This paper discusses the need to rethink preservice and inservice training programs for general and special educators who teach culturally diverse students with learning disabilities. An overview identifies problems associated with traditional preservice and inservice training programs, such as Eurocentric teacher education programs and low teacher expectations of minority students. The following model teacher development programs are reviewed: "Bilingual/ESOL Special Education INFUSION," "Bilingual Special Education Interagency Collaboration Project," "Multisystem: Systematic Instructional Planning for Exceptional Bilingual Students," "Culture; Differences? Diversity! Inservice Program," "Project Partnership," and "Training in America's Multicultural Schools (Project TEAMS)." Barriers to systemic programmatic infusion of these successful programs are identified, including a lack of involvement by minority faculty and staff and implications of the transfer of funding authority to state and local authorities. A discussion of multicultural competencies for regular and special educators presents case studies to illustrate how traditional inservice training, labeling, misidentification procedures, low teacher expectations, and teacher-student interactions affect the outcomes for culturally diverse and at-risk students with learning disabilities. Proactive nontraditional strategies are proposed, involving new ways of thinking; curricular changes; modification and infusion of courses; testing, placement, and instructional expectations; and recruitment and retention of minority students, faculty, and staff at colleges and universities. (Contains 100 references.) (DB)
Rethinking Preservice and Inservice Training Programs for Teachers in the Learning Disabilities Field: Workable Multicultural Models

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Abstract

This article presents a discussion of the need to rethink preservice and inservice training programs for general and special educators who teach culturally diverse and students with learning disabilities. An overview of problems associated with traditional preservice and inservice training programs is presented. Model teacher development programs are highlighted and barriers to infusing these innovative programs in colleges and universities are discussed. For general and special educators to be effective, special education and multicultural competencies are important -- case studies are used to illustrate how traditional inservice training, labeling, misidentification procedures, low teacher expectations, and teacher-student interactions adversely affect the self-concept and achievement outcomes of culturally diverse and at-risk students with learning disabilities. The challenge of translating research into practice and infusing multicultural models into special education programs is addressed. It is recommended that proactive nontraditional strategies be used to respond to (a) new ways of thinking, (b) curricular changes, (c) modification and infusion of courses, (d) testing, placement, and instructional expectations, and (e) recruitment and retention of minority students, faculty, and staff at colleges and universities.
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Immigration patterns and the geographic distribution of families in the U.S. are rapidly changing from a monocultural society to a pluralistic and diverse one. National estimates of growth in the total school-age population is projected to grow by more than 20%, from 34 million to 42 million in 2010, and it is estimated that children of immigrants will account for more than half of this growth (Fix & Passel, 1994; Rumbaut, 1994). In the same dimension, the population of African-American youth under the age of 18 is expected to rise from 9.6 million in 1988 to 10.5 million in 2020, an increase of 9% (Natriello, McDill, & Pallas, 1990). By comparison, projected statistics for the number of school-aged Anglo-American children are expected to decline by approximately 27% during this latter period of time. Logically, these statistics present indicators that support the transformation of the American youth population and the diversification of the school-aged population.

The emerging demographics of the U.S. and the demography of special education as a discipline, particularly in the field of learning disabilities can no longer be perceived as unrelated to each other. Since the passage of the 1990 Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) distinguishing a child with a true learning disability from underachievers or students with learning problems is one of the major challenges facing educators today (Adelman & Taylor, 1993; Algozzine, Ysseldyke, & McGee, 1995). The category of learning disabilities makes up the single largest category of students served in special education, and it has emerged as a major
explanation for students formerly classified as mentally retarded or emotionally disturbed and those students who are at-risk and/or underachievers in school (Adelman & Taylor, 1993; Henley, Ramsey, & Algozzine, 1993). A few years ago, Coles (1989) indicated that the learning disabilities classification of students from culturally diverse and low-socioeconomic backgrounds has been used defensively against the criticisms of and challenges to special education diagnoses, particularly in the category of mental retardation. Furthermore, when students are identified as at risk of academic failure or identified as low achievers, school systems have responded by labeling them as learning disabled and placing them in restrictive special education settings (Algozzine & Ysseldyke, 1983; Algozzine, Ysseldyke, & McGue, 1995; Obiakor, Algozzine, & Ford, 1994; Ysseldyke, Algozzine, Shinn, & McGue, 1982). Slavin, Karweit, and Madden (1989) noted that this "increase (in learning disabled students) represents the entry into the special education system of low achievers who would not have been served in special education in the past" (p.15). In describing the characteristics of students in urban school districts, Gottlieb, Alter, Gottlieb, and Wishner (1994) wrote:

Children in special education are poor, with more than 90% being on some form of public assistance. About 70% are male, and 95% are members from a minority group. The 95% figure is best interpreted in relation to the fact that 93% of the entire school population in the 165 schools is minority...students in special education come from families where both the mother and father are seldom present...information obtained from a compilation of computerized records generated at the school building when a child enters school, only 10% to 25% of children in special education live at home with both parents; the majority of students live with their mother only. About 5% are cared for by older siblings...Approximately 85% had attended at least one other school prior to being referred to special education...Finally children with LD are an immigrant population, with 19% being foreign born and 44% coming from households where English is not the primary language spoken by the parents.... (p. 457)
A recurring issue in the field of special education is the overrepresentation of culturally diverse and at-risk students in the category of learning disabilities (Bartoli, 1989; Harry, 1994; Utley, 1995). For example, between the years of 1978 and 1984, the percentage of African American students identified as educable mentally retarded (EMR) dropped from 3.4 percent to 3.1 percent, while the percentage identified as learning disabled rose from 2.2 percent to 4.5 percent (Stern, 1987). During this same period, 74 percent of culturally diverse students in special education were in programs for the learning disabled (44%) or the speech/language impaired (30%) (U.S. GAO, 1981). In earlier work, Ortiz and Yates (1983) reported that the representation of Hispanics in speech and language therapy was far below national estimates of prevalence (2.4% as opposed to 3.2%) but that there was a serious overrepresentation of Hispanic students in programs for students with learning disabilities.

Since the majority of general and special educators appear to be Anglo-American, monolingual speakers of English, the composition of the teaching or professional force does not quite reflect the changing ethnic and language composition of children to be served (Ewing, 1995; Obiakor, 1993; Obiakor & Schwenn, 1995a; Yates, 1983; Zeichner, 1993). According to the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) (1994), the number of minorities enrolled in teacher education programs is small when compared to the number of minority group children in public schools. It noted that “approximately 85 percent of teacher education students are White, 7 percent are Black/African American, and 4 percent are Hispanic, 1 percent are International/non-Resident, 0.5 are Native American/American Indian, and Pacific Islander and Alaskan Native represent less than 1 percent of enrollments” (p. 5). Undergraduate
programs of special education, the percentage of enrollment for Anglo-American students is 87.8, for Black/African American students is 6.6, for Hispanic students is 3.1, for Asian American students is .5, and for Native American/American Indian students is .5 (AACTE, 1994).

Based on the above data, cultural diversity in the student population has increased and the diversity of the teaching or professional force in general and special education has decreased substantially (Ewing, 1995; Trent, 1995). Moreover, the existing disparity between the predominately monocultural cadre of special educators and the disproportionate representation of culturally diverse students in the category of learning disabilities cannot be overlooked. A few years ago, Garcia (1992) explained that “without adequate understanding of the influence of culture and language on academic performance, teachers will continue to have difficulty distinguishing between learning problems that reflect characteristics of second language learners or cultural differences and those which are the result of a disability” (p. 1). Furthermore, Ford (1992) reiterated that many special educators have not given priority to acknowledging “individual differences relating to cultural backgrounds and attitudes, worldviews, values and beliefs, interests, culturally conditioned learning styles, personality, verbal and nonverbal language patterns and behavioral and response mechanisms” (p. 108). As a consequence, a lack of valuing of cultural differences in student achievement and behaviors has resulted in (a) the ethnocentric presumption of biological determinism and racial superiority (Gould, 1981; Hilliard, 1995), (b) low expectations toward culturally diverse students with learning disabilities (Obiakor & Schwenn, 1995b), and (c) the use of poor instructional techniques and behavior management procedures (Ford, Obiakor & Patton, 1995; Obiakor & Algozzine, 1995).
In this article, we (a) discuss problems associated with traditional preservice and inservice training programs, (b) outline competencies for general and special educators, and (c) suggest innovative strategies for translating research into practice.

Preservice and Inservice Training Programs: Half-Baked Cakes

During the 1960s, commission reports, such as *A Nation at Risk* and *An Imperiled Generation: Saving Urban Schools*, and research-based books (e.g., Goodlad’s (1984) *A Place Called School* and Kozol’s (1991) *Savage Inequalities*) focused the nation’s attention on the failure of U.S. schools to improve the status of education for minority youths and children from low-socioeconomic backgrounds. These reports and books singled out teacher education, noting the degree to which these programs (a) perpetuated theories that support the assumption that poor education is caused primarily by cultural, family, or biological circumstances, and (b) supported retrogressive school practices (e.g., tracking) and program options (e.g., Chapter 1, remedial tracks, and special education) that have maintained separate and unequal education opportunities for culturally diverse and at-risk students. There is evidence that the situation has not changed since the 1980s with preservice and inservice training programs identified as critical factors in the poor quality of education provided to students who come from diverse races, cultures, and language groups (Ewing, 1995; Obiakor, 1993, 1994; Ladson-Billings, 1990; Trent, 1995).

Ewing (1995) pointed out:

Traditional teacher education programs have failed to produce the quality of educators required to improve school outcomes for African American students. Traditional teacher education programs continue to prepare ethnocentric teachers and administrators who serve as major barriers to improving school outcomes for African American students. It is a major responsibility of schools,
colleges, and departments of education to ensure that knowledge and information applicable to culturally based learning and behavioral styles, teaching styles, culturally sensitive proactive educational practices, and family and community values be incorporated in teacher education programs. (p. 191)

There is a plethora of evidence to support Ewing's (1995) assertion. Related issues of low teacher expectations from the Eurocentric curriculum and high dropout rates have continued to haunt teacher education programs. Undergraduate and graduate students in preservice programs generally have little knowledge or experience about different ethnic groups in the U.S. and often have negative attitudes about cultural groups other than their own (Ford & Obiakor, 1995; Ford, Obiakor, & Patton, 1995). There has been little systemic focus on characteristics of different cultural groups in terms of their unique strengths and characteristics. Most special education programs have consistently prepared student teachers in terms of normative frames of reference based on dominant Eurocentric values (Ewing, 1995; Trent, 1995). Implicitly or explicitly, teachers have regarded individuals from culturally diverse backgrounds as deficient. This kind of archaic thinking has far-reaching implications for preparing student teachers for non-biased identification, referral, assessment, placement, and instructional procedures (Algozzine & Obiakor, 1995; Hilliard, 1995; Obiakor & Algozzine, 1995; Obiakor & Schwenn, 1995b). According to Algozzine and Obiakor (1995):

It is common knowledge that teachers teach, and sometimes evaluate, based on their perceptions, personal idiosyncracies, and values. A logical extension is that teachers from the dominant society will find it difficult to comprehend the value system of their African-American students. Any misperception of African-American students might lead to a miscategorization and misplacement and controlling entrance to teaching or special education by test that may discriminate against African-Americans creates major problems. (p. 78)
For general and special education preservice and inservice special education programs to remedy dominant band-aid practices, significant changes must occur in their course contents and student teaching practica. These programs must revamp their philosophy, mission, and purpose to be more culturally responsive to teachers and students. In preparing a resource manual for assisting special education faculty to determine the extent multicultural concepts and issues have integrated into courses and field experiences, Rodriguez (1982) suggested the following questions:

- Is the disproportionate number of culturally different children in special education pointed out, and are the political, social, educational and cultural implications discussed?
- Is attention given to the special factors (language, self-concept, social class, and stereotyping) that affect the culturally different child?
- Are teacher trainees helped to see how the cultural diversity of their students may affect the classroom atmosphere and their approach to teaching? On the other hand, what approach is used in an homogeneous classroom?
- Have teacher trainers been aided (through inservice sessions, workshops, or conferences) in examining their own attitudes, assumptions, and stereotypes about various ethnic groups?
- Are teacher trainers encouraged to examine their own values and expectations and to see how these may contribute to, or detract from, communicating with and understanding culturally different children?
- Is there any investigation into the ways in which different cultural groups view and react to “handicaps”?
- Is the culturally different child in special education handled as a separate topic, or are the needs and special problems of the “handicapped” culturally different child integrated into all content areas of the curriculum?
- Is the discussion of the culturally different child in special education included early in the course outline to enable the teacher trainees to relate what they have learned about culturally diverse children to all topics covered in the course?
- Is there any attempt to break down stereotypes about different ethnic groups and replace them with broader knowledge about different groups and more accurate information about social problems? This attempt could be specifically related to special education problems?
- Are special techniques used to help teachers gain a deeper insight into the added emotional problems the culturally different child may face?
- Are field experiences provided for students in a multicultural setting? (pp. 222-224)
In addition to examining the degree of exposure to multicultural issues into one’s teaching, Rodriguez (1982) recommended that special educators look at the levels of multicultural understanding through which teacher trainees must move to gain competence in the (a) awareness--consciousness level, (b) knowledge--content level, and (c) skill--implementation level.

Over the years, the preparation of the quality of special education administrators and teachers trained to work with culturally diverse students with learning disabilities has attracted much attention. The first study, conducted by Baca (1984), classified training programs into three categories: (a) those that used traditional training programs to recruit bilingual minority students who had bilingual language skills, but limited training in bilingual education, (b) those in which bilingual special education components were infused into existing programs, and (c) those programs which included special education coursework and a bilingual special education practicum. The second study by Medina (1986) showed that there was a shortage of preservice training programs in bilingual special education. Thirty-eight institutions responded to a survey, indicating that 218 teachers between 1980 and 1986 graduated from bilingual special education programs. In the third study, De Leon and Gonzales (1991) surveyed colleges and found 21 programs offering training in bilingual special education and related areas such as bilingual speech pathology and bilingual school psychology. Of specific concern was the lack of training programs in some exceptionalities, such as giftedness, communication disorders, and learning disabilities. The largest group of trainees was made up of Hispanics and the majority of training occurred at the master’s level. DeLeon and Gonzales concluded that bilingual special education
training programs were not being developed at an appropriate rate to meet the needs of culturally diverse students with exceptionalities. Because the outcomes of schooling for culturally diverse students who receive special education services are disappointing, traditional preservice and inservice programs are being challenged with comprehensive staff development programs at the school building level (Preston, Greenwood, Hughes, Yuen, Thibadeau, Critchlow, & Harris, 1984; Ysseldyke, Algozzine, & Thurlow, 1992).

Ford (1992) examined the perceptions of special education administrators about implementing district-wide inservice training that focused directly on issues relevant to African-American youth and their families. Special education administrators were asked to identify school-related problems experienced by African American exceptional students and parents within their districts. The responses by administrators were categorized into three areas. The first category of responses centered on academics, the lack of basic skills, or dropping out of school. The second category of responses included a host of factors related to family/student differences, some of which included (a) the pervasive sense of family powerlessness; (b) pregnancy; (c) the lack of family structure; (d) the mobility and transfer from school to school; (e) the differences between students' life experiences in the home and community and school expectations; and (e) the acceptance of students' disabilities and recognition of their strengths.

The third category of responses was related to problems within the school and included (a) racial prejudice; (b) the lack of systemic plans for educating and managing the behavior of students; (c) greater than normal referral of students to special education; (d) difficulty of adjusting mainstream curriculum and methods to meet needs of students; and (e) cultural biases in tests used to make placement decisions. To address these concerns, Ford (1992) recommended the
implementation of a comprehensive inservice training program that involves self-evaluation of attitudes towards cultural diversity, understanding differences, appreciating diversity, valuing diversity, and commitment to the maintenance of diversity.

It is, therefore, vital that preservice and inservice programs for prospective teachers lead to good professional practices. These programs must encourage prospective general and special education teachers to construct the awareness, knowledge base, and skills needed to be effective practitioners. In addition, they must encourage, discuss, present new ideas and theories that will develop competencies from multicultural perspectives.

**Model Teacher Development Programs: Efforts and Barriers**

A variety of teacher development programs have evolved to address the preservice and inservice training needs of general and special educators. This subsection highlights programs developed and implemented to address the needs of culturally diverse students with disabilities.

**Bilingual/ESOL Special Education INFUSION**

To meet the needs of culturally and linguistically diverse students with disabilities, Fradd, Weisman, Correa, & Algozzine, (1988, 1990) managed a teacher preparation program entitled, "Bilingual/ESOL Special Education INFUSION. The project's objectives were to (a) recruit personnel who were interested in expanding their knowledge and competencies through academic year programs and summer institutes; (b) infuse bilingual, multicultural content into the core graduate level core curriculum; (c) develop a network of personnel within the national, state, and local agencies; and (d) develop a personnel preparation model that can be replicated in other institutions. The infusion process is illustrated in Figure 1.
On the left side of the inverted pyramid, courses, special projects, summer institutes, and fellowships were the ways in which students were exposed to bilingual special education content. On the right side of the pyramid, the Graduate Program in Special Education with an emphasis on Bilingual/ESOL Education is outlined. This figure depicts the INFUSION process as a viable model that can be replicated at other teacher preparation programs.

**Bilingual Special Education Interagency Collaboration Project**

The Bilingual Special Education Interagency Collaboration Project was designed to promote interdisciplinary and interagency collaborations that are needed to facilitate (a) the dissemination of current research and best practices, and (b) the dialogue among institutions of higher education, intermediate education agencies, and state and local education agencies (Garcia, 1992). This project is based on the “training-of-trainers” model, which consists of teams specializing in the disciplines of special education, general education, bilingual education, related programs and services, and administration. Training is provided to all of the team members on all topics of the program over a three day period. The specific objectives and content materials offered to participants in the project are presented in Table 1.

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Insert Table 1

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The effectiveness of the project’s training is measured through evaluations of participants’ entry and exit levels knowledge on the training topics. Dissemination, replication, and systematic long-term follow-up activities of the training project to other professionals (e.g., teachers, diagnosticians, special education directors, principals, migrant education staff, curriculum and instruction specialists, psychological services personnel, and university students) are important components for improving and maintaining services to culturally diverse students in special education.

**Multisystem: Systematic Instructional Planning for Exceptional Bilingual Students**

This innovative training program was developed to assist general and special educators in improving the delivery of services to culturally and linguistically diverse students with exceptional needs (Cloud, Landurand, & Wu, 1989). The underlying philosophy of Multisystem was that service providers must address multiple systems (e.g., the child through on-going classroom-based assessment and appropriate programming; the home through positive interaction with and involvement of the family; and, the school through active coordination of services across service providers), for effective and meaningful programs to be offered to students.

The Multisystem training program introduced basic concepts and theories and real case studies related to Hispanic students with mild disabilities. It was also field-tested both within and outside of New York state in urban and suburban school districts. This program included video-based training segments, role playing and simulations, and use of cooperative group work. The training program consisted of four modules: (a) specialized informal assessment, (b)
c Culturally and linguistically appropriate programming, (c) language minority parent involvement strategies, and (d) provision of school-based support/consulting.

**Culture: Differences? Diversity! Inservice Program**

This program was a resource manual that has been developed to “make a difference” in the educational services for culturally and linguistically diverse students with and without disabilities (Lockwood, Ford, Sparks, & Allen, 1991). Funded by the Ohio Department of Education, Division of Special Education and supported by the Ohio Federation of the Council for Exceptional Children, this program was designed to help educators understand the relationship between culture and learning and acquire competencies to enhance the learning environment for culturally and linguistically diverse students. Within each of the components, the objectives are to (a) look at the roles individuals play when change becomes a consideration within an environment; (b) examine individual interpersonal skills and determining individual needs; (c) discover individual needs of self-awareness through self-disclosing experiences; and (d) understand the relationship between change, self-disclosure, and interpersonal skills development, and self-disclosure relative to cultural differences. The five components of the program are (a) awareness, (b) understanding differences, (c) appreciating diversity, (d) valuing, and (e) commitment (barriers/effective education). And, each component is divided into (a) self-awareness, and (b) beyond self--other cultures.

**Project Partnership**

Schwenn and Long (1993) received a grant from the Kansas Department of Education to incorporate inclusion and diversity competencies into general and special teacher preparation programs. This project was aimed at preparing teachers for developing inclusive techniques that
respect the diverse exceptionality that learners bring to school programs. By attempting to address inclusion, students' learning styles, cultures, languages, and exceptionalities are addressed. This project also had an inservice component whereby practitioners gave their perspectives. The inclusion specialist for the district coordinated the partnership between the district and the university. A similar project by Smith (1995) is currently funded by the Kansas Department of Education. The project's title is "Project Partnership: Developing Skills and Competencies for School Administrators." Smith's project highlights the need for secondary school administrators to develop competencies needed for addressing inclusion and diversity issues in public schools. Collaborative interactions between teacher education programs, school administrators, and regular and special education teachers have proven beneficial in working with culturally diverse at-risk students, especially those with learning problems.

Training in America's Multicultural Schools (Project TEAMS)

This special project is based on the fundamental belief that instructional programs for multicultural students with and without mild disabilities are effective only to the degree that regular and special educators are knowledgeable about cultural and linguistic variables and the extent to which these variables contribute to the cognitive development, academic outcomes, and social skills of multicultural students with and without mild disabilities (Utley & Delquadri, 1995). This training program provides research-proven culturally responsive instructional strategies (Banks & Banks, 1993), multicultural/bilingual special education (Baca & Cervantes, 1989), opportunity to learn and instructional effectiveness (Arreagea-Mayer & Greenwood, 1986). This program provides training in the use of three research-proven peer-mediated strategies in the classroom: classwide peer tutoring (Delquadri, Whorton, Carta, & Hall, 1986).
cooperative Learning (Kagan, 1993), and social skills for cooperative groups (Vernon, Schumaker, & Deshler, 1993). In this program, each peer-mediated strategy covers theory, background research, learning principles, multicultural issues, and provides training in the use of specific skills. General and special educators have opportunities to (a) increase their knowledge base, (b) work collaboratively with each other, and (c) implement effective instructional programs that have a direct impact on school-based outcome measures and the quality of services provided for multicultural students with and without disabilities.

**Barriers to Systemic Programmatic Infusion.** It is reasonable to commend (and rightly so) colleges and universities that have allowed these programs to flourish on their respective campuses. One can conclude that these institutions are knowledgeable about crises facing teacher preparation programs. However, "knowledge" alone is not enough. Efforts should be made to apply, analyze, synthesize, and evaluate the concreteness of preservice and inservice training programs. In other words, two critical questions remain unanswered. How many minority faculty and staff are involved in these respective programs? How many multiculturally focused teacher development programs are internally funded as major aspects of the total program? To address the first question, Harvey and Scott-Jones (1995) wrote:

> Although institutions pay lip service to affirmative action, and individual instances of successful Black faculty members exist, Blacks remain severely underrepresented on predominantly White college and university faculties. Even as the number of Ph.D.’s awarded to Blacks has increased, many searches for new faculty still conclude with a thoroughly remorseful committee chair explaining that the position is not being offered to a Black person because, ‘We couldn’t find any’... (p. 68)

Consider this example. In a major southern university, some concerned professors succeeded in getting funds from the state to educate minority males going into elementary schools. Major
goals of this program included recruitment, retention, graduation and placement of minority students through a well-targeted mentoring system. Ironically, the only African-American male professor in this program who was also the only African-American male professor in the university’s School of Education was discontinued by the Provost in spite of the support of the Department Head and Dean. Two major reasons were given for his discontinuation. First, it was alleged that he could not get along with some of his colleagues (a traditional statement against minorities) even though it was a “2-2” vote by his promotion and tenure committee. Second, it was alleged that his teaching evaluations were not at par with evaluations of colleagues. The question then is, “Why should traditional methods of evaluation be used to judge minority faculty even though it is clear that the majority of Anglo-American students have never had continuous positive academic and social encounters with minority faculty or staff?”

Unfortunately, the majority of Anglo-American students, faculty, and staff negatively presume that their minority counterparts are employed because of imposed affirmative action quotas. It is no wonder that Anglo-American students, faculty, and staff are judged on the basis of productivity (a measurable variable) while their minority counterparts are judged on the basis of likeness (a non-measurable variable). A consistent missing ingredient in this equation is the failure to recognize that the retention and tenure of minority faculty and staff cannot be divorced from the recruitment, retention, graduation, and placement of minority students. As a result, the traditional promotion/tenure system must be changed without destroying the cultural beauties of America’s higher education. Boyer (1994) agreed that “higher education and the larger purposes of American society have been from the very first inextricably intertwined” (p. A48). He added:
I'm concerned that in recent years, higher education's historic commitment to service seems to be diminished. I'm troubled that many now view the campus as a place where professors get tenured and students get credentialed; the overall efforts of the academy are not considered to be vital centers of the nation's work. And what I find most disturbing is the growing feeling in this country that higher education is a private benefit, not a public good...(p. A48)

To address the second question, the coming to power of the 104th Congress, indicates that funding will be master-minded by state and local authorities. While this transfer of power is regarded as a worthwhile idea by some, its impact will have far-reaching implications for programs that address the needs of culturally diverse students with learning disabilities. The critical question is, When this impact is felt, will teacher preparation programs discontinue the funded programs or will they look for monies from other sectors to solidify programmatic existence? It is important that teacher preparation programs respond to present challenges of funding. As Schwenn (1995), pointed out “who controls the purse strings controls the programs” (p. 83).

The “rat race” for educational reforms is not the answer. The answer lies within the realistic intent of preservice and inservice programs to (a) practice what they preach, and (b) attack inequities through practical implementation of change policies. Challenges that face the public schools today reflect challenges that face teacher preparation programs. These challenges will continue as long as these programs are not challenged to respond to the needs of all members of society (Wisniewski, 1995). Traditional strategies have failed to infuse cultural diversity into preservice and inservice training programs. Most minority students are nontraditional students; and it is unethical to use traditional strategies to work with nontraditional students. Additionally, it is counterproductive to teach students that most tests have questionable
reliability and validity while requiring them year after year to take the same test for entry into or exit out of teaching programs. It is a blatant deception to indicate that students are prepared for the “real world,” while the faculty and staff, and students do not reflect the “real world,” and what teachers teach fail to infuse the “real world.” Also, it is confusing to state that students are prepared to be critical thinkers who can work collaboratively with others while teacher preparation programs are so departmentalized and divorced from communities. Wisniewski (1995) put it succinctly:

To those reforming teacher education contemplating a future where so little has changed is devastating. Colleges of education are still not practicing what they preach in this scenario. While programs, productivity norms, and relationships with the field are better, they are essentially the same...

There is hope for all of us if education professors recognize that the only positive future likely to emerge is dependent on major changes in pedagogy, staffing, scholarship, programs, and outreach activities of professional schools. The changes needed will dramatically challenge the fragmentation of learning that the American university has brought to fine fettle. (p. 41)

**Multicultural Competencies for General and Special Educators**

General and special educators who work with culturally diverse students with learning disabilities must have areas of competencies that connect special education and multicultural education (Yates & Ortiz, 1991). To guide the preparation of professionals for teaching students with learning disabilities, Graves, Landers, Lokerson, Luchow, and Horvath (1992) reported the development, refinement, and validation of a list of competencies based on a conceptual model known as “the cube” which is divided into 10 broad areas: (a) nature and needs of students with learning disabilities; (b) academic support areas such as study skills, consumer skills, and career/vocational skills; (c) curriculum for support areas and modification of school core curriculum; (d) assessment methods, uses, and interpretation; (e) classroom assessment.
management, and motivation; (f) collaboration and consultation; (g) specialized instructional strategies, technologies, and materials; (h) historical and legal aspects; (i) nontraditional practices and procedures; and (j) clinical and field experiences. These 10 areas provide the structure for a list of 209 competencies, to be applied within and across the 10 competency areas in different ways, depending upon the specific circumstances of age, severity level, and type of service delivery.

For general and special educators to be effective, they must be provided with the appropriate training to understand the educational, cultural, language, and learning style differences of culturally diverse students with learning disabilities (Wright, 1995). Byrd (1995) identified the structural design, the breadth of content or cultural spiral, and a child-centered curriculum as essential curricular considerations. In addition, she presented requisite teacher traits that enable students to learn more effectively in the classroom (see Table 2).

Insert Table 2

Teachers who work with culturally diverse students with learning disabilities must have competencies that extend beyond the list of competencies presented by the Council for Exceptional Children, Division for Learning Disabilities (DLD). They must also have additional skills related to working with the ethnic/cultural and language backgrounds of culturally diverse students with learning disabilities. Ortiz, Yates, and Garcia (1990) and Yates and Garcia (1991)
developed a set of competencies necessary for training bilingual special education teachers (see Table 3).

The role of general and special educators is particularly important in today's changing society. As indicated earlier, teachers must appreciate and value cultural diversity to be effective practitioners. Educators must respond to cultural variables as they (a) identify, (b) assess, (c) categorize, (d) place, and (e) instruct students with learning disabilities. Grilliot (1995), Obiakor (1993), and Schwemmer (1995) reported pertinent case scenarios that demonstrate many teachers' inabilities to reach culturally diverse students with learning disabilities. In cases 1-4, Obiakor (1993) reported:

Case #1: I visited an inner-city elementary school to see my student teacher. I was fortunate to meet the principal of the school (a White-female) who started telling me that all her students came from “poor” homes; and that they never did well in school because their parents did not have jobs. During our conversation, she told me that she lived in the suburbs and that she drove sixty miles every day to and from school. (p. 5)

Case #2: I visited an inner-city high school to observe my student teacher. In my conversation with the cooperating teacher (a White male), he told me that his students are “poor” and that many of them were drug-dealers who would either not succeed in life or would die before they became adults. When I asked him about solutions to help them, he laughed and indicated that it was difficult to flog a dead horse. (p. 5)

Case #3: I visited my student-teacher in a resource room in one of the inner-city elementary schools. The cooperating teacher was an African-American female with an Educational Specialist degree in Special Education. During my conversation with her, she proceeded to tell me that many of her students are criminals. She particularly pointed out one of her students -- she told me
that the student had broken into cars several times and that the student’s mother was a prostitute. When I asked why she was telling me this awful story she noted that everybody knows. (p. 5)

Case #4: I visited an inner-city elementary school to continue my program, Project Self-Responsibility, which I initiated to help retain and graduate African American students. The principal (an African American male) was very nonchalant. He explained that the reasons for his skepticism are (a) these students were jail-birds who came from “poor” homes, (b) these students’ parents did not have jobs. In our conversation, he indicated that these students were beyond redemption. (p.5)

Schwemmer (1995) reported in case 5 the problem faced by a student called “Teddy.” She wrote:

Case #5: Teddy, a Native-American, was a spunky eighth grader who had lost his leg from just above the knee in a farm accident several years before. Teddy had such a good attitude concerning what others considered a “handicap.” Every summer he would take off his artificial leg and open the swimming pool season by being the first one in the pool. In the spring of 1977, I was tutoring and teaching homebound students in Claremore, Oklahoma where Teddy was one of my students. Teddy had improved that year in all subjects, going from D’s to B’s, even though, before homebound, I had mainly helped him with math. Being a fast growing boy, Teddy needed a new leg. In between the time his new leg was measured and made, he continued to grow, so he was having some problems. Because of the many stairs at Claremore Junior High, I was decided Teddy would be receiving homebound services from me for the rest of his eighth grade year. One morning, when I arrived for lessons, Teddy was rather subdued. He informed me there was a call from the school telling him he had been placed in LD classes for the next year. I will never forget the look of fear and anxiety in Teddy’s eyes or the sound of his voice as he asked me, “What does LD mean? Does it mean I’m just a Little Dumb?” I explained to Teddy that LD meant he would get some extra help similar to the tutoring he had received from me. I then told him that officially LD meant Learning Disabled, but I had another meaning for LD-- “Learning Differently.” This took some of the anxiety from Teddy’s eyes but it took several months of work to gain back the self-confidence he had gained that year. He was still the same child but the LD label seemed to have affected him more than losing his leg. (p. 1)

Grilliott (1995) reported in case 6 the plight of a Hispanic-American student named “John.”

Case #6: John has lived in the U.S. 1 1/2 years and comes from a family that speaks mostly Spanish at home, although he speaks moderate English. John’s teacher saw
that he was falling behind in his work and didn’t think he was catching on in class, so he was given a standardized test for the possible diagnosis of a learning disability. On the testing date, John was sent to a woman who spoke no Spanish (and incidently was very grouchy because of car trouble on the way to school). She administered the test in her small office, an unfamiliar place to John. In later scoring the test, John’s score was compared with the normative scores of the average White middle class student. He was labeled “LD” and given services in an inclusive classroom. Differences between cultures, his academic background, and ability to speak, read, and comprehend English, the appropriateness of instructional methods, and the tester’s attitude toward John were not considered. (pp. 3-4)

Case-by-Case Analyses. The above cases have implications for preservice and inservice training programs for teachers and administrators in the field of learning disabilities. In case 1, the principal and her staff members have low expectations of these students and parents. The underlying negative presumption is that poverty is related to “poor” self-concept, “poor” intelligence, “poor” zest for knowledge, and “poor” life. They need special trainings on the ecological perspectives of life span issues (Hamburg, 1991). In case 2, the teacher was not well-prepared in his preservice training, and there was no indication that he was ready to change his retrogressive thinking. This teacher surely needed to know his role in building young minds. As Nowak (1994) pointed out, “it is important that all members of a school unit have appropriate knowledge and skills in order to work toward district or school-based goals. This requires both role-related and whole-school development” (p. 11).

In case 3, it is apparent that the teacher’s race did not make a difference in the way she interacted with her students. This teacher needed inservice training in the fundamental concepts of Public Law 94-142 (the Education for All Handicapped Children’s Act). This training would have allowed her to understand the negative aspects of wrongful identification and categorization, and the dangers of not keeping students’ information confidential. In a similar
situation, the principal (in case 4) failed his students both as a role model and administrator.

Woodson (1933) foreshadowed incidents of this nature when he wrote his classic book, *The Miseducation of the Negro.* He stated:

If the highly educated ‘Negro’ would forget most of the untried theories taught him (her) in the school, if he (she) could see through the propaganda which has instilled into his (her) mind under the text of education, if he (she) would fall in love with his (her) own people and begin to sacrifice for their uplift - if the highly educated ‘Negro’ would do these things, he (she) could solve some of the problems now confronting the race. (p. 44)

Case 5 presents examples of the dangers and problems associated with the lack of accessibility of buildings to individuals with disabilities. Teachers like M. Schwemmer are needed in the field of learning disabilities. Instead of relying on the categorical deficit assumptions associated with learning disabilities, teacher preparation programs must begin to look at LD as “learning differently.” Efforts must be made in preservice and inservice training programs to address issues related to inclusive education or the least restrictive environment for culturally diverse students with learning disabilities.

In case 6, John was misidentified by his teacher and misassessed by the test-giver. Ortiz, Yates, and Garcia (1990) explained teacher competencies associated with serving exceptional language minority students. Grilliot (1995), and Obiakor and Ford (1995) described what they called the “soulness of assessment” and the “poverty of the teaching spirit.” Assessment and pedagogy must have “souls,” and the pursuit of excellence must be with a “heart.” As Reyes (1995) indicated, the differences among students must be “reviewed as propitious resources that enrich the educational experiences of everyone” (p. 14)
Translating Research into Practice

We cannot limit ourselves to the identification of trait dimensions or typological classifications across individuals without considering the characteristics of the environments within which individuals function. Nor can we limit ourselves to an analysis of the environmental determinants of human differences without considering the hereditary determinants. Finally, we have to ask ourselves what kind of society is most desirable for the expression of human diversity—\textit{for} the opportunity for each of us to grow as individuals and at the same time not infringe on the rights of others to develop their own individuality. (Minton & Schneider, 1985, p. 489)

The implications of Minton and Schneider’s (1985) ideas are far-reaching for research, policy, and practice. First, this statement touches on one of the major weaknesses of traditional research in education. The tendency frequently is to discover inherent genetic or pathological deficits (i.e., who is “intellectually superior” or who is “intellectually inferior”) rather than trying to discover the learning styles and multiple intelligences that culturally diverse students with learning disabilities bring to the classroom. For example, Herrstein and Murray (1994), in their book, \textit{The Bell Curve}, revisited the archaic theory of biological determinism of African-American students without suggesting remedies for enhancing their academic achievements. They reported in their book the assumption that intelligence is fixed and cannot be improved. They accused Marva Collins, director of a private school in Chicago, of academic gimmickery. These accusations were not based on observations of Marva Collins’ instructional methodology or an indepth understanding of her teaching objectives, the curricula, contents and activities. Through the use of innovative teaching procedures that were congruent with the students’ learning styles and cultural experiences outside the school, Marva Collins demonstrated that, regardless of students’ intelligence test scores or academic problems, they can succeed.
academically (Hollins, 1989). Herrstein and Murray’s book made the New York Times Best Seller’s List inspite of several research flaws. First, they did not use multiple measures for assessing intelligence (Gardner, 1993; Gould, 1981). Gardner’s (1993) theory of multiple intelligences “pluralizes the traditional concept [of intelligence]. An intelligence entails the ability to solve problems or fashion products that are of consequence in a particular cultural setting. The problem-solving skill allows one to approach a situation in which a goal is to be obtained and to locate the appropriate route to that goal. The creation of a cultural product is crucial to such functions as capturing and transmitting knowledge or expressing one’s views or feelings” (p. 15). Second, Herrnstein and Murray based their analyses on traditional intelligence test scores that epitomize three aspects (structural, technical, scientific) of racism involved in interpreting minority-student results (Hilliard, 1991, 1992; Ogbu, 1988; Samuda, 1975; Samuda & Lewis, 1992). Third, these authors did not employ qualitative research methods and/or interviewing procedures with either Marva Collins and/or graduates of her school to substantiate their theory (Andersen, 1993).

To translate research into practice, barriers that exclude research on multicultural education in teacher preparation programs must be challenged (Gersten & Woodward 1992; Grant & Miller, 1992). For instance, Grant and Miller (1992) highlighted barriers that must be challenged. They include; (a) examining the demographic characteristics of higher education faculty and staff so that the development of research on multicultural education by faculty is increased; (b) providing monies at the local, state, and federal levels to support multicultural research at the university level; (c) reducing academic ethnocentrism and elitism in order to increase publications in scholarly journals; (d) stereotyping of conference participants who are
advocates of research in multicultural education; (e) including undergraduate and graduate level courses focused on research methodology in culturally diverse communities; and (f) supporting leadership by minority scholars in developing and implementing teacher preparation programs.

Keogh (1994) provided her vision of what special education research should look like in the year 2000, and remarked that if researchers are to “understand problem conditions and what to do about them we must take into account the context in which they occur...at least part of our effort must be put into research and development carried out in the field” (p. 62). A logical extension is that educational researchers must not study instruction and learning separately, but understand that learning includes two fundamental aspects: (a) that learners construct meanings and knowledge, and (b) that learning is situated in particular sociocultural contexts and thus, learning is influenced by social, cultural, cognitive, and emotional variables (Artiles, & Aguirre-Munoz, 1995; Vygotsky, 1978). Apparently, research that takes into account sociocultural perspectives, diversity and multicultural education are pivotal to the field of learning disabilities. In a different vein, Grant and Miller (1992) asserted that “multicultural research must be carried out on all areas of schooling, including school routines and interactions, teaching and learning practices, and the effects of educational policy and practices” (p. 11). Clearly, new partnerships must be formed between teacher educators, researchers, and teachers in the field as a basis for preservice and inservice training. As prospective teachers are prepared to work with culturally diverse students with learning disabilities, they cannot simply assume that they come prepared with knowledge and skills that will enable them to deal with cultural diversity and individual differences in children. It is the professional responsibility of teacher educators to help prospective students examine their knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes toward people who differ
from them. As stated earlier in this article, the underlying negative presumption that culturally diverse students from low-socioeconomic backgrounds have "poor" self-concept, "poor" intelligence, "poor" zest for knowledge, and "poor" life must be challenged. General and special education teachers need trainings focused on (a) self-concept enhancement strategies (Obiakor & Stiles, 1994), (b) collaboration, consultation, and cooperation (Dettmer, Dyck, & Thurston, 1995), (c) myths of socioeconomic dissonance (Obiakor, 1995b), and (d) multicultural psychology and special education (Obiakor, Hawes, & Weaver, 1995), and (e) management of change (Hughes, 1995). General and special educators must realize that cultural beliefs they hold about students' teaching and learning influence their assessment and instructional practices.

Infusing Multicultural Models Into Special Education: Where Do We Go From Here?

This subsection describe models that (a) address the recruitment, retention, and placement of nontraditional students in teacher preparation programs, and (b) incorporate concepts of cultural diversity, inclusion, and multicultural education in preservice and inservice training programs.

Each One Reach One Male Educator Project

Prater and Obiakor (1991, 1992) received a grant titled, "Each One Reach One Male Educator Project" funded by the Tennessee Higher Education Commission (THEC) to provide financial support, nurturance, and encouragement in order to increase the number of minority male teachers in elementary classrooms through (a) recruitment, (b) retention, and (c) placement. Project funds covered the costs of tuition, books, and related university fees; and participants are connected to a support system of university students, faculty, and staff; and other community members and resources. According to Prater (1995):
'Each One Reach One' continues to serve a nontraditional population. All males are nontraditional in regard to elementary teaching in comparison to women in these positions. However, African-American males are especially absent from these classrooms. In recent years, they have become nontraditional as college students and graduates, considering the lowered number of African-American men completing institutions of higher education. (p. 4)

**Reach One Male Educator Project**

To increase male presence in public schools, Obiakor and Lumpkins (1993) wrote a grant that was funded by the Arkansas Department of Higher Education. This project has continued to focus on (a) recruitment, (b) retention, (c) graduation, and (d) placement. Emphasis is placed on (a) providing financial support in the form of graduate assistantships, and (b) connecting participants to university faculty and staff, students, and community resources and supports.

**The Urban Learner Framework**

Williams (1994) developed a conceptual framework to address the complex issues facing culturally diverse students in urban environments. Four research-based themes serve as the foundation for her new vision of the urban learner; and, these themes are integrated into making the urban learner a functional goal-directed decision-maker. Williams's framework connects (a) cultural strengths and learning experiences that must be reflected in curriculum, instruction, and school routines; (b) unrecognized abilities and underdeveloped potential; (c) motivations and efforts; and (d) resilience displayed through behaviors such as social competence, autonomy, problem-solving, and a sense of the future. Using these themes as a guidelines, educators must conduct needs assessments and develop strategies in areas central to the organization of schools (e.g., curriculum, instruction, and assessment, staff development, school environment, and management. The Urban Learner Framework is illustrated in Figure 2.
The Inclusive Model

This model, as developed by Obiakor (1995), indicates the role of collaboration, partnership and consultation in formulating good relationships among educators, parents, and community leaders. The inclusive model has a formula: IC = MC + CC multiply by C + P + C. Translated, this means that the multicultural classroom (MC) + cooperative classroom (CC) × collaboration (C) + partnership (P) + consultation (C) = inclusive classroom (IC). An inclusive classroom is a classroom that values cooperative learning and teaching. The inclusive model is depicted in Figure 3. To facilitate the inclusion process, the student must be acknowledged as the central or dominant person. It is the responsibility of teachers and service providers to relate to each other. In fact, well-trained teachers and service providers respect the cultures, values, beliefs, and languages of parents. Obiakor (1994) stated:

We cannot identify our students without their parents’ involvement. We cannot test our students with total disregard for nondiscriminatory assessment. We have to be in constant touch with students’ parents so that they will be responsive when we invite them for meetings to arrange students’ individualized education plans. When parents agree on these plans, they usually concur with the placement options agreed upon by the team of service providers. It is almost self-destructive to try to intimidate parents who are our valuable resources, especially when students confront problems in school programs. (p. 66)
The Teach-Reteach Modification Model

For multicultural instruction to be effective, the teacher must teach, modify instruction, teach, test, reteach, retest and teach again (Obiakor, 1994). This cyclical movement allows all students to be prepared to confront new learning and teaching. This model is illustrated in Figure 4.

Insert Figure 4

In this model, the global networks of multiethnic connections, inclusive interactions and modification efforts are combined to make teaching more enjoyable. Teachers are motivated to be more prepared and dedicated than other professionals in the delivery of services. General and special educators must provide opportunities and choices for all students by modifying assessments and instruction, regardless of cultural or socioeconomic backgrounds.

Perspectives

The category of learning disabilities makes up the single largest category of students served in special education (National Center for Education Statistics, 1995). While some have argued that it is a much more socially acceptable category of exceptionality, others have indicated that it is a “dumping ground” for students who have been failed by the traditional educational system. For culturally diverse students, their problems in the traditional educational system have been multidimensional -- they have been frequently misidentified, misassessed, miscategorized, misplaced, and misinstructed (Obiakor, 1992a; Obiakor, 1992b). As Adelman and Taylor (1993) remarked, “when someone has trouble learning, it is tempting to describe the
person as having a learning disability. But not all learning problems are learning disabilities” (p. 3). It is on this premise that we write this article to challenge preservice and inservice training programs to rethink the traditional ways of doing things.

Traditional models have failed to produce practitioners who understand the general concept of learning disability and professional responsibilities in valuing individual differences. Two questions continue to be critical. Do culturally different students really have learning disabilities or learning problems? When they do have learning problems, are they appropriately identified, tested, and taught by well-trained practitioners? Preservice and inservice training programs must address these questions as they prepare students and teachers. Additionally, proactive nontraditional strategies must be used to respond to (a) new ways of thinking, (b) curricular changes, (c) modification and infusion of courses, (d) testing, placement, and instructional expectations, (e) recruitment and retention of minority students, faculty, and staff, and (f) management of change. In the words of Wisniewski (1995):

Reforms will occur: If we recognize that we must practice what we preach in our admissions, instructional, and assessment processes; if we move our clinical instruction into field settings, working side by side with interns as they prepare for our common craft; if we utilize technology to individualize the teaching/learning process; if we link ourselves tightly with the profession in the renewal of education; if we demonstrate what we know about teaching/learning/assessment -- rather than merely replicating archaic university practices. Reform will truly be achieved if we say in concert that some teacher education institutions should be out of business rather than winking at standards as we have done for decades. (p. 41)
References


Gersten, R.M., & Woodward, J. (1992). The quest to translate research into classroom practice: Strategies for assisting classroom teachers' work with "at-risk" students and student with disabilities. In D. Carnine & E. Kammeenui (Eds.), Higher cognitive functioning for all students (pp. 201-218). Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.


Tables 1-3
### TABLE 1. Interagency Collaboration Project Training Objectives

#### Overview Sessions

**A Comprehensive Service Delivery Model for Exceptional Language Minority Students**
- To present legal guidelines governing special education services for linguistically and culturally different students
- To familiarize participants with the necessary adaptations that will have to occur at each step of the special education process if effective services are to be provided
- To suggest the model as a framework for analysis of the current status of services in school districts and areas which need to be addressed to improve services
- To familiarize participants with staff development needs of personnel who work with limited English proficient (LEP) students with disabilities

**Second Language Acquisition**
- To review current theories of language acquisition
- To describe the relationship between first (L1) and second (L2) language acquisition
- To present factors affecting second language acquisition
- To discuss common misconceptions about language proficiency
- To present guidelines for distinguishing second language differences from disorders

**Prereferral Intervention for Language Minority Students**
- To familiarize participants with prereferral model specific to the education of language minority students
- To identify factors which influence student performance, including teacher characteristics, student characteristics, delivery of instruction, and exposure to the curriculum
- To present general strategies for prereferral intervention

**Non-biased Assessment of Language Minority Students**
- To identify issues related to assessment of language minority students
- To suggest necessary adaptations of the assessment process
- To provide general guidelines for assessing language minority students

**Developing Appropriate Individualized Education Programs (IEPs) for Language Minority Students with Disabilities**
- To describe the relationship between assessment and instruction
- To present information for appropriate language planning
- To identify formal and informal sources of data which will assist in selection of appropriate methods and materials for instruction of LEP students with disabilities
- To present alternatives for coordination of services and personnel
- To suggest strategies for involving parents in the IEP process


#### Six-Hour Workshops

**Empowering Language Minority Students**
- To present a framework for empowering language minority students which addresses language/culture, community collaboration, assessment and pedagogy
- To present a process for evaluating the educational context for language minority students
- To present an overview of best practices in assessment and instruction
- To present guidelines for coordinating services across programs and personnel for language minority students

**Implementing Prereferral Intervention**
- To present a rationale for campus-based teacher support teams
- To present the Teacher Assistance Team (TAT) model for prereferral intervention
- To present specific steps/guidelines for implementation of TATs
- To present guidelines for evaluation of effectiveness of the TAT
- To present other strategies for prereferral intervention

**Language Assessment of Language Minority Students**
- To identify issues related to assessing language dominance and language proficiency of LEP students
- To identify procedures for assessment of social and academic language proficiency
- To identify three recommended practices used in formal and informal language assessment
- To present a process for profiling language skills
- To provide guidelines for choosing the languages of assessment and instruction

**Strategies and Procedures for Non-biased Assessment of Language Minority Students**
- To describe assessment procedures for identification of language minority students with disabilities or giftedness
- To present best practices in the formal and informal assessment of language minority students
- To describe the role of an interpreter in the assessment process
- To present guidelines for appropriate interpretation of assessment data

**Effective Instruction for Language Minority Students**
- To present a rationale for reciprocal interaction teaching
- To present holistic strategies for language development
- To present strategies for developing reading and writing skills
- To review other reciprocal interaction strategies

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### TABLE 2. Requisite Traits of Teachers of African-American Children

#### Self-Understanding
- Sees self as part of each child's community
- Model the behaviors expected of the child
- Evinces awareness of own values and belief systems
- Manifests awareness and control of own prejudices
- Exemplifies determination and commitment to teach African American children

#### Child Focus
- Likes children
- Gives each child an identity base and enhances child's self-esteem
- Helps each child to develop prerequisite skills and abilities
- Promotes equitable teacher-student relationships
- Encourages children to learn collaboratively
- Makes expectations known to the child in a friendly, firm, calm, and confident manner
- Reacts appropriately to child's display of hostility
- Praises that which is praiseworthy
- Values multiple simultaneous exchanges; neither expects nor requires silence often

#### Content Mastery
- Knows the sequence of developmental stages
- Understands cultural indices of the child and family
- Understands and recognizes the intellectual, emotional, social, and cultural strengths of the child

#### Strategic Proficiency
- Draws upon cultural experiences of the child and family to include authentic cultural perspectives in the curriculum
- Uses the child's culture to help the child to create meaning and understand the world
- Possesses a repertoire of varied teaching styles and adjusts them to accommodate varied learning styles among children
- Maintains participatory, dynamic, and spontaneous classrooms
- Displays flexibility in the context of a structured learning environment
- Maintains a high rate of academically engaged time
- Expands child's capacity to appreciate and deal with differences in others and helps child to perceive self in an international or global perspective

### TABLE 3 PROGRAM COMPETENCIES ASSOCIATED WITH SERVING LANGUAGE MINORITY STUDENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LANGUAGE</th>
<th>LINGUISTICS</th>
<th>CULTURAL FOUNDATIONS</th>
<th>EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS</th>
<th>ASSESSMENT</th>
<th>INSTRUCTIONAL PLANNING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Ability to understand the primary language (L1) spoken by parents and children.</td>
<td>1. Understanding of basic concepts regarding the nature of language.</td>
<td>1. Understanding of culture in relation to: child-rearing practices, socialization systems and socio-cultural differences in attitudes toward educational attainment, gravitation patterns, motivational orientations.</td>
<td>1. Knowledge and understanding of the philosophies of general education, bilingual education, special education, bilingual special education, and ESL.</td>
<td>1. Ability to define the purpose and functions of assessment.</td>
<td>1. Utilization of assessment and other relevant data to plan instructional programs appropriate for bilingual, non-English and limited-English proficient handicapped students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Ability to speak L1 and English (L2) fluently in both formal and informal settings.</td>
<td>2. Understanding of theories of first and second language acquisition.</td>
<td>2. Knowledge and understanding of the content of special education, ESL, bilingual education and related areas including handicapping conditions, identification of non-or-limited English proficient students, legislation, litigation, funding, and current research relative to ethnic/linguistic minorities.</td>
<td>2. Ability to record and utilize observational data.</td>
<td>2. Ability to determine instructional goals based on the identified needs of bilingual, non-English and limited English proficient handicapped students.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Ability to read and comprehend fully L1 and L2 writing including textbooks, professional journals, and other published works.</td>
<td>3. Ability to identify structural differences between the student's first and second languages, recognizing areas of potential influence and positive transfer.</td>
<td>3. Understanding of diversity in behavior and learning styles in cross-cultural settings.</td>
<td>3. Knowledge of existing assessment procedures and instruments, both formal and informal, in areas such as: language proficiency, language dominance, language development, cognitive/intellectual development, perceptual-motor development, social-emotional behavior, adaptive behavior, and achievement.</td>
<td>3. Ability to write instructional objectives that specify short-term and long-range outcomes for handicapped LEP children.</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

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10
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LANGUAGE</th>
<th>LINGUISTICS</th>
<th>CULTURAL FOUNDATIONS</th>
<th>EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS</th>
<th>ASSESSMENT</th>
<th>INSTRUCTIONAL PLANNING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4. Ability to write in L1 and L2 with levels of proficiency required for informal as well as professional written communications.</td>
<td>4. Ability to identify and understand regional, social and developmental varieties in the student's language. (L2 only for ESL)</td>
<td>4. Understanding of historical origins or local communities.</td>
<td>4. Ability to articulate a rationale for bilingual special education and for use of ESL strategies in special education.</td>
<td>4. Ability to distinguish differences due to socio-cultural background and/or second language learning from handicapping conditions.</td>
<td>4. Ability to specify instructional sequences, appropriate teaching/learning activities, materials, and evaluative procedures specific to the needs of handicapped LEP students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Ability to translate instructions, letters and so forth to parents and community members.</td>
<td>5. Ability to analyze the child's languages at the phonological, syntactical, morphological, semantic and pragmatic levels. (L2 only for ESL)</td>
<td>5. Ability to incorporate contributions of diverse cultural groups into educational programming.</td>
<td>5. Ability to recognize potential linguistic and cultural biases of formal and informal assessments and to adapt the evaluation procedures to compensate for such limitations.</td>
<td>5. Ability to monitor the effectiveness of instructional sequences, teaching/learning activities or materials as necessary.</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>6. Ability to select assessment strategies appropriate for ethnic/linguistic minority groups.</td>
<td>6. Ability to evaluate the effectiveness of instructional strategies and arrangements, and to modify them to meet the unique linguistic and academic needs of exceptional LEP students.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7. Ability to test in L1 and L2, and to interpret results including implications for instruction. * (L2 only for ESL)</td>
<td>7. Ability to use paraprofessionals effectively</td>
<td></td>
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</table>

*Identifies skill areas that are specific to English language learners.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INSTRUCTION</th>
<th>CURRICULUM</th>
<th>MATERIALS</th>
<th>MONITORING and EVALUATION</th>
<th>COUNSELING</th>
<th>SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Ability to implement varied teaching techniques appropriate for LEP and bilingual students (e.g., mediated learning, the natural language approach, holistic approaches to literacy development, etc.).</td>
<td>1. Knowledge of program curricular in regular education, special education, bilingual education, ESL and bilingual special education.</td>
<td>1. Knowledge of sources for materials appropriate for LEP students.</td>
<td>1. Knowledge of the basic theories and/or models in human development and learning specifically related to educating culturally/linguistically diverse groups.</td>
<td>1. Ability to effect communication between regular, bilingual, ESL and special education personnel, parents, guardians, child advocates or other personnel involved in the handicapped LEP student’s educational program.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Ability to manage classroom behavior through application of knowledge related to teaching/learning styles and child-rearing practices</td>
<td>2. Ability to adapt or develop curricula to meet the needs of handicapped LEP students.</td>
<td>2. Ability to evaluate learning materials in terms of the quality, availability, cost-effectiveness, and appropriateness for handicapped LEP students.</td>
<td>2. Ability to design and implement formative and summative evaluation relative to educational interventions and programming for handicapped LEP students.</td>
<td>2. Ability to work effectively as a member of inter-disciplinary teams responsible for the design and implementation of the handicapped LEP student’s instructional program.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Ability to provide a classroom climate that fosters successful experiences for each student</td>
<td>3. Ability to edit and revise activities to make them more linguistically and culturally appropriate for handicapped LEP students.</td>
<td>3. Ability to secure or produce learning materials that stimulate active, meaningful, purposeful involvement of students in attaining specific learning objectives.</td>
<td>3. Ability to monitor and adapt individualized instruction.</td>
<td>3. Ability to plan and provide for the direct participation of parents and families of exceptional LEP students in the instructional program and related activities.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Ability to provide instruction in L1 and L2 in all curriculum areas of regular and special education [L2 for ESL]</td>
<td>4. Ability to design materials and activities to meet the needs of handicapped LEP students.</td>
<td>4. Ability to design materials and activities to meet the needs of handicapped LEP students.</td>
<td>4. Ability to plan and provide for the direct participation of parents and families of exceptional LEP students in the instructional program and related activities.</td>
<td>4. Knowledge of the local community resources for handicapped students.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Ability to deliver instruction using ESL approaches.</td>
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<td>5. Ability to communicate effectively with parents concerning the needs of their handicapped children.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

FELLOWS

SUMMER INSTITUTE PARTICIPANTS

SOME SPECIAL EDUCATION MAJORS

ALL SPECIAL EDUCATION MAJORS

ALL EDUCATION MAJORS

NON-ED. HANDI MAJORS CAPPED WITH PEOPLE INTEREST

Graduate Program in Special Education with emphasis on Bilingual/ESOL Education which includes:

4 Courses
- LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT
- LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT
- TEACHING WITHIN A MULTICULTURAL SYSTEM
- FOUNDATIONS plus
- SPECIAL PROJECTS
- SPECIFIC COURSES in Bilingual/ESOL Special Education plus
- MAIN-STREAMING, a required course for Ed Majors

Figure 1.

The Inclusive Model (IM)

Multicultural Classroom

Collaboration Partnership, & Consultation with Teachers/Professionals

INCLUSIVE CLASSROOM

Formula \( 1C = MC + CC \times C + P + C \)

Inclusive Classroom \((1C) = Multicultural, Classroom (MC) \times Cooperative Classroom (CC) \times Collaboration (C) \times Partnership (P) \times Consultation (C) \)

Collaboration Partnership, & Consultation with Parents/Guardians

Cooperative Classroom

Figure 3
Figure 2
URBAN LEARNER FRAMEWORK

Figure 4