance appropriated by Congress;
- enforcing civil rights laws pertaining to education; and
- collecting and providing statistics on education ([U.S. Department of Education, 2010](#)).



Image 9.4

Stop and Investigate – Current

- Who is the current U.S. Secretary of Education?
- What policies have they enacted during their tenure?
- What educational background do they bring with them to the position? <https://www.ed.gov/>

State

At the state level, there are three major positions that make decisions related to education.

- **The governor** acts as the chief officer and oversees policy. The governor also has the ability to veto and approve legislation.
- **The state board of education** includes members that act as policy makers and liaisons for educators.
- The chief state school officer, also called the **state superintendent**, is responsible for administrative oversight of state education agencies. The chief state school officer may be a member of the state board of education, but is directly responsible for making sure policies and state laws are followed.



Image 9.5

At the state level, there are many central decisions made for all of the local school districts. First, the state allocates funds to each school district. Later in this chapter, school funding will be discussed, but the state makes up a considerable portion of funds for students. The state also sets standards for assessment and curriculum. It is then up to each locality to decide how the curriculum is implemented. The state is also responsible for licensing public and private schools, charter schools, and teachers and public-school staff ([Chen, 2018](#)). In addition, states establish compulsory education laws, which dictate between which ages students must attend school, often from ages five or six through 17 or 18, reflecting the range of the K-12 spectrum.

Local



Image 9.6

Most states give responsibility for the operations and accounting to local school systems. These local school systems are defined by school districts. School district boundaries are often determined by geographic lines that may be drawn by county or centers of population. The majority of school districts are then run by **school boards**. School board members are either appointed by the mayor or city council, or they are elected by the public. The school board then elects a **superintendent** to oversee the district. The local school district makes decisions on allocation of funding within the district, curriculum, school policies, and employment policies and decisions.

Stop and Investigate – School District

- What school districts are near you?
- How are their boundaries determined?
- How many schools do they contain?
- Check out your local school board and see what decisions they are making.

The most local governance structure occurs in individual schools. Each school has its own leadership structure, usually headed by the **principal** ([Chen, 2018](#)). Other members of the school administration include **assistant principals**, with the number of assistant principals corresponding to the size of the student body. Administrators of individual schools are responsible for supporting their faculty and staff to fulfill district and state educational policies. Administrators are also liaisons between schools, families, and local communities.

The Hierarchy of the System

You must be wondering now, 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. 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: The federal government sets some guidelines for education, such as the *No Child Left Behind Act*, but not specific ones such as curriculum taught. As we stated in our previous chapter, the states have most of the power over their own schools and what they teach (Education Commission of the States [ECS], 1999).

State: The state has the largest financial role in the schools. 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 parent led group that can help the school gain funds for things like technology (ECS, 1999)

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: 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.).

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 has the most direct effect 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.

9.2 Financing of Schools

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.

School funding follows a similar pattern as school governance. The federal government distributes money to State Education Agencies (SEAs), who then distribute monies to Local Education Agencies (LEAs). The following section will discuss how these funds are distributed and equality issues that arise.

Pause and Ponder – Spending Allocation

How much does our government allocate for education? How does that compare with other spending, notably military spending?

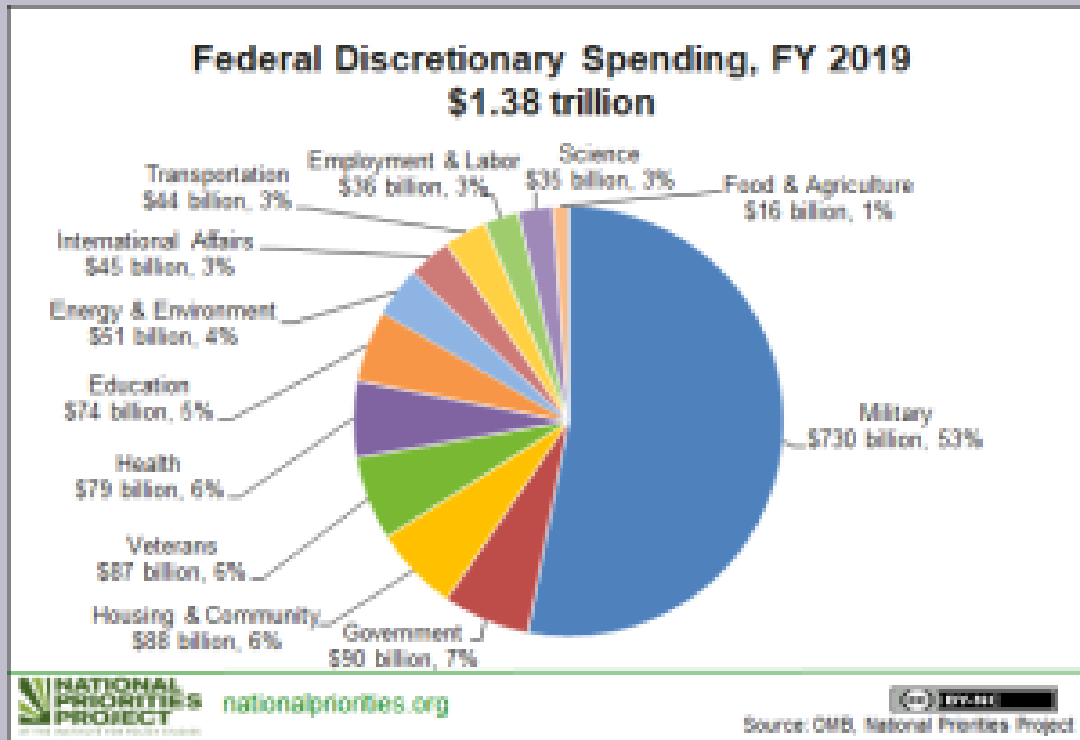


Image 9.7

Federal Funding

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 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).

Now, let's take a look at how funding was distributed in FY 2022 for the Department of Education (ED) knowing that President Biden proposed a historic \$36.5 billion investment in grants for Title I schools to provide support to students who were impacted by the pandemic. This was a \$20 billion increase from the 2021 enacted level. (ed.gov). The rationale behind this investment would be to "provide historically under-resourced schools with the funding needed to deliver a high-quality education to all of their students, as well as meaningful incentives for states to examine and address inequities in school funding systems. These additional funds will advance the President's commitment to ensure teachers at Title I schools are paid competitively, provide equitable access to rigorous coursework, and increase access to high-quality preschool."

However, the federal government is responsible for providing around nine percent of a school's budget. The

amount of federal funding for schools depends on the annual budget proposed by the president and set by Congress through a budget resolution. SEAs then submit plans to the federal government outlining how they will assess student progress and what their learning outcomes are. The remaining 91% of budgets typically comes from state and local sources, often derived from taxes.

Title I Funding

In 1965, Congress passed the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA). In this act, Title I, Part A (Title I) provides federal assistance to LEAs and schools with large percentages of students from low-income, under-resourced families. The purpose 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. The federal government provides funds to SEAs, who then allocate the money to LEAs. The LEAs are then responsible for allocating the funds to each school based on a funding formula. In general, these funds are used for targeted assistance programs, or if more than 40% of the students are eligible for Title I funds, then the funds may be used for school-wide improvement ([EdBuild, 2020](#)). The goal of distributing funds in this way is to make schools more equitable; however, these funds only account for nine percent of a school's funding. The other 91 percent comes from state and local funding.

State and Local Funding

State and local school funding is based on complex funding formulas, with income often sourced from taxes on income, property, or sales. In general, most states use one or a combination of three different types of funding formulas: a student-based formula, a resource-based formula, or a hybrid formula. A student-based formula assumes a set amount that estimates how much it costs to educate one student. Adjustments are then made for students that are low income or receive special services for special education or emerging bilinguals. A resource-based formula uses the cost of resources or programs to fund specific programs. A hybrid funding formula will rely on multiple formulas. In 2020, 38 states used a student-based or hybrid funding formula. Across the nation, each state sets its own education budget, thus creating variance in funding and equitable education across states.

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.

Pause and Ponder – What is happening in your state?

Do you know the average expenditure in your state?

<https://wisevoter.com/state-rankings/per-pupil-spending-by-state/>

<https://www.usnews.com/news/best-states/articles/2022-08-26/which-states-invest-the-most-in-their-students>

During colonial times, farmers harvested crops on plots of land. In order to educate the children of farmers, colonial regions required farmers to pay a property tax. In this way, each farming community was responsible for contributing to the schooling of the children. Today, the property tax still exists out of the belief that districts and communities must contribute to educating their children. However, only a relatively small percentage of the population farm the land. Citizens from larger districts generally spend more money to educate larger populations of students, and smaller communities contribute less money. Rather than having the federal government maintain control over funding, states control school expenditures.



Image 9.8

Today, the property tax is tied to real estate value. Homes which are high in value contribute a higher property tax. More money from wealthy communities are given to schools in these regions. Impoverished communities, or communities with housing that does not have the same value do not have adequate resources and funding to contribute to schools.

On average, individual states spend between \$7,000 and \$22,000 per year per student. This is the total amount that states spend on each student including the cost of hiring a teacher and running a school. Local states and governments pay for the majority of the educational needs of the students in their state. Federal Government spending accounts for less than 10% of the total cost of educating students. Schools are funded primarily through the property tax system.

The idea behind the property tax system is that families and communities pay for the children who attend school in that region. Even if you do not have a school age child, the concept of providing an education for students in the community involves an aspect of collectivism. Collectivism means that everyone contributes to the needs of all. In the United States, working citizens pay state and federal taxes. One of the taxes is called a property tax.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=41#oembed-1>

Video 9.1

It is no secret that teachers spend their own money on school supplies and items for the classroom. On average, teachers spend \$459 each year on these classroom items. Sites such as “teachers pay teachers,” assist teachers in creating a place where they can earn money for creating curriculum and materials for other teachers to use. While they try to make up the difference in what they spend in their classrooms, overall, teachers who have the most impact on the everyday lives of students in their classes, have little say in budgets and the amount of money spent on students.

When schools shut down due to mitigating Covid-19 concerns in March of 2020, legislators made decisions which impacted students and teachers. Teachers quickly pivoted, and for the most part created significant changes to their everyday lives with students in the classroom. Although the impact of quarantine reflects an epic event, it reflects how teacher voices aren't always brought to the table when decisions are made concerning funding in the school setting.

This funding disparity is further widened at the local level. Local funding makes up around 45 percent of a school's budget. Once a state distributes funds to LEAs, the LEAs are then in charge of distributing funds to each school. In 47 states, funding for education is raised through property taxes ([EdBuild, 2020](#)). Thus, schools within wealthy districts will raise more funds than schools in economically disadvantaged areas. The federal funds distributed to low income areas through Title I do not make up for the inequities in funding.

Critical Lens: Inequitable Funding

Funding public schools based on local property taxes can perpetuate issues of inequity when it comes to accessing resources needed for high-quality education. This NPR article ([Lombardo, 2019](#)) explains how predominantly White school districts can receive up to \$23 billion more than districts that serve predominantly students of color. Watch this video to learn more about how systemic racism impacts school funding.



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Video 9.2

Pause and Ponder -Why this should matter to all of us?

Understanding Our Common Interests in Educational Excellence and Equity– by Kimberly J. Robinson

[Harvard Law Review](#)

Local School Budget Development Process



Image 9.9

As stated above, one of the major roles of the members of the **Board of Education (BOE)** 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. Educational law emphasizes that the budget should be written in plain language in a manner that taxpayers can understand ([NYSED.gov](https://www.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

There are two important terms that BOE members, administrators, taxpayers and teachers alike need to understand are the tax levy and bonds. The difference between levy and bonds is that bonds are for building, or improving current facilities, and levies are for learning. Bonds and levies provide schools with funds that must be used for specific purposes.

The tax levy is the term used 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.

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. 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.

In the state of Oregon, the structure of the tax has changed overtime, so we are summarizing how the system has evolved. We start with Measure 5, which introduced tax rate limits, was passed in 1990 and became effective in the 1991-92 tax year. When fully implemented in 1995-96, Measure 5 cut tax rates an average of 51 percent from their 1990-91 levels. Measure 50, passed in 1997, cut taxes, introduced assessed value growth limits, and replaced most tax levies with permanent tax rates. It transformed the system from one primarily based on levies to one primarily based on rates. When implemented in 1997-98, Measure 50 cut effective tax rates an average of 11 percent from their 1996-97 levels.

A school bond election is a [bond issue](#) used by a public school district, typically to finance a building project or other capital project. These measures are placed on the ballot by district school boards to be approved or defeated by the voting public. School bond issues on the ballot are different from other areas of the election ballot as state laws require ballot measures to be worded as specific to the point. School bond measures generally do not receive as much attention as candidate elections or state-wide ballot measures, but they are an important way in which citizens can guide school policy. Forty states require voter approval of bond issues as a matter of course, and in seven more, voters can petition to have bond issues placed on the ballot. Of the remaining three states, one of them, [Indiana](#), uses what is known as the [remonstrance-petition process](#).

in a certain district affects the amount that is spent on each student. In the past, families have challenged the allocation of funding per student. One of the landmark cases involves a man named Demetrio Rodriguez. Rodriguez and his family lived in Edgewood, a neighborhood located in San Antonio in the 1960s. He sent his children to a school where the top two floors were condemned. Less than half of the teachers in the school were licensed. The textbooks were falling apart and the school lacked air conditioning. The majority of children who attended this school were Mexican-American. The district allocated \$37 per student. In close proximity, Rodriguez noted Alamo Heights, a wealthier district which spent \$413 on each student, and the students who attended schools in Alamo Heights were predominantly White. Rodriguez and other families filed a class-action suit and argued that unequal access was unconstitutional. The Supreme Court case, *San Antonio ISD v. Rodriguez* (1973) was a landmark case because it was the first to challenge the equity of school funding. The court did not rule in favor of Rodriguez; however, it triggered a series of ongoing struggles concerning the quality of education for all students in the U.S.



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Video 9.4

Following the *Rodriguez v. San Antonio* many cases involving school funding ensued. Currently, Teachers College, Columbia University hosts a project entitled, *SchoolFunding.info* in order to seek equity in school funding. This project provides a national lens and view of the nationwide effort to uncover inequities in expenditures for students. It surveys the current area involving state spending and continues to show how the court system continues to struggle to define an adequate education. While the definition of “Adequate,” continues to change, it was determined by the Supreme Court that an adequate education is a set of minimum state academic standards, or what students should be able to know and do at each grade level, and this definition is still the subject of debate in many states. In fact, after the *Rodriguez* ruling, it was decided that states, rather than the federal government, should design a plan to ensure equal access to schools that received equal funding.

The cases which followed *Rodriguez v. San Antonio* involved challenges to equity and access in schooling. In *Milliken v. Bradley* (1974) in Detroit, Michigan, the Supreme Court ruled that the school systems were not responsible for desegregation across district lines unless it could be shown that they had each deliberately engaged in a policy of segregation.

Models of Schools

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.

As we have been learning, the majority of schools in the United States fall into one of two categories: public or private. A public school is defined as any school that is maintained through public funds to educate children living in that community or district for free. The structure and governance of a public school varies by model, but shares the characteristics of being free and open to all applicants within a defined boundary. A private school is defined as a school that is privately funded and maintained by a private group or organization, not the government, usually by charging tuition. Private schools may follow a philosophy or viewpoint different from public schools; for example, many private schools are governed by religious institutions.

There are a variety of public school models, including traditional, charter, magnet, Montessori, virtual, alternative, Community-based and language immersion schools. Private school models include traditional, religious, parochial, Montessori, Waldorf, virtual, boarding, and international schools.

One type of school not listed above is homeschool. **Homeschooling** is a type of schooling that would not fall into either the public or private category. Homeschooling is defined as a child not enrolling in a public or private school, but receiving an education at home. Each state has its own rules and regulations that families must follow and report on if homeschooling. For example, the Oregon Department of Education requires that families inform the school division of their decision to homeschool their child, update the school district with the student's annual academic progress, and provide evidence that the homeschool instructor (such as a parent) meets specific qualifications to fill the role.

Pause and Ponder – School Models

- Which type(s) of school model(s) did you experience as a student?
- What were some benefits and drawbacks you experienced in that model of schooling?

Critical Lens – Redlining

Video 9.5



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=41#oembed-5>

Although the Supreme Court made segregated schools illegal in *Brown v. Board of Education* in 1954, you will see many schools today that continue to have student populations that are separated by race or socioeconomic status. *Brown v. Board* attempted to end what is known as **de jure segregation**, or segregation that is mandated by the law. However, segregation continued to persist even though the law did not mandate it due to a practice called **redlining**, in which housing was allowed or denied in certain areas based on people's race or socioeconomic status. Redlining has resulted in ongoing **de facto segregation**, which means that while overt segregation was outlawed, it still continues in other ways due to this history of redlining. In [this map from EdBuild\[\]](#), you can see the relationships between racial/socioeconomic segregation and access to educational resources. In contrast, de facto segregation is the result of separation according to race even though the

law does not require it. An example of de facto segregation can be seen in some schools where in fact, African Americans and/or Latinx make up the majority of the population of the school. Redlining, or housing discrimination leads to de facto school segregation.

School Choice

Some public school models, including charter, magnet, and language immersion, may have more students desiring to apply than there is space. In these schools, applications or lotteries may be used. An application system allows the schools to choose students based on characteristics, such as grades, demographic diversity, or geographic area. Often these schools are looking for high-achieving students or have a mission of diversifying the school. A lottery system gives each student that has applied an equal chance of attending and is decided by randomly selecting names from the pool of students.

With so many school models available in the U.S., how do families choose which type of school their child should attend? School choice is a complex issue for families to navigate. What may be best for one student is not always best for another. The choices for students also vary by geographic and socioeconomic boundaries. Many families make school decisions based on the following factors:

- transportation and distance to chosen school;
- cost or tuition of school;
- curriculum and programs available;
- religious affiliation; and
- fit for the individual student.

Families in some areas of the U.S. also have greater access to the different models of schools presented at the beginning of this chapter than others. Small rural towns may only have one school within the immediate area. However, federal reform policies, such as No Child Left Behind (NCLB), have increased the number of charter schools and use of vouchers.

Activity – Stop and Investigate

Go to edchoice.org to explore what resources are available to support families with school choice options.

In 2001, when NCLB was signed into law, federal and state funds required schools to make an Annual Yearly Progress (AYP) report, based on assessment data. Schools that did not meet AYP for two consecutive years were often required to earmark money for student tutoring or allow students to transfer. When a student transfers, the school's funding formula decreases by one student, resulting in a loss of funds for the school. If a school continues to not meet AYP, then the school may be closed. When a school is closed, it often becomes a charter school (Brookhart, 2013).

As shown earlier in Table 4.1, charter schools are often publicly funded, but they do not have the same requirements as a traditional public school. When a student transfers out of a traditional school to a charter school, the funds follow the student. Charter schools are autonomous from public schools and to operate

must meet the educational goals set forth in their charter. Charter school admittance is also application based, usually being first come, first served or by lottery. In 2010, charter schools comprised six percent of public school students, but now the number is closer to 30 percent in some localities (Prothero, 2018).

Why does it matter if public schools become charter schools? In many regions, like Minneapolis-St. Paul, California, and Texas, charter schools are more segregated than the public schools within those same boundaries, which were already highly segregated (Institute on Race and Poverty, 2008). Because charter schools rely on applications for admission, parent participation in the admission process also separates students by socioeconomics (Frankenberg et al., 2011).

Online Learning

When online learning began for K-12 students, there were just 50,000 students who enrolled in this alternative setting. (Patrick, 2011). Online learning has been studied extensively due to the rise in digital learning platforms in 2020 when the Covid era served as a catalyst for school closings.

Online learning began from earlier models called distance learning or correspondence courses. Students would receive instruction through the mail as far back as the 1920s. Later in the mid 1980s these remote schools began to allow students to submit assignments through electronic mail. Evidence indicates that by the mid 1990s, several states were engaged in some type of virtual instruction.



Image 9.11

To define these involving models of instruction, several terms must be addressed. Researchers Watson and Murin (2012, p. 4) note that blended learning involves somewhat of a hybrid learning experience. Individuals participate in a formal course which integrates a classroom environment with an online course where they exercise some control over “time, place, path and/or pace,” within the class. In contrast, online learning does not provide a hybrid experience and all teaching learning takes place over the internet and can involve a singular course or an entire school. A term that includes all of these models is referred to as digital learning (Watson & Murin, 2012, p. 4).

Before the 2020 pandemic, students who opted to learn in this way needed access to the internet. A study conducted by Tamara Tate and Mark Warschauer (2022) found that “Underrepresented and low-income high school students have been most likely to use online courses for credit recovery, remediating failing grades” (Tate & Warschauer, 2022). It is difficult to research the impact of the pandemic since districts often blended learning and some students were able to return to school for part of the time earlier than others. However, another study indicated that students who moved to online learning between March 2020 and April 2021 lost $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 year’s worth of learning in language arts. Vulnerable populations including students who come from low-income homes or ethnic minorities were at an increased disadvantage. When looking specifically at measures which include “race, income, homelessness, disability, and English learner status, [these individuals] experienced declines that were one and one-half to two times higher than their peers” (Tate & Warschauer, 2022).

Vouchers



Image 9.12

One reason that school choice has become so politicized is the use of school vouchers. School vouchers are defined as “a government-supplied coupon that is used to offset tuition at an eligible private school” (Epple et al., 2017, p. 441). In the 1960s, some of the first school vouchers were awarded to promote desegregation. School voucher policies and programs today vary across localities and are present in over thirty states. Students who receive vouchers enroll in a private school, which receives those funds. The voucher may cover tuition in full, or offset it significantly. This video explains some of the pros and cons of vouchers.

Vouchers are funded by one of the following: tax revenues, tax credits, or by private organizations (Epple et al., 2017). The majority of states that use tax revenues to fund their vouchers provide vouchers to under-resourced students. For example, Milwaukee, Cleveland, New Orleans, and Washington, DC provide vouchers to students whose family income is just above the poverty line. Some areas, such as in Ohio and Indiana, provide vouchers using tax revenues to all students in failing school districts.

Some states (including Florida, Iowa, Georgia, Indiana, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island) utilize tax credits to fund vouchers. Businesses in these states that fund vouchers are provided a tax credit. For example, Florida businesses can receive 100 percent corporate tax income credit up to \$559.1 million dollars ([EdChoice, 2019](#)). In addition to tax revenues and tax credits, many states also have privately funded voucher programs. One notable voucher program is the Children’s Scholarship Fund, which was founded with contributions from the Walton Family Foundation (Epple et al., 2017).

Consequences of Vouchers

When a student uses a voucher to attend a private school, this changes the funding formulas for a local school. This student is no longer included in the funding formula for the LEA or SEA. This means that the local and state budget is lowered because one less student is being counted in that funding formula. School vouchers are provided and promoted to give under-resourced students school choice, but not all students have equal opportunities.

Public schools allow and are required by law to provide services for all students. While policies prohibit private schools from discriminating against students based on race, many religious private schools may consider religious affiliation, sexual orientation and disability in their admission decisions. Certain states want to create laws which limit what is taught in public schools, whereas other states let districts have autonomy in the decision-making process within classrooms and schools. For example, there are currently 9 states who banned Critical Race Theory (CRT)



Image 9.13

in their schools. The issue is that some legislators do not take the time to understand the concept and the impact that banning CRT has in our communities of color. CRT actually celebrates and uplifts the strength of communities of color while standing up for racial justice.

On the other hand, private schools are not exempt from discrimination laws, but the application process allows them to choose which students to admit. For example, a private school receiving government funds must provide students with disabilities with accommodations, unless these accommodations change the philosophy of the academic program, or create “significant difficulty or expense.” A large portion of private schools do not hire teachers trained to provide accommodations; thus, many claim they do not have the resources to serve students with disabilities. Vouchers are not beneficial for students with disabilities that cannot attend private schools, but vouchers also hinder these students further by diverting funds from the public schools, who do provide these services, when other students use vouchers.

Critical Lens – Consider other ways to conceptualize “wealth”

Dr. Yosso's Cultural Wealth Model

<https://scalar.usc.edu/works/first-generation-college-student-/community-cultural-wealth.10>

Conclusion

While many individuals and groups call for school reform in order to provide equity to all students, the process is complex. As you have seen in this chapter, federal oversight of schools is somewhat limited, allowing school governance to be different within each district and state. What may seem beneficial for students in one school or community may not be beneficial for students in another school or community; therefore, the federal government leaves many decisions about education to the discretion of state and local agencies. Many school, district, and state policies are also tied to federal, state, and local funding, which all use a variety of funding formulas. In order to create change, it is important that an individual understands how policy and funding decisions are developed and implemented.

School choice and the varied school models within the U.S. also makes school reform highly political. While families are given the right to choose their own child's education, many families' choices are constrained by geographic and economic resources. Educational professionals, policymakers and stakeholders have a responsibility to serve all students, and that means practicing equity in decision-making and teaching, ranging from curriculum construction, instructional practice, and policy advocacy that provides each student with what they need to succeed and thrive. The landscape of schools in the U.S. is constantly changing, but one principle will remain as the foundation of schools in this country: everyone deserves access to education.

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10. Ethical and Legal Issues in Education

“A child born to a Black mother in a state like Mississippi... has exactly the same rights as a white baby born to the wealthiest person in the United States. It's not true, but I challenge anyone to say it is not a goal worth working for.”

Thurgood Marshall

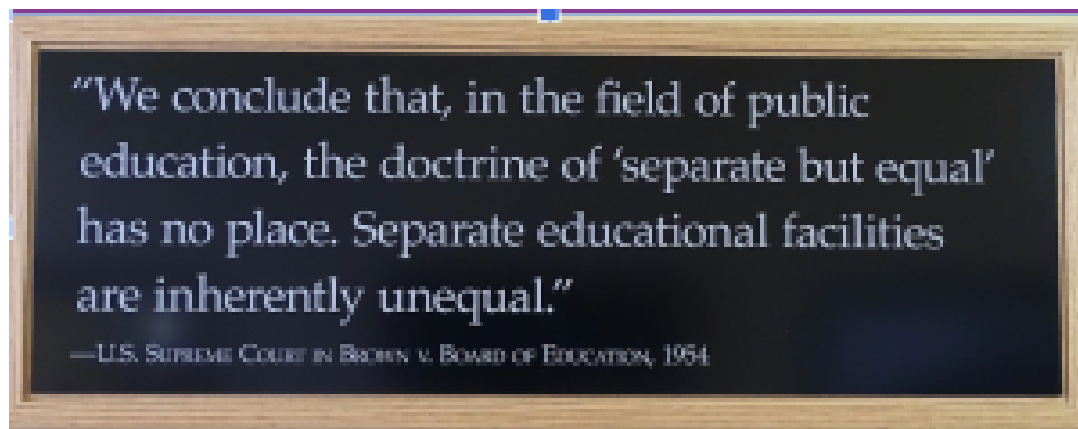


Image 10.1

Learning Objectives

- Define a code of ethics in education
- Explore legal protections for students US schools
- Explore legal protections for educators in US schools
- Describe foundational legal cases that impact US schools

Pause and Ponder – Can the teacher use this book?

A high school English teacher is planning to have his students read *The Bluest Eye* by Toni Morrison. Set during the Great Depression, the main character searches for her identity and sense of self. In addition, there are themes of race, class, exploitation, and sex in the novel. Can the teacher include this book in his reading list for the year even though it was banned by the Parent Teacher Association (PTA)?

Actually, there is no clear answer for this teacher. The National Education Association (NEA) Code of Ethics suggests a standard of reasonableness. When making decisions as a teacher, ethics oftentimes presents a 'gray area' and does not always provide a definitive resolution.

In this chapter, we review the roles and responsibilities of teachers in today's public schools as they relate to ethical and legal issues in education. We explore ethical teaching, along with legal parameters, established through case law and set up in the U.S. Constitution and its amendments. Rights for both teachers and students are examined, and current implications are discussed.

Ethics in Education

When you think of your favorite teacher, it is not often that you consider whether he or she was ethical. Yet professional ethics and dispositions, as well as the legal responsibilities of teachers, are central in defining how students view their favorite teacher. Ethics provides a foundation for what teachers should do in their roles and responsibilities as an educator. It is a framework that a teacher can use to help make decisions about what is right or wrong in a given situation.

Teachers are not only responsible for their students but also in the long term, for the growth and development of their community. Today's students are tomorrow's leaders, workers, policy makers, thinkers, dreamers, and voters. It is not a stretch to say that teachers really do hold the future in their hands. To that end, developing an **ethical** and **liberatory approach** to teaching is crucially important.

Deeper Dive: Liberatory Education

Liberatory education has been discussed in a prior chapter. Here is a reminder – [Liberatory Education](#)



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=43#oembed-1>

10.1 What is a Code of Ethics?

Most professions have a **Code of Ethics** that binds its members together through shared values and purpose. This professional Code of Ethics is a widely accepted standard of practice that outlines the accountability of its members to those they serve as well as to the profession itself (Benninga, 2013). Here are some examples of **Ethics Codes**:

Varying Codes of Ethics in Educational Organizations

Educational Organization

[National Educational Association \(NEA\)](#)

[Association of American Educators \(AAE\)](#)

Code of Ethics

The educator recognizes the magnitude of the responsibility inherent in the teaching process. The desire for the respect and confidence of one's colleagues, of students, of parents, and of the members of the community provides the incentive to attain and maintain the highest possible degree of ethical conduct (NEA, Code of Ethics, 2019).

The professional educator endeavors to maintain the dignity of the profession by respecting and obeying the law, and by demonstrating personal integrity (AAE, Code of Ethics, Principle II, 2019).

Each of the statements on ethics from these teacher professional organizations complements the others, outlining expected behaviors and dispositions, identifying professional intent, and solidifying commitments that are expected from educators in their roles representing public schools throughout the state and nation.

Let's see how a Code of Ethics could impact the scenario that opened this chapter. Recall that the high school English teacher wanted to include a controversial book on his reading list for the school year that has been banned from use. He believes this book will provide a rich experience for his students and provide stimulating class discussion and debate around identity and race. In determining whether or not to incorporate the text, the teacher must ask himself if he is truly presenting different points of view. In so doing, the teacher is adhering to the National Education Association (NEA) Code of Ethics, specifically Principle I, Item 2:

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.

Item 2:

In fulfillment of the obligation to the student, the educator shall not unreasonably deny the student access to varying points of view (National Education Association, 2019, para. 8).

With this Code of Ethics in mind, this teacher could argue that reading this book stimulates the spirit of inquiry and knowledge acquisition, and not reading the book would unreasonably deny the students access to varying points of view.

Code of Ethics in Action

Consider the ethical dilemmas that are present every day in the classroom and the ethical decisions that a teacher must make. Consider how each decision that a teacher makes impacts the functioning of the school, the well-being of the students, and the personal goals of the teacher in pursuit of the profession of teaching and supporting student learning.

There is not always one right “answer” in any given situation. A Code of Ethics provides guidelines to help guide your decision making and teaching practice. It helps with what you should do. It does not provide specific directions on what to do or even how to do it.

Ethical decisions take place every day in our classrooms. Oftentimes, you may believe that treating students equally is an ethical approach. But if you go into a classroom, you may notice a teacher calling on a shy student and not calling on another student who usually dominates the discussion. Is this equal? Is this fair? These are two different things. The teacher is clearly treating the two students differently. The NEA Code of Ethics guides your teaching behaviors by placing your students at the center of your practice. Always consider that you must treat all students equitably, not necessarily the same or equally.

Critical Lens – What is Equity and what is the difference with Equality?

What is equity? – It is the continual process of looking for and removing things that create disparity. Equity requires providing people what they need to succeed in the proportion to which they need it. Equity can not be achieved with a neutral approach. Meeting students where they are at is an equitable approach.

Equity vs Equality



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Video 10.2

A professional Code of Ethics governs a teacher’s relationships, roles, conduct, interactions, and communication with students, as well as families, administrators and the larger community. It provides educators with a way to regulate personal conduct and ethical decision making. It does not tell a teacher why they should do something. Having an informed awareness of statutes, laws, and other legal influences will assist you in defining

your role as an ethical teacher who is also fair and responsible. It is essential for an effective educator working under any code of ethics to understand diverse student needs and deliver equity in practice.

Pause and Ponder

What are your own personal ethical beliefs having to do with education? What might be some ways to practice no harm? What situations could you envision in teaching that would require ethical decision-making?

One topic that's not commonly covered in codes of ethics for teachers is a continuous commitment to examining and addressing one's own biases. As mentioned elsewhere in this text, as humans, our bias reflects the implicit values and beliefs of the community and society. Our biases influence how we interact with students, their experiences in school, and even their outcomes and opportunities. Here's an example of how this works. Recently, researchers found that even in online classrooms, teachers' racial and gender bias can influence whether students get referred to gifted programs or special education programs.

Activity – Personal Biases

Watch this film and consider your own biases



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=43#oembed-3>

Video 10.3

- *What does my headscarf mean to you? with Yassmin Abdel-Magied*
- Provide an example of a time personal bias impacted a decision in your work.
- What might you do as a teacher to continually assess whether and how you are bringing your personal biases into the classroom?

10.2 Education and the Law

What does discrimination look like in the classroom?

Discrimination in the classroom can be overt or covert and can take many forms. The following list provides broad ways that discrimination could be identified in the classroom.

- Treating people inequitably based on social categories, e.g., race, nationality, language (see more below about Protected Classes)
- Treating people unequally and/or oppressively because they belong to a marginalized group
- Behavior that results in subordinating or continuing to subordinate a marginalized group

Protected Classes and Federal Laws Protecting Individuals' Civil Liberties

Federal laws explicitly protect certain classes of people, called protected classes, from discrimination. This means that it is illegal for any federal or state organization or public entity to discriminate against someone based on their protected class(es) status.

Critical Lens – Protected Classes

- Race – The socially constructed categorization of people based on racialized characteristics
- Color – The amount of melanin in a person's skin determining their coloring
- National Origin – The nation where a person was born or where their ancestors come from
- Religion – The US Constitution gives people the right to freedom of religion and schools must accommodate the religious needs of students
- Sex – Gender-based policies that favor a specific gender are prohibited in schools. It is important to note that the state of Oregon has further laws that extend the protected class status to individuals based on sexuality and gender identity
- Marital Status – A school cannot discriminate against an individual based on their marital status
- Disability – The American with Disabilities Act (ADA) defines disability as any mental or physical impairment that limits major life activity
- Age – Age discrimination particularly relates to personnel in schools in that age cannot be a discriminatory factor in hiring, retaining or compensating employees

10.3 The U.S. Constitution and the 1st and 14th Amendments

Significant, ground-breaking court cases have influenced the practice of public schools throughout history and many verdicts have come from the U.S. Supreme Court. The majority of these cases focus on the First and Fourteenth Amendments.

The First Amendment of the U.S Constitution

It addresses the freedom of speech, religion, press, and the right to petition the government, and assemble peaceably (U.S. Constitution, First Amendment).

It states:

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press, or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

First Amendment of the U.S. Constitution ratified in 1791

Courts have been called to answer questions about the freedoms outlined in the First Amendment as they relate to teachers and students (American Library Association, 2006). Cases include the dismissal or suspension of personnel due to issues such as religious clothing, political symbols and speaking profanity at a school assembly .

Critical Lens – Tinker v. Des Moines

Tinker v. Des Moines

A school district in Des Moines passed a rule that students could not wear armbands to protest the Vietnam War. In *Tinker v. Des Moines*, the students argued that the district was violating their right to freedom of speech and the Supreme Court ruled in favor of the students. The Court also ruled that the only time school or school personnel could impinge on a student's right to freedom of speech was if they could show that the behavior significantly interfered with "the requirements of appropriate discipline in the operation of the school."



Image 10.2

The Supreme Court in Washington, D.C., has settled many cases in our country's history about how the U.S. Constitution, especially the First and Fourteenth Amendments, relates to public schools.

In [Bartels v. Iowa \(1923\)](#), the Supreme Court upheld a conviction of a teacher for teaching German to students. The English-only movement in schools that many attribute to contemporary times has its roots in some of the xenophobia that was used to justify World War I. Later, In *Griswold v Connecticut* (1965)

the court ruled that the right to teach foreign languages is protected by the First Amendment of the constitution.

The **First Amendment** rights provides teachers a degree of protection for in-class curricular speech. In [Board of Education, Island Trees Union Free School District No. 26 v. Pico by Pico \(1982\)](#), the Supreme Court found that the school board could not restrict certain books in the school system's libraries because school board members

disagreed with the content. Doing so was found to be a violation of the First Amendment and our protection with regards to freedom of speech.

Critical Lens – First Amendment Protections

- Freedom of speech is the right for individuals to speak freely without fear of censorship or reprisal from the government. The right to freedom of speech applies to both school personnel and students. For example, a teacher might bring legal action against a school if they are fired for talking about issues of public interest like a school board election. Another example is that students have the right to exercise their freedom of speech through protests or messages on their clothing.
- Freedom of exercise limits government interference and actions on individuals' religious beliefs and individuals' practices in relation to their religious beliefs
- Freedom of press protects print and electronic media from censorship. This may apply in certain cases to school newspapers and media releases.
- Freedom of assembly ensures the right that people can gather together peacefully as long as they are not engaging in illegal or criminal activities. This may apply in certain cases to students' right to form and participate in group protests in schools.

These rulings have come into conflict over the years due to school systems also having the right to set the curriculum. This school system precedent was upheld in [Krizek v. Board of Education \(1989\)](#) when a non-tenured English teacher showed an "R"-rated film to high school students and her contract was not renewed. The district court found that the teacher's First Amendment rights were not violated, rather the school board acted reasonably in determining that the film was inappropriate. (We'll discuss tenure in more depth later in this chapter.)

The Fourteenth Amendment of the U.S. Constitution

It guarantees equal opportunity for due process and equal protection to all who live within the jurisdiction of the United States. This amendment was ratified in 1868 and written specifically to protect the rights of recently freed enslaved people.

Ensuring that this opportunity applies to all persons, it reads:

All persons born or naturalized in the United States and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No state shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any state deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

Fourteenth Amendment of the U.S. Constitution ratified in 1868, Section 1

The Fourteenth Amendment provides a guarantee that a state cannot take away constitutional rights or privileges as identified in the U.S. Constitution (National Constitution Center, 2020). It has three primary clauses:

- **The Incorporation Doctrine** extended the rights guaranteed in the Bill of Rights to state governments. This means that any state laws that violate the rights granted by the Constitution at the federal level would be overturned.
- **The Due Process Clause** affirms that states may not deny any person “life liberty, or property, without due process of law.”
- **The Equal Protection Clause** establishes that states may not “deny to any person (citizen or non-citizen) within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.”

Both the Due Process and the Equal Protection Clauses of the Fourteenth Amendment significantly impact education. The Equal Protection Clause is examined throughout this chapter as it relates to foundational legal cases, racial issues, and LGBTQ+ rights and discrimination. Next, we will consider how the Due Process Clause affects educators and students.

Activity – Scenario

Which legal protections might apply to this case?

Soledad Garcia was born with Cerebral Palsy in Texas in 1955. She had no access to schooling and her Mexican-American parents could not afford to send her to a specialized facility and so she stayed at home. Which of the following protections might have helped Soledad's family as they advocated for her education?

10.4 What Federal Laws Protect Students and/or Educational Personnel's' Civil Rights?

The Civil Rights Act of 1964

Title VI of the Civil Rights Act prohibits discrimination on the basis of race, color, or national origin by constraining private, non-government parties from discriminatory behavior in any program or activity that receives federal funds, e.g., schools and school related programs. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act mandates that it is unlawful for employers to discriminate against an individual in hiring, retention, and compensation because of the individual's race, color, religion, sex, or national origin.

The Individuals with Disabilities Act (IDEA)

IDEA was enacted in 1975 to ensure that children with disabilities had access to a free appropriate public education beginning at age 3 through age 21. The law provides guidance to states and school districts about special education services. One important mandate from the 2004 reauthorization of IDEA provides guidance to states and school districts to analyze and remediate the overrepresentation of racially, ethnically, culturally, and/or linguistically marginalized students in special education services.

The Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA)

FERPA was written to ensure the privacy of students' educational records. It applies to any school or district that is receiving federal funds. FERPA is covered in more detail later in this chapter.



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Video 10.4

Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972

Title IX prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex in programs and activities that receive federal funds, including schools. Some example provisions relate to discrimination on the basis of pregnancy, participation in athletic and/or STEM activities, hiring based on gender, and/or sexual harassment.

Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973

Section 504 prohibits employment discrimination against an individual with a disability when they can perform the essential job functions with reasonable accommodations. This act focuses on employers in organizations receiving federal funding, including schools.

The Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA)

ADA prohibits discrimination against individuals with disabilities in employment, schools, transportation, public and private services, and accommodations. This law applies to all public entities whether or not they receive federal funding.

No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Title III – Every Student Succeeds Act

NCLB's Title III mandated the creation of funding and support for school districts so that they could better serve students learning English as an additional language, often called English Language Learners (ELLs). The act created the Office of English Language Acquisition with a mission and budget to “close the achievement gap” between students learning English as an additional language and native-English speaking students.

Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA)

The Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) was signed into law in 2015 (Every Student Succeeds Act, 2015). It replaces the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act that was enacted in 2002. ESSA requires states to be more accountable for the achievement of students within their public schools. Its purpose is to provide equitable opportunity for students with diverse backgrounds to include those living in poverty, minorities, special needs, and English language learners.

ESSA provides school districts more control in how they set education standards and determine consequences for low-achieving schools in their districts. States provide an accountability framework to the federal government that assures that all students receive a high-quality education. States are responsible for having an accountability plan and specifying the accountability measures that they and their school districts will follow (Lee, n.d.).

The state educational plan must include how each school within the state will:

- maintain academic standards;
- provide annual testing in grades 3-8 in reading and math;
- identify accountability measures that look at academic achievement, progress, English language proficiency, and high school graduation rates; and
- measure school success by kindergarten readiness, advanced placement coursework, college readiness, and chronic absenteeism or discipline rates (Every Student Succeeds Act, 2015).

Schools must provide to the federal government a plan that outlines how they will ensure that students learn and achieve in their schools. If underperforming in any of the above areas, schools must additionally present a plan for improvement.

For more information, you can visit the [U.S Department of Education](https://www.ed.gov/)



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Video 10.5

Critical Lens – No Child Left Behind: Two perspectives

What supporters said:

- Acknowledgement of the inequities between US public schools and that some schools had been failing kids for decades
- Federal government had to intervene to address such inequities and could do this through reauthorizing ESEA funding and prioritizing the following actions:
 - Raise preparation requirements for teachers- make sure they are qualified

What critics said:

- Over-testing of students which causes students to disengage
- Teachers lost valuable teaching time
- Overreach of federal government
- Prioritized rote memorization and basic processes
- Publicly sanctioned schools, many of them minority serving, for not meeting established goals, thereby perpetuating negative stereotypes
- Ignored assessment frameworks that recognize multiple and

Food and Nutrition Services USDA Departmental Regulation 4330-2

This USDA regulation was established to ensure that programs, activities, and institutions that receive financial assistance from the USDA (including school cafeterias) comply with civil rights laws and do not discriminate against individuals based on their protected class status.

Activity – Reflection

In terms of Soledad, the student mentioned above, almost all of the legal protections mentioned here could have applied to her case but most notably IDEIA which provided significant access to students living with disabilities. Before 1975, if a student had a disability, they were excluded from the US educational system. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 advocated for racial justice and laid the foundation for other marginalized groups, including those who live with disabilities, to access education? Because of Soledad's various marginalized identities, multiple laws bear on her situation.

Have More Questions about Federal Laws Related to Discrimination in Educational Environments? See the following resources:

- [Race and National Origin Discrimination \(Takes you to a US Department of Education page\)](#)
- [Sex Discrimination \(Takes you to a US Department of Education page\)](#)
- [Disability Discrimination \(Takes you to a US Department of Education page\)](#)

- [Age Discrimination \(Takes you to a US Department of Education page\)](#)

Due Process

For educators and students, due process requires considering whether a constitutional right has been infringed upon by the state, and then affords the accused student, teacher, school district or state the right to a fair and impartial trial. Generally speaking, the due process clause of the 14th amendment entitles students and educators to an impartial trial or hearing when certain constitutional rights are infringed by the state.

All members of the school community have the right to due process with the purpose of providing a fair trial. The central premise of due process is fairness. A school district can be sued if others believe the district acted in an unfair or unreasonable way. This legal argument can be made on behalf of a teacher, student, parent, or community member. Anyone who believes that they were unfairly or unreasonably impacted by a policy or procedure of the school can institute a legal case against the school.

In the Supreme Court case [Hortonville Independent School District No. 1 v. Hortonville Education Association \(1976\)](#), the Justices ruled that the school board was able to deliver due process in a reasonable manner when it fired teachers who went on strike after contract negotiations failed. The teachers were asked to return to work but refused. They were then terminated. The teachers argued that their dismissal violated their due process and should be reviewed by an impartial decision maker. The court did not agree, citing instead that the school board was viewed as the impartial decision maker, and they did not need to be independent from the issue.

Schools in the United States accept responsibility for children as they enter through their doors, and teachers have responsibilities that relate to educating students as well as providing physical, social, and emotional safety to all children, beyond teaching the required curriculum. Because of the diverse nature of schools, the U.S. court system helps to balance teachers' and students' responsibilities and rights.10.5 Foundational Legal Cases

Throughout U.S. history, there have been many notable court cases heard by the Supreme Court related to public education in the United States (National Constitution Center, 2015). Select foundational legal cases are highlighted below:

Examples of Foundational Legal Cases in Education

Case	Decision
Plessy v. Ferguson (1896)	Racial segregation was upheld, allowing states to segregate schools under the “separate but equal” doctrine. The Supreme Court upheld the segregationist doctrine of “separate but equal.” This discriminatory doctrine was applied in many aspects of public life, including schooling, for decades, as a result.
Brown v. Board of Education (1954)	This landmark Supreme Court case (Brown v Board)) overturned Plessy v. Ferguson (1896) and addressed segregation of public schools on the basis of race. African American students who had been denied admittance to public schools argued that the Equal Protection Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment was violated. The justices agreed stating that “separate but equal educational facilities for racial minorities is inherently unequal”.
San Antonio Independent School District v. Rodriguez (1973)	The justices ruled that education is not afforded protection under the Constitution. The Supreme Court also held that a school district is responsible for providing only a “minimum educational threshold” for students within their jurisdiction, as defined by the state, and which adheres to federal law.
Plyler v. Doe (1982)	The Supreme Court previously held that education is not a “fundamental right” because it is not mentioned in the U.S. Constitution nor the Bill of Rights, but reinforced that public education does have “a pivotal role in maintaining the fabric of... society and in sustaining ... political and cultural heritage” of society. This ruling underscored the importance of public schools throughout the United States and held that all children within a state’s jurisdiction, whether legal or illegal, have the right to a public education, if a public education is provided by the state.

Activity – Scenario Legal Case

Which Legal cases might apply to this situation?

Rebecca welcomed Moise Francois to Beavercreek Elementary. His mother had none of the usual documentation but she did have an ID card and a local address on a utilities bill which helped to establish that this was their elementary school. Rebecca knew that legally the schools never asked for social security cards or any other kind of immigration or naturalization paperwork due to the landmark Plyler vs Doe case. She also knew that she could place Moise in an ESL classroom for his first day which would help to ease him into the US school system. The school had a plan for its English Language Learners, as required by law per the landmark Lau vs Nichols case (both cases explained below).

Lau v. Nichols (1974)

A group of Chinese American students who were learning English as an additional language sued their school system for violating their 14th Amendment rights by not providing them enough language support to be successful in school. The Lau v. Nichols case was grounded in the Civil Rights Act of 1964 as it discriminated against the students based on their national origin. The Court ruled in favor of the students and codified the civil right to be instructed in a language or through a method (such as ESL) that is understandable. The Court ruling laid the needed groundwork for the argument that national origin discrimination extends to language-based discrimination because language and national origin are inherently interconnected.

Where Can I Find More Information about Federal Court Rulings Related to Discrimination in Educational Environments?

- [Case Summaries Related to Protected Classes \[Takes you to a United States Department of Justice page\]](#)
- The Stanford Equality of Opportunity and Education Project [[introduction page](#)] has curated this [list of landmark US legal cases related to equality and opportunity in K-12 education](#)

Throughout U.S. history, courts have become more involved in helping school districts make decisions that affect how localities and states conduct schooling (Thomas, 2019). As diversity increases throughout the United States, school policies and procedures continue to be challenged in our court systems. When pursuing legal action, the goal is to ensure that schools provide a fair and reasonable system of education for all students.

10.6 State Oversight

Each state must follow its respective State Constitution as well as the U.S. Constitution when defining the role and responsibilities of public schools within their state. Although education is a responsibility of the state, school districts have authority over their individual schools as it relates to curriculum and discipline. Rights are afforded to teachers in normal day-to-day functioning and when appealing grievances as it relates to such things as contracts, policies, denial of tenure, or suspension. Students must also adhere to this authority, unless it overrides a student's constitutional rights.

States provide a wide range of oversight. They identify the minimum licensure requirements for educators. States also dictate what educators must do within that state to maintain their teaching licenses. State laws provide guidelines regarding how schools are organized based on funding. The legislature and Governor of each state allocate a certain amount of funding to school districts throughout their state. School districts then decide how those funds are spent. State legislatures and courts have intervened to help reduce funding disparities among poorer and wealthier school districts to better ensure that all students have equal access to education. States also create a state board of education, set-up school districts throughout the state, and establish school boards for each district. State laws also help to define student discipline and due process policies.

Examples of state involvement within public schools include:

- Creating school districts
- Allocating a budget to school districts
- Regulating schools throughout those districts
- Establishing the organizational structure for schools
- Defining policies and functions of the school
- Setting minimum curriculum requirements for schools
- Defining licensure requirements for educators, and
- Determining working conditions (National Conference of State Legislatures, 2020).

10.7 State of Oregon

If you are planning to get licensed in the state of Oregon, be sure to review the appendix on Civil Rights in Oregon.

In this section, you will learn about state laws that protect individual civil liberties and prohibit discrimination in educational settings. It is important that you are familiar with these laws and how they are applied in schools because teachers are considered “state actors” who act on behalf of the state.

Oregon Revised Statutes Relevant to Educational Settings

Oregon Revised Statutes (ORS) are codified laws of the State of Oregon. These are released every two years so it is important to know current laws related to discrimination in educational settings, and also that you can access the ORSs in future through this [website](#)

Protected Classes and State Laws Protecting Individuals' Civil Liberties

In the State of Oregon, sexual orientation is a protected class. This extends the federally recognized protected classes to include sexual orientation. Sexual orientation is an individual's physical and/or emotional attraction to other individual(s) or not. Some terms used to describe a person's sexual orientation may be heterosexual (straight), gay, lesbian, bisexual, pansexual, or asexual.

What Protections are Individuals Afforded Under The Oregon Constitution?

Article I of the Oregon Constitution is a **bill of rights** of the privileges, immunities, and authorities that may be legally and morally claimed by the citizens of the state within the bounds of reason, truth, and the accepted standards of behaviors. These rights include:

- Natural rights inherent in people
- Freedom of worship
- Freedom of religion
- No religious qualification for office
- No money to be appropriated for religion
- No religious test for witnesses or jurors
- Freedom of speech and freedom of the press
- Equality of privileges and immunities of citizens
- Assemblages of people; instruction of representatives; application to legislature
- Emigration
- Taxes and duties; uniformity of taxation

Deeper Dive – Information about Oregon State Laws Related to Discrimination in Educational Environment

Where Can I Find More Information about Oregon State Laws Related to Discrimination in Educational Environments?

- [The Oregon Secretary of State keeps an archive of all Oregon Administrative Rules \(OARs\) for the Oregon Department of Education](#)
- [The Oregon State Legislature maintains an archive of Oregon Revised Statutes \(ORSs\)](#)

10.8 Rights of Teachers

Teaching License

As discussed previously, the first step in becoming a legally-recognized teacher is to earn a teaching license. Each state has different requirements for earning a teaching license, as they define the specific dispositions, knowledge, and skills needed to obtain and maintain employment within a school in that state. In Oregon, the process is overseen by [The Teacher Standards and Practices Commission](#). If you choose to complete an undergraduate or graduate degree program in order to teach, you will be working toward fulfilling the requirements of a teaching license in the state where your institution is located. Many states have reciprocity with other states' teaching licenses, meaning that you can earn a teaching license in one state and still go teach in another one, as long as you also complete the requirements for earning a teaching license in that new state.



Image 10.3 – As a teacher, you have certain protected rights related to your legal employment, membership in unions and other professional organizations, academic freedom, freedom of speech and expression, liability, privacy, and religion. It is important to be aware of the rights you do have, as well as the limits of your legal protection.

Contract

Once a teacher applies for and receives a job at a school, they receive a teaching contract. A teaching contract is a written agreement between the school system and the teacher and serves as a legal document identifying the roles and responsibilities for the teaching position. If the school board negotiated with a teacher's union, then the policies and regulations of the union will also be identified in the contract. The teaching contract must be signed by the teacher, school, and ratified by the school board to be binding. The teaching contract is binding unless it is breached, should either party fail to perform as agreed during the time frame specified in the teaching contract. Be aware that each state has a different definition of the types of teaching contracts that are presented to teachers within the state.

Tenure

You may have heard of the word “tenure” in discussions about teaching contracts. Tenure protects teachers from arbitrary dismissal by school officials. Tenure derived from the Pendleton Civil Service Act of 1883, which was originally established as a merit system for government workers. Tenure rights for teachers in the United States date back to 1909, when the NEA lobbied for these rights. States define tenure laws for teachers in public schools, including elements like probationary periods and termination procedures. A school district can dismiss a tenured teacher for justifiable reasons such as noncompliance, immoral conduct, committing a crime, and insubordination. A teacher can also be dismissed for financial reasons, such as when a school district has a deficiency of funds.

Tenure does not guarantee a teacher a job for life, nor does it offer lifetime employment security (Hart, 2010). The focus of tenure is on supporting and protecting good teachers. It is an earned process that mandates due process. The benefits of a continuing contract or tenure are that a school must show cause in order to dismiss you because you, as the teacher, have due process rights. Advocates for tenure see its benefits for teachers in that it “significantly strengthens legal protections embodied in civil service, civil rights, and labor laws” and “protects a range of discriminatory firings not covered under race and gender anti-discrimination laws” (Kahlenberg, 2015, p. 7). In addition, teacher tenure has been shown to increase morale and overall teacher involvement within a school and collaboration among colleagues. Tenure affords teachers the ability to question and engage with school leadership as it relates to the functioning of a school and in building a strong school culture, which has been linked to increased academic achievement for students (Lee & Smith, 1996).

Presently, some states are changing their legislation as it relates to teacher tenure. The Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) and Race to the Top grants through the U.S. Department of Education both require states to evaluate student achievement and teacher effectiveness. Certain state legislatures view teacher tenure as a barrier to these initiatives because it is more difficult for school districts to dismiss tenured teachers for poor performance, and as a result, relatively few tenured teachers are fired (Goldhaber & Hansen, 2010). Therefore, some states have begun to change tenure laws to adhere to the accountability requirements stipulated by the U.S. Department of Education as it relates to teacher evaluation and student achievement. As a result, some tenure systems have been removed or revamped with annual contracts requiring satisfactory performance. Florida, Indiana, North Carolina, and Kansas have eliminated tenure completely (Underwood, 2018). Additional states are also currently contemplating limiting or removing tenure for teachers.

Activity – Licensure Requirements

Look up licensure requirements for the state where you want to teach. What do you notice? What kinds of knowledge, training, and experience are you required to have? How is your understanding assessed before you are granted a license?

Unions and Participation in Professional Organizations



Image 10.4

The National Education Association (NEA) and American Federation of Teachers (AFT) are two of the largest teacher labor unions and professional organizations in the United States at present. Both have been in existence for more than 100 years and support teachers, along with other school personnel. As unions, both organizations support their members with collective bargaining, whereby they work alongside teachers as they negotiate with their respective school districts to resolve disputes, as well as to lobby Congress for state and federal legislation that would impact educational related issues, including teacher rights and responsibilities. In some states, teacher unions will support your right to strike as a means of

collective bargaining.

You can join the union that is present in your school or even start one, but since not all states recognize unions, the NEA or AFT may not be able to assist you with collective bargaining or school board negotiations, depending on your state of employment. Collective bargaining is legal in Oregon and Washington. Collective bargaining is illegal in Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Texas, and Arizona. You may hear these referenced as “[right to work states](#),” which means that employees have a right to work without being forced to join a union. Even so, each professional organization provides support, a rich network of educators, and professional development around issues and opportunities that can be beneficial for your teaching practice.

It is not often that educators are permitted to strike because they are employed by the state and are considered vital to public service. Still, some teachers do strike regardless of state laws that may prevent them from striking, as we saw in 2018 in West Virginia, Kentucky, and Oklahoma. When teachers go on strike, the impacted school board can obtain a court injunction to order teachers back to the school and teachers can lose pay for each day on strike. In many states, they can also be dismissed from their teaching positions for striking.

Activity – Advocacy

You may have heard of the #RedforEd movement, which involves teachers striking or protesting in many different states as a way to advocate for students. Watch this video to learn more about this movement from the National Education Association (NEA)

Video 10.6



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=43#oembed-6>

Academic Freedom

Many teachers consider academic freedom to be a constitutional freedom outlined by the First Amendment. Because a teacher is a state employee and has signed a legally binding teaching contract, the teacher has a legal obligation to adhere to the rules and regulations identified by the school board and the laws of the state and federal government. A teacher represents the school and cannot do whatever they want in the classroom. Likewise, a teacher does not have complete freedom of speech to say whatever he or she wishes either. All teachers must follow guidelines represented in their teacher contract and the policies and procedures of the school board.

While the legal system has afforded teachers the right to select appropriate class materials, the educational purpose, the age and sophistication of students, and the context and length of time to complete assignments must all be considered. For example, if you wanted to teach the muscular system in human anatomy in your sixth grade science curriculum, but this content is not taught until tenth grade, you would not be able to change the curriculum framework set by the school district per your teaching contract.

If an activity aligns to your curriculum framework and you have followed the guidelines set forth by the school board, you could, for example, have a speaker come into your classroom to talk about an aspect of your curriculum or use an article published in the newspaper. Doing so would not be in breach of your contract. As you prepare for class instruction, consider your assigned curriculum, review school policies, and ask your school principal or other mentor teachers for guidance.

Academic freedom basically refers to the freedom of teachers to communicate information and share curricular material, without legal interference. In many cases, teachers were allowed a fair amount of academic freedom in creating and teaching their coursework. However, this has been notably changing in a highly politicized and divided nation.

Freedom of Speech and Expression

Pause and Ponder – Teacher Rights

Imagine a teacher published an opinion piece in the local newspaper. In the editorial, they were very critical of a policy that the school board had just passed. They also included many allegations that were not accurate. The community reacted very strongly on both sides of the issue. What rights does this teacher have for freedom of expression outside of their position as a teacher in this school district?

Outside of the classroom, freedom of expression for a teacher has been challenged in the court system if administration or general public determined that the speech or behavior was disruptive to the effectiveness of a school. Because a teacher has a professional responsibility to their school, educators must be careful about what they say, both at school and outside of school. It is also important for teachers to be mindful about what they post on social media, even if it is their personal account.

In the [Pickering v. Board of Education \(1968\)](#) case, the Supreme Court reversed a lower court ruling and found that the teacher's First Amendment right to free speech had been violated after he was dismissed by the school board for writing and publishing a letter in the local newspaper criticizing the board. The court held



Image 10.5

that teachers were able to voice concerns, even if those concerns were unfavorable to the school, as long as the regular school operations were not disrupted. In the case, the court's opinion was that the plaintiff's First Amendment rights to free speech were not lost because a school district believes the speech is not in its "best interest." After this ruling, the teacher in this case was reinstated to his position.

This influential case regarding First Amendment rights and freedom of speech for public school teachers established precedent that public employees have the ability to speak out on issues of public concern, even as state or government employees. Even so, the rights of public employees continue to be challenged in the U.S. court system.

In [Connick v. Myers \(1983\)](#), the Supreme Court again reversed a lower court decision and ruled that speech of public employees is protected only when they speak on matters of public concern. The case results here showed that the rights of public service employees must be balanced between matters of public importance and an employer's interest to maintain a disruptive free workplace.

Similar to freedom of speech, a teacher's freedom of expression can also be called into question as it relates to personal presentation and dress. Court cases surrounding dress code requirements established by school boards and imposed on teachers in their local schools have established some legal precedent, but this also continues to be a hotly debated topic. As a public school teacher, can you exercise your own 'personal liberty' in how you dress? In [East Hartford Education Association v. Board of Education \(1977\)](#), a public school teacher was reprimanded for failing to wear a necktie while teaching an English class. Joined by his teachers union, he sued the board of education on the basis that the admonishment for the dress code violated his rights to free speech and privacy. This case was heard in the U.S. Court of Appeals who found that the school board was justified in imposing the dress code. As a teacher and public servant in a position of trust, the court felt that this professional requirement and overall governance by the school board on the appearance of its teachers was warranted.

For many teachers and students alike, dress and personal appearance is considered a freedom of expression. Geographic diversity and individual school culture can also be a factor in what is allowed or not allowed as it relates to dress codes in schools across the United States (Sternberg, n.d.). What is acceptable in southern California may or may not be in West Virginia or Vermont. School principals often become the main authority for ensuring compliance (Waggoner, 2008). A standard of reasonableness is useful when crafting a successful dress code, along with clarity of language and flexibility dependent on the situation to determine appropriate dress and professional presentation. Review the dress code for your school and district to ensure that you are in compliance.

In the fall of 2020, a teacher at a charter school in Texas says she was fired after wearing a mask with “Black Lives Matter” written on it ([Pygas, 2020](#)). The school told her the mask was a violation of the dress code and asked her to avoid wearing the mask due to the “current political climate.” When she stated in an email that she would not stop wearing the mask, the school said she had “effectively resigned her position,” since she did not intend to follow the established policy. Dress codes are one part of the professional behavior you may be expected to follow once you sign a teaching contract, so it is important to know exactly what your dress code policy says and what your rights are. Similar incidents have occurred in Oregon. Check out the controversy in Newberg, Oregon and how they banned freedom of expression regarding Black Lives Matter and LGBTQ rights: <https://www.opb.org/article/2023/01/17/newberg-oregon-school-district-rescinds-policy-on-controversial-symbols-in-lawsuit-settlement/>

Liability and Teachers

Now, imagine an elementary school teacher is outside with their students on the playground. Two children ask if they can climb on the climbing wall. The teacher agrees and begins to walk over so they can monitor their play. At that very moment, a child falls off the monkey bars she was playing on and begins to cry. The teacher quickly walks over to the fallen child and notices that she has a cut on her arm. Can this teacher be sued for negligence?

When at school, educators have a responsibility that is referred to by the courts as “in loco parentis” or “in place of parents.” This means that while in school it is the responsibility of educators to make similar judgments as it relates to the safety of children that a parent might make. Because an educator is legally responsible for the safety of children under their supervision, a teacher is considered negligent if they fail to protect a child from injury or harm.

Accidents happen, and there are multiple ways that a child could be injured, such as in the playground scenario described above, in the lab of a science classroom, or even running down the hallway. However, if it is determined that negligence did occur, or even if a parent believes that negligence took place, a liability suit can be brought against the teacher or the school. The person who was harmed can bring civil or criminal charges against the student or teacher who threatened harm. In addition, a teacher can be dismissed and lose his or her teaching license as well as be criminally or civilly charged.

Protections exist for teachers that limit liability. These include:

- A reasonable attempt was made to anticipate a dangerous condition;
- Proper precautions were instituted to include establishing rules and procedures to prevent injury;
- Students were warned of possible danger; and
- The teacher provided proper supervision (Legal Information Institute, n.d.).

The Supreme Court of Wyoming held in [Fagen v. Summers \(1972\)](#) that the teacher did everything possible to keep students safe following a playground accident, citing that “a teacher cannot anticipate the varied and

unexpected acts which occur daily in and about the school premises.” Schools and/or teachers are generally not held responsible for accidents occurring on school property under these types of circumstances.

In another playground accident in Louisiana several years later, [Partin v. Vernon Parish School Board \(1977\)](#), the judge reiterated the importance of a teacher demonstrating a “high degree of care” for students under his or her supervision, while confirming the earlier decision and citing that “the teacher is not the absolute insurer of the safety of the children she supervises.” In both of these cases, the teacher was not found guilty of any negligence based on the above criteria.

Teachers can have a lawsuit brought against them for civil liability or civil statutes if it is believed that:

- a student has been mistreated or abused either verbally, physically, emotionally, or sexually by the teacher.
- a teacher discriminated against a child due to his or her gender, race, or a special need(s).
- a teacher treated certain children unfairly, such as through grading practices.
- offensive material was assigned by the teacher (Legal Information Institute, n.d.).

Once you begin teaching, your school and state will have specific policies regarding liability protection for teachers.

Critical Lens: Who Gets to Define “Offensive”?

What happens if what some families deem offensive is the lived experience of others? For example, a teacher in Texas was placed on administrative leave when some families complained about posters on the “walls” of her virtual Bitmoji classroom ([Fitzsimons, 2020](#)). These virtual “posters” depicted affirmations of LGBTQ+ communities and the Black Lives Matter Movement. But what about the students who see themselves in these LGBTQ+ and Black Lives Matter posters? How do we create classroom communities that are inclusive of various cultures and perspectives, while also acknowledging that some groups deem certain cultures and perspectives as “offensive”?

Teacher Privacy

Privacy is considered to be a protection in the U.S. Constitution under the Fourth Amendment as it relates to unreasonable searches and seizures (U.S. Constitution, Fourth Amendment).

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no Warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by Oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

Fourth Amendment of the United States Constitution ratified in 1789, revised 1992

In the Supreme Court case, [O’Connor v. Ortega \(1987\)](#), the court ruled that public employees retain their Fourth

Amendment rights with regard to administrative searches in the workplace. The Court held that a standard of reasonableness was sufficient for work-related intrusions by public employers. It cited that an employee's expectation of privacy may be unreasonable when the intrusion into the office is by a supervisor rather than a law enforcement official while conducting normal business functions. For teachers, the school is considered a public place and therefore there are minimal limitations placed on search and seizure. However, your personal effects, such as a phone or bag, do not belong to the workplace and if searched, require a warrant. For your own protection as a teacher, use care when deciding what to bring into the school.

Critical Lens – Teachers and Copyright Laws

A Word about 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 copyrighted 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 the classroom provided they meet specific guidelines of 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.

Religions and Schools

The First Amendment separates religion from the business of the state. Government is prohibited from imposing religious beliefs on any person. Public school serves as a state government service and therefore it must be neutral and not promote religious beliefs on anyone in the school. The practice of religion in schools has been challenged from prayer in schools, to religion in the curriculum, religious clubs and access to public school facilities, to artifacts and clothing.

Critical Lens – Supreme Court Cases on Religion in Schools

The Supreme Court has continuously upheld the separation of religion from the school environment (ACLU Legal Bulletin, 2020).

Year	Outcome
1962	In Engel v. Vitale , the Supreme Court upheld that nondenominational prayers were unconstitutional because they promoted religion, and schools could not officially encourage student prayer as it would interfere with the function of school.
1963	In Abington School District v. Schempp , the Supreme Court ruled that the state legislation passing a law requiring all schools to read the Bible daily was unconstitutional.
1971	In Lemon v. Kurtzman , the Supreme Court held that prayers or blessings by clergy at the opening or closing of a public ceremony in a school violates the free exercise clause. From this case there was a test that courts use to determine if religion in schools is constitutional. The questions are: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is the policy or the act for a secular purpose? • Does the primary effect either advance or inhibit religion? • Does the law or policy result in excessive entanglement of government and religion?
1981	The Supreme Court ruled in Stone v. Graham that a Kentucky state law requiring the Ten Commandments be posted in school classrooms was illegal.

The courts have upheld that there is a separation between church and state even to the extent of one's own personal beliefs. In 1980, a teacher refused to teach a city-designed curriculum that she said violated her own religious beliefs. In the [Palmer v. Board of Education of the City of Chicago \(1980\)](#) decision, the court recognized that a teacher can have personal views that might be different from the curriculum, but upheld that the mandate of the school district to provide an education requires that teachers "cannot be left to teach the way they please."

10.9 Rights of Students

Students share many of the same constitutional rights to ensure protection as adults. Several sections outlined below parallel those shown above under Teacher Rights, but with additional emphasis on the students themselves.

Courts have mandated that for a school to operate safely it needs to have broad authority to establish rules and regulations as it relates to student conduct within the school. This means that parents agree to give some level of control to schools when they enroll their child in the public school system. The courts have also insisted that students do not lose all of their constitutional rights and a school's influence is not absolute.

Freedom of Speech and Expression

Schools have an obligation to provide a safe and orderly learning environment. Reasonable limits are put in place regarding language, such as banning offensive language, to assure appropriateness and respect. Forms of expression for students that are protected in schools include:

- the right to wear religious clothing and talk about religion,
- to be free from bullying and harassment, and
- to be free from racial or national origin discrimination (United States Courts, n.d.).



Image 10.6

Protecting students' rights to political speech was explored in [Tinker v. Des Moines Independent School District \(1969\)](#), which served as a landmark Supreme Court case and the decision upheld that free speech was permitted in schools. This ruling was later challenged in 1986 when a student used what was considered 'vulgar' language by the school in a speech at an assembly. The student was reprimanded by the school and the student sued the school claiming that his constitutional right to freedom of speech had been violated. The case went to the U.S. Supreme Court where the court decided in [Bethel School District No. 403 v. Fraser \(1986\)](#) that a school is not required to permit offensive or disruptive speech on school grounds at a school sanctioned event because offensive speech or language disrupts the educational mission of the school and is inappropriate for a school setting.

Freedom is also limited as it relates to a student newspaper. In [Hazelwood School District v. Kuhlmeier \(1988\)](#), the U.S. Supreme Court decided that a student newspaper can be regulated for "legitimate pedagogical concerns" allowing a school to remove articles that school officials deemed inappropriate for the school community. The decision went further, allowing a school to determine if the speech was written in a reasonable manner for members of the school community and ensuring that it did not contain language that was "ungrammatical, poorly written, inadequately researched, biased, prejudiced, vulgar or profane, or unsuitable for immature audiences." The court found that because a school newspaper is not intended to have a public forum, a school can limit speech by imposing reasonable constraints if it is determined the speech would disrupt a classroom and the normal functioning of a school.

In the present day, free speech as it relates to the Internet is the same for teachers as it is for students. If it is found that the speech posted online 'substantially disrupts' the functioning and purpose of a school, disciplinary actions can be taken against either cohort.

Schools have the right to limit forms of expression—including speech, digital communication, and dress—when they interfere with the pedagogical mission and goals of a school.

In [Doninger v. Niehoff \(2008\)](#), a student's derogatory comments posted online were found to make a substantial disruption to the school. A blog post contained language that would be prohibited within the school and was disruptive to the work and discipline of the school. A Court of Appeals held that even though the online comments were made off campus, the speech could be restricted to promote school-related goals on campus. This case relates to disruptive speech and cyberbullying. It underscores school responsibility in maintaining a safe environment for students.

The speech of students and teachers is constitutionally protected, but the extent of the speech, as it relates to the mission and goals of a school, must always have a legitimate pedagogical focus and direction. This holds true whether it is in print in a school newspaper, in the local newspaper, or in electronic format. It is true if it is part of the curriculum or in a theater production on school grounds. Speech is influenced both on and off campus and can come under the school's authority both in-person and online.

Dress Code

Dress codes have been challenged by students claiming that they impinge on freedoms of speech and expression. Courts have upheld that school boards can impose student dress codes to include symbols, clothing, and jewelry if it is believed to have the potential to disrupt a school's functioning.

In addition to supporting free speech as discussed above, the [Tinker v. Des Moines \(1969\)](#) case also weighed in regarding dress code. During the Vietnam War, students planned to wear armbands to protest the War. Their principal tried to limit these protests by banning armbands. The court ruled against the school, holding that there was no evidence that students wearing armbands would disrupt school functioning.

In 2006, a student wore a shirt to school that other students found offensive and which depicted a particular political viewpoint. He was asked to cover the shirt based on the off-putting image and speech. He refused and was given a disciplinary referral. In [Guiles v. Marineau \(2006\)](#), the student then sued the school administrators to have the disciplinary referral expunged from his record and to disallow the school from enforcing the dress code policy against him. The District court held that the school was entitled to enforce its dress code policy, but upon appeal, the U.S. Court of Appeals ruled that the shirt was protected speech under the First and Fourteenth Amendments.

In another case, [B.H. and K.M. v. Easton Area School District \(2013\)](#), students were suspended for wearing bracelets that showed support for breast cancer awareness. In this case, the judge ruled in favor of the students. The school district then elevated the case to the Supreme Court, but the court refused to hear the case, stating that the message on the bracelet did not use lewd language and was not disruptive to the purpose of education. The First Amendment requires schools to see all student views equally, as long as they are not obscene or disruptive, irrespective of the message expressed (Sherwin, 2017).

Pause and Ponder – Dress Code

Andrew Johnson, a high school wrestler in New Jersey who wore his hair in cheekbone-length dreadlocks. Moments before Johnson was about to go to the mat for a match, the referee told him he wouldn't be allowed to compete because his hair was too long.

Do you think this was an ethical decision?

What are the equity implications on this?

Video 10.7



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=43#oembed-7>

The purpose of a dress code is to provide an optimal learning environment. However, the learning environment

can be restrictive if it includes gender-biased language that results in stricter enforcement of rules for female minority students and groups belonging to a particular culture. A gender-neutral dress code is recommended, and those who create the policy should attempt to gather student input when revising the school dress code. (Barrett, 2018).

Critical Lens – In the News

Pay attention to the news—you are likely to hear many examples of dress code violations that systematically oppress certain groups. For example, a school in Houston [made the news in early 2020](#)^[2] for their dress code policy. The policy required male students to keep their hair “ear-length or shorter,” thus banning dreadlocks. One male student, De’Andre Arnold was told he would have to cut his dreadlocks in order to walk at graduation. Despite complaints, the school district stood by its policy. In August, a federal court ruled this policy was discriminatory.

The American Civil Liberties Union also provides guidance on student rights as they relate to school dress codes, gender, and self-expression:

- Views are protected by the First Amendment and therefore schools cannot ban symbols or slogans or messages that they disagree with on student shirts, buttons, wristbands, or other garments or accessories.
- While public schools can establish dress codes, they cannot treat boys and girls differently, censor viewpoints, or force students to conform to gender stereotypes under federal law.
- Students are allowed to wear clothing that aligns with their gender identity and expression (ACLU Fact Sheet, 2016).

Schools and administrators must be aware of the constitutional rights of students and protect these freedoms. Schools can assert certain restrictions as they relate to freedom of speech and expression, but at the same time they also need to be cognizant of student diversity and cultural differences, as well as gender distinctions, and economic disparities.

Activity

Think about some of your experiences with dress codes. Which cultures were normalized, and which were marginalized? Here are a few ideas to get you started.

- Gender and sexuality: Were males and females held to different standards? (For example, were females expected to wear skirts or not to wear strappy shirts? See the [#iamnotadistracted movement](#)^[3] or the [Let Her Learn report](#)^[4] advocating for female bodies not to be hyper-regulated and sexualized in dress codes.)
- Race: Were certain hairstyles or traditions allowed or not? (For example, [Black hair styles](#)^[5] are

frequently at risk of marginalization, along with [Black and Brown bodies in general](#)[6].) Or, are certain racial groups [punished more frequently](#)[7] for dress code violations?

- Religion: Are head coverings and facial hair regulated? (For example, the Air Force [updated their policy](#)[8] in February 2020.)
- Socioeconomic: Were certain types of clothing allowed or not? (For example, some dress codes limit cheap plastic flip flops but allow more expensive leather ones.)

Search and Seizure



Image 10.7

Imagine that a teacher suspects a student has illegal drugs in her backpack. They noticed the student at her locker placing a small bag in the front pocket. The teacher immediately reports their suspicions to the principal. What should be the next step? The school administrator must have a “reasonable suspicion” based on facts specific to the student or the situation. A “hunch” is not sufficient. Rather, the principal must believe that searching the student will turn up evidence of violating a school rule or law. “Reasonable” is based on what is being searched for and the age of the student.

The Fourth Amendment of the Constitution protects U.S. citizens from unlawful search and seizure of possessions. If there is probable cause for a search, a warrant is required from the court system before a person can be searched. Because of the nature and purpose of school, courts have allowed schools to both search and seize possessions if

there is probable cause.

Personal materials, including lockers, are not supposed to be searched without reasonable suspicion that a student is in violation of the law or a school rule.

In [New Jersey v. T.L.O. \(1985\)](#), the Supreme Court established a standard of reasonableness for student searches conducted at school and by public school personnel. While the Fourth Amendment disallowing unreasonable search and seizure still applies, if school administrators have a reasonable suspicion that a student has either broken the law or violated a school rule, the search is justified. In this case, the student was found smoking in the bathroom, a violation of school rules, and taken to the principal’s office where her purse was searched based on a reasonable assumption that the student had cigarettes in her purse.

Random drug tests have historically been permissible for both teachers and students. In the Supreme Court case [Board of Education of Independent School District No. 92 of Pottawatomie County v. Earls \(2002\)](#), the court held that athletes can be randomly tested for drugs to protect the safety of the school and to ensure a drug-free school. The safety and well-being of the school outweighed the privacy rights of students who were voluntarily participating in the sporting events. The Court concluded that while the students participating in extracurricular activities have limited Fourth Amendment rights, within the school setting there is a lesser expectation of privacy, and the students’ rights must be balanced against the school’s interest in keeping illegal drug use to a minimum (Staros & Williams, 2007).

In 2005, a 13-year old student was called out of class and questioned by police officers with school officials present regarding neighborhood burglaries. His parents were not contacted, nor was he read his Miranda rights, such as the right to remain silent, leave the room, or have access to a lawyer. The child confessed to the crime

but later sought to suppress his confession based on not receiving any indications of his rights while he was in police custody in the school conference room. This case, [J.D.B. v. North Carolina \(2011\)](#), was later heard by the Supreme Court where they ruled that age should have been considered in deciding whether the student was in police custody within the school grounds. The justices went on to state that there are psychological differences between an adult and a child, and when police are involved in questioning students, they must use “common sense” due to the developmental differences of children. The Miranda warnings should have been applied in this case in a manner appropriate for the student prior to his questioning.

Search has also been controversial with the use of video surveillance and metal detectors in schools. Currently, courts have held that if school safety has been threatened, means of surveillance can be introduced into the school, but that extensive surveillance using video or metal detectors can hinder reasonableness of the surveillance and violate Fourth Amendment protections. The intent of school policies and procedures are consistently to provide and maintain “a safe, secure, healthy, and disruption-free learning environment” that is conducive and supportive to teaching and learning (Vacca, 2014, p. 5).

Privacy of Records

In 1974, Congress passed the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA), also called the Buckley Amendment. This was an Amendment to the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965. FERPA is a federal law that protects the privacy of student educational records. FERPA requires schools to allow parents and students access to official school records. It also requires schools to provide procedures for parents to challenge the accuracy or completeness of information in their child’s record. Parents retain the rights of access to their child’s school record until the child reaches the age of eighteen or is enrolled in a postsecondary institution.

The intent of FERPA is to protect student privacy and improve parental access to their child’s information within the school. It does not guarantee access to all school records on a child, such as personal teacher notes, letters of reference, grade books, or correspondence with a principal. These items are exempted from view. There may also be files or information that are kept separate from a student’s file to protect the privacy rights of other students in the school.

FERPA guidelines require schools to:

- Inform parents annually of their rights regarding their child’s records.
- Provide parents access to their child’s records.
- Maintain procedures that allow parents to challenge and if needed, amend inaccurate information.
- Protect parents from disclosure of confidential information to third parties without their consent (Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act, 1974).
- Allow students to opt out of testing

Deeper Dive – FERPA

What is FERPA?

This brief yet comprehensive video will outline what the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act is and how it impacts students both at the K-12 and higher education levels.

Video Link: [What is FERPA? Student Privacy 101](#)

Have more questions about the role of FERPA in educational settings?

- United States Department of Education: [Protecting Student Privacy: Frequently Asked Questions](#)
- United States Department of Education: [Protecting Student Privacy: K-12 School Officials](#)

10.10 Current Implications

Throughout the history of schools in the United States, ethics and the function of laws have evolved as society has changed. To date, current issues continue to be addressed in our nation's public schools and within our court systems. While others exist as well, below are three current issues within education and society as a whole.

Racial Issues

Today, racial concerns remain a key issue for schools and society at large. In [T.B. et al. v. Independent School District 112 \(2019\)](#), African American students filed a complaint against white students in Minnesota. They claimed they had been harassed and the school did not intervene to remove racism, harassment, and discrimination nor did it protect their rights to safe and equal access to education within the school environment. This is required as part of the Equal Protection Clause under the Fourteenth Amendment of the U.S. Constitution and Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. As of this writing, the case remains open in the court of appeals.

Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 states, “No person in the United States shall, on the ground of race, color, or national origin, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance” (Civil Rights Act, 1964).

Racial harassment continues to occur in schools to the present day. As a teacher, you are responsible for enforcing policies and procedures that are appropriate within the classroom to maintain a safe environment for all students. Immediate action is required to respond to bullying and intimidation, such as speaking up and talking with the offending students and reporting the action to your principal when you hear or see questionable behavior or actions within your school. Regular professional development and training can additionally help inform and support teachers. A culture of inclusion and acceptance is required by school leadership that permeates throughout the school and community.

LGBTQ+ Rights and Discrimination

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One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=43#oembed-8>

Video 10.8

Discrimination based on sexual orientation and gender identity are important issues in today's schools. For LGBTQ+ teachers, Title VIII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibits employers from discriminating against individuals because of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin (Civil Rights Act, 1964). For students, Title IX under the Office of Civil Rights of the U.S. Department of Education bans sex discrimination in schools and reads *"No person shall, on the basis of sex, be denied admission, or be subjected to discrimination in admission, by any recipient to which this subpart applies"* (U.S. Department of Education, 2015).

LGBTQ+ teachers and students have legal protections that make discrimination against them illegal under Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and Title IX under the Office of Civil Rights of the U.S. Department of Education.

Students or teachers who believe they have been discriminated against can bring litigation under the Equal Protection Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment. The Equal Protection Clause in Section

1 of the Fourteenth Amendment states:

All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws (U.S. Constitution, Fourteenth Amendment).

In addition, in 1984 Congress passed the Equal Access Act requiring federally-funded secondary schools to uphold students' First Amendment rights to conduct meetings and hold an open forum with equal access to extracurricular student groups or clubs (Equal Access Act, 1984).

In [*Davis v. Monroe County Board of Education* \(1999\)](#), the mother sued the school system on behalf of her fifth-grade daughter for failing to prevent sexual harassment by another student. The Supreme Court upheld that there is an implied right to education under Title IX and found that the school board acted with deliberate indifference, ignoring the mother's complaints of harassment that were serious and systematic.

In [*Nabozny v. Podlesny* \(1996\)](#), the Court of Appeals ruled that public schools and their officials could be held liable for failing to protect homosexual students from antigay harassment and harm. Since signed into law in 2009, schools must follow the Matthew Shepard Hate Crimes Prevention Act (2009). This law expanded the federal hate crime law, to include crimes motivated by the victim's actual or perceived gender, sexual orientation, gender identity or disability.

On the basis of sexual orientation and/or gender identity, students receive protection from bullying by other students, teachers, and school staff and cannot be discriminated against in school by being unfairly denied access to facilities, sports teams, or clubs. Both anti-bullying and school nondiscrimination laws support and protect LGBTQ+ students. In addition, sexual harassment guidelines are provided through the Office for Civil Rights at the U.S. Department of Education (2020b). It is the responsibility of a school to take meaningful steps to support and protect all students.

10.11 Mandatory Reporting



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Video 10.9

Protection from emotional or physical abuse is considered a primary right of children. Mandatory Reporting requires educators to report any signs of child abuse. Children often can't or won't speak up if their parents, caregivers, or third-party individuals are abusing them. They rely on you and others in the community to recognize when something isn't right and to act upon your suspicions in order to help protect them.

Warning signs include:

- Physical signs present on the child
- Behavioral signs or statements made by the child, or
- Behavioral signs or statements made by the parent or caregiver.

Any single concern may or may not mean that abuse is occurring. But observing any of these indicators — especially when more than one is present — should prompt you to think about what might be happening and report your suspicions. Oregon's children are relying on you and others in the community to observe, recognize and report concerns of child abuse.

Read this [guidance document](#) [Links to external site] from the Oregon Department of Human Services: Child Welfare detailing what you can do about child abuse.

Who is required to report? Find out about mandatory reporting requirements by State at [RAINN.org](#) Any “public or private official,” which includes: School employee, including an employee of a higher education institution, healthcare professionals, social workers, etc

Deeper Dive – Reports

When must reports be made? Reports must be made immediately. Reports should be oral and can be made by telephone or other modes of communication.

Have more questions about your role as a mandatory reporter?

- Visit the Oregon Department of Human Services' website [Mandatory Reporting of Child Abuse](#) [Links to external site] for more resources and tools

Activity – Legal Cases

- What cases have you heard in the news recently related to legal and ethical issues in schools?
- Did the decisions align with the ones you read about in this chapter or differ?
- Why do you think the outcomes were what they were?

Conclusion

During this chapter, you have learned about how ethical and legal issues impact education. A professional Code of Ethics influences a teacher's practice by outlining standards that ensure that all teachers demonstrate integrity, impartiality, and ethical behavior to assure that students receive a fair and equitable education. Teachers and students do not give up their constitutional rights when entering into public schools in the United States; however, the courts have declared that there is a difference between teacher and student rights outside of a school and those inside the school. Rights and responsibilities must align to state and federal law, as well as the safety of students, and the mission of the public school. Case law has provided guidance for schools on procedures and regulations as well as the roles and responsibilities of teachers and students. The legal cases highlighted in this chapter are significant to the purpose and goals of public schooling throughout the United States. There continue to be challenges over time, especially as society changes and the United States becomes more diverse and local communities attempt to influence local schooling. A robust legal system is needed to maintain a fair and responsible system of education that supports all students. Understanding ethical and legal issues related to education will help you make informed decisions as an educator in the US public school system.

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11. Becoming a Teacher

“I know that happiness has been the real, if covert, goal of your labors here. I know that it informs your choice of companions, the profession you will enter, but I urge you, please don’t settle for happiness. It’s not good enough. Of course, you deserve it. But if that is all you have in mind—happiness—I want to suggest to you that personal success devoid of meaningfulness, free of a steady commitment to social justice, that’s more than a barren life, it is a trivial one. It’s looking good instead of doing good.”

Toni Morrison (“personal communication”, [Rutgers University in 2011](#))



Image 11.1

Learning Objectives

- Describe different educator pathways
- Examine the importance of staying focused, engaged and informed
- Explore educator well-being and self-care

Before delving into this chapter, watch the following video for some inspiration and reasons why becoming a teacher is the path you want to follow



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=46#oembed-1>

Video 11.1

Starting their career is for most people one of the most exciting and energizing periods of their lives. For most young people, it represents their unofficial entrance into the adult world. They are often in a new environment with new people and challenges, and they have real responsibilities. This is especially true for new teachers.

For many, the transition into full-time teaching is relatively easy and satisfying. For others, however, the first year is a struggle. Some new teachers are shocked and disappointed by their initial experience of being a teacher. For most, however, the first year of teaching is a mixed bag of highs and lows.

Fortunately, People entering the teaching profession in the second decade of the twenty-first century typically will have a rich variety of options and opportunities from which to choose because of so many retirements. So much for the good news.

It is important to note that the first year of teaching can be a rough one for beginners. Each year, many new teachers walk into their classrooms with energy, high hopes, and rose-colored glasses, only to face unexpected problems that cause them to drastically lower their perceptions of their capabilities as teachers.

Surprise is a big part of the first year too. New teachers often report their astonishment at this or that experience or event. The first year is intense because of the unexpected demands and the startling events that lurk in what was thought to be a familiar world: the classroom.

Activity – The Importance of creating connections

What the following video and reflect on the difference between a traditional teacher and unique teacher.

- Why is it important to build connections with your students?
- What kind of teacher would you like to be?

Video 11.2



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=46#oembed-2>

11.1 What Education do I Need?

When moving to a new state, it is important to check in with the state licensing authority to determine what educational qualifications are required of teachers. In Oregon, this would be the **Oregon Teachers Standards and Practices Commission – TSPC**

Every state manages its own credentialing guidelines, which can make the licensure process confusing, especially when moving between states.

Deeper Dive – Licensure

For more about licensure across states: [50-State Comparison: Teacher License Reciprocity](#)

Typically, teacher licensure requires a bachelor's degree at minimum, but educators have been hired with associates degrees in high need rural areas. Due to the critical demands for more professionals to join the teacher workforce, there are more pathways than ever to become a licensed teacher. Tennessee has an apprenticeship program for new teacher candidates, and other states such as Oregon are looking to replicate this model.

Many higher education institutions now offer remote and online programming for students who need to keep working at their jobs (in addition to the traditional model of in-person learning). It is important to consider the local options and scholarships available before considering out-of-state and/or private options because local options have been vetted carefully by the community.

Critical Lens – “There is no such thing as free,”

Buyer beware! “There is no such thing as free,” so be sure to read the fine print and understand what you are getting into. Students sometimes think they are getting a cheaper education but have not considered other costs and consequences such as hidden costs or consequences such as having to find one's own student teaching practicum! Do your research and ask around to district personnel or college/university advising staff! **Choose local for a safe bet:** [“Choose Local”: Oregon EPP Preliminary Licensure Program Inventory \(Responses\)](#)

Many students also pursue graduate studies, and teacher salaries typically correlate with level of education. Increasingly, there are options to pursue graduate studies/degrees while working for districts. This option can make the teacher career pathway much more affordable. Due to the aging workforce, known colloquially as the silver tsunami, many schools have critical hiring needs. As a result, state governments are coming up with new ways to educate teachers and a variety of funding incentives in the forms of grants and scholarships. Take advantage of these opportunities!

Community colleges are a great way to start one's educational path as they offer affordable pathways and

can offer a diverse coursework, as well as a diverse student community (people of all ages, backgrounds, and lived experiences). Students who already work in the schools can apply their rich experiences to their classroom learning. Finding jobs in non-licensed roles (such as that of a paraprofessional) in the schools is one of the best “front-row seats” to view the teaching profession. Most importantly, it helps evolving educators to build the confidence to pursue licensure. Additionally, districts increasingly are finding ways to provide financial support to assist with tuition costs so that paraprofessionals can work towards becoming licensed teachers while working.

Once you have chosen a Bachelor’s program to pursue, you can determine which community college courses your future university will accept. Less important than the degree you choose at the community college is to understand the requirements of the transfer institution. Pick a degree that either fits perfectly with your transfer plan or has enough flexibility to accommodate it. Many transfer schools will accept a certain amount of elective credit which provides some flexibility, but most have a set of classes they expect you to take as foundational course work.

The sooner you choose your transfer university, the sooner you can make good choices about which classes to take at the community college. It is critical to work with an advisor who can support you to navigate the transfer pathways. Elementary educators should focus on a broad range of subjects while middle and high and school educators should focus on the area they hope to teach, in addition to foundational coursework listed below. Typical coursework includes a collection of the following:

- Social science (Psychology, Sociology)
- Humanities (Literature, Art, Music, Language, History)
- Science (Biology, Environmental Science, etc)
- Communication (Speech)
- Math
- Health and Physical Education
- Ethics (philosophy or religion)
- Specific Education coursework
- Ethnic Studies

Increasingly, the lack of representation in the US curriculum of certain groups is well-documented. This leads to a society that struggles to reckon with its past, present, and future in terms of delivering equity and justice to all of its citizens. For this reason, taking course work in **Ethnic Studies** – to better know the rich heritage of a variety of underrepresented groups, their voices, art, literature and histories- is highly recommended. In each of the areas above, there should be options to study Black history or Latino/a/x/e literature, Asian art or women’s contributions to the sciences for example. Educators who take such coursework will be better equipped to re-center the curriculum and work towards a more just society.

11.2 Becoming an Antiracist Educator



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=46#oembed-3>

Video 11.3

Educators have a responsibility to teach curricular material in a way that does not perpetuate, but dismantles the oppressive processes, systems, dynamics, and stereotypes prevalent in US society. While college education typically covers a lot of information, it might not cover anti-racism. In order to be the most effective educator for all the students you reach, regardless of their or your identity, it is imperative that you educate yourself on how to communicate and provide learning opportunities on such topics as racism, sexism, classism and other oppressions. Educators must be able to handle the topics that affect their students, especially the ones that matter to them and affect their lived realities. Educators can not teach in a protected bubble, and must be responsive to the needs of a modern society.

Critical Lens – Learning and Growing

You may already be envisioning with excitement your journey toward becoming a teacher, perhaps by walking across a stage to accept your diploma and later getting the keys to your very own classroom. While this is an important first step in your path toward becoming a professional educator, your journey does not end as soon as you have completed your teaching credential. You will have a lifetime of opportunities to continue learning, growing, and leading in the ever-changing and evolving field of education.

Stay Informed

As we've mentioned in other places in this book, one of the most exciting parts of being a teacher is that you get to be a life-long learner yourself. First of all, you will continue to learn and hone your craft as a teacher through many venues. You may choose to complete additional courses, future advanced degrees (maybe even a doctorate so you can work with preservice teachers as a college professor), or certificates.

Another important way to stay informed is to become a member of professional organizations that support teachers. These organizations are often focused on specific sub-fields, like literacy, math, or science, but some organizations support teachers in general. These organizations often have both state and national (or even international) networks and conferences, which can be an exciting way to keep your learning current while meeting other educators like you. Often students and early-career teachers can join these organizations or attend conferences at a discounted rate—sometimes even for free. Below, you will find a lists with a few of these professional organizations.



Image 11.2 – As a teacher, you will have opportunities to attend conferences around the world as you continue to stay informed.

Professional Organizations for Educators

Name of Organization	International, National, State	Focus of Organization
<u>AERA (American Educational Research Association)</u>	International and regional chapters	All areas of education with special interest groups, such as teacher research
<u>ASCD (formerly the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development)</u>	International; state chapters (and even college chapters) also exist	General K-12 (and sometimes K-16) education
<u>ILA (International Literacy Association)</u>	International and state chapters	A global, literacy-focused professional organization serving K-12 and higher education
<u>NABE (National Association of Bilingual Education)</u>	International, regional, and state chapters	Professional organization devoted to representing bilingual/multilingual students and bilingual and dual language education professionals
<u>NAFME (National Association for Music Education)</u>	National, state, and local chapters	An organization of American music educators dedicated to advancing and preserving music education as part of the core curriculum of schools in the United States
<u>NCSS (National Council for the Social Studies)</u>	International, national, state, and local chapters	A U.S.-based association devoted to supporting social studies education
<u>NCTE (National Council for Teachers of English)</u>	National, state, and local chapters	A United States professional organization dedicated to improving the teaching and learning of English and the language arts at all levels of education
<u>NCTM (National Council of Teachers of Mathematics)</u>	International, national, and regional chapters	The world's largest mathematics education organization
<u>NSTA (National Science Teaching Association)</u>	National, state, and local chapters	An association of science teachers in the United States and is the largest organization of science teachers worldwide
<u>TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages)</u>	International, national, and state chapters	The largest professional organization for teachers of English as a second or foreign language

Activity

Choose one of these professional organizations and visit their website.

Do they have a chapter in your state or even at your college or university? Where is the chapter most local to you?

In addition to these formal venues, you can stay informed through keeping up with high-quality websites, podcasts, and other online resources. A high-quality online resource is often vetted by an editor or a content expert. While sites like TeachersPayTeachers and Pinterest can have some ideas for inspiration, these sites are not moderated and therefore are not guaranteed to have high-quality, accurate content and resources. Below are some websites and podcasts that you might find useful.

Websites:

- [Edutopia](#)
- [Learning for Justice](#)
- [Cult of Pedagogy Blog](#)
- [ReadWriteThink](#)
- [EdShelf](#)
- [Discovery Education](#)
- [OER Commons](#)
- [Dave's ESL Cafe](#)

Podcasts:

- [The Cult of Pedagogy Podcast](#)
- [TED Talks Education](#)
- [Teachers in America](#)
- [Shaping the Future](#)
- [Sunday Night Teacher Talk](#)
- [TeachLab with Justin Reich](#)
- [Science of Reading the Podcast | Amplify](#)
- <https://multilingualliteracy.org/podcast/>
- [Teaching Keating with Weston & Molly Kieschnick](#)

Activity

Choose one resource from the websites and podcasts listed to explore.

What kinds of resources does it house? How could you see this resource helping you stay informed?

One final way for you to stay informed as a future teacher is to keep up with current events, policy, legislation, and other visible ways education is in the news. While sometimes it can feel overwhelming to maintain your day-to-day responsibilities as a teacher while also keeping an eye on outside events, this awareness of current events is vital for your ongoing advocacy for your students, your colleagues, and yourself. Here are a few online resources that are completely devoted to covering headlines related to education.

- [Chalkbeat](#)
- [EducationDive](#) (divided into [K-12 Dive](#) and [HigherEd Dive](#))
- [The Atlantic: Education](#)
- [EducationWeek](#)

Pause and Ponder – News

What was the last time you saw or heard about education in the news? Was the story positive or negative? What was the goal of this coverage? Whose story was told and whose story was not?

The institution of education is constantly evolving, and often outside forces have long tried to shape the trajectory of it. Education was—and is interrelated with other institutions in the United States, such as the economy, politics, and religion. For example, just in the first few years of the 2020s, headlines about education addressed the pandemic, issues of equity with online learning, the claim that Critical Race Theory (CRT) is being taught in K-12 schools, and additional topics that were of timely consideration due to other social, economic, and political factors.

Popular media and politicians have used the strategy of conflating accurate United States history which includes colonization, enslavement, and ongoing systemic oppression— with CRT. CRT is, in short, a complex theory designed for legal analysis (watch the video below for more explanation).

Listening closely to these news stories can also highlight misunderstandings people have about how education works in the United States. You know from your journey through this text that the US Department of Education (US DoE) has no jurisdiction over curriculum; educational decisions are left to individual states. Nevertheless, critics of CRT have accused the US DoE of endorsing CRT when the federal government simply plays no such role in mandating curriculum.

Critical Lens – Critical Race Theory in Education

In 2021, Critical Race Theory became an often-covered headline related to education. In [this piece](#)^[2], Deborah Plummer explains what Critical Race Theory is and why it is controversial. In [this interview with NPR](#)^[3], Gloria Ladson-Billings, one of the first people to apply Critical Race Theory to the field of education, explains some of the recent bills to block the teaching of Critical Race Theory.

You can also watch the following video with Ibram X. Kendi talking about Critical Race Theory:



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=46#oembed-4>

Video 11.4

After you have explored those three resources, consider the following:

- How did the information in these pieces compare with what you were hearing on the news?
- What new understandings and questions do you have?

Furthermore, part of staying informed involves seeking news from multiple sources instead of accepting as truth what you hear from one source. Make sure that you are seeking input from well-studied experts in the field. When reading the news about education with a critical lens, here are a few questions to consider:

- What is the headline/story about?
- Why is this a significant event to cover?
- Who seems to be driving the narrative in the piece?
- Whose voices seem to be excluded?
- What emotional response from the listener/viewer/reader does the piece seem intended to evoke, and why? For whose benefit?
- What stances from actual stakeholders in education—teachers, families, students, administrators, or others—are centered or de-centered?

When you listen with a critical lens to stories about education in the news, you may notice an absence of teachers' voices. This is an important observation. What might we be missing when we are not hearing from the teachers themselves? This can lead to the de-professionalization of teachers.

De-professionalization is a common problem in education. When education is micromanaged—when teachers are told what to teach and given scripted, “teacher-proof” curriculum to teach from—and when teachers are undervalued—expected to do extensive work for low wages – de-professionalization occurs. As you learned in Chapter 2, education’s long history in the United States as a female-dominated field directly correlates to de-professionalization, especially when women teachers were paid less and encouraged to think of their work as a “calling” instead of a profession.

As you've read so far, staying informed is part of your ongoing journey toward becoming a teacher, and you should continue to stay informed even after you earn your teaching license. Next, we'll consider ways to stay engaged.

Stay Engaged

The best way to learn to be a teacher is to get experience actually working with students, so consider various ways to stay engaged with young people. One way to stay engaged is to seek out opportunities to volunteer in local classrooms. Teachers can always use help with creating classroom materials, working one-on-one with students, and other classroom tasks. You also may be able to apply to be a substitute teacher in your local school district, even before you finish earning your teaching credential. While this can be a powerful way to develop your future teaching skills, you should also be aware that being a substitute teacher is not the same as being a full-time classroom teacher.



Image 11.3 – Tutoring is one way to stay engaged with young people and build your future teaching skills.

Another way to stay engaged is through opportunities in your local community. You may be able to help with an after-school tutoring program or homework club. If your community has a high number of refugees, there may be special programming available to support this portion of the population. You could also be involved with designing and implementing curriculum for local summer camps or children's museums. Wherever your passions lie, there are likely to be many opportunities to stay engaged with young people that will strengthen your skills as a future teacher.

However you choose to stay engaged, be sure you are aware of any policies various organizations may have about volunteers and visitors. Many public schools require background checks for volunteers who will be in schools regularly (such as when you are completing a practicum experience); others may simply ask you to check in at the front office when you arrive and let them know when you leave. As a volunteer, you should also never be alone with a student. These rules and expectations are in place to keep students safe, so it is important that you are following them at all times.

One final consideration as you stay engaged is to make it a priority to stretch yourself outside of your comfort zone. While it may be extremely tempting to go back to the summer camp you loved as a child as a counselor now, that experience is one you are already familiar with. Go beyond your local community and past experiences to expose yourself to different places, people, and ways of thinking. Your future classroom will be full of diverse learners, and stretching your horizons now will only make you a more effective teacher.

Activity – Your own experience as a student

- Think about your own experience as a student.
- When you had a substitute teacher, how did you respond?
- How did the sub respond?
- Why do you think substitute teaching isn't the same as being a full-time classroom teacher?

Stay Focused

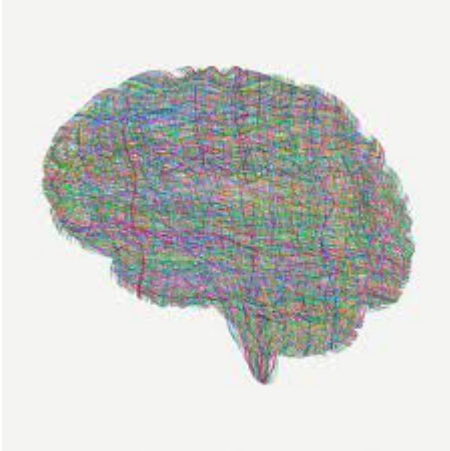


Image 11.4

Finally, the path forward will require you to stay focused. Teaching is an exciting profession. No day is exactly the same: you will have different learners with different experiences, strengths, and needs, and this community will shape the outcome of every day in your future classroom. With this excitement comes other emotions too. In your determination to become the best possible teacher, you will also find some self-doubt. Remember that it can take three to five years to feel like you have mastery of your craft as a teacher, so it is quite common to feel like you don't have all the tools in your teacher toolbox when you are an early-career teacher. As we mentioned above, staying informed is one of the best parts of being a teacher: even veteran teachers can keep learning and adding to their teacher toolboxes.

Another emotion you might feel is exhaustion. You know from your own experience as a student, from your readings in this book, and from your interactions with friends and family members who are educators that teaching is hard work. You work long hours with few breaks, and then beyond the instructional day there are emails, family conferences, faculty meetings, and other special events. You find yourself in the grocery store aisle worrying about one of your students and if they will have food to eat that night, or if what you said to one student when you were frustrated came across much harsher than you meant it to. You'll find yourself watching TV or talking to friends when new ideas for lessons come to mind, or when you realize you have something else you need to add to your never-ending to-do list.

For the sake of yourself and your students, here is one of the most important pieces of advice we can offer you: **taking care of yourself is critical!** You have worked hard for the privilege of guiding your future students' learning and growth. You also need to stay focused on your own well-being. Speak up when you are feeling overwhelmed, and carve out as much time for yourself as possible. Keep practicing hobbies that bring you joy, and find new ones. If you do not have a mentor or community of support, find one or several. After all, if you aren't taking care of yourself, it's hard to be the best possible teacher for your students. This can not be overstated so please read this twice and take it to heart!

Pause and Ponder – Taking Care of Ourselves

Watch the following video to see how Kenneth Robinson, a school teacher, takes care of himself:



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://openoregon.pressbooks.pub/foundationsofeducation/?p=46#oembed-5>

Video 11.5

Reflect:

- What are some activities that bring you peace and joy now?
- How could you see yourself continuing these when you are a teacher, or what new activities might you want to try?
- What network of resources or people do you have for when you do need help getting through a tough time?
- If you hold a marginalized identity, a mentor or support system that shares that identity can offer you useful support and advice.



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Video 11.6

Conclusion

While your journey through the foundations of US education has come to a close in this book, your journey toward becoming an effective, life-changing teacher is just beginning. In the years to come, you will continue to develop your craft by staying informed, engaged, and focused. You will have opportunities to see how the field of education is changing and will continue to change in the future. You will even have opportunities to be a part of efforts to drive change. Knowing the history and understanding how deeply connected US education is to the political, social, economic, and legal realms will better equip you to analyze current trends and anticipate new ones. After all, education can be like a pendulum: certain beliefs and practices tend to fall in and out of favor every few decades.

You will have opportunities to work with colleagues and other stakeholders to make education a better place for teachers, students, families, and communities. As you go forth into the field of education, we challenge you to maintain a critical lens as you continually question how to make US education the most inclusive, effective, and successful for all of our learners and their communities.

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