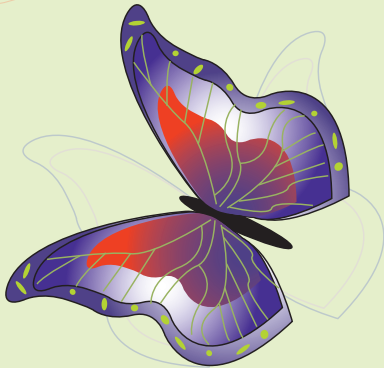


# Leading With Diversity:

CULTURAL COMPETENCIES FOR TEACHER PREPARATION  
AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

PART I:

# Introduction



Elise Trumbull  
Maria Pacheco



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## About the Authors

**Dr. Elise Trumbull** is an applied psycholinguist whose research addresses the relationships among language, culture, and schooling. She directed the Bridging Cultures project at WestEd from 1996–2004, where she also collaborated on assessment research on English language learners. She is the author of five books, including *Bridging Cultures Between Home and School*, *Assessment Alternatives for Diverse Classrooms*, and *Language and Learning: What Teachers Need to Know*.

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# PART I: INTRODUCTION

## PURPOSE AND AUDIENCE

Current research on education reform (Stringfield, Datnow, Ross, & Snively, 1998), changing student demographics, and the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB) all affirm that it is critical for teachers to meet the learning needs of those students for whom disparities in achievement still persist. Today’s students most in need of support are often African American, American Indian, or from immigrant or migrant families. Forty-one percent of the nation’s classrooms have at least one English language learner (ELL), and 40% of the nation’s students are from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2002; National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition [NCELA], 2003). According to a 2002 NCES report, 41.2% of all teachers in the United States had some students who spoke dialects or other languages at home and who were still in the process of becoming proficient in English, but only 12.5% received eight or more hours of related teacher training. Significant numbers of teachers who work in low-performing schools fall into the category of teachers “least prepared” to deal with the students who need the most help.

In response to this need, most state education agencies explicitly require that teachers meet certain criteria on cultural competencies before receiving licensure or certification. However, many teachers need professional development to build cultural competencies—the skills and awareness related to issues such as culture, language, race, and ethnicity. *Leading With Diversity: Cultural Competencies for Teacher Preparation and Professional Development* is a resource providing current research-based information on cultural competencies that will help inform the design of professional development. This resource is designed for higher education, state-, and district-level educators

and professional developers who are preparing teachers to work with students from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds.

In *Leading With Diversity*, we draw together three sets of teacher cultural competencies in the areas of **culture**, **language**, and **race and ethnicity**, along with supporting research and resources. Although there are other aspects of cultural competence that need equal attention but are not addressed in this resource (e.g., gender), these three main themes with their sets of competencies are a good starting point for professional development. These competencies are based on research and have been advocated by educators or endorsed through initiatives and reports by numerous national organizations, including Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC), Teacher Education Accreditation Council (TEAC), the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS), the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), and Educational Testing Service's (ETS) Praxis II: Principles of Learning and Teaching (PLT). For those with expertise in designing professional development, this resource provides information that they can adapt to their setting and, importantly, a guiding vision for culturally competent teaching in today's schools.

## HOW THE RESOURCE IS ORGANIZED

This resource is organized according to three main themes in cultural competence: (1) culture, (2) language, and (3) race and ethnicity. Because these competencies are interrelated and yet each can be studied independently, we have divided the material into modules, making it easy for the reader to review and refer to different parts of the resource.

Part I introduces the topic of cultural competence and includes background information on cultural competencies, the states' role in their implementation, the research-based context, and guiding assumptions that formed this material in this resource. Part II presents four competencies related to culture that transcend all aspects of diversity.

Part III outlines three competencies in the area of language that are relevant to both native English speakers and English language learners. Part IV describes six competencies for addressing issues of race and ethnicity in the classroom and school. Throughout each part are quotes from research literature and examples that illustrate or expand on important points. Finally, the fifth booklet comprises all the references for the four parts.

In each part, there is a preview of the general competencies and the subcompetencies—the strategies, actions, and teacher dispositions that support attainment of the competencies. For some of the competencies, the strategies are more explicit and extensive than for others. This is due partly to the nature of the competencies and available research, but it is also because field reviewers recommended inclusion of specific strategies. At the end of each part, we suggest resources for further exploration. It is important to note that this resource is designed to provide information useful to designing professional development but does not seek to address how to design professional development; the assumption is that readers will know best how to reach the teachers in their school and district once they have a clear orientation to cultural competence.

## DEFINING CULTURAL COMPETENCE

Cultural competence entails recognizing the differences among students and families from different cultural groups, responding to those differences positively, and being able to interact effectively in a range of cultural environments (Lindsey, Robins, & Terrell, 2003). Cross (1995) defines cultural competencies more explicitly as “a set of congruent behaviors, attitudes, structures, and policies that come together to work effectively in intercultural situations” (p. 4). The term refers to culture in the very broadest sense. The first step for teachers in developing cultural competencies is recognizing how their own perspectives and knowledge of the world are rooted in a particular cultural, racial, and ethnic identity and history (Lindsey et al., 2003).

Some use the term *cultural proficiency* instead of *cultural competence*, to represent the highest level of ability to understand and work with people from different backgrounds (Lindsey et al., 2003). Still others distinguish between the two, considering cultural proficiency to be a more advanced state of understanding and capacity to act constructively (Lindsey et al., 2003). We have chosen the term cultural competence because we believe it links best to the terminology used in relevant literature and in states' efforts to ensure a teaching workforce that is prepared to work with a diverse population of students (Education Alliance, in press).

Ladson-Billings (2001) states that cultural competence is present in classrooms where

- ❑ “The teacher understands culture and its role in education.
- ❑ The teacher takes responsibility for learning about students' culture and community.
- ❑ The teacher uses student culture as a basis for learning.
- ❑ The teacher promotes a flexible use of students' local and global culture” (p. 98).

## BACKGROUND ON TEACHER CULTURAL COMPETENCIES

Preparing teachers to competently address the cultural and linguistic characteristics of an increasingly diverse student population

continues to be a daunting task.

Since the 1990s, teacher preparation organizations and researchers have promoted standards and guidelines.

Current federal and state requirements on teacher quality demand teachers' expertise and effectiveness in reaching children with a wide

range of abilities, skills, and needs in low-performing schools (NCLB, 2002). Teachers greatly benefit from knowledge about the nature of culture and cultural diversity, the relationship of language to culture

***cultural competence:*** *the ability to recognize differences based on culture, language, race, ethnicity, and other aspects of individual identity and to respond to those differences positively and constructively*

and identity, first and second language development, approaches to teaching a second language, approaches to teaching content-area material, and assessing content-area learning by ELLs (Lucas, 2000). In addition, researchers (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Villegas, 2002) have established the correlation between ELLs' academic achievement and their teachers' effectiveness and competencies. However, many teachers have not received the professional development necessary to meet these demands.

In the 1990s, the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) addressed the need for teacher cultural competencies by providing a comprehensive road map to those involved in teacher preparation. The board recognized that

Regardless of assignment or approach, such teachers work toward the same goals for their students: to develop students' proficiency in English; to provide students with access to important subject matter and advance their understanding of subject matter; and to assist students in becoming part of the fabric of the school and responsible members of a democracy. (NBPTS, 1998)

The board established standards requiring that all candidates for national certification in English as a New Language respond to a common core of understandings, dispositions, and skills (NBPTS, 1998), including the ability to

- ❑ Work to increase students' access to the entire curriculum while they learn English and simultaneously honor the cultural and linguistic resources students bring to school;
- ❑ Know that language and culture are interrelated;
- ❑ See their role as a conduit among the students' culture, the school's culture, and the mainstream culture of American society; and
- ❑ Advocate for students both in school and in the wider community.

Informed by the above premises, the board set standards for teachers seeking national certification in English as a New Language, including:

- ❑ **Knowledge of Language and Language Development** – Accomplished teachers of linguistically and culturally diverse learners are models of language proficiency in the languages in which they are expected to teach. They draw on their knowledge of language and language development to understand the learning process and to make necessary curricular modifications.
- ❑ **Knowledge of Culture** – Accomplished teachers of linguistically and culturally diverse learners are knowledgeable about and sensitive to the dynamics of culture in general and their students’ cultures in particular, which enables them to understand their students and to structure a successful academic experience for them.
- ❑ **Knowledge of Subject Matter** – Accomplished teachers of linguistically and culturally diverse learners draw on a comprehensive command of subject matter, language of instruction, and their relationship to each other to establish goals, design curricula and instruction, and facilitate student learning. They do so in a manner that builds on students’ linguistic and cultural diversity.
- ❑ **Meaningful Learning** – Accomplished teachers of linguistically and culturally diverse learners use a variety of approaches that allow students to confront, explore, and understand important and challenging concepts, topics, and issues in meaningful ways.
- ❑ **Multiple Paths of Knowledge** – Accomplished teachers of linguistically and culturally diverse learners provide multiple paths to help students develop language proficiency, learn the central concepts in each pertinent discipline, build knowledge, and strengthen understanding of the disciplines. They effectively use the language of instruction to enhance subject matter learning.
- ❑ **Learning Environment** – Accomplished teachers of linguistically and culturally diverse learners establish a caring, inclusive, safe, and linguistically and culturally rich community of learning where students take intellectual risks and work both independently and collaboratively.

- ❑ **Assessment** – Accomplished teachers of linguistically and culturally diverse learners employ a variety of assessment methods to obtain useful information about student learning and development and to assist students in reflecting on their own progress.
- ❑ **Linkages With Families** – Accomplished teachers of linguistically and culturally diverse learners create linkages with families that enhance the educational experience of their students. (NBPTS, 1998)

Likewise, researchers specializing in ELL education have addressed this issue. Wong-Fillmore and Snow (2000) proposed critical competencies that effective teachers of ELLs should develop. They distinguished five functions related to language: (1) knowledge of linguistics and language, (2) language and cultural diversity, (3) sociolinguistics, (4) language development and second language acquisition, and (5) an understanding of academic discourse.

More recently, Villegas and Lucas (2002) also proposed criteria for accomplished teachers of ELLs. Their recommendations are grounded in years of research on culturally responsive pedagogy. They advance the notion that culturally responsive teachers are socioculturally conscious—that is, they understand that people’s ways of thinking, behaving, and being are influenced by race, ethnicity, social class, and language (Banks, 1996, cited in Villegas and Lucas, 2002). This notion requires that teachers understand their own socio-cultural identities (Banks, 1996, cited in Villegas and Lucas, 2002). Accordingly, they can develop their sociocultural awareness through autobiography, reflection, and self-analysis.

According to Villegas and Lucas, teachers who are socioculturally conscious are able to maintain affirming views of students from diverse backgrounds in their classrooms. They consider themselves responsible for creating necessary changes and capable of making schools more equitable for all learners. They understand how learners construct knowledge and they promote knowledge construction with great confidence. They make connections to their students and their communities. Above all, they design instruction that builds on their students’ background knowledge while stretching their minds beyond what is familiar.

García (2002) also describes a set of attributes that characterize effective teachers of ELLs. Derived from studies of effective teachers of ELLs, the attributes fall into four distinctive domains: knowledge, skills, dispositions, and affect. Specifically, effective teachers know what outcomes students are working toward and what students must do to get there. They are dedicated, have a sense of efficacy, and know how to communicate high expectations. They use active teaching methods, making explicit what students need to know and be able to do. They engage students by pacing instruction appropriately, monitoring progress, and providing appropriate and expedient feedback. They also mediate instruction for their students by using native language strategies and English to make instruction clear.

Gay (2000) describes effective teaching practice as “anchored in caring, commitment, cultural competence, and an understanding that school performance takes place within a complex sociocultural ecology and is filtered through cultural screens both students and teachers bring to the classroom” (p. 54). Many other studies on culturally responsive education examine teaching practices that are effective for students from diverse backgrounds (Ladson-Billings, 1994; Sheets, 1995; Powell, 1996).

By definition, *culturally responsive pedagogy* refers to the design of curriculum and instruction whose objective is to build on students’ cultural knowledge (Bartolomé, 1995; Villegas, 1991). For example, Gloria Ladson-Billings’ 1995 research with teachers of African American students concluded that incorporating the home culture or language (e.g., a foreign language) into the educational setting produces a higher degree of success among students excluded from mainstream settings.

Ladson-Billings (1995a) outlined three criteria necessary in the implementation of culturally relevant pedagogy. First, culturally relevant teaching must result in the academic success of its students. Second, culturally relevant teaching maintains a child’s cultural identity while simultaneously promoting academic success. Third, culturally relevant teaching creates a social consciousness among students, allowing them to challenge the structure of society and view education as a tool for social change.

## THE INCLUSION OF CULTURAL COMPETENCIES IN TEACHER STANDARDS

Many states are responding to the needs of diverse students with efforts to enhance teacher quality and focus on professional standards.

**Note:** See *Resources at the end of Part I for a listing of Web sites for all standards referenced in this section.*

According to a recent report by the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO, 2002), the number of states with standards for teacher licensure increased from 34 in 1998 to 47 in 2002.

To better understand how states perceive the importance of cultural competence, we reviewed teaching standards documents from every state. Our examination of these teaching standards provides an important context for the cultural competencies included in this resource.

### State Standards

From the Web sites of state departments of education, we collected standards documents describing the pedagogical knowledge and practice required of all teachers, including beginning teachers, regardless of grade level or subject area (noted as “universal” standards). Although many states’ teaching standards do incorporate cultural competencies, most treat these issues broadly. Other states’ standards are more explicit about the practices and knowledge teachers must master to meet needs of students from diverse cultural, ethnic, and linguistic backgrounds. We found 16 states that explicitly treat cultural competencies in their teaching standards.

The cultural competencies that states address in their standards can be grouped into three categories: (1) culture, (2) language, and (3) race and ethnicity. Culture in general is most frequently addressed (28 states), whereas race and ethnicity are invoked the least (11 states). Seventeen states address issues related to ELLs. California incorporates all three categories in its teacher preparation program standards. Under Standard 5: Equity, Diversity, and Access to the Core Curriculum for All Children, California addresses culture, race, and ethnicity, requiring that programs “include study and discussion of the historical and cultural traditions of major cultural and ethnic groups in California society, and examination of effective ways to

include cultural traditions...in the instructional program of a classroom.” Standard 13, Preparation to Teach English Learners, consists of eight elements defining expectations for teacher competencies related to language, including “knowledge of linguistic development, first and second language acquisition and how first language literacy connects to second language development” and “instructional strategies designed to make grade-appropriate or advanced curriculum content comprehensible to English learners” (California Commission on Teacher Credentialing, 2003).

Some states’ teaching standards include specific provisions that reflect the unique cultural diversity within the state. For example, North Dakota’s Multicultural Education and Native American Studies requirement specifically addresses state needs, as teachers must understand basic traditions and values of American Indian cultures, American Indian stereotypes and their impact on students, and the impact of limited English proficiency on student learning. Similarly, Alaska requires that teachers should draw on knowledge of Alaskan history, languages, and traditional life cycles when designing instructional strategies and materials; and teachers in Minnesota must “understand the cultural content, world view, and concepts that comprise Minnesota-based American Indian tribal governments, history, language, and culture” (Minnesota Board of Education, 2000).

However, state teaching standards do not always reflect the diversity of a state’s school population. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2003), of the 12 states with the highest percentage of students receiving ELL services (AK, AZ, CA, CO, FL, HI, ID, NM, NV, OR, TX, UT), 9 have universal standards that address cultural competencies either broadly or specifically, and 5 have standards that address language-related competencies. Of the 12 states with the highest percentage of nonwhite and Hispanic students (AZ, CA, FL, GA, HI, LA, MD, MS, NM, NV, SC, TX), 10 have universal standards that address cultural competencies either broadly or specifically, and only 2 have standards that address competencies related to race and ethnicity. Given these discrepancies, it is clear that while many states’ standards do incorporate cultural competencies, there is room for improvement.

## National Standards

To better understand how teacher quality standards might integrate cultural competencies, we examined several model standards produced by national organizations. Two models were frequently cited in our review of the states' standards. The Council of Chief State School Officers' (CCSSO) Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC) developed the *Model Standards for Beginning Teacher Licensing, Assessment, and Development: A Resource for State Dialogue* in 1992. According to a 2002 CCSSO report, 35 states' standards are based on this model. Similarly, a number of states model their teacher education program guidelines on the *Professional Standards for the Accreditation of Schools, Colleges, and Departments of Education*, developed by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). Both sets of standards address cultural competencies (see Resources).

The INTASC standards are meant to represent “what all beginning teachers should know, be like, and be able to do in order to practice responsibly, regardless of the subject matter or grade level being taught” (CCSSO, 2005). These standards consist of 10 principles, each accompanied by descriptions of related knowledge, skills, and dispositions expected of teachers. Two principles in particular focus on cultural competencies, although related indicators appear throughout the document. Principle 3 states, “The teacher understands how students differ in their approaches to learning and creates instructional opportunities that are adapted to diverse learners.” Elements under this principle include: “The teacher knows about the process of second language acquisition and about strategies to support the learning of students whose first language is not English” and “The teacher seeks to understand students' families, cultures, and communities and uses this information as a basis for connecting instruction to students' experiences.” Principle 6 states, “The teacher uses knowledge of effective verbal, nonverbal, and media communication techniques to foster active inquiry, collaboration, and supportive interaction in the classroom.” The associated elements include: “The teacher recognizes the power of language for fostering self-expression, identity development, and learning” and “The teacher communicates

in ways that demonstrate a sensitivity to cultural and gender differences” (CCSSO, 1992). In these and other elements, the INTASC standards specifically address competencies related to culture and language.

The NCATE standards apply to schools, colleges, and departments of education that provide initial and continuing training to teachers. Standard 4: Diversity calls for cultural competence. Under this standard, degree candidates should “learn to develop and teach lessons that incorporate diversity,” “become aware of different teaching and learning styles shaped by cultural influences,” and be “able to adapt instruction and services appropriately for all students.” NCATE also requires that candidates have field experiences “in settings with exceptional populations and students from different ethnic, racial, gender, socioeconomic, language, and religious groups” (NCATE, 2002).

Other national education organizations have also developed standards that incorporate cultural competencies. The Teacher Education Accreditation Council (TEAC) has developed standards for academic degree programs for professional educators (see Resources). The council requires evidence that prospective teachers “understand the implications of confirmed scholarship on gender, race, individual differences, and ethnic and cultural perspectives for educational practice” (TEAC, 2004). Although National Board certification is designed for experienced teachers, the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) offers Five Core Propositions to “serve as a guide to school districts, states, colleges, universities, and others with a strong interest in strengthening the initial and ongoing education of America’s teachers” (NBPTS, 2002, p. 1). The first proposition—“Teachers are committed to students and their learning”—invokes various cultural competencies. For example, according to NBPTS, accomplished teachers “recognize the ways in which intelligence is culturally defined” and treat students equitably, taking care that “biases based on real or perceived ability differences, handicaps or disabilities, social or cultural background, language, race, religion, or gender do not distort relationships between themselves and their students” (NBPTS, 2002, p. 3).

Finally, the Praxis II: Principles of Learning and Teaching (PLT) exam constitutes another national teaching standard that addresses cultural competencies; more than one fourth of states require prospective teachers to pass the PLT (CCSSO, 2002). The PLT covers numerous topics that relate to cultural competencies, including “cultural expectations and styles” that affect ways students learn and perform, the “process of second language acquisition and strategies to support the learning of students for whom English is not a first language,” and “antibias curriculum” (Educational Testing Service, 2002).

## BACKGROUND CONTEXT FOR THIS RESOURCE

Given the clear need for teacher preparation and professional development, our goal is to present a resource of culturally responsive teaching practices that research indicates can contribute to the academic achievement of students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds. In this section, we discuss the research that informed the development of this resource as well as issues related to terminology.

### What is Diversity?

The term *diversity* as applied to school populations evokes culture, language, race, ethnicity, gender, religion, national origin, sexual

**diversity:** *variety or heterogeneity; in populations, variety based on cultural, ethnic, racial, linguistic, and religious differences (among others)*

orientation, socioeconomic class, and many other aspects of human identity. All of these interact with education and must be considered in responding to the needs of students. People often use the

term *diverse* to mean “different from the dominant culture,” as in “I have a lot of diverse learners in my classroom this year.” It seems to have grown popular as an acceptable substitute for *minority*. However, in any group, diversity is constituted by all of its members. Where one sees difference depends upon where one stands. To use the term *diverse learners* to identify students from nondominant groups as

different from the dominant culture is to perpetuate a norm of separation and inequity (Gutiérrez & Rogoff, 2003). This norm implies that some students are “different” and others are “normal.” However, the term is appropriately applied to a group that has people from many different backgrounds, referring to the entire population, not just those perceived to be “different.”

Some of the most powerful elements of identity that influence the ways that people interact with society are their **culture**, the **language** learned at home, and their **race** and **ethnicity**. Of course, other aspects of diversity are also important. For instance, poverty or socioeconomic class is an underlying factor that exerts considerable power over educational opportunities and interacts with other aspects of identity and life circumstance (Banks, 1995). Religion may be an important point of identity difference between members of the same perceived racial group, as with African Americans who may be Catholic, Protestant, Muslim, or Jewish, depending on their histories. Gender is also a major component of one’s identity. The ways in which children are socialized with regard to gender (i.e., what is expected of boys versus girls) influence how they interact with each other both inside and outside of school. National origin is also a component of one’s identity—whether one comes from the United States, Cuba, Somalia, Haiti, or any other country.

Diversity is a topic, or set of topics, that risks being oversimplified when reduced to a few pages of discussion. Yet understanding core issues can go a long way to helping educators address the needs of diverse student populations. Our treatment of diversity is by no means exhaustive, but it will give educators a good foundation on which to build the specific knowledge that they need to support students and families in their own particular settings.

## Terminology

The topic of names is an important and sensitive one because social and historical pressures have often caused groups and individuals to lose their own names or have a designation “assigned” to them by the

dominant culture. In choosing terms, the best approach is to learn from individuals and groups how they would like to be characterized.

For the purposes of this resource, we define and use the terms *nondominant group* and *dominant group*, as follows:

**nondominant group:** those who have been defined as a minority group on the basis of their race, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, disability, or religion; who historically have been underserved; and who face limitations to access and power in society. For example, in U.S. schools the nondominant group is often characterized as students and teachers of color.

**dominant group:** those who have been defined as a majority group on the basis of their race, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, disability, or religion and who historically have had greater advantages, access, and power in society. For example, in U.S. schools the dominant group is often characterized as white, middle-class students and teachers.

Wherever possible in this publication, we use the specific term used by specific members of the group who are being cited. Terms vary, depending upon who is speaking or conducting the research. For instance, the terms *Hispanic*, *Latino*, *Chicano*, and *Mexican American* may be used to refer to people from the same background. Similarly, some use the term *African American*, while others use *Black*. *People of color* is often used to refer to anyone who is not *White*. *Asian* is a very broad designation, and most often we use specific terms such as *Chinese*, *Vietnamese*, or *Hmong*.

We use the term *American Indian* rather than *Native American* because it appears to be preferred by members of many indigenous groups in the United States. Others prefer the term *Indigenous*, to refer to groups who lived on the North American continent prior to European colonization. When speaking of a particular indigenous group, most agree that whenever possible the specific name, such as Menominee, Cree, Navajo, or Tlingit, should be used.

## Limitations of Categories

With regard to educational research in “minority populations,” because of important differences within groups and in the contexts in which they are being educated, it is difficult to generalize from one subpopulation or setting to another. For example, one cannot assume that all Latinos, all African Americans, or all Southeast Asian Americans have similar learning needs (Gallimore & Goldenberg, 2001; Te, 1995). Students’ home and community experiences and orientations to schooling are varied. A Mexican American immigrant child is likely to need something different from a Cuban American child whose family has lived in Miami for two generations—even if both families speak Spanish at home. In addition, cultural borders are permeable, particularly when cultures come in contact with each other (Eisenhart, 2001, p. 21). Likewise with ethnic, racial, and linguistic identity, when students interact with other students from different backgrounds, they have new options for perceiving the world (Banks et al., 2001).

Asian populations, which are often lumped together in discussions of diversity, are very different from one another; and they have different experiences and rates of success within the U.S. school system, depending in part upon their backgrounds (Cheng, 1995). Korean immigrants often come from educated middle-class families, whereas Southeast Asian families from Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia may have suffered through years of relocation and disrupted schooling (Cheng, 1995).

## The Achievement Gap

The passage of NCLB in 2001 and the resulting requirement that schools report data in disaggregated form have placed a spotlight on the achievement gaps that persist among groups of students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds as well as children living in poverty. Despite this focus, equity issues remain unresolved. Teacher quality can benefit from an understanding of the equity issues that underlie gaps in achievement of students from diverse backgrounds. With such understanding, educators are empowered to confront the challenges of closing the achievement gap for all students.

The achievement gap between White students and their Black and Hispanic peers is an ongoing concern.<sup>1</sup> Whether measured by average scores between racial and ethnic groups on National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) tests, performance on the SAT, or high school graduation rates, this gap has actually widened in the 1990s, after some narrowing in the 1970s and 1980s (Lee, 2002; Orfield, Losen, Wald, & Swanson, 2004). The Black-White gap was almost closed in terms of high school graduation and college education rates in the early 1990s, for instance, but the gap as measured by those indicators has increased. Blacks drop out of high school at a rate 1.5 to 2 times that of Whites. The Hispanic-White gap is even greater in terms of dropouts. The dropout rate is four times higher for Hispanics than Whites.

The dropout rate for American Indian students has been a problem in many parts of the country. For the 36 states reporting data for the school year 2000–2001, the range of percentages of high school completion was 42.1% (South Dakota) to 90.1% (North Dakota). Very few states approached North Dakota's rate, however (National Center for Education Statistics, 2003). For non-Hispanic Whites, the range was 71.6% (Louisiana) to 94.2% (Wisconsin). Numerous researchers have documented social and historical factors that combine with poor educational practices to influence such results for American Indian students (Chavers & Locke, 1989; Dana, 1984; Eberhard, 1989; Swisher & Deyhle, 1992).

Researchers have looked to social and educational factors to explain the gap. Contrary to popular belief, research shows that youth culture is not a significant factor. For instance, both drug/alcohol use and violent behavior among Blacks and Hispanics were lower than that of Whites between 1992 and 1998. One social factor in the increasing Black-White achievement gap may be the resegregation of the largest school districts because the pattern of achievement follows the path of initial desegregation and resegregation (Lee, 2002). The resegregation of African Americans has likely contributed to lack of interaction with members of the dominant culture, whose norms

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<sup>1</sup> White, Black, and Hispanic are the terms used in national comparisons.

of language and communication are often necessary for success on writing samples, college and job interviews, and other gateways to opportunity. However, although Hispanic students have become increasingly segregated over the same time period, one does not see exactly the same pattern of achievement outcomes—another reminder that generalizations are often flawed.

One often-cited indicator of educational equity is access to higher level mathematics courses. According to recent data, the Black-White gap and the Hispanic-White gap (to a lesser extent) have been virtually closed. However, that statistic exists apart from the quality of classroom teachers and school-level resources (e.g., books, libraries, technology), which contribute to inequities. A high-level mathematics course taught from an old textbook by a teacher who did not specialize in mathematics or who has been teaching for only a short time will not be equivalent to one in a classroom that is equipped with resources and a well-prepared and experienced teacher.

Another factor contributing to the achievement gap is unconscious lowered expectations (Oakes, 1985) of students from nondominant groups on the part of educators. When students accept others' views of them as “less than,” they do not perform up to the level of their potential (Steele & Aronson, 1995).

## The Research Base

To present a complex picture of what it takes to educate all learners, this resource draws on research from multiple disciplines, including education, linguistics, anthropology, psychology, and sociology.

Research on school improvement has increasingly attended to “special populations,” whether ELLs or students from ethnic and racial “minority” groups.<sup>2</sup> However, the research base on special

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<sup>2</sup> Attention to differences in outcomes for girls versus boys dates to the passage of the Title IX legislation, part of the Education Act of 1972. Concerns about the overreferral of boys (especially African American boys) for special services or disciplinary action have arisen in recent years as well.

populations is still less complete than that on mainstream students. The majority of educational research in all areas has been conducted with white, native-English-speaking, middle-class students or their families (for research on nondominant groups, see August & Hakuta, 1997; Banks, 1995; Lee, 2002; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998). And the large-scale experimental or quasi-experimental research base is even smaller on English language learners, immigrant students, American Indian students, and African American students. This is in part because of population sizes, but it may also be due to assumptions that all students should be able to learn and participate in schooling in the same ways and that results of research on mainstream students should apply to everyone. However, many scholars question this assumption (Banks, 2004).

Some of the most informative educational research that does address social and cultural factors focuses on single populations, such as rural Yupi'ik Eskimos (Lipka, Mohatt, & Ciulistet Group, 1998; Lipka & Adams, 2004); Native Hawaiians (Au & Kawakami, 1994); urban African Americans (Lee, 1995; 2000); Navajos living on the Navajo Nation (McCarty, 2002); or urban immigrant Mexican Americans (Reese, 2002; Reese, Balzano, Gallimore, & Goldenberg, 1995). These studies serve an extremely important function for educators: They show in depth how multiple factors come together to influence educational outcomes for students, and they often identify steps that can be implemented to make education accessible to particular students. Moreover, they serve as concrete examples of how schooling can be built on students' knowledge and ways of knowing and, as such, can inspire teachers in ways that general principles often cannot.

Unfortunately, it cannot be assumed that what works for the mainstream population will work with those from other backgrounds. When an area of research includes more participants from nondominant groups, new patterns of outcomes often emerge. Parent involvement research is a case in point. Despite some limitations in study design (including lack of specificity about participants' group membership), the evidence suggests that "minority" parents often

want to be involved in their children’s schooling but do not want to be involved in the same ways as their dominant-group peers. Such parents may respond differently to schools’ standard efforts to involve them. With regard to studies on content-area instruction, it is clear that although some generalizations can be made about what counts as “good instruction,” many particulars must be taken into account when teaching students from different backgrounds (Cheng, 1995; Delpit, 1995; Eisenhart, Finkel, & Marion, 1996; Hilberg, Doherty, Dalton, Youpa, & Tharp, 2002; Ladson-Billings, 1994; Lipka et al., 1998; Suina & Smolkin, 1994).

## **Guiding Assumptions**

In developing this resource, several guiding assumptions focused our selection and articulation of cultural competencies. These assumptions are rooted in the research from multiple disciplines.

### **Learning Builds on What Students Already Know**

Learning proceeds from the known to the unknown. The implications of this statement are that teaching must draw upon what students already know: To be meaningful, curriculum and instruction must connect to students’ lives (Tharp, Estrada, Dalton, & Yamauchi, 2000). School learning is built upon both the new academic content to which students are exposed and their everyday experience and knowledge, which is based in their home cultures (Tharp et al., 2000). What students know can serve as the bridge to new knowledge and new ways of knowing. Teachers need cultural knowledge—cultural competence—to make this kind of connection a reality.

### **Diversity Should Be Addressed Up Front in School Improvement Efforts**

Addressing diversity is something to be done at the front end of any school improvement process, not as an adaptation of plans already made for the general population of students (Stringfield et al., 1998). To be successful, a school improvement process must be based upon a deep understanding of the students and families served by the school or district. It cannot be assumed that what works for dominant-group, native-English speakers will work for students who come from nondominant groups or are still learning English.

## Context Matters

Designing successful educational programs for any student requires taking into account the context—that is, setting, nature of student population, resources, and local goals. Context is always germane to the issue of school improvement: One needs to consider whether students live in rural or urban environments, whether they have access to needed resources, how far they have to travel to school, how qualified their teachers are, their home socialization experiences, and a host of other conditions, in order to make sense of how inputs and outcomes might be related (Boykin & Bailey, 2000; Haskins & Rouse, 2005; Herman & Abedi, 2004). A uniform approach that ignores the context is not likely to succeed. Students build new knowledge on the foundation of what they have already learned and how their cultural communities orient them to schooling (Bruner, 1996; Greenfield, 1994; Vygotsky, 1978). As multicultural researcher and theorist James Banks says, “Knowledge is socially constructed and reflects human interests, values, and action” (1993, p. 5). Hence, successful education depends upon teachers’ abilities to connect with students’ different perspectives, knowledge, and ways of knowing—and with students’ abilities to connect with each other’s perspectives.

Research that is valid and useful in identifying ways to improve schooling for students who have not had equitable opportunities in the past must necessarily account for many layers of context. There is no such thing as a program or intervention that can be implemented in the same way for all students—or for all Latinos, Vietnamese Americans, or African Americans—with equally positive outcomes.

### Multiple Perspectives

Learning to look through multiple perspectives, young people may be helped to build bridges among themselves; attending to a range of human stories, they may be provoked to heal and transform. (Greene, 1993, p. 17)

Examination of many contextual factors (from the perspectives of insiders as well as outside evaluators) is necessary to understanding the success or failure of any improvement effort. Moreover, what members of a given community identify as program goals or measures of success may differ from what others identify (Nelson-Barber, LaFrance, Trumbull, & Aburto, in press).

Qualitative studies that provide rich contextual description are essential to understanding why and how students respond to different approaches to assessment and instruction; why and how parents and families respond to different approaches to involving them in their children's schooling; and how community factors interact with school factors (Eccles & Gootman, 2002; Heath, 1995; Mehan, Lintz, Okamoto, & Wills, 1995; Merriam, 2001; Spindler, 1982). Such studies complement large-scale quantitative studies that can reveal trends or experimental and quasi-experimental studies that attempt to control for certain factors and identify specific variables influencing educational outcomes (Shavelson & Towne, 2002). However, variables and controls are not properly applied to qualitative, ethnographic studies that attempt to shed light on complex social phenomena that are by nature the result of many interacting elements of daily life and social history (Maxwell, 2004).

When students are still learning English upon entry to school, when their home cultures differ markedly from the dominant culture (that is reflected in school), or when educators perceive students' "minority" status as a deficit, the importance of context is magnified. The potential for equitable outcomes for students is seriously challenged. Although gender operates somewhat differently as a factor in students' school experiences, it can be a covert factor in differential access and achievement as well. School personnel may tacitly accept the disproportionate representation of boys in an advanced science class; they may indirectly discourage boys from taking career-related courses that are perceived as being for girls.

## **Factors at All Levels Interact**

The various elements that contribute to the diversity of school populations combine and interact. Every individual identifies with some racial or ethnic group, has one or more native languages, and participates in a cultural group. Each person is a complex individual whose identity and life choices are influenced but are not determined by his or her gender, race, ethnicity, culture, or language. Every person has what has been called “agency,” or the “ability to act on one’s behalf” (Parkerson, 2004, p. 30, citing Greene, 2003).

It can be risky to implicitly categorize people. To speak of “immigrant Latinos” as though they are one group with a set of predictable traits is erroneous. It is more useful to think of people as participants in one or more communities with which they identify (Gutiérrez & Rogoff, 2003). This is not to negate the usefulness of examining cultural patterns, which can point us to differences that need to be considered in designing optimal education for the students we serve (Rogoff, 2003).

In addition, as suggested above, school and student factors interact with larger social factors, making the identification of causal relationships in educational research extremely difficult (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Shavelson & Towne, 2002; Turner, 2000).

## **Increasing Cultural Competence Through Professional Development**

Professional development is a major strategy for building cultural competencies. There are many programs that address different aspects of diversity; the best are highly interactive, long term, and part of a larger school-based plan (Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 1999; Joyce & Showers, 1995). Professional development can help teachers “to continually reassess what schooling means in the context of a pluralist society; the relationships between teachers and learners; and attitudes and beliefs about language, culture, and race” (Clair & Adger, 1999, p. 2).

There are four major implications of diversity for the design of successful professional development.

- 1 The content of professional development should take into account the population of students being served. Curriculum, instruction, and assessment cannot justifiably look the same in all contexts, although broad educational standards may be held constant across contexts (Echevarria & Goldenberg, 1999; Tharp et al., 2000).
- 2 Like the schooling of students, the formats and interpersonal norms of professional development cannot be universalized. That is, the same processes will not work for educators from all backgrounds (van Broekhuizen & Dougherty, 1999). Limited research has been conducted on this topic, but a safe assumption is that many of the same issues apply as when one is teaching students cross-culturally.

For instance, Navajo teachers, whose culture tends to value observation and respectful listening, are not likely to be comfortable responding to direct questions requiring them to share their thoughts in a large group—at least at the outset of a professional development workshop (Koelsch, personal communication). Members of other cultures may feel that holding back one's feelings and opinions is disingenuous (Kochman, 1990). In groups that are composed of primarily white/European American teachers and administrators, the few nondominant group participants may not comfortably participate without attention to special ways of including them and their voices (Derman-Sparks & Phillips, 1997; Tatum, 1997).

- 3 Professional development on the topic of diversity has particular requirements. Because of current and past relations between dominant and nondominant groups within the larger society, power issues may have to be addressed (Delpit, 1995; Nieto, 2002; Weis & Fine, 1993; Young, 1999).

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## Overcoming Interpersonal Barriers

When we teach across boundaries of race, class, or gender—indeed when we teach at all—we must recognize and overcome the power differential, the stereotypes, and the other barriers which prevent us from seeing each other. Those efforts must drive our teacher education, our curriculum development, our instructional strategies, and every aspect of the educational enterprise. Until we see the world as others see it, all the educational reforms in the world will come to naught. (Delpit, 1995, p. 134)

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Without intervention, power relations of the larger society are likely to be replicated in the professional development setting (as they tend to be within the school system and between school staff and families) (Fine, Weis, Powell, & Wong, 1997; Young, 1999). Trust among participants is not automatic and must be fostered by sensitive facilitation and built over some time if participants have not already established it through prior collaboration. Members of the dominant group may be baffled by or impatient with both the need to take time and the specific measures adopted to make the environment safe for topics that some find more painful than others (Tatum, 1997).

- 4 Learning about culture begins as an inside-out process—first developing cultural self-awareness (Singleton & Linton, in press; Tiedt & Tiedt, 1990). The process involves more than learning about other people. For members of the dominant culture, this maxim is even more important, for many have not had to examine their invisible culture-based beliefs or learn another culture's norms in order to function daily. Participants who negotiate more than one culture have a wealth of experience and skill in moving back and forth between cultures and associated expectations (Trueba, 2002).

## CONCLUSION

When teacher preparation and professional development include attention to issues of culture, language, and race and ethnicity, teachers can develop their cultural knowledge and, importantly, a sense of self-efficacy, which in turn is positively related to student engagement and achievement (Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2000, 2004; Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). This resource presents a comprehensive menu of the cultural competencies that teachers need to work effectively with all students. Although this listing of cultural competencies is by no means complete, it offers a starting point for navigating the complex terrain of teaching in today's schools and for helping teachers to create a mutually rewarding relationship with students and their families.

**See References for all material cited in Parts I – IV.**

# Overview of Cultural Competencies

## PREVIEW OF COMPETENCIES ADDRESSED IN PART II

### **GENERAL COMPETENCY I: Developing Cultural Awareness**

1. The teacher develops awareness of his or her own cultural identity, values, attitudes, and biases.
2. The teacher is knowledgeable about the culture of the school and seeks ways to accommodate it to students' needs.

### **GENERAL COMPETENCY II: Providing High-Level, Challenging, Culturally Relevant Curriculum and Instruction**

1. The teacher engages in culturally relevant instructional practices.
2. The teacher connects students' interests and background knowledge to content standards in instruction.
3. The teacher considers the appropriateness of instructional activities for individual students based on their cultural histories.
4. The teacher uses a range of classroom organizational and participant structures and documents student participation.
5. The teacher provides opportunities for student choice.
6. The teacher implements cooperative learning and other interactive strategies.
7. The teacher provides opportunities for students to use nonlinguistic forms of intelligence, such as artistic and musical.

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**GENERAL COMPETENCY III:  
Collaborating With Parents and Families**

1. The teacher uses cultural knowledge to communicate well with families.
2. The teacher promotes two-way learning: Families learn from the school, and school staff learn from families and the community.
3. The teacher assumes that parents are interested in their children's schooling and offers flexibility in the ways that parents can participate.
4. The teacher uses cultural knowledge to mediate between home and school and advocate for what students and families need.
5. The teacher supports family members in acquiring skills that families deem important.

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**GENERAL COMPETENCY IV:  
Making Classroom Assessment Equitable and Valid for All Students**

1. The teacher ensures that students and their families understand the purposes and consequences of assessments.
2. The teacher uses multiple methods of assessment and multiple samples of performance to make decisions about students.
3. The teacher allows student choice about forms and times of assessment and provides enough time for all students to complete an assessment.
4. The teacher manages language demands in ways that maximize each student's performance on assessments and minimize difficulties for English language learners.
5. The teacher ensures that students understand what they are being asked to do on a standardized assessment.
6. The teacher explores the reasons for students' responses on assessments.
7. The teacher exercises caution in interpreting and using standardized achievement test data

## PREVIEW OF COMPETENCIES ADDRESSED IN PART III

### GENERAL COMPETENCY I:

#### Building on and Expanding Language Proficiency and Literacy Skills of Native English Speakers

1. The teacher responds strategically to differences in students' ways of using language.
2. The teacher understands and addresses dialect as a legitimate language that can enhance the students' potential for learning and literacy.
3. The teacher expects high levels of literacy and supports students' language and literacy development at all grade and age levels.

### GENERAL COMPETENCY II:

#### Addressing Oral Language Needs of English Language Learners

1. The teacher values and fosters first-language use and development.
2. The teacher supports ELL students' ongoing English language acquisition.
3. The teacher mediates students' development of academic language.

### GENERAL COMPETENCY III:

#### Building the Literacy Skills of English Language Learners

1. The teacher learns about families' orientations to literacy and their literacy histories.
2. The teacher activates and builds on students' background knowledge and interests.
3. The teacher supports transfer of skills from students' home languages.
4. The teacher supports students' vocabulary development.
5. The teacher explicitly teaches word analysis.
6. The teacher supports development of metacognitive skills.
7. The teacher scaffolds students' understanding of text structure.
8. The teacher expects and teaches all learners to read and write at high levels.

## PREVIEW OF COMPETENCIES ADDRESSED IN PART IV

### GENERAL COMPETENCY I:

#### Maintaining High Expectations for All Students

1. The teacher distinguishes differences from deficits or disabilities (e.g., in language, behavior, learning styles).
2. The teacher seeks to become aware of any communication of low expectations or other inequitable treatment of particular students within the classroom.
3. The teacher demonstrates high expectations by engaging all students in challenging curriculum.

### GENERAL COMPETENCY II:

#### Supporting Students' Identity Development

1. The teacher understands the importance of identity development in students.
2. The teacher recognizes students' internal strengths, respects their identities, and supports identity development through his or her attitudes and actions.
3. The teacher respects students' home languages and dialects and understands their role in identity development

### GENERAL COMPETENCY III:

#### Recognizing and Preventing Institutional Racism Within the School

1. The teacher works with others to establish a policy of zero tolerance for institutional racism.
2. The teacher advocates a policy of disaggregating student data by race and ethnicity.
3. The teacher challenges school and district policies that reflect or perpetuate low expectations of particular students.
4. The teacher supports equitable policies for identifying, accepting, and supporting students from nondominant cultural groups in advanced placement and gifted programs.

5. The teacher supports student access to opportunities to advance to college and other postsecondary schooling.
6. The teacher supports policies to adjust district allocation of resources based on equity, not equality.
7. The teacher ensures that families know students' rights with regard to student evaluation and special services and that services are provided when needed.

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#### **GENERAL COMPETENCY IV: Recognizing and Preventing Cultural Racism Within the School**

1. The teacher works with families to design projects that engage all students.
2. The teacher ensures that instructional and assessment practices are appropriate for all students and take into account students' ways of knowing and using language.
3. The teacher works with colleagues to take inventory of library and other resources to ensure that these are unbiased, representative, and relevant to students.

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#### **GENERAL COMPETENCY V: Recognizing and Preventing Individual Racism**

1. The teacher deals immediately and constructively with ethnic and racial slurs or other acts of individual racism and prejudice.
2. The teacher works with educators, families, and community members to identify and implement a conflict-resolution approach that is culturally appropriate.
3. The teacher collaborates with colleagues to determine how students from different backgrounds experience the classroom, school, or district.
4. The teacher uses instructional strategies that support students' getting to know, understand, and appreciate each other.

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**GENERAL COMPETENCY VI:  
Recognizing and Addressing Unequal Power Relationships  
in the School Community**

1. The teacher identifies and supports the ways in which parents and families prefer to interact with schools.
2. The teacher learns directly about students' communities, including their cultural knowledge.
3. The teacher works closely with families to ensure that they understand course options and how to support students' best choices.
4. The teacher works with others to provide a safe environment for students to address unequal and destructive power relationships and conflicts within the school.

## RESOURCES

### Web Sites

Council of Chief State School Officers. (1992). *Model Standards for Beginning Teacher Licensing, Assessment and Development: A Resource for State Dialogue*. <http://www.ccsso.org/content/pdfs/corestrd.pdf>

Council of Chief State School Officers. (2005). Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC). [http://www.ccsso.org/projects/Interstate\\_New\\_Teacher\\_Assessment\\_and\\_Support\\_Consortium](http://www.ccsso.org/projects/Interstate_New_Teacher_Assessment_and_Support_Consortium)

Educational Testing Service. (2005). *Praxis II: Principles of Learning and Teaching – Test at a Glance*. <http://www.ets.org/praxis/prxtest.html#prxiiplt>

National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS). (2002). *What Teachers Should Know and Be Able to Do*. <http://www.nbpts.org/pdf/coreprops.pdf>

National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education. (2002). *Professional Standards for the Accreditation of Schools, Colleges, and Departments of Education*. [http://www.ncate.org/documents/unit\\_stnds\\_2002.pdf](http://www.ncate.org/documents/unit_stnds_2002.pdf)

Teacher Education Accreditation Council. *Accreditation Goals and Principles*. <http://www.teac.org/accreditation/goals/index.asp>

## Source Documents for State Teaching Standards

Alabama	Chapter 290-3-3.04, Alabama Administrative Code: Teacher Education- Instructional Services: Professional Studies, Basic Programs ( <a href="http://www.alabamaadministrativecode.state.al.us/">http://www.alabamaadministrativecode.state.al.us/</a> )
Alaska	Standards for Alaska's Teachers ( <a href="http://www.eed.state.ak.us/standards/pdf/teacher.pdf">http://www.eed.state.ak.us/standards/pdf/teacher.pdf</a> ), Chapter 04.04.200, Alaska Administrative Code: Education & Early Development, Statewide Goals: Professional Content and Performance Standards ( <a href="http://www.eed.state.ak.us/TeacherCertification/4aac04-200.html">http://www.eed.state.ak.us/TeacherCertification/4aac04-200.html</a> )
Arizona	Arizona's Professional Teacher Standards ( <a href="http://www.ade.state.az.us/sbtl/otherstandards.asp">http://www.ade.state.az.us/sbtl/otherstandards.asp</a> )
Arkansas	Licensure & Induction for Public School Teachers ( <a href="http://arkedu.state.ar.us/publications/pdf/ade_handbook.pdf">http://arkedu.state.ar.us/publications/pdf/ade_handbook.pdf</a> )
California	Standards of Quality and Effectiveness for Teacher Preparation Programs for Preliminary Multiple and Single Subject Teaching Credentials ( <a href="http://www.ctc.ca.gov/educator-prep/standards/AdoptedPreparationStandards.pdf">http://www.ctc.ca.gov/educator-prep/standards/AdoptedPreparationStandards.pdf</a> )
Colorado	Performance-Based Standards for Colorado Teachers ( <a href="http://www.cde.state.co.us/cdeprof/li_perfbasedstandards.htm">http://www.cde.state.co.us/cdeprof/li_perfbasedstandards.htm</a> )
Connecticut	Connecticut's Common Core of Teaching ( <a href="http://www.state.ct.us/sde/dtl/curriculum/ccteach_all.pdf">http://www.state.ct.us/sde/dtl/curriculum/ccteach_all.pdf</a> )
Delaware	Delaware Professional Teaching Standards ( <a href="http://www.doe.state.de.us/DPIservices/teacher.htm">http://www.doe.state.de.us/DPIservices/teacher.htm</a> )
Florida	Competencies and Skills Required for Teacher Certification in Florida, Ninth Edition ( <a href="http://www.firn.edu/doe/sas/ftce/ftcecomp.htm">http://www.firn.edu/doe/sas/ftce/ftcecomp.htm</a> )
Georgia	Policies and Procedures Manual for the Professional Education Unit and Program Approval System ( <a href="http://www.gapsc.com/TeacherEducation/Procedures/ApprovalProcedures.asp">http://www.gapsc.com/TeacherEducation/Procedures/ApprovalProcedures.asp</a> )

Hawaii	Performance Standards for Teachers ( <a href="http://www.htsb.org/standards/index.html">http://www.htsb.org/standards/index.html</a> )
Idaho	Rubrics for Teacher-Preparation Program Approval, Core Rubrics ( <a href="http://www.sde.state.id.us/certification/resourceed.asp">http://www.sde.state.id.us/certification/resourceed.asp</a> )
Illinois	Illinois Professional Teaching Standards ( <a href="http://www.isbe.state.il.us/profprep/standards.htm">http://www.isbe.state.il.us/profprep/standards.htm</a> )
Indiana	Teacher Standards—Developmental ( <a href="http://www.doe.state.in.us/dps/standards/teacherindex.html">http://www.doe.state.in.us/dps/standards/teacherindex.html</a> )
Iowa	Iowa Teaching Standards and Model Criteria ( <a href="http://www.state.ia.us/educate/ecese/tqt/tc/documents.html">http://www.state.ia.us/educate/ecese/tqt/tc/documents.html</a> )
Kansas	Regulations and Standards for Kansas Educators ( <a href="http://www.ksde.org/cert/cert.html">http://www.ksde.org/cert/cert.html</a> )
Kentucky	New Teacher Standards for Preparation and Certification ( <a href="http://www.kyepsb.net/teacher-prep/newteachstandards.asp">http://www.kyepsb.net/teacher-prep/newteachstandards.asp</a> )
Louisiana	Bulletin 996—LA Standards for Approval of Teacher Education Programs ( <a href="http://www.doe.state.la.us/lde/bese/1041.html">http://www.doe.state.la.us/lde/bese/1041.html</a> )
Maine	Maine's Ten Initial Teacher Certification Standards <a href="http://www.maine.gov/portal/education/teachers.html">http://www.maine.gov/portal/education/teachers.html</a>
Maryland	Maryland Essential Dimensions of Teaching Standards ( <a href="http://www.marylandpublicschools.org/MSDE/divisions/certification/progapproval/Program_Approval_Section.htm">http://www.marylandpublicschools.org/MSDE/divisions/certification/progapproval/Program_Approval_Section.htm</a> )
Massachusetts	603 CMR 7.08, Code of Massachusetts Regulations: Professional Standards for Teachers ( <a href="http://www.doe.mass.edu/lawsregs/603cmr7.html?section=08">http://www.doe.mass.edu/lawsregs/603cmr7.html?section=08</a> )
Michigan	Entry-Level Standards for Michigan Teachers ( <a href="http://www.michigan.gov/documents/ELSMT_&amp;PED_as_SBE_approved_Oct__24_02_57198_7.pdf">http://www.michigan.gov/documents/ELSMT_&amp;PED_as_SBE_approved_Oct__24_02_57198_7.pdf</a> )
Minnesota	Chapter 8710.2000, Minnesota Board of Teaching Rules: Standards of Effective Practice for Teachers ( <a href="http://education.state.mn.us/html/intro_board_teach_rules.htm">http://education.state.mn.us/html/intro_board_teach_rules.htm</a> )

Mississippi	NCATE/State Partnership Protocol ( <a href="http://www.mde.k12.ms.us/ed_licensure/teacher_education.html">http://www.mde.k12.ms.us/ed_licensure/teacher_education.html</a> )
Missouri	Missouri Standards for Teacher Education Programs (MoSTEP) ( <a href="http://dese.mo.gov/divteachqual/teached/standards.htm">http://dese.mo.gov/divteachqual/teached/standards.htm</a> )
Montana	Title 10, Chapter 58, Administrative Rules of Montana: Standards for State Approval of Teacher Education Programs ( <a href="http://www.opi.state.mt.us/index.html">http://www.opi.state.mt.us/index.html</a> )
Nebraska	Title 92, Chapters 20 & 21, Nebraska Administrative Code: Guidelines Recommended for Use With Rule 20 (Approval of Teacher Education Programs) ( <a href="http://www.nde.state.ne.us/TCERT/">http://www.nde.state.ne.us/TCERT/</a> )
Nevada	Elementary, Middle, and Secondary License and Endorsements ( <a href="http://www.doe.nv.gov/licensing/endorsements.html">http://www.doe.nv.gov/licensing/endorsements.html</a> )
New Hampshire	Chapter Ed 600, Administrative Rules: Approval of Professional Preparation Programs ( <a href="http://www.gencourt.state.nh.us/rules/ed600.html">http://www.gencourt.state.nh.us/rules/ed600.html</a> )
New Jersey	Title 6A, Chapter 9.3, New Jersey Administrative Code: Professional Standards for Teachers and School Leaders ( <a href="http://www.state.nj.us/njded/profdev/profstand/">http://www.state.nj.us/njded/profdev/profstand/</a> )
New Mexico	Title 6, Chapter 61.2-5, New Mexico Administrative Code: Licensure in Elementary, Middle, Secondary, and K-12 Education ( <a href="http://www.nmcpr.state.nm.us/nmac/_title06/T06C061.htm">http://www.nmcpr.state.nm.us/nmac/_title06/T06C061.htm</a> )
New York	Part 52.21, Regulations of the Commissioner of Education: Registration of Curricula in Teacher Education ( <a href="http://www.highered.nysed.gov/tcert/part52.21.htm">http://www.highered.nysed.gov/tcert/part52.21.htm</a> )
North Carolina	Core Standards for Teachers ( <a href="http://www.ncptsc.org/EveryTeacher.htm">http://www.ncptsc.org/EveryTeacher.htm</a> )
North Dakota	Multicultural Education and Native American Studies Requirement ( <a href="http://www.nd.gov/espb/progapproval/general.html">http://www.nd.gov/espb/progapproval/general.html</a> )

Ohio	Teacher Education and Licensure Standards ( <a href="http://www.ode.state.oh.us/Teaching-Profession/Teacher/Certification_Licensure/Standards/">http://www.ode.state.oh.us/Teaching-Profession/Teacher/Certification_Licensure/Standards/</a> )
Oklahoma	Competencies for Licensure and Certification; Standards of Performance and Conduct for Teachers ( <a href="http://www.sde.state.ok.us/home/defaultns.html">http://www.sde.state.ok.us/home/defaultns.html</a> )
Oregon	Oregon Administrative Rules 528-020 (Division 20): Standards for Competent and Ethical Performance of Oregon Educators ( <a href="http://arcweb.sos.state.or.us/rules/OARS_500/OAR_584/584_020.html">http://arcweb.sos.state.or.us/rules/OARS_500/OAR_584/584_020.html</a> )
Pennsylvania	Chapter 354, General Standards and Specific Program Guidelines for State Approval of Professional Educator Programs: General Provisions; Pennsylvania's Code of Professional Practice and Conduct for Educators ( <a href="http://www.teaching.state.pa.us/teaching/cwp/view.asp?a=135&amp;Q=93761&amp;PM=1">http://www.teaching.state.pa.us/teaching/cwp/view.asp?a=135&amp;Q=93761&amp;PM=1</a> )
Rhode Island	Beginning Teacher Standards ( <a href="http://www.ridoe.net/Certification_PD/certification/bts.htm">http://www.ridoe.net/Certification_PD/certification/bts.htm</a> )
South Carolina	Policy Guidelines for South Carolina Teacher Education Units; NCATE Unit Standards, Elements, and Rubrics ( <a href="http://www.scteachers.org/educate/rulesregs.cfm">http://www.scteachers.org/educate/rulesregs.cfm</a> )
South Dakota	Teacher Preparation Program Approval Administrative Rules; Program Review Guidelines ( <a href="http://doe.sd.gov/oatq/postscndry/teachered.asp">http://doe.sd.gov/oatq/postscndry/teachered.asp</a> )
Tennessee	Tennessee Licensure Standards and Guidelines ( <a href="http://www.state.tn.us/education/accttchreducation.htm">http://www.state.tn.us/education/accttchreducation.htm</a> )
Texas	Pedagogy and Professional Responsibilities Standards (EC-Grade 12) ( <a href="http://www.sbec.state.tx.us/SBECOnline/standtest/edstancertfieldlevl.asp">http://www.sbec.state.tx.us/SBECOnline/standtest/edstancertfieldlevl.asp</a> )
Utah	Title 53A, Chapter 6, Rule R277-515, Utah Code: Approval of Educator Preparation Program ( <a href="http://www.rules.utah.gov/publicat/code/r277/r277-515.htm">http://www.rules.utah.gov/publicat/code/r277/r277-515.htm</a> )

Vermont	Five Standards for Vermont Educators ( <a href="http://www.state.vt.us/educ/new/pdfdoc/pgm_prostandards/vsbpe/five_standards_03.pdf">http://www.state.vt.us/educ/new/pdfdoc/pgm_prostandards/vsbpe/five_standards_03.pdf</a> )
Virginia	Licensure Regulations for School Personnel (8 VAC 20-21-110); Regulations Governing Approved Programs for Virginia Institutions of Higher Education (8 VAC 20-541) ( <a href="http://www.pen.k12.va.us/VDOE/newvdoe/tached.html">http://www.pen.k12.va.us/VDOE/newvdoe/tached.html</a> )
Washington	WAC 180-78A-270: Approval Standards for Performance-Based Preparation Program for Teachers, Administrators, and Educational Staff Associates ( <a href="http://www.leg.wa.gov/wac/index.cfm?fuseaction=chapterdigest&amp;chapter=180-78A">http://www.leg.wa.gov/wac/index.cfm?fuseaction=chapterdigest&amp;chapter=180-78A</a> )
West Virginia	State Board Policy 5100: Approval Educational Personnel Programs ( <a href="http://wvde.state.wv.us/policies/">http://wvde.state.wv.us/policies/</a> )
Wisconsin	Chapter PI 34 Rules: Teacher Education Program Approval and Licenses ( <a href="http://dpi.wi.gov/tepd/PI34.html">http://dpi.wi.gov/tepd/PI34.html</a> )
Wyoming	Chapter 3: Certificate Requirements ( <a href="http://sos.wy.state.wy.us/RULES/5615.pdf">http://sos.wy.state.wy.us/RULES/5615.pdf</a> )

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