

The Right to Education & Practical Issues in Inclusive Education

**V International Conference on
Inclusive Education**

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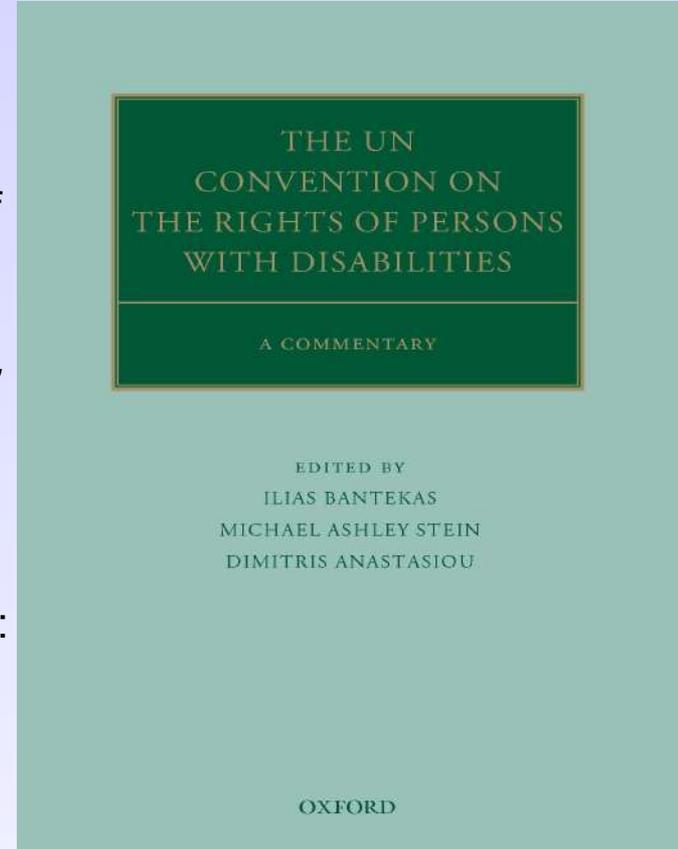
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Part of a 5-year Research Project

- Anastasiou, D., Felder, M., Correia, L., Shemanov, A., Zweers, I., & Ahrbeck, B. (2020). The Impact of Article 24 of the CRPD on Special and Inclusive Education in Germany, Portugal, the Russian Federation and Netherlands. In J. M. Kauffman (Ed.), *On educational inclusion: Meanings, history, issues and international perspectives*. New York: Routledge.
- **Anastasiou, D.**, Gregory, M., & **Kauffman, J. M.** (2018). Article 24: Education. In I. Bantekas, M. A. Stein, & D. Anastasiou, *The UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities: A Commentary* (pp. 656 – 704). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press. [28,350 words]
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[1,376 pages]

Theoretical Basis

1. **Social justice approaches**
 2. **Multiple contextualized principles** (i.e., proportional equality, inclusion, welfare of the child)
 3. **Purpose of education:** optimum learning, preparation for life, citizenship etc.
 4. **Specific purpose of disability education:** maximizing learning, self-regulating personality, autonomous citizen
 5. **Needs-based analysis of the right to education**
 6. **Right to education as vehicle for the right to learning**
- **Proportional equality (or social justice)** with relevance to special needs and **right to learning** are applied to a needs-based analysis of the right to education for persons with disabilities and the development of **a fair and inclusive education system.**

Article 24 of the CRPD

Background Info



UNITED NATIONS
HUMAN RIGHTS
OFFICE OF THE HIGH COMMISSIONER

Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities
Last Updated: 20 Aug 2019



- Ratifications/
Accessions: 180
- Signatories: 162
- The Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities and its Optional Protocol (A/RES/61/106) was adopted on 13 December 2006.

- **Map of Signatures and Ratifications:** with light blue are signatories
- **180 states parties** have ratified the Convention as of Sept. 1, 2019.
- A 'state party' to a treaty is a country that has ratified a particular treaty, and is therefore legally bound by the provisions in the instrument.
- The United States (US) signed the CRPD in 2009 but has not ratified it. It is a signatory but not a state party to the CRPD.

CRPD Timeline

- **Adoption by the United Nations General Assembly - 13 December 2006**
 - **Entry into force – 3 May 2008**
 - **The Russian Federation ratified the CRPD in September 25, 2012**
-

- **General Comment No 4: Article 24: Right to *inclusive* education (Adopted **26 August 2016**) UN Doc CRPD/C/GC/4 (25 November 2016)**
 - ❖ issued by **Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD Committee)**

CRPD Monitoring Process

- A full cycle of reporting and monitoring
 1. States parties **Reports** : Russia on March 13, 2015
 2. Lists of issues (LOIs): for Russia, on October 20, 2017
 3. Replies to LOIs: Russia on November 13, 2017
 4. **Concluding observations by the CRPD Committee**
(For Russia, April 9, 2018)

Structure of the CRPD (1)

- Preamble

1. Purpose
2. Definitions
3. General principles
4. General obligations
5. Equality and non-discrimination
6. Women with disabilities
7. Children with disabilities
8. Awareness-raising
9. Accessibility
10. Right to life
11. Situations of risk and humanitarian emergencies
12. Equal recognition before the law
13. Access to justice
14. Liberty and security of the person
15. Freedom from torture or cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment
16. Freedom from exploitation, violence and abuse
17. Protecting the integrity of the person
18. Liberty of movement and nationality
19. Living independently and being included in the community
20. Personal mobility
21. Freedom of expression and opinion, and access to information
22. Respect for privacy
23. Respect for home and the family

Structure of the CRPD (2)

24. Education

25. Health

26. Habilitation and rehabilitation

27. Work and employment

28. Adequate standard of living and social protection

29. Participation in political and public life

30. Participation in cultural life, recreation, leisure and sport

31. Statistics and data collection

32. International cooperation

33. National implementation and monitoring

34 to 40. **International monitoring mechanism (e.g., Committee, Reports, Consideration of Reports)**

41 to 50. **Final clauses (e.g., Entry into Force, Reservations, Amendments, Denunciation)**

- **Optional protocol: Creates additional** functions for the Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. It adds an individual complaints procedure to the enforcement of the CRPD.
 1. **Individual communications**
 2. **Inquiries:** Committee member may conduct an inquiry on a State Party.

Article 24: Education (para. 1)

1. States Parties **recognize the right of persons with disabilities to education**. With a view to realizing this right **without discrimination** and **on the basis of equal opportunity**, States Parties shall ensure **an inclusive education system at all levels and life-long learning** directed to:

- a. The full development of human potential and sense of dignity and self-worth, and the strengthening of respect for human rights, fundamental freedoms and human diversity;
- b. The development by persons with disabilities of their personality, talents and creativity, as well as their mental and physical abilities, to their fullest potential;
- c. Enabling persons with disabilities to participate effectively in a free society.

Article 24: Education (para. 2)

2. In realizing this right, States Parties shall ensure that:

- a. Persons with disabilities **are not excluded from the general education system on the basis of disability**, and that children with disabilities are not excluded from free and compulsory primary education, or from secondary education, on the basis of disability;
- b. Persons with disabilities can access an inclusive, quality and **free primary education and secondary education on an equal basis with others in the communities in which they live**;
- c. **Reasonable accommodation** of the individual's requirements is provided;
- d. Persons with disabilities receive the support required, within the general education system, to facilitate their effective education;
- e. **Effective individualized support measures** are provided in environments that maximize academic and social development, **consistent with the goal of full inclusion**.

Article 24: Education (para. 3)

3. States Parties shall enable persons with disabilities to learn life and social development skills to facilitate their **full and equal participation in education and as members of the community**. To this end, States Parties shall take appropriate measures, including:

- a. **Facilitating the learning of Braille**, alternative script, augmentative and alternative modes, means and formats of communication and orientation and mobility skills, and **facilitating peer support and mentoring**;
- b. Facilitating the learning of sign language and the promotion of the **linguistic identity of the deaf community**;
- c. Ensuring that the education of persons, and in particular children, who are blind, deaf or deaf-blind, is delivered in the most **appropriate languages and modes and means of communication for the individual**, and in environments which **maximize academic and social development**.

Article 24: Education (para. 4&5)

4. In order to help ensure the realization of this right, States Parties shall take **appropriate measures to employ teachers, including teachers with disabilities**, who are qualified in sign language and/or Braille, and to train professionals and staff who work at all levels of education. Such training shall incorporate disability awareness and the use of appropriate augmentative and alternative modes, means and formats of communication, educational techniques and materials to support persons with disabilities.

5. States Parties shall ensure that persons with disabilities are able to access **general tertiary education, vocational training, adult education and lifelong learning without discrimination and on an equal basis with others**. To this end, States Parties shall ensure that **reasonable accommodation** is provided to persons with disabilities.

Conceptualization of Inclusive Education System (1)

- **The concept of inclusive education lacks explicit definition** in article 24 leaving its meaning open to interpretation, as the Russian Federation, for example, emphasized at the discussions of the 6th and 7th session of the Ad Hoc Committee.
- Many use the term “inclusion” to refer to **the placement** of students with disabilities in general education classrooms for the duration of the school day or a significant portion of it, without specialized support.

Conceptualization of Inclusive Education System (2)

- **What kind of placement?**

1. The term sometimes denotes not only a **student's placement but also the specialized, individualized supports** and services necessary to allow a student to make **meaningful educational progress** in a mainstream placement —
 - we might call this the **robust version of inclusion**.
2. Other times the term refers to **placement alone** and connotes access to a mainstream setting without necessarily assuming the provision of any additional supports or services
 - **this is a superficial version of inclusion.**
 - **General Comment No 4 by the CRPD Committee (2016):**
 - **Co-teaching is not mentioned.**
 - **No mention of special education teachers.**

Inclusive Education System

- **Para. 1** contains phrase “**inclusive education system**”.
- A thorough understanding of the key word **system** is important.
- **A system does not imply uniformity or homogeneity in all respects.** This was emphasized by **Thailand, the IDC** and others during the travaux préparatoires.
- **UNESCO** commented “we also support the stance of Thailand indicating that **inclusiveness does not mean supporting one model, but that the entire system be inclusive.**”
- In general, there was the widespread impression among delegates of countries and disability organizations that **the key word system imparts an openness to inclusive education,** while at the same time emphasizing the intended goal for a more inclusive education (Anastasiou, Gregory, & Kauffman, 2018).

Inclusive Education System: Inclusiveness

- The broadness of the Inclusiveness Concept
 - **Inclusiveness** can constitute both a feature and a goal of an education system, but this does not necessarily mean that every school or unit (e.g., special class, resource room) **should operate in the same way** as a general class or adopt the same curriculum.

WHO (2011): Flexible Inclusive Education

- **A flexible approach to inclusion was recommended** in a report issued by the **World Health Organization (WHO, 2011)** after the CRPD Convention was adopted. The WHO made an appraisal of the “**full inclusion**” goal, **considering it unrealistic**, and suggested **a more flexible approach to placement**.
 - “Inclusive education seeks to enable schools to serve all children in their communities. In practice, however, it is difficult to ensure the full inclusion of all children with disabilities, even though this is the ultimate goal. Countries vary widely in the numbers of children with disabilities who receive education in either mainstream or segregated settings, and no country has a fully inclusive system. **A flexible approach** to placement is important: in the United States of America, for example, the system aims to place children in the most integrated setting possible, while providing for more specialized placement where this is considered necessary. Educational needs must be assessed from the perspective of what is best for the individual and the available financial and human resources within the country context. **Some disability advocates have made the case that it should be a matter of individual choice whether mainstream or segregated settings meet the needs of the child.**” (WHO, 2011, p. 210).

Subpara 2(e): Full Inclusion

- The primary function of paragraph 2 is **to operationalize** article 24's central concept of an inclusive education system.
- **Full inclusion** typically implies the *abolition of every form of special education outside* the general education classroom.
- Mary Warnock (2010) a renowned advocate for the inclusion movement in the UK and worldwide, has argued that **the right to learn** is not the same as the right to learn in the same environment and that, in considering placement, **we should not be indifferent to educational outcomes.**
- The World Federation of the Deaf (WFD) (2007) has argued that **physical presence does not mean mental and social presence or commitment to learning.**

Full Inclusion as Totally Supportive Environments

- An alternative interpretation of the phrase full inclusion could solve the aforementioned contradiction in the provisions of subparagraph 2(e).
- During the preparatory works, the term was mainly addressed in the discussions of the 6th session.
- Throughout the negotiations of the drafting process and after the passage of the CRPD, the WFD (2017) advocated the following meaning: **'full inclusion' often means totally supportive environments, even if they are not in general education.**

Article 24 & Special Education (1)

- The absence of ‘special education’ and ‘special needs’ in article 24 is a great enigma.
- Several countries (Japan, Kenya, Senegal, the Russian Federation, Israel, and China) insisted on **a more explicit reference to special education, or realism-based approach** according to the words of the Chair’s session.
- Disability organizations such as the **WFD, the World Blind Union**, and the **World Federation of the Deaf-Blind** have also supported a full spectrum of special education settings.

Prioritizing Certain Disabilities

- Paragraphs 3 and 4 of article 24 contain lists of appropriate measures that address the needs of students with **blindness, deafness, and communication disorders**.
- However, article 24 **remains silent on the specific learning needs of students with other disabilities**, such as **mind-related disabilities**, and acknowledges **only a fragment of the spectrum** and continuum of atypical learning needs.
- To make a comparison, the non-binding Rule 6 of the **Standard Rules** on the Equalization of Opportunities (1993) is more generous for persons facing ***mind-related challenges*** (e.g., intellectual disabilities, severe psychosocial disorders, learning disabilities).
- Where the barriers to educational attainment **are more invisible and deeply intertwined with the neural architecture of learning** (severe intellectual disabilities, low-functioning autism, severe communication disorders, severe psychosocial disorders, learning disabilities, childhood trauma, and some chronic illnesses) **meaningful educational opportunity will likely require much more than simply opening up the schoolhouse doors**.

Right to Learning:

Beyond Equality as Non-Discrimination

- The question is if *formal* equality (and equality of opportunity **as physical access and participation**) is enough for persons with disabilities, whose conditions relate to cognition and learning (e.g., people with severe and profound intellectual disabilities, low-functioning autism, severe psychosocial disorders)?
- In 1975, perhaps the last year of the "golden age" for the welfare state in the U.S.A., the goals of contemporary Special Education with Public law 94-142 were perceived in two complementary ways:
 1. As access to **special design instruction** and **additional means and resources** meeting to reach **about the same end** (i.e., same competences in knowledge and life skills) for as many PWD as possible (e.g., people with learning disabilities, dyslexia, speech impairments, ADHD, etc.) (Weintraub, & Abeson, 1972).
 - The name "**Resource Room**" is not accidental (distribution of resources).

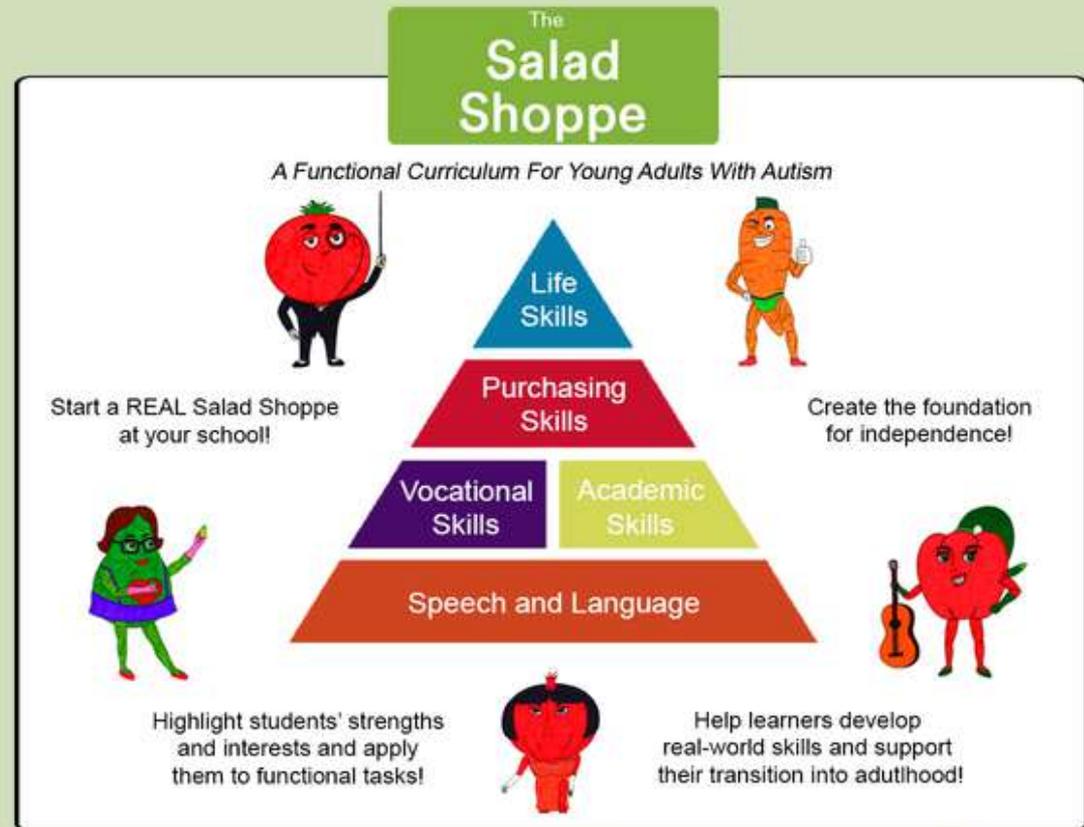
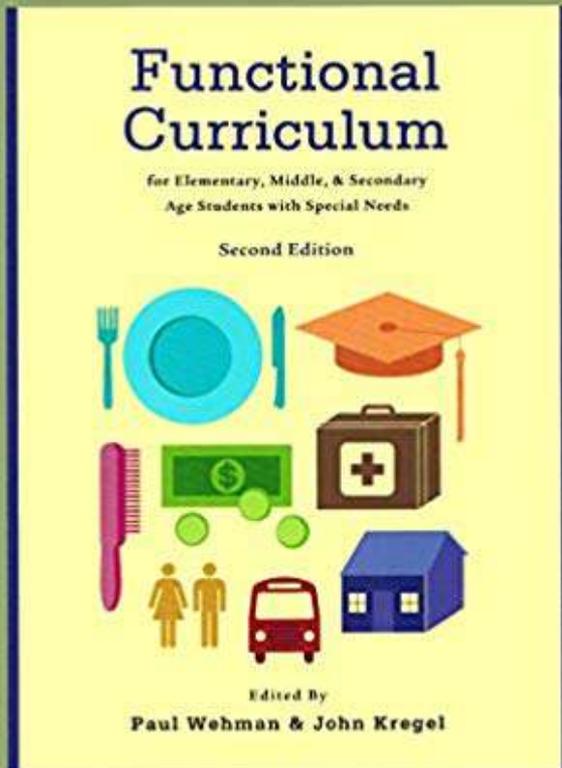
Beyond Sameness and Formal Equality

- Contemporary Special Education was also perceived:
 2. In relation to the *Functional Curriculum*, especially for people with profound and severe mental disabilities, low-functioning autism, severe emotional disorders etc.
 - **Specialized instruction and support** also meant right to access **different type of means and resources** (e.g., life skills and alternate curriculum, alternate assessing methods) with **possibility of different goals** (e.g., independent living) (Weintraub, & Abeson, 1972).

Is the Access to General Curriculum a Panacea?

- **Grade-level Standards:** Evidence suggests that students with severe disabilities can **learn some objectives** related to grade-level standards.
- Kevin Ayres et al. (2011). *I Can Identify Saturn, but I Can't Brush My Teeth: What Happens When the Curricular Focus for Students with Severe Disabilities Shifts*
 - Precisely, one of the authors, while seated in an IEP meeting as a consultant witnessed a frustrated parent of a child with severe intellectual disabilities say:
“My son can identify Saturn but he still can't request a snack or even wipe his ass.” (pp 11-12).
 - The question is **“at what cost do they learn these standards?”**
 - Will these skills help the students get a job?
 - Choose where to live?
 - Actively participate in their community? (Ayres et al., 2011)
- **The functional program for children with severe intellectual disorders and learning disabilities cannot be ignored.**

Functional Curriculum



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Right to Learning for ALL

(Each and Everyone)

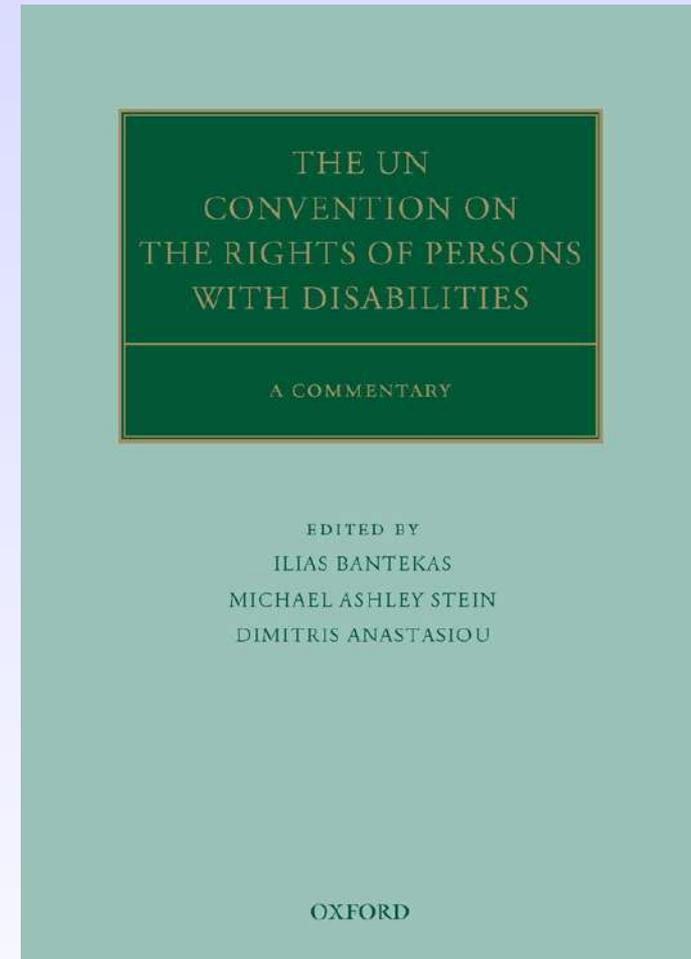
- **Education should lead to learning.**
- We cannot have a right to education for typically developing children that means “Right to Learning” but for children with disabilities just a “right to inclusive education.” **It's like saying the former go to schools to learn and the latter to socialize.**
- All children have a **Right to Essential Education, Right to Optimum Learning.**

Proportional Equality & Learning

- **Why?**
- **For Whom?**

Theoretical Basis of Proportional Equality

- Drawing from **social justice theoretical approaches** (Aristotle, 1959; David Miller, 1999; Karl Marx, 1875/1970; Samuel Moyn, 2010, 2018; John Rawls, 1971; Amartya Sen, 1999; Lorella Terzi, 2010; Michael Walzer, 1983), we use **multiple concepts** which are understood **contextually**.



Why Proportional Equality?

- Because there are two ways to be morally wrong, unfair and unjust according to Aristotle (1959):
 1. **To treat people with about equal learning abilities** (e.g., ethnic, religious, and linguistic minorities, orthopedic disability, deafness, and blindness) **in an unequal way** (through stereotypes and prejudice against them at school and work).
 2. To treat people with different learning abilities and or contested intellectual autonomy (e.g., students with severe or profound intellectual disability, low-functioning autism, schizophrenia) in the same way (sameness).
- To paraphrase **Aristotle (1959)**: *There is nothing more unequal than the same and invariant educational treatment of people with unequal learning capabilities.*

Principles of Proportional Equality

1. **Understanding the material basis for promoting learning:** Extra resources and services, special education teachers (Anastasiou, Gregory, Kauffman, 2018).
2. **E.g., the Functional Program reflects a principle of distributive justice.** It's not a waste. Extending **Rawls's** (1971) **justice theory** about **“the Veil of Ignorance”**. Imagine yourself in an original position, before birth, behind a veil of ignorance. Behind this veil, you know nothing of yourself and your abilities, or your position in society. You know nothing of your abilities and disabilities. Behind such a veil of ignorance, most individuals as rational and moral human beings would agree to a proportional distribution of societal and educational resources according to learning needs, including special learning needs of PWD.
3. **Equality of capabilities**, that is, “How could a child have better opportunities for development, in terms of material conditions (e.g., additional teaching material, infrastructure, services, special teachers, paraprofessionals) (Sen, 1999).
4. **Learning as function of Proportional Equality/Justice: Education Based on a Needs Analysis of People with Disabilities (PWD)** (Aristotle, 1959; Marx, 1875/1970; Miller, 1999; Walzer, 1983)

A Pluralistic Approach to Social Justice

- Beyond equality of opportunity as antidiscrimination and/or
- inclusion as physical presence in general classrooms (sameness),
- we need **a pluralistic and contextualized approach to social justice** operationalized by a needs-based analysis (bottom-up and empirical approach).
 - **Relevance to learning** demands that people be treated more or less the same, unless there are relevant educational reasons for treating them differently.
 - **Proportion of specialized and intensive education** requires that people be treated differently only for relevant reasons, and most importantly the treatment they receive should be **proportionate to their special educational needs in a pattern of increasing intensity**, including specialized and individualized instruction, even if outside the general education classroom.

Social Policy for the Whole Disability Spectrum

- High quality education for all requires that we not disregard the atypical needs of any human being.
- Policies should address the needs of the whole spectrum of the population with disabilities, and not part of it.
 - Many **people with sensory disabilities**, such as deafness and blindness, as well as with **orthopedic disabilities** can be well served by **anti-discrimination and inclusive policies**.
 - However, most people with **chronic or terminal illnesses and mind-related disabilities** such as severe mental health problems (e.g., schizophrenia and major depression), severe intellectual disabilities and other developmental disorders (e.g., autism spectrum disorders) face extreme **health or learning challenges**. Effective policies for them go beyond anti-discrimination legislation (Anastasiou, Kauffman, & Michail, 2016).
- In some cases, **(re)distribution programs** and policies based on **proportional equity** and **social justice** may be needed.

Coteaching

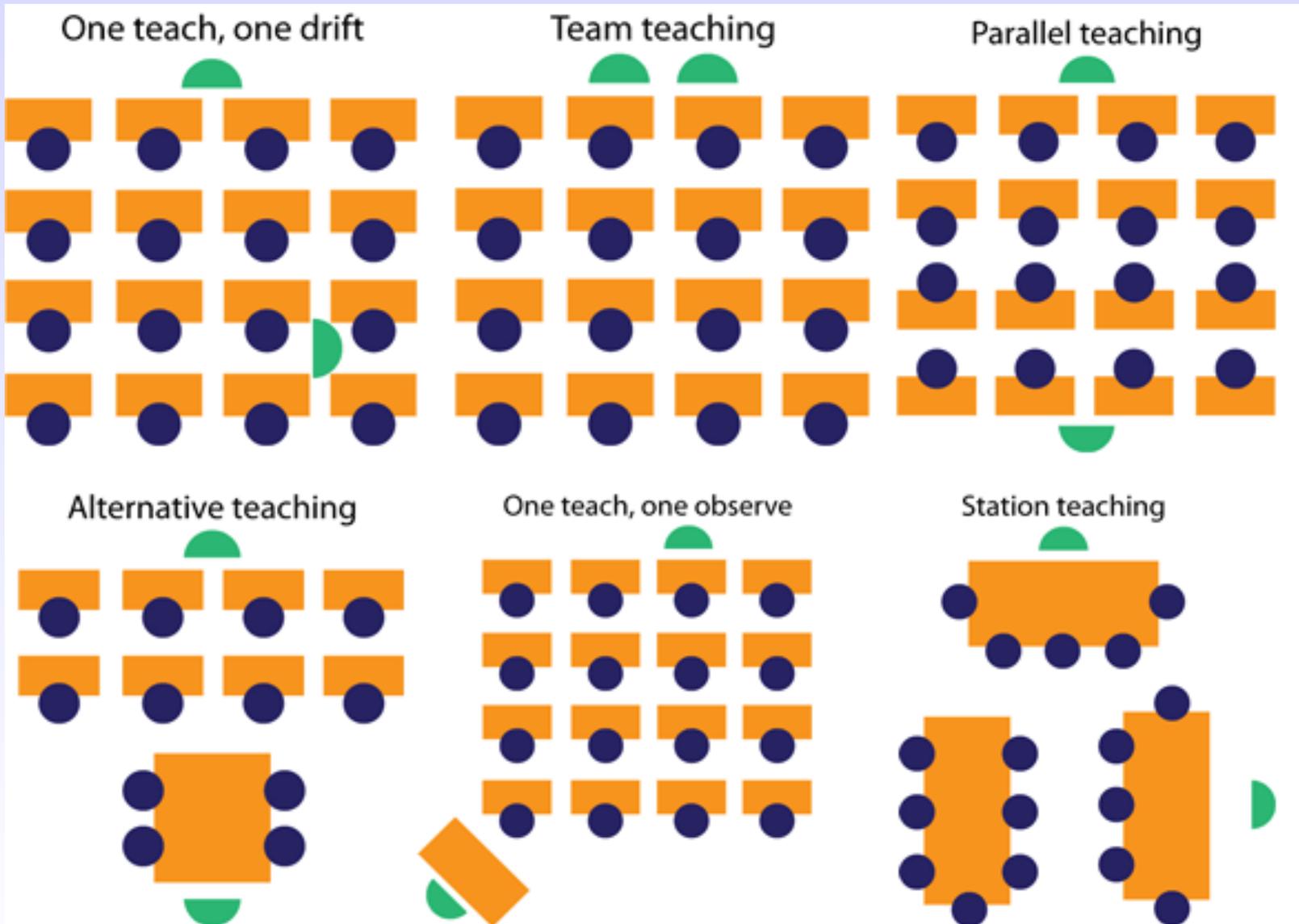
Co-teaching as Inclusive Practice (1)

- Co-teaching is today the most popular model for the inclusion of students with disabilities into the classroom (Cook, McDuffie-Landrum, Oshita, & Cook, 2017; Mavropalias & Anastasiou, 2016).
- It is based on the **harmonious collaboration** of a general teacher and a special teacher, although research on co-teaching practice shows that this is not as easy as it sounds (Magiera & Zigmond, 2005; Mavropalias & Anastasiou, 2016).
- Ideally a general and special education teacher can **co-plan, co-instruct, co-evaluate and co-manage behavior** in the inclusive classroom to provide instruction to students with and without disabilities (Friend & Cook, 2013; Murawski & Lochner, 2011).

Co-teaching as Inclusive Practice (2)

- Six basic co-teaching models have been described that serve different purposes and functions. Ideally, **these models should be flexible** (Cook & Friend, 1995; Friend & Cook, 2013; Mavropalias & Anastasiou, 2016; Murawski & Lochner, 2011).
- **In practice**, the general teacher usually acts as **the content specialist** for the teaching, while the special education teacher acts as the specialist for **adapting the curriculum and differentiating teaching methods** for students with disabilities (Scruggs, Mastropieri, & McDuffie, 2007).

Co-teaching Approaches



Retrieved from

<https://edu240coteaching.wordpress.com/what-does-co-teaching-look-like/>

Co-Teaching Models/ Approaches

1. **Team Teaching.** Both teachers share the responsibility for planning and content instruction; they are also equally engaged in delivering instruction in the classroom, alternating the role of primary instructor
2. **Parallel Teaching.** The class has two heterogeneous groups (diversity in both groups receiving the same instruction). Teachers share responsibility for planning and instruction, and each teacher instructs half of the class.
3. **Station Teaching.** Groups of students rotate around stations/teachers. Each teacher interact with all students.
4. **Alternative Teaching.** The general education teacher (GET) leads the larger group, while the special education teacher (SET) provides separate instruction to a smaller group with special learning needs.
5. **One Teach, One Assist.** The GET assumes responsibility for instruction; the other assists students.
6. **One Teach, One Observe:** The GET instructs, the other teacher observes and collects data.

(e.g., Friend & Bursuck, 2012; Friend & Cook, 2013; Friend et al., 2010; Murawski, 2009)

Issues in Co-teaching (1)

- 1. Lack of co-planning and co-instructing in action** (Mavropalias & Anastasiou, 2016).
- 2. Collaboration problems between co-teachers due to different teaching styles etc.** (Mavropalias & Anastasiou, 2016; Scruggs et al., 2007).
- 3. Problems with parity in all facets of the educational process, especially in secondary content-area classrooms** (Mavropalias & Anastasiou, 2016; Scruggs et al., 2007), e.g., “special education teacher was often observed to play a subordinate role” in co-taught classrooms (Scruggs et al., p. 392). Special education teachers have been considered “second class” teachers (Devecchi et al. 2012).
- 4. Switching roles problems** in the most demanding co-teaching models (e.g., team teaching) (Scruggs et al., 2007; Weiss & Lloyd, 2003).
- 5. “Class ownership” problems** (Mavropalias & Anastasiou, 2016; Weiss, 2015).
- 6. Labelling Issues** (Devecchi et al. 2012; Scruggs et al., 2007).

Issues in Co-teaching (2)

7. **Interaction Issues.** Students with disabilities were found to interact with teachers less frequently in the co-taught classrooms compared to the non co-taught classrooms (McDuffie, Mastropieri και Scruggs, 2009).
8. **Effectiveness problems,** especially in secondary education (Scruggs et al., 2007). Co-teaching is far from being an established effective learning model for children with disabilities (e.g., Murawski, 2006. for a review Cook et al., 2017). In general, effectiveness research is limited.
 - **Few empirical studies; many studies suffer from many methodological flaws** (Cook et al., 2017).
9. **Administrational and organizational Issues:** lack of funding, resources, and administrative support, inadequate training, lack of time for collaboration, special education teachers substitute absent general education teachers. In Greece, delay in recruitment of special ed. teachers, inequality in years of experience between general and special ed. teachers (Mavropalias & Anastasiou, 2016).

Co-teaching & Specialized Instruction (1)

- Marilyn Friend (2016), who has pioneered the promotion of co-teaching (e.g., Cook & Friend, 1995), suggested that the teacher in the classroom should not only provide students with disabilities access to the general curriculum, **but also provide them with the specialized instruction they need to succeed** (p. 18)

Co-teaching & Specialized Instruction (2)

- Friend (2016) strongly supported the **Right to Specially Designed Teaching** (p. 18).
- This means that “**when special educators function as co-teachers in the general education classroom**, they have the same responsibility to provide specially designed instruction that they would have in a self-contained special education classroom” (p. 19).
- “**Specially designed instruction is not the same as differentiation**, which today is considered just good teaching. **Nor is it the same as the accommodations** that students with disabilities receive; those are tools given to students (story starters, word banks, calculators, and so on) that facilitate their learning. **Specially designed instruction is what teachers must do to ensure that students reach their goals** (Friend, 2016, p. 19).

Co-teaching & Specialized Instruction (3)

- “For some students, specially designed instruction entails **highly structured remedial reading or math programs** that are difficult to implement in a general education setting. But for most students with IEPs, specially designed instruction can be more specific, **using evidence-based strategies** to improve speaking, reading, writing, computing, problem solving, or other skills.” (Friend, 2016, p.19).
- Friend (2016) also recognizes that adopting such strategies into the general classroom is a very difficult task. In her words: **“The challenge facing co-teachers is how to incorporate such strategies into the already crowded agenda of a contemporary classroom”** (p. 19)

A general appraisal

1. The implementation of co-teaching model (despite the technology assistance) faces many obstacles because **it requires a culture of collaboration** and an anticipated devoted school time at organizational level for it. It requires **a culture of confidence**. These factors are not given.
2. **In secondary education**, it is hard to work without a relevant parity in the content knowledge between general and special education teachers.
3. If the element of specially designed education is lost, when co-teaching is chosen as the main organizational form of support, **then the right to LEARN for children with disabilities will be also lost**.
4. The special ed. teacher should not be relegated to a teaching assistant, paraprofessional, or substitute role. He must co-plan and co-teach.
5. **Co-teaching is an organizational method that needs to be enriched with effective strategies and interventions in order to work** (Cook & McDuffie-Landrum, 2019).
6. It is doubtful if the co-teaching model can serve many students whose severe learning needs are related to learning mechanisms.

Differentiated Instruction

Differentiated Instruction (DI) as Pedagogical Framework

1. An approach in which teachers modify **the content and process of teaching, students' products, and assessment** to fit students' needs (Tomlinson, 2001; Tomlinson et al., 2003; Tomlinson & Moon, 2013).
2. It is not a specific technique. **Differentiated Instruction (DI) is essentially a framework of pedagogical assumptions and principles** by which various strategies and practices can be applied (Tomlinson & Imbeau, 2010; Tomlinson & Moon, 2013).
3. **It is not individualized instruction.** It does not require a **different lesson plan for every student every day** (Tomlinson, 2001; Tomlinson & Alan, 2000, pp. 147, 149; Tomlinson, Brimijoin, & Narvaez, 2008).

DI as Response to Diversity

1. DI is presented **as response to heterogeneity and diversity in contemporary classrooms** (Tomlinson et al., 2003; Tomlinson & Moon 2013).
2. It is based on the assumption that teachers should consider **not only** what they teach but also who **they teach** (Boyle & Provost, 2012; Tomlinson, 2001).
3. According to its theorists, **the DI is not just about students with learning difficulties or disabilities but about diversity in student population**. It also highlights the need to adapt teaching to the low-achieving students and accelerate opportunities for the high-achieving students (Tomlinson, 2001; Tomlinson et al., 2003).
4. An important aspect of DI is that **teachers assign different work to different students** and promote greater independence in the classroom. This means **different classroom organization that goes** beyond the perception of a single classroom. This requires changes in attitudes of teachers and principals (Brighton, Hertberg, Callahan, Tomlinson, & Moon, 2005, pp. xiii, 257).

Historical Roots of the DI (1)

1. DI has the strong support of the ASCD (Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development), a non-profit organization professional association of educators.
 - Its members include superintendents, supervisors, principals, teachers, professors, and school board members.
 - ASCD has published several **Carol Ann Tomlinson's books** and about 600 other books on differentiated teaching and also publishes the journal titled *Educational Leadership*.
- <http://www.ascd.org/about-ascd.aspx>,
 - <http://www.ascd.org/research-a-topic/differentiated-instruction-resources.aspx>

Historical Roots of the DI (2)

- 2. DI has a long relationship with Gifted Education.** DI as an idea, and to a significant extent its basic principles (e.g., the differentiation of content, process, and learning products, as well as its emphasis on learning styles, learning interests, and preferences), **were important topics in gifted education for decades** (e.g., Kaplan, 1986; Marland, S. P. Jr., 1971; Passow, 1982; Treffinger, 1986; Renzulli, 1976; Ward, 1980).
- **There is a plethora of related references to the concepts of DI that can be traced back to August, 1971 with the Marland Report (1971, pp. 8-9, 21) to the U.S. Congress [*Education of the Gifted and Talented: Report to Congress*] by Education Commissioner Sidney P. Marland, Jr.**
 - **The root of the ideas of the DI is the differentiated programs of Gifted Education.** This may help to better understand the ideas behind the learning styles, interests, and intelligence preferences that characterize DI's ideas.

Historical Roots of the D.I. (3)

3. Carol Ann Tomlinson, Sandra Kaplan and others **systematized the principles for enrichment of differentiated curricula that previously focused on Gifted Education** (e.g., Kaplan, 1986; Passow, 1982; Renzulli, 1976).
 - Tomlinson et al. gradually expanded them into "mixed school classrooms," **reinterpreting the notion of differentiated instruction** around the mid-1990s (see Tomlinson, 1991; Tomlinson & Callahan, 1992; Tomlinson, 1995, 1996; Tomlinson et al., 1995, 1996; Tomlinson, 1997). Thus, the concept of DI (and the differentiated curriculum) **moved to general education as a whole**. Tomlinson (1997) and Tomlinson et al. (1996) did so in an explicit and clear way.
 - ❖ Tomlinson, C. (1997). Good teaching for one and all: Does gifted education have an instructional identity? *Journal for the Education of the Gifted*, 20, 155-174.
 - ❖ Tomlinson, C., Coleman, M., Allan, S., Udall, A., & Landrum, M. (1996). Interface between gifted education and general education: Toward communication, cooperation and collaboration. *Gifted Child Quarterly*, 40, 165-171.

Historical Roots of the D.I. (4)

4. **Supporters of DI deny that it favors gifted and/or high-achieving students. But this is rather an open research question.**
 - A review of the literature shows that there is a **long and close relationship behind the ideas of the two currents**, as well as their theorists (e.g., Carol A. Tomlinson, Sandra Kaplan, Carolyn Callahan, Marcia B. Imbeau, Tonya R. Moon).

Definition of Differentiated Instruction (DI)

- “Differentiation can be defined as an approach to teaching in which teachers proactively modify **curricula, teaching methods, resources, learning activities, and student products** to address the diverse needs of individual students and small groups of students to maximize the learning opportunity for each student in a classroom” (Tomlinson et al., 2003, p. 121).

Student Characteristics

- **Instruction should match a student's characteristics.**
- Students differ in:
 1. **Readiness levels:** knowledge, understanding, and skill level a student has related to a particular sequence of learning.
 2. **Interest:** “What a student enjoys learning about, thinking about, and doing” (Tomlinson & Eidson, 2003, p. 3).
 3. **Learning profile:** It is influenced by **learning style, intelligence preference** (*Gardner's theory*: verbal-linguistic, logical-mathematical, kinesthetic, interpersonal, intrapersonal, musical, and spatial; and *Sternberg's theory*: analytical, practical, and creative), **gender, and culture** (Tomlinson, 1999, 2001; Tomlinson & Allan, 2000; Tomlinson & Eidson, 2003; Tomlinson et al. 2003)

What is Differentiated Instruction?

Student Characteristics	Examples of Differentiation		
	Content of Instruction	Processes & Strategies	Products & Assessment
1. Readiness to Learn (current knowledge, understanding, and skill level)	materials at varied readability levels	- tiered activities - mini-workshops	-personal goal-setting -tiered products
2. Interest	teacher presentations link to student interests	-interest centers -interest-based application options	-a day options - use of interests in designing products
3. Learning Profile	varied learning styles (e.g., verbal/auditory, visual, and kinesthetic)	Tasks designed to meet intelligence preferences	Varied modes of expressing learning

- Based on Tomlinson (1999, p. 11) and Tomlinson & Imbeau (2010, p. 18)

D.I. for Learner Readiness: The Tomlinson's Equalizer

1. Foundational	 Information, Ideas, Materials, Applications	Transformational
2. Concrete	 Representations, Ideas, Applications, Materials	Abstract
3. Simple	 Resources, Goals, Problems, Skills	Complex
4. Single Facet	 Directions, Disciplinary Connections	Multiple Facets
5. Small Leap	 Application, Insight, Transfer	Great Leap
6. More Structured	 Solutions, Decisions, Approaches	More Open
7. Less Independence	 Planning, Designing, Monitoring	Greater Independence
8. Slower	 Pace of Study	Quicker

Assessment

(Tomlinson, 1999)

- **Prioritize formative assessment (ongoing) assessment.**
- **A proposal for summative assessment:**
 - “At the end of each quarter, students have the option of taking their whole grade from an exam, or they can take half of it from an alternative assessment proposed by the teacher and modified by the student with teacher guidance and approval (Tomlinson, 1999, p. 7).”

Advantages of DI (1)

1. It is positive that DI promotes that **ALL** teachers should think about teaching content, process, and product in somewhat individual way. Still, this is far from being individualized instruction (Landrum & McDuffie, 2010).
 - **Not every child in every classroom can have an Individual Education Program (IEP)** (Tomlinson & Alan, 2000; Tomlinson, Brimijoin, & Narvaez, 2008).
 - **Differentiation is different from an IEP** designed by a multidisciplinary group of professionals for a child with disabilities in special education.
 - **Present Levels of Performance**
 - **Goals**
 - **Objectives**
 - **Equipment, materials etc.**

Advantages of DI (2)

- 2. Some ideas that relate to adaptations based on learning readiness are particularly useful (e.g., Tomlinson's equalizer or continuum of adaptations) (Tomlinson, 1995 σ. 162. Tomlinson, 1999, σ. 121-122) .**
- 3. Emphasis on formative assessment is a useful idea for both DI and specialized instruction, although the implementation is more demanding in the latter case.**

Issues in Differentiated Instruction (DI) (1)

- 1. DI resembles specialized instruction but it is not the same. Why?**
 - Because there is interaction of physical environment (group size, teaching rate) with the degree of individualization in teaching.
 - There are fewer opportunities for individualization within a single environment (i.e., general classroom) (Landrum & McDuffie, 2010).
 - Some strategies (e.g., phonological awareness) are better implemented in smaller groups than in the general classroom.

Issues in DI (2)

2. **The use of learning styles in various forms** (Tomlinson, 1999, 2001; Tomlinson & Imbeau, 2010) can be problematic. Corroborating research has overwhelmingly rejected instruction on the basis of learning styles.
 - **Findings show that the use of learning styles in teaching are not effective and sometimes can be harmful** (e.g., Cuevas & Dawson, 2018; Nancekivell, Shah & Gelman, 2019; Paschler et al., 2010; Riener & Willingham, 2010).
3. **More Complicated Teaching Roles.** DI can complicate the work of teachers. Teachers have to design, implement and coordinate different tasks. This requires **time for planning** as well as **organizational and administrative support**. In a 2008 study by the Fordham Institute, 84% of teachers (sample size: 900) in grades 3-12 in the US stated that differentiation was "somewhat" (48%) or "very" difficult to apply (35%) on a daily basis (Farkas & Duffett, 2008, p. 65).

Issues in DI (3)

- 4. Teamwork in the Classroom.** DI presupposes a different class organization from the traditional classroom emphasizing work in heterogeneous groups (Tomlinson et al., 2003). But if roles are not interchangeable, there is a risk that the best students will do the work for the whole group. In one survey, 77% of teachers said that when students do group projects, more advanced students often end up doing most of the work (Farkas & Duffett, 2008, p. 66).

Suggestions (1)

1. The idea of DI seems to be captivating educators, administrators, and academics. But **an educational framework of principles (a general pedagogical philosophy) CANNOT alone solve everyday problems in the general classroom.**
 - Combined with certain strategies or specific models, it may be more effective for more students than a standard program without differentiation (Panteliadou, 2013).
2. **Matching instruction to learning styles does not work.** Levels of preparedness (knowledge and skills) as well as differences in culture provide a basis for differentiation.
3. **Focus on the weakest students.** This means moving on to the philosophy of differentiation, overcoming its past.

Suggestions (2)

4. Combine the philosophy of differentiated instruction with specific strategies that research has shown to be effective. Examples of such strategies or models are:
 - **Reciprocal Teaching for Reading Comprehension**
 - **Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR)**
 - **Concrete-Representational-Abstract Model for fractions and other areas in mathematics.**

International Context

Studying Country Case Studies: The Matrix Test



- You take the blue pill - the story ends, you wake up in your bed and believe whatever you want to believe.

or

- You take the red pill...

Nearly Full Inclusion: Italy

- **Full Inclusion** means that only inclusive settings are utilized without special schools, special classes and resource rooms. All means *ALL* children with disabilities are placed in the general classroom without exception and choice...
- Italy is the closest if not the only example, applying a *full inclusion policy* since late 70s for about 40 years.
- **As of 2016/17**, Italy had **low special education coverage rates (2.92%)** compared to other Southern European countries (K-12):
 - Cyprus: **6.99%**
 - Greece: **6.00%**
 - Malta: **8.89%**
 - Portugal: **5.67%**
 - Spain: **4.43%**

❖ Source: European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive education (2019; see also Anastasiou, Kauffman, Di Nuovo, 2015)

- By comparison, before the “wild integration” policy in 1970s, Italy had one of the highest special education rates in Southern Europe (1.23% in 1970) (Anastasiou, Kauffman, Di Nuovo, 2015)

Nearly Full Inclusion: Italy (2)

- **The right to a quality, appropriate education**
- A medical Model in diagnosis of Special Learning Disabilities and Mild Disabilities.
- Recently, it was feasible the official recognition of LD: some services
- **26.4%** students with disabilities spend more than **50%** of total class time outside the classroom, and another **56.2%** spend **20-40%** of total class time outside the general classroom (Anastasiou, Kauffman, & Di Nuovo, 2015, σ. 433).
 - **A gray special education** has been created; mostly a kind of informal Special Classes and Resource Rooms.
 - **Too many laws.** Many lawsuits (especially for autism cases)
 - **Collaboration problems and ownership issues** in the general classroom. Devecchi et al. (2012) reported agency challenges faced by **support teachers** and referred to “**second class” teachers**” (p. 177).
 - *“Contrary to the spirit of the law, support teachers are not seen as part of a team, but as specifically designated to teach only children with disabilities and they do this in isolation and frequently outside the classroom.”* Devecchi et al. (2012, p. 179)

Effective Instruction

- **Specialized Instruction**
 - Specially designed
 - Systematic and Explicit
- **Individualized Instruction (IEP).**
 - Intensive Instruction
 - Group size
 - Pace
 - Motivation
- **Evidence-based Practices (EBPs): A driving force in special education.**
- **Intensive Progress Monitoring (Curriculum-Based-Measurement (CBM) sensitive to detect small changes in learning and behavior)].**

Evidence-based Practices (EBPs)

- **Not all interventions are equal.**
- There are many factors that may inhibit or facilitate outcomes for students with disabilities; a **variable** in which **special educators** have **primary control is that of teaching practices.**
- Need to develop interventions, strategies, and practices, that have **empirical support.**
- Evidence-based practices (EBPs) **denotes a general approach to teaching that prioritizes practices that have been shown to be effective by credible research. A paradigm that prioritizes empirical evidence to make informed decisions about education interventions.**
- EBP is not synonymous with best practice or research-based practice.
- An EBP approach requires teachers to use their training and decision-making skills **to determine how best to apply credible research findings to individual cases** (Cook & Cook, 2013; Cook & Odom, 2013).

Inclusive Special Education (1)

- **Inclusive education and special education are not diametrically opposed in their approaches** (Hornby, 2015).
- **Constructive concepts**, such as an **inclusive education system**; a **multilevel (or multitiered) system of support** (e.g., seen in Portugal); and inclusive culture, **have lost their broad systemic characteristics**, and, *instead, they have been weaponized against special education settings* (Anastasiou, Felder, et al, in press).
- **Differentiated instruction and Universal Design for Learning** have been considered substitutes for specialized and individualized instruction (Anastasiou, Felder, et al, in press).
- Narrow-focus approaches, even in the name of inclusion, misrepresent the **nature of mind-related disabilities**, which are deeply intertwined with neural learning networks.
- **It also underestimates the challenges and complexities** of teaching children with **cognitive disabilities, autism spectrum disorders, emotional/behavioral disorders, and learning disabilities** (Anastasiou et al., 2018).

Inclusive Special Education (2)

- A physical presence of a student with a mind-related disability in a regular classroom without adequate and/or substantive learning considerations could mean **the isolation and/or functional exclusion of students with mind-related disabilities; a paradoxical form of exclusion from learning by “inclusion.”** (Anastasiou, Felder, in press).
- **Inclusive special education provides a vision and framework** for the development of policies, procedures and teaching strategies that **will facilitate both the provision of effective instruction and social inclusion for the whole spectrum of disabilities** (Anastasiou et al., 2018; Hornby, 2015; Kauffman, Anastasiou et al., 2016; Kauffman, Wiley et al., 2018).

Learning Styles

Learning Styles and DI

- DI theorists argue that teaching must respond to specific learning styles. This is a widespread but erroneous view as research shows — adopted by Tomlinson (1999, 2001) and others to promote DI.
- According to Learning Styles theory, **individuals are divided into very distinct learning styles** and they can also be diagnosed as:
 - Acoustic, visual or kinesthetic (e.g., Tomlinson, 2001, p. 61).
 - Linear or nonlinear (e.g., Tomlinson, 2001, p. 61)
 - Creative or conforming (e.g., Tomlinson, 2001, p. 61)
- Psychological research has shown that **the belief in matching learning styles and instruction does not work**, although **80–95% of educators** and the general public in many countries (UK, USA, Switzerland, Portugal, Turkey, China) **believe in this myth** (Paschler et al., 2010; Tardif, Doudin, & Meylan, 2015).

Learning Styles and CRPD Committee

- The CRPD Committee that monitors the implementation of the Convention in its General Comment (2016), makes the mistake of adopting the "learning styles" rhetoric (paragraphs 12, 71).
 - § 12. The core features of inclusive education are:...
 - (c) Inclusive education offers flexible curricula, teaching and learning methods adapted to different strengths, requirements **and learning styles**.
 - § 71. The core content of teacher education must address a basic understanding of human diversity, growth and development, the human rights model of disability, and **inclusive pedagogy** including how to identify students' functional abilities -strengths, abilities **and learning styles-** to ensure their participation in inclusive educational environments...
 - § 71. ...In addition, teachers need practical guidance and support in, among others: the provision of individualized instruction; teaching the same content using **varied teaching methods to respond to the learning styles** and unique abilities of each person;...

Learning Styles are NOT Effective for Learning

- There are many systematic studies on the ineffectiveness of learning styles (π.χ. Cuevas & Dawson, 2018. Paschler et al., 2010).
 - **Findings over a long period were either not supportive or too weak** to support the correspondence of teaching with learning style or preference of an individual (e.g., Kavale & Forness (1987)).
 - **Today, research is even more conclusive about the ineffectiveness of learning styles.** In a letter to *The Guardian* newspaper in the context of Brain Awareness Week (2017) several well-known neuroscientists summarized their criticism of learning styles.
 - <https://www.theguardian.com/education/2017/mar/12/no-evidence-to-back-idea-of-learning-styles>

A Critique of Learning Styles (1)

- **Teachers can spend unnecessary time and effort trying to fit teaching into learning styles** (Newton & Miah, 2017; Scott, 2010; Tardif et al., 2015).
- Categorizing individuals according to a learning style can lead to a **rigid mental strategy** that is inappropriate for a particular task (Nancekivell, Shah, & Gelman, 2019).
- **Dan Willingham** (2018) summarizes what we know about learning styles in an article in the *New York Times*: <https://www.nytimes.com/2018/10/04/opinion/sunday/visual-learner-auditory-school-education.html>

1. Task type (and its requirements) is the key to success. Students may have preferences for how they learn. Many students will say that they prefer to study visually and others through the auditory channel. However, when these trends are evaluated, under controlled conditions, they do not make a difference (Willingham, 2018; Riener & Willingham, 2010). *“Whatever your purported style, intuitive thinking is better for problems demanding creativity, and reflective thinking is better for formal problems like calculations of probability. An intuitive thinker who mulishly sticks to his supposed learning style during a statistics test will fail.”* (Willingham, 2018).

A Critique of Learning Styles (2)

- 2. Interaction between task and thinking:** “Instead of trying to transform a task to match your style, transform your thinking to match the task. The best strategy for a task is the best strategy, irrespective of what you believe your learning style is.” (Willingham, 2018).
- 3. Risk of failure due to blind faith in a learning style.** “Don’t let your purported style be a self-fulfilling prophecy of failure or an excuse for resignation.” (Willingham, 2018; see also Riener & Willingham, 2010).
- 4. Hope in open and flexible thinking.** “The idea of tuning tasks to an individual’s style offered hope — a simple change might improve performance in school and at work. We’ve seen that that doesn’t work, but this research **highlights hope of another kind**. We are not constrained by our learning style. Any type of learning is open to any of us” (Willingham, 2018).

• <https://www.nytimes.com/2018/10/04/opinion/sunday/visual-learner-auditory-school-education.html>

Learning Styles & Reading (Stahl, 1999) [1]

“**The Learning Style model** assumes that different children need different approaches to learn to read. Children are different. They come to us with different personalities, preferences, ways of doing things. However, the research so far shows that this has little to do with how successful they will be as readers and writers. Children also come to us with different amounts of exposure to written text, with different skills and abilities, with different exposure to oral language. The research shows that these differences are important.

Rather than different methods being appropriate for different children, we ought to think about different methods being appropriate for children at different stages in their development. Children differ in their phonemic abilities, in their ability to recognize words automatically, in their ability to comprehend and learn from text, and in their motivation and appreciation of literature. **Different methods are appropriate for different goals.** For example, approaches that involve the children in reading books of their own choice are important to develop motivated readers. (Continued)

Learning Styles & Reading (Stahl, 1999) [2]

...But **whole language approaches**, which rely largely on children to choose the materials they read, **tend not to be as effective as more teacher-directed approaches for developing children's word recognition or comprehension.**

A language experience approach may be appropriate to help a kindergarten child learn basic print concepts. The child may learn some words using visual cues, such as might be taught through a whole word method. With some degree of phonological awareness, the child is ready to learn letters and sounds, as through a phonic approach. Learning about letters and sounds, in combination with practice with increasingly challenging texts, will develop children's ability to use phonetic cues in reading, and to cross-check using context. With additional practice in wide reading, children will develop fluent and automatic word recognition. **None of this has anything to do with learning styles; it has to do with the children's current abilities and the demands of the task they have to master next. (Stahl, 1999, pp. 4-5).**

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