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PREPARING TEACHERS FOR DIVERSITY
A Dilemma of Quality and Quantity

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Preparing Teachers for Diversity: A Dilemma of Quality and Quantity

INTRODUCTION

For most of the last two decades there has been a protracted national debate over the status of the education of our youth (Berliner & Biddle, 1996). The conclusion reached by many is that American students are ill-prepared for the educational and economic challenges of a post-industrial society. This conclusion has been mirrored in the public debate in California and has led to a series of reform efforts aimed at stemming the decline in test scores, re-examining the skills that our schools should be teaching, and increasing the overall achievement of students. To accomplish these goals, we have seen major initiatives in the areas of curriculum reform, student and teacher assessment, class-size reduction, and experimentation with school organization and governance, such as block scheduling and charter schools.

In the last year alone, schools have been asked to expand their class-size reduction efforts and abandon their bilingual programs in favor of an ill-defined “structured English immersion” approach. They also have been instructed to test all of their English and non-English speaking students on new standards that have not yet been fully incorporated into the curricula and to refrain from passing students who do not meet them. Secondary schools have been asked to begin preparing their students for exit examinations that will determine who gets a high school diploma, even for those who have successfully completed all required courses.

The dizzying number of reforms would be challenge enough under more static circumstances. However, they have been accompanied by an unprecedented shift in the state’s population: a tremendous growth in the number of school-age children from minority backgrounds, particularly Latinos. These demographic conditions call into serious question the ability of any institution to respond effectively, let alone one as complex and under-resourced as the public schools.

In this context, the conspicuous absence of attention among these myriad reforms to the issues of preparing teachers to work with culturally and linguistically diverse students is particularly troubling. This paper explores these issues. The paper documents the characteristics of California’s existing student and teacher population, explores research on the effect on students of having teachers who are from minority groups and/or teachers who earn credentials from programs that focus on diversity issues, identifies barriers to increasing the number of teachers with diverse backgrounds in the workforce, and makes recommendations to increase the pool of minority teachers and to improve the preparation of teachers to perform effectively with diverse students.
WHO ARE CALIFORNIA’S STUDENTS?

California’s school-age enrollment has been exploding. In 1987–88, the total public school enrollment was 4.4 million; 10 years later in 1997–98 it had grown to 5.6 million. Including those students in non-public schools, the state is expected to be educating more than 6.3 million students in the coming academic year, 2000–2001.

The composition of the student population is changing as rapidly as its growth. In 1987–88 about half of the public school population was made up of non-Hispanic white students; 10 years later that number had shrunk to only 38.8 percent. And, while the number of Asian students has increased modestly (from 7.3 percent to 8.2 percent), and African Americans have actually declined slightly in their share of the public school population (from approximately 9 percent to 8.6 percent), the Hispanic school-aged population is increasing dramatically from 30 percent in 1988 to more than 40 percent in 1998. By the year 2010, Hispanics are projected to be more than half of all California public school students (California Department of Finance, 1999).

Equally as important as the increasing ethnic diversity in California’s schools is its continuing linguistic diversification. Between 1987 and 1997, the number of limited English proficient students in California’s public schools increased by 216 percent. Although the state’s English learners come from a wide range of language backgrounds, more than 80 percent speak Spanish as their primary language (CBEDS, Language Census, 1998).

WHO ARE CALIFORNIA’S TEACHERS?

While students are diverse, teachers are much less so. At the turn of the 21st century, the reality is that most of California’s teachers and their students do not share a common background. For example, about one-quarter of the state’s school children live in poverty while the majority of teachers are from middle class backgrounds (Zeichner, 1996). Overall, 61 percent of the state’s students are ethnic minorities while only 22 percent of teachers are from minority groups (Center for the Future of Teaching and Learning, 1999). There are approximately twice as many African American students as teachers; Asian students and teachers mirror this same proportion. The greatest discrepancy, however, is between numbers of Latino students and teachers. Pupils from this group represent 41 percent of the student population while Latino teachers comprise only 12 percent of the state’s teachers.

Substantial linguistic mismatch exists as well. The dearth of teachers from the same linguistic backgrounds as students is reflected in ongoing and increasing shortages of teachers with Bilingual, Crosscultural, Language and Academic Development (B-CLAD) or other bilingual certification. In fact, the majority of the state’s bilingual teachers are native English speakers who are not from the same language background as their students.

The shortage of teachers with economic, ethnic, or linguistic backgrounds similar to those of the students they teach is exacerbated by policies that are sometimes shortsighted in their failure to examine potential consequences for students. For example, the class-size reduction (CSR) initiative has enjoyed widespread popular support, especially among teachers, but it has also created a near-crisis for many students in poor and urban areas, and for those who are learning English. Today, while many are in smaller classes, they are also much more likely to be taught by a teacher who has received no training to teach them and does not speak their language. It remains an empirical question whether many of these students would have fared better had the same dollars been spent to attract and train more qualified teachers for their classrooms.
Several factors contribute to the problem of California’s increasing difficulty in meeting the demand for qualified teachers. The school-aged population is growing at more than 100,000 students per year. Attrition causes a loss of 8 percent of the teacher corps per year, according to statistics from the Commission on Teacher Credentialing (CTC) and State Teachers Retirement System (STRS). Furthermore, there is significant leakage from the teacher pipeline, as 40 percent to 60 percent of those who earn credentials do not seek employment as teachers. Class-size reduction initiatives alone have led to an acute demand for new teachers, requiring schools to scramble to hire 19,000 new teachers in addition to the 16,000 required for regular teacher replacement in 1996 (Shields, et al., 1998).

All of these factors have contributed to California’s current deficit of credentialed teachers: 28,500 teachers in California classrooms are teaching with emergency permits or waivers rather than full teaching credentials. Furthermore, the demand for teachers is expected to continue to outstrip the supply. According to recent research, the most realistic scenario predicts a shortfall of approximately 21,000 additional teachers by the year 2004–2005. (Shields, et al., 1998).

A significant feature of the teacher supply-and-demand discrepancy is its unequal impact on minority and low-income students: All of the aggregate estimates of teacher supply and demand - no matter how optimistic or pessimistic - mask the disproportionate effect of teacher shortages on these students. One quarter of California’s school children were classified as limited English proficient in the 1997–1998 school year, almost 20 percent received AFDC, and nearly half were poor enough to qualify for free meals (California Department of Education, 1999). Arguably, these are the very children who need the highest level of teacher quality to meet their educational needs. Yet these children are concentrated principally in the state’s urban areas where the greatest numbers of underqualified teachers are working.

Data on teacher supply and demand show that the impact is greatest for poor students. In the state’s poorest schools where 75–100 percent of the students receive free or reduced lunch, nearly 20 percent of the classroom teachers are not appropriately certified. Likewise, in schools where 90–100 percent of the students are from minority ethnic groups, almost one quarter of the teachers are not appropriately credentialed (California Department of Education, 1999).

Los Angeles and San Diego counties alone have more than half of the state’s almost 6 million students and an even greater percentage of its poor and minority students. These are some of the very locales that are experiencing the highest teacher shortages. For example, in Los Angeles schools 19 percent of teachers are not fully credentialed (Shields, et al., 1999). This means that more than 6,000 teachers in the metropolitan area where over half of the state’s minority students reside are underprepared to meet the significant learning challenges of their students.

Districts in rural agricultural areas where many of the students are poor and English learners also employ a disproportionate share of under-prepared teachers. In the agricultural Imperial School District, for example, 23 percent of teachers had emergency permits or waivers in 1996–1997. In contrast, some suburban districts have few or no teachers who do not have the full and appropriate credentials for the classes they teach.

An even more disturbing statistic is that only one-third of the state’s English learners have a teacher who has earned a credential of any kind (Center for the Future of Teaching and Learning, 1999). In addition, the shortage of teachers with specialized credentials that encompass the language and other skills necessary to effectively teach English learners has been an ongoing problem (Gold, 1992). In 1996, California had a shortfall of nearly 21,000 bilingual teachers to serve English learner students. Therefore, only a little more than one-third of the English learners who were in classrooms designated as bilingual had a certified bilingual teacher and nearly two-thirds had a teacher who had not been properly trained to work with this population and/or lacked competency in the language of the students (California State Department of Education, Language Census data, 1997).
Routinely placing English learners, who face the extra challenge of acquiring English while they also learn the content of the curriculum, in classrooms with teachers who have no credential or an inappropriate one is unwise, at best.

Many ethnic and linguistic minority students have experienced much less academic success in our schools than white and most Asian students. This differential achievement is manifested in a number of indicators. The 1994 National Assessment of Educational Progress reading scores revealed large discrepancies between the scores of Latino and African American students on the one hand, and Asians and whites on the other. While average scores at fourth grade were 231 for Asian students and 223 for whites, Latinos averaged only 188 and African Americans 186. The 1994 California scores are generally lower than national scores and the gap between the state’s higher and lower scoring groups is even greater. The average score for both Asian and white students is 211 while African Americans average 182 and Latinos 174 – 37 points below whites or Asians (California Department of Education, 1999).

Another traditional measure of school success is the rate at which different groups of students leave school without a diploma. The most recent year for which data is available from the California Department of Education, 1996–1997, annual drop-out rates for African American and Latino students are more than double those for white and Asian students (5.1 and 4.8 percent versus 2.0 and 1.7 percent annually). In addition, graduation rates differ dramatically for these groups. While in 1998, 89 percent of Asian and 75 percent of white students graduated within four years of entering high school in California, only about 55 percent of both African Americans and Latinos from this same cohort received their diplomas (California Department of Education, Educational Demographics Unit-CBEDS).

The level of preparation that these graduates have when they complete high school also differs substantially among groups. While 30 percent of Asian graduates and 12.7 percent of white graduates were eligible to attend the University of California (UC) in 1996, only 2.8 percent of African Americans and 3.8 percent of Latinos were admissible to the state’s most selective institution of higher education. When both California State University (CSU) and UC eligibility rates are aggregated, African American and Latino students fare better, although their eligibility rates are still far behind those of Asian and white students. In 1997–1998, approximately 60 percent of Asian students and 41 percent of white students were either CSU or UC eligible, while only 28 percent of African American and 24 percent of Latino students met the eligibility requirements (CBEDS, 1998).

There is a clear and persistent correlation between poverty, ethnicity, and the quality of education that students in California receive. Teachers and teaching conditions are a critical link in this equation. In addition to the academic challenges that these students face and that their teachers must address, teachers in high-poverty schools are more likely to report problems of student misbehavior, absenteeism, and lack of parental involvement. Yet the teachers who teach in these schools, on average, have less preparation than teachers in suburban schools and are therefore less well prepared to successfully address all of these issues (U.S. Department of Education, 1998).
If teacher quality had little or no impact on achievement outcomes of students, as was once believed (cf. Coleman, 1966; Jencks, et al., 1972), the serious shortage of qualified, credentialed teachers might be of less concern. However, a growing body of research has demonstrated that the preparation and skill of teachers indeed has an important impact on students’ learning outcomes (Hanushek, 1986, 1992). As Haycock (1998) asserts in her review of large scale studies of teacher effects, “schools – and especially teachers, it turns out – really do make a difference (p.3).” For example, she found that research conducted in Tennessee on teacher effects revealed only a 14 percentile point growth during the school year for low-achieving students in classrooms with teachers defined by the study as “least effective.” In contrast, students with the same profile who were in classrooms with the teachers defined by the study parameters as “most effective” gained 53 percentile points during the same period. Many researchers, in fact, believe that teachers are the most critical piece in this puzzle. “Educational change depends on what teachers do and think - it’s as simple and as complex as that” (Sarason in Fullan, 1991, p.117).

While there is no body of research that concludes that teachers of the same ethnicity or social background necessarily produce superior academic outcomes for ethnic minority students, a substantial literature indicates the positive influences of teachers on students with whom they share a common background. For example, a number of studies have shown the importance of role models from similar backgrounds in the lives of ethnic minority students. Many minorities who opt for a career in teaching, at one time or another in their lives had a teacher who inspired them to continue their education and become teachers themselves (Foster, 1997; Buchanan, 1999). African American women in one study reported that the African American teachers who served as role models for them set high expectations. “They didn’t let them get away with anything, and corrected improper English” (Foster, 1997).

Haberman (1996) cites a growing literature that reveals the positive influences of teachers of color on personal development and academic achievement of minority students. Moreover, research with Latino students finds that the presence of Latino teachers in the classroom goes beyond “simply creating role models for students” and “is positively correlated with increased academic performance by such students. Teachers of the same ethnic heritage, for example, are less likely than other teachers to place Latino students in remedial programs, and are more likely to identify them as gifted” (Tomas Rivera Center, 1993).

There is also evidence that new teachers prefer working with students like themselves and, given the current prospective teacher pool, this means that new teachers prefer to work with students from middle-class backgrounds who live in the suburbs. Research indicates that these teachers tend to be more effective with the middle-class students whom they prefer to teach than with other students (Zeichner, 1996).

Moreover, considerable research has been conducted on mainstream teachers’ failure to appreciate the unique educational challenges that minority students face (Delpit, 1997) or the “funds of knowledge” that these students bring to the classroom from their homes and communities (Moll, et al., 1990). Without accurately assessing the challenges these students face and without being able to tap into home and community resources, teachers forego important means of affecting students’ academic progress.

Some of the most compelling, and therefore disturbing, findings in the literature on learning come from studies of teacher expectations. Mainstream teachers and counselors of low-income and minority students are more likely to perceive these students as having low ability and therefore hold lower aspirations for them (Romo & Falbo, 1996; McDonough, 1997). Such low aspirations can have powerful effects on student achievement. Teachers habitually send non-verbal messages about the amount of confidence they have in students’ abilities. Not only do teachers call on favorite students more often, research has shown that they wait longer for an answer from a student they believe knows the answer than from one who they view as less capable. Teachers are more likely to
provide these students in whom they have little confidence with the correct answer, or move quickly on to another student (Brophy & Good, 1974).

Students have been shown to be very sensitive to these subtle teacher behaviors and to “read” their teachers’ attitudes quite accurately (Weinstein, 1989). In a series of studies conducted by the psychologist Robert Rosenthal, teachers’ attitudes toward their students were shown to have a substantial impact on students’ academic performance. Thus, Sprinthall, Sprinthall and Oja (1998) conclude that “the Rosenthal effect” is three-fold: (1) pupils who are expected to do well tend to show gains; (2) pupils who are not expected to do well tend to do less well than the first group; and (3) pupils who make gains despite expectations to the contrary are regarded negatively by the teacher” (p. 408). In this way, teachers’ attitudes and beliefs can moderate students’ assessment of their own abilities. If teachers do not believe some students are capable of excelling, there is a great likelihood that these students will confirm their teachers’ expectations.

James Comer, the African American psychologist whose intervention programs in ghetto schools have produced dramatic increases in academic achievement for African American youth, adheres to a “guiding belief that learning requires a strongly accepting relationship between teacher and student” (Steele, 1992). We would argue that although such a relationship is not exclusive to teachers who share a linguistic and cultural background with students, it is likely to develop more easily under these conditions.

The natural response to the problem of teacher expectations is to try to change teachers’ attitudes toward low-income and minority students, and many teacher training programs attempt to do this. However, attitudes are difficult to change, especially as the result of a single class or through experiences of limited duration. Many researchers have concluded that teachers’ attitudes toward their students and toward their role as teacher are largely shaped by their own biography (Heredia, 1998) and as we have seen, the biography of most of California’s teachers is quite different from that of their students. Thus, while it is critical that both teacher training and professional development programs see the goal of raising teachers’ expectations for all of their students as a major priority, it must be acknowledged that this is not an easy task. Later in this paper we review some of the most promising approaches to this challenge.

Beyond more accurately diagnosing students’ needs and resources and holding high expectations for their performance, teachers need to be able to understand something of the circumstances in which their students live and to communicate with students’ parents. Recent research on parental involvement among different ethnic groups has pointed to the high correlation between parental involvement in their children’s education and minority students’ academic outcomes. Studies increasingly point to the necessity of parent and community involvement for classroom and school improvement (Keith, T. Z. et al., 1998; Desimone, L., 1999). Arvizu (1996) notes that “to involve parents, programs must take into account the diversity of families, schools, and communities and their varying needs. Different types of schools, families, and communities require different strategies for involving parents” (p. 814). Yet it is very difficult for parents who do not share the same language of the teacher or who come from vastly different socio-economic and cultural backgrounds to approach the teacher with concerns and questions about their children’s schooling.

In low-income and largely minority schools, teachers commonly complain of lack of parent involvement and therefore perceive a lack of caring on the part of the parents (MetLife, 1998). Yet with little connection among parents, teachers, and schools, and an increasing number of parents and teachers who literally do not speak the same language, it is difficult for parents to create a role for themselves in their children’s schooling, thus handicapping these students academically.
The wide demographic divide between California’s students and its teachers will continue until there is a substantial increase in the minority teacher pool. This is an important goal, but one that no one anticipates reaching in the near future. Moreover, the demographic diversity of California’s schools means that students often come from backgrounds that differ from their peers. And even students from the same language group may have widely different backgrounds and experience. Therefore, a critical priority for California is to prepare teachers from all ethnic and linguistic backgrounds with the skills, characteristics, and knowledge that will allow them to effectively teach the diverse students in their classrooms. The knowledge we have about the benefit of teachers of color for students from the same backgrounds does not negate that European-American teachers can be inspiring and effective teachers for these students. It does, however, reaffirm that teacher preparation and development programs must include substantial attention to issues of diversity. Such preparation and development is critical to increasing teacher quality and the associated gains in achievement for culturally and linguistically diverse students.

ATTRIBUTES OF AN EFFECTIVE TEACHER IN A MULTICULTURAL SETTING

The research on teacher effectiveness for multicultural students focuses on two principal domains: (1) teacher attributes associated with effective teachers for culturally and linguistically diverse students and (2) the instructional strategies and teaching behaviors used by these teachers. The research indicates that it is the combination of personal qualities and attitudes with specified knowledge and skills that contribute to these teachers’ effectiveness with diverse learners.

Linda Darling-Hammond (1999) explores the attributes, skills, and knowledge of good teachers overall – without reference to any particular ethnic or language group. A prevalent idea in her work and that of others in the field, is “that an effective teacher is one who learns from teaching rather than one who has finished learning how to teach” (p.2). This capacity to constantly reflect on teaching, consider its effect on learners, and change practice accordingly, is a predominant theme in current discussions of teacher quality.

Building beyond that base of quality attributes for all teachers, several researchers identify key qualities that enable teachers to reach culturally and linguistically diverse students effectively. Zeichner’s (1996) synthesis of the attributes necessary reveals the critical importance of teachers’ personal experience, commitment, and beliefs. Specific attributes include high expectations for the success of all students, the ability to communicate this belief effectively, and a personal commitment to achieving equity both within and outside the classroom. These teachers firmly believe that they can make a difference in their students’ lives and they establish a personal bond with students rather than viewing them as “the other.” Finally, these teachers have a clear sense of their own ethnic and cultural identities, which helps them to understand those of others.

Haberman (1996) suggests that an effective way to improve the quality of teachers for culturally and linguistically diverse students is to recruit the type of people that studies indicate will be successful with this population. The teacher profile that emerges from Haberman’s data is not the traditional teacher education graduate: a young, white, middle-class female. Among other differences, these individuals are older (between 30 and 50), come to teaching after working at one or more other jobs, are likely to have attended urban high schools, and are often preparing specifically to teach in urban schools. Thus, these individuals are familiar with the kinds of communities they will teach in and the students they will find there. These teachers are often not white, and either are in or have been from low-income circumstances themselves.
There is a substantial literature on the elements of classroom practice that contribute to the success of cultural and linguistic minority students. Again, Zeichner (1996) does an apt job of summarizing some of the critical elements of this practice. These include an academically challenging curriculum that incorporates the development of higher-level cognitive skills and the facilitation of students’ creation of meaning about content in an interactive and collaborative learning environment. Effective teachers include the contributions and perspectives of a variety of ethnic groups in the classroom and link the curriculum to the cultural resources that students bring to school. They explicitly teach students the culture of the school while they seek to maintain students’ sense of ethnic pride and identity. Finally, these teachers encourage parents and community members to become involved in students’ education and they give them a significant voice in making important decisions.

The Center for Research on Education, Diversity and Excellence (CREDE) has developed a set of standards for effective teaching practice based on a synthesis of recommendations from literature “that is in agreement across all cultural, racial and linguistic groups as well as all age levels and subject matters” (CREDE, 1999). The five CREDE standards include some of the same elements discussed by Zeichner, as well as some that did not emerge from his review. Highly abbreviated, these standards are:

- Teachers and students engage in joint activity because learning occurs most effectively when experts and novices work together for a common goal.
- Teachers engage in a variety of behaviors in order to promote students’ language development.
- Teachers connect teaching and curriculum to experiences and skills of students’ home and community because understanding means connecting new learning to previous knowledge.
- Teachers have high standards, use meaningful assessment to measure student learning, and challenge them to engage in instruction that requires thinking and analysis.
- Teachers facilitate students’ learning by engaging them in dialogue that allows them to form, express, and exchange ideas through questioning and sharing.

Timothy Reagan (1997) and other linguists argue that every teacher should have some knowledge of linguistics and that this should therefore be part of every teacher education program. Certainly, the growing number of English learners in the country dictates this need to a large degree. However, Reagan notes that there are other equally important reasons for inclusion of these skills and knowledge, in particular, the integral nature of language and learning. Examples of the linguistic knowledge he suggests as appropriate for teachers include an understanding of the process of first and second language acquisition, knowledge about the differences between oral language acquisition and learning to read, a grasp of the relationship between language and culture, English-as-a-second-language teaching methodologies, and recognition of normal speech and hearing in order to be able to distinguish signs of pathology and the differences between these and mere language differences.
There is a significant body of research describing some of the qualities necessary for effective teachers of English learners (LMRI, 1997). These qualities include: (1) proficiency in two languages and the ability to deliver instruction in both; (2) the ability to determine and integrate students’ mix of academic level and degree of English language proficiency; and (3) knowledge of the rules of appropriate behavior for at least two ethnic groups. These attributes are seen as complementary to the ones necessary for teaching diverse populations. This literature also identifies characteristics distilled from a variety of sources of good teaching for bilingual contexts that create optimal conditions for students to learn English as a second language (Milk, Mercado, and Sapiens, 1992). These characteristics comprise a set of fundamental skills, knowledge, and attitudes that all teachers working with language minority students (including mainstream teachers) should possess:

- An awareness of the kinds of special instructional services that second language learners need at different stages of participation in bilingual and ESL programs.
- The ability to work collaboratively in teams that include specialists and non-specialists in bilingual and ESL programs.
- An understanding of how classroom settings can be arranged to support a variety of instructional strategies.
- An understanding of how pupils refer to their existing knowledge in order to comprehend what is going on in the classroom and how pupils might misunderstand instructional content.
- The ability to draw parents into classroom related activities and tap into the knowledge and experience they can contribute to enhance instruction.
- The ability to deliver an instructional program that includes ample opportunity for speaking, listening, reading and writing and provides scaffolding of new concepts to help guide students through the learning process.

- The ability and desire to include students in classroom dialogue.
- The ability to provide ongoing assessment of students’ abilities in order to provide instruction aimed at an appropriate level above what students currently know.
- Tolerance of student responses that diverge from the teacher’s point of view.
- Ability and desire to incorporate the culture of students into the curriculum.

In addition to these elements, Garcia (1996) notes others revealed by Tikunoff’s seminal study of effective teachers for English learners. According to Garcia, these teachers use the students’ native language and English for instruction alternating between the two languages when necessary to provide clarity, but not translation. They specifically explain tasks and the expected outcomes of these tasks. They also communicate high expectations for student learning and maintain students’ engagement by pacing instruction appropriately. Effective teachers for English learners use “active” teaching behaviors including communicating clearly when giving directions, specifying tasks, and presenting information. They constantly and effectively monitor students’ progress and provide immediate feedback on student success. Finally, these teachers demonstrate a sense of efficacy regarding their own ability to teach.
TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAMS AND TEACHER QUALITY

Although scholars can tell us something about the important attributes, skills, and knowledge of quality teachers for linguistically and culturally diverse students, less is known about how to build a corps of teachers who possess these qualities. Merino’s (1999) review of the research on reform of teacher education for work in culturally and linguistically diverse settings reveals few empirical studies. She also finds a scarcity of rich descriptions of what teacher preparation programs actually do to address cultural and linguistic diversity and cites a widespread failure to describe or evaluate the impact of coursework and experience on student teachers and their practice.

That teacher education often falls short of preparing teachers for diversity is confirmed by teachers themselves. Periodic surveys of credential program graduates one year after program completion are a tradition of research in teacher education programs. These surveys are submitted to the California Commission on Teacher Credentialing as part of the external evaluation process. The 1990 survey conducted by the California State University system revealed that credential program graduates were generally satisfied with the competencies surveyed. The exception, however, was their low level of satisfaction with the expertise in teaching culturally and linguistically diverse students and in particular with the aspects of the program dealing with instructional strategies for teaching English learners (Merino, 1999). Research does provide some guidance about the kinds of programs that are likely to result in quality teachers in general. Darling-Hammond’s (1999) synthesis of several decades of research on teacher quality indicates that certain key factors of a teacher’s initial and ongoing preparation are strong indicators of teacher quality and therefore predictors of student achievement. The most effective programs stress a well-integrated and carefully planned approach that begins with an extended period of formal pre-service education, including courses and field work, that is reinforced by the ongoing support of an induction process for new teachers. Finally, the research suggests that a critical aspect of effective teacher preparation is ongoing professional development that helps teachers expand and refine their knowledge throughout their careers.

PREPARATION FOR TEACHERS OF CULTURALLY AND LINGUISTICALLY DIVERSE STUDENTS

Two principal strategies emerge as methods for building a corps of teachers who are effective with diverse learners. A “front-end” approach is to recruit individuals who already have the language and other experience that enables them to teach these students competently. As Haberman (1996) suggests, an important consideration in preparing the “best and the brightest” teachers for urban schools is that these individuals may be older, with family responsibilities and therefore are likely to need flexible programs. For example, many paraeducator programs “grow their own” teachers by seeking paraprofessionals who have the community knowledge, language skills, and teaching and life experience to become effective teachers. His conclusion is that institutions must offer alternative preparation programs in order to encourage individuals who have the most potential for success with culturally and linguistically diverse students to consider the teaching profession.

The other principal strategy is to ensure that all pre-service teacher preparation programs meaningfully address diversity. Although direct research is sparse, there is some evidence on how to prepare teachers to be effective with culturally and linguistically diverse students. Preparation programs identified by Darling-Hammond (1999) as successful in preparing teachers who are “unusually and consistently successful at teaching diverse learners effectively” (p. 8) are characterized by collaborative faculties that develop a clear vision of good teaching that is infused in a coherent manner throughout the course and fieldwork. The vi-
sion is based on well-defined and carefully thought-out standards for what a professional teacher should know and be able to do. Programs include a rigorous curriculum of intellectually and practically useful courses that use problem-based methods, including case studies to help students apply theory to problems of practice. Intensely supervised, full-year clinical experiences that are carefully chosen to support the ideas and practices learned in coursework are critical to program effectiveness. Finally, these programs are found at institutions that have strong relationships with local schools where there is support for the reform of both the school and the teacher education program.

Zeichner (1996) finds that successful programs integrate issues of diversity into every aspect of the teacher education program including all classes and field experience. The importance of infusing issues of cultural and linguistic diversity throughout the program’s curriculum and activities is emphasized also by Varvus (1994) and Olmedo (1997) in their work on teacher preparation for diversity. Programs that take this infusion approach either focus on preparing teachers to work with diverse students without reference to any particular culture or language group, or they concentrate on preparation for teaching a specific ethnic group. Some universities address issues of cultural diversity in undergraduate courses for prospective teachers prior to their enrollment in certification programs, and this is recommended where graduate education coursework is limited.

The alternate approach to teacher preparation for diversity is often called “add-on” and it does just that: adds to the curriculum a few courses or limited field experience in the sub-topic of cultural diversity while the remainder of the teacher education program is unchanged. Zeichner notes that despite clear research evidence indicating the superior effectiveness of the integrated approach to teacher preparation programs, the segregated or “add-on” approach dominates in U.S. teacher education. Some educators, however, advocate a stand-alone component dealing with issues of diversity because of a concern that when teaching this material is everyone’s responsibility, it is ultimately no one’s responsibility, and accountability can be lacking.

Carl Grant (1994) reviewed the literature on multicultural education regarding preparation of mostly white, middle-class teachers for urban schools. Grant found that the literature, although rarely empirical, revealed the limited usefulness of workshops on multicultural education when used in and of themselves. His most salient finding was that preservice programs that infuse multicultural education and provide immersion field experience, including residence in a culturally diverse community, offer a strong possibility of successfully preparing effective teachers for diverse learners. His research also revealed the importance of university supervisors and, in particular, cooperating teachers who have a thorough knowledge of, and belief in, the importance of multicultural education. Finally, in the most effective programs for prospective teachers, Grant found that multicultural education takes place in various contexts and through diverse media, for example, readings, preservice experience in multicultural schools, and living in a multicultural community. In addition, student teachers in these most-effective programs participate in projects that require them to critically analyze race, class, and gender issues. Few programs, however, take Grant’s recommended approach.

Zeichner (1996) provides a discussion of various strategies that have proven successful in preparing teachers to work with diverse students, regardless of the type of program in which they are employed. Strategies that programs use for countering low expectations include screening prospective teacher candidates on the basis of cultural sensitivity and commitment to the education of all students, and providing examples of successful teaching for culturally and linguistically diverse learners. Exemplary programs also give serious attention to the growing research base revealing the relationships among language, culture, and learning that “has convincingly demonstrated the superiority of a situational view of intelligence and competence, which sees behavior as a function of...
the context of which it is a part” (p. 151).

Another important strategy to help new teachers address social and ethnic diversity is the exploration of their own ethnic and cultural identity as a necessary precursor to cross-cultural understanding. The principal “self-knowledge” strategy that successful programs use involves an autobiographical component. This self-exploration allows teachers to draw on their own personal and family history to make meaningful connections regarding the social context of life as experienced by different groups. Self-exploration is followed by a re-examination of the attitudes students hold toward ethnic groups other than their own, confrontation of some of these beliefs, and a consideration of alternatives. Case studies and readings authored by people of color about their personal schooling experiences can be beneficial and are sometimes a less volatile means of exploring sensitive issues. It has also proven useful to provide field experiences outside the classroom that give students experience in interacting with parents and other adults from backgrounds different than their own. (However, the link between this kind of experience and the work teachers will eventually carry out in the classroom has not been made in the research.)

Successful programs also use strategies to teach aspiring teachers about the histories of different ethnic groups and their historical and contemporary contributions to all aspects of life in the United States, as well as providing them with information about unique characteristics and learning styles of different ethnic groups. However, McDiarmid and Price offer a caveat, repeated often in the literature, regarding the effects on prospective teachers of an “ethnic studies” approach. “On the one hand, they [teachers] are taught to be suspicious of any generalization about a group of people; on the other, they encounter materials and presentations that, in fact make generalizations about normative values, attitudes, and behaviors among different groups” (in Zeichner, p. 156). Grant (1994) also cautions that such an informational approach to cultural diversity, while not necessarily harmful, does little to transform individuals’ world view.

Finally, exemplary programs provide teachers with knowledge about instructional and assessment strategies that enable teachers to draw on the knowledge and backgrounds of their students in order to design the most appropriate classroom experiences. They furnish teachers with knowledge regarding how to discover what students already know and how to use students’ learning strengths, knowledge, and experience as a foundation for building new learning. For example, Moll (1992), notes that for teachers of English learners it is critical to utilize all “available resources, including the children’s or the parents’ language and knowledge, in creating new, advanced instructional circumstances for the students’ academic development” (p. 23).

An increasingly prevalent idea in the literature is the developmental nature of learning to be an effective teacher for linguistically and culturally diverse students, characterized as an ongoing process rather than a discrete learning period after which one is an expert. This is not unique to teachers of culturally and linguistically diverse students, but according to Zeichner it may be even more critical for them. In his report on the role of coursework, field experiences, cooperating teachers, and university supervisors in preparing teachers for linguistic and cultural diversity, he comments:

The implication is that prospective teachers need to learn how to be and do all of the things that are discussed in this report by the time that they begin their first year of teaching. Given what we know about what student teachers bring to teacher education (e.g. the lack of interracial experience), and about the complexity of the process of teachers’ learning to teach across cultures, this is probably an unrealistic expectation (p. 162).
The approaches to training teachers for cultural diversity that are found in exemplary programs represent an ideal. However, the reality is that many teacher preparation programs are not exemplary and many new teachers face their first classroom ill-prepared to teach the diverse students they encounter there. In addition, many existing teachers who were trained long before diversity issues were included in teacher preparation programs will remain in the classroom for years to come. Both factors mean that professional development is a critical avenue for helping teachers understand and meet the challenges of teaching California’s linguistically and culturally diverse students by equipping them with appropriate skills.

Unfortunately, few school districts are prepared to provide the kind of professional development that teachers need to strengthen these skills. A recent statewide survey conducted by SRI International showed that while teachers reported participating, on average, in 122 hours of professional development in 1997–98, only about half felt that they had learned anything new as a result. One in five (20 percent) claimed that it was a waste of time. A primary reason for this is that professional development activities tend to be disjointed series of workshops with little relationship to each other, and little follow up (Shields, et al., 1998).

Grant and Secada (1990), in a review of programs that prepare teachers for diversity, found that few good evaluations exist of such efforts, but whether they are successful or not, most focus on attempting to change teachers’ attitudes toward diversity rather than emphasizing skill development. Thus, teachers may gain some insights into cultural diversity, but are not likely to carry with them many skills for actually working with culturally diverse students to enhance their achievement. We have found a couple of exceptions to this pattern. California Tomorrow, in partnership with the Mellon Foundation, conducted a three year experiment in two heavily-immigrant California high schools with a focus on enhancing the schooling of English learners. The goal of the experiment was to test whether a school-wide reform effort involving administrators, teachers, and students, in dialogue with each other, could change the academic outcomes for English learners. Teachers were provided opportunities to reflect on and critique their own teaching, and received ongoing professional development on project-oriented and interactive instruction geared to the needs of English learners. A unique and important element of the professional development was structured presentations by students on what they felt they needed and what could be offered in the classroom to aid their aspirations. At the end of three years, the schools had made significant progress in enhancing student outcomes: school retention, access to college preparatory curricula, and English language literacy, as well as in teacher efficacy (Olsen, Jaramillo, McCall-Pérez, White, & Minicucci, 1999).

Another program that focuses on skill development for teachers, in addition to changing attitudes, is the Puente program. Puente’s goal is to help underrepresented high school students, particularly Hispanics, make a successful transition into college. While the program provides a number of services directly to students, it also has an extensive professional development component for high school English teachers. In a 10-day summer institute, with continuing sessions at intervals during the school year, teachers are exposed to a comprehensive and highly articulated series of workshops that focus on teaching and assessing the progress of (largely) Latino students in high school English. The workshops cover Latino literature, including methods for incorporating it into the core college preparatory curriculum; Latino culture, including how to incorporate cultural artifacts and folklore into the core curriculum and how to use local community resources in developing curriculum; collaborative learning and teaching strategies, with opportunities provided throughout the sessions to engage in collaborative activity; and instruction in writing and assessment that incorporates a Latino perspective and voice. An evaluation of the Puente professional development program yielded exceptionally high satisfaction rates on the part of participating teachers. Moreover, when surveyed after attending the series of workshops, 88 percent of teachers responding (N=25) reported that they either had already used or intended to use in their own classrooms more than.
half of the material they had learned (Gándara et al., 1997; 1998).

Such positive responses to intensive professional development efforts that also focus on skill development suggest that, when carefully constructed, such activities may provide great benefit to both teachers and students. However, relatively little attention has been paid to developing programs that focus on student diversity on a large scale. For example, in the aftermath of the initial class-size reduction implementation, an outcome of which was that more English learners were in mainstream classrooms with teachers who had no special preparation for teaching them, researchers found no evidence that any professional development activities provided by the schools had been dedicated to helping teachers to address the special needs of English learners (PACE, 1998).

**BILINGUAL TEACHER PREPARATION AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT**

There is a growing body of knowledge regarding effective teaching practices for linguistic minority students but evidence on effective staff development and preservice instruction based on these principles is lacking (Hakuta and August, 1997). Three principal frameworks are identified as driving teacher education content for language minority students. These include (1) one that identifies effective practices through nomination or through linking teacher practices to student achievement (Garcia, 1996), (2) another that looks at how teachers and teacher educators collaborate on researching and implementing these effective practices, and (3) one that focuses on the implementation of effective practices through coaching or mentoring (Merino, 1999).

Extant models of bilingual teacher mentoring that have had some success in promoting job satisfaction and teacher learning include a language match between mentor and new teacher as well as encouragement to take college courses and/or participate in staff development in bilingual/bicultural education-related topics. Programs that have seen some success are in schools that provide new teachers with release time for mentoring activities.

A shortcoming of bilingual mentoring programs lies in the scarcity of experienced bilingual teachers. One study found that the most successful mentoring relationships pair teachers from the same grade level and subject area. Given that there is often only one bilingual teacher per grade level, this type of relationship is not possible in many situations (Torres-Guzman, 1996). A long-term remedy to the situation lies in preparing more teachers with bilingual skills. This course of action is affected greatly, however, by the current movement towards English-only instruction brought about by the passage of Proposition 227. Anecdotal evidence suggests that the recruitment of new bilingual teacher candidates has become more difficult in the current circumstances. Thus, until such time as we see a real increase in the number of bilingual teachers, Torres-Guzmán suggests expanding mentoring relationships to pair non-bilingual and bilingual teachers who both serve English language learners and and/or employing alternative or additional criteria to those currently used for selecting bilingual teacher mentors.

In a somewhat ironic twist, the success of the CLAD credential, coupled with the passage of Proposition 227, has had the effect of wrongly convincing many people in the schools that there is no longer a need to prepare bilingual teachers. In fact, the need has never been greater. The BCLAD, or bilingual education credential, prepares teachers to work with linguistically diverse students in their primary language and English, and provides the more in-depth understandings of language acquisition and cultural influences on development that the CLAD does not. Moreover, a bilingual teacher is prepared to work not just with students but also with parents and communities, the importance of which is emphasized in so much research in this area.
EFFORTS TO INCREASE QUANTITY AND QUALITY OF CALIFORNIA TEACHERS

The need to increase the numbers of teachers and at the same time to increase the quality of teachers, especially for linguistically and culturally diverse students, creates a significant policy dilemma. That is, how do we address both at the same time? Which takes precedence? And, how do we address quantity without seriously compromising quality?

Over the past decade and a half, extensive policy measures designed to increase teacher quality and quantity were enacted. Some involve attempts to explore, describe, document, and make recommendations about various facets of teacher preparation, certification, and/or recruitment. Some fairly extensive efforts to change the skills and competencies required to earn a teacher credential were undertaken in the last few years, notably the drafting of CLAD and BCLAD authorizations (1994) to replace the bilingual emphasis and language development specialist credentials.

Others are designed to increase the number of classroom teachers through various means such as forgivable loans and grants like the Cal Grant T, awarded exclusively to students for financing their teacher certification studies. Other attempts to increase quantity include efforts to expedite certification and expand the subjects and or students that teachers are authorized to serve with certain credentials. An example of this type of effort was the legislation allowing teachers with nine years of classroom experience to earn a form of CLAD credential with only 45 hours of coursework (SB 1969, 1994).

Examples of policy designed to improve the overall quality of teachers include the legislation requiring applicants for teacher education programs to take a proficiency test (SB 1225, 1983). Finally, some efforts that were not designed with teacher quality or quantity in mind at all have nevertheless had a tremendous impact. The prime example of course is class-size reduction enacted in 1996.

Most recently, the 1999–2000 California State education budget of $44.5 billion dollars, a $3.9 billion dollar increase over the prior year, included efforts to address both the quality and quantity of teachers in California schools (California Department of Finance, 2000). Several budget items allocated funds to efforts focused on teacher preparation, improving teacher quality, and/or increasing the quantity of teachers prepared to work in the state’s schools. These included a more than four-fold increase in the funding for Beginning Teacher Support and Assessment (BTSA) induction programs; the Teacher Peer Assistance and Review program to provide assistance for teachers who request it, or who are deemed by a review team to need it; a $100 million allocation to increase beginning teacher salaries to $32,000; funding for institutes to prepare teachers to teach reading; $160.7 million allotted to expand the class-size reduction in two courses in grade nine; and $50 million for one-time performance awards to teachers and other certificated staff in underachieving schools that demonstrate significant improvement in students’ academic achievement.

While the amount of reform has been impressive, it has two distinct drawbacks. It has been largely piecemeal, paying scant attention to how different policies interact. And it has lacked focus on how reforms might impact cultural and linguistic minority students. For example, the recent legislation to establish grade-level passing standards could have complicated and painful consequences for English learners. This reform will provide the opportunity for students who do not meet grade-level standards to attend summer school and achieve grade level proficiency. However, if students do not achieve grade-level proficiency they will be retained. As a result of Proposition 227, many English learners are being schooled in a language they do not understand, or are in English language development classrooms where language development rather than academic content is the focus. It is almost inevitable that students who do not speak English but who are schooled wholly in English will take longer to gain important academic skills and knowledge than students for whom English is their primary language.

On its surface, this social-promotion law does take into consideration the potential impact on language-minority students, stating specifically that
English learners will not be retained solely because of a lack of English skills. However, the effects of schooling exclusively in English may very well cause these students to fall behind academically as they struggle to learn English and core academic subjects at the same time. Therefore, the result of the combination of these two reforms may be an eventual disproportionate effect on English learners who could conceivably be required to repeat grades more than once.

Several of the reforms enacted in 1999 missed excellent opportunities to specifically address issues of teacher quality for linguistically and culturally diverse students. Two notable examples illustrate this point. The new-teacher induction program, BTSA, has proven effective, particularly in regard to pairing a high-quality mentor with a new teacher. However, no provision was made in the BTSA expansion legislation for planning how to provide quality induction for teachers of linguistic and culturally diverse students when a shortage of these teachers has existed for years and persists today. Since this means there will be few available mentors, it would appear that induction for these teachers will have to rely less on the mentoring component of the program and more on courses or inservice. This is especially unfortunate, given the demonstrated benefits of quality mentoring relationships and the more limited impact of many professional development efforts.

A second example, class-size reduction, was originally enacted without regard to planning for how to prepare adequate numbers of teachers for the additional classrooms. This year the measure was extended to two core ninth grade classes statewide. Despite what we’ve learned from CSR implementation so far, that is, that it has had a negative impact on teacher quality in many urban and rural areas, no provisions were made in the current legislation to address this aspect of extending the policy to additional classrooms.

In reviewing these policy efforts, it is clear that very few were designed strictly for or even include provisions that specifically target preparing teachers for culturally and linguistically diverse students. In fact, the overall result of some well-intended policies may be bad outcomes for some culturally and linguistically diverse students. Unfortunately, the students who are most often negatively affected [by well-intentioned policies] are generally those who are already benefiting the least from our schools. Unless we make the needs of these students a specific priority, we are unlikely to achieve the desired and long-needed improvements in educational outcomes for these students.
CONCLUSIONS

The problems of strengthening California’s teaching force to better meet the needs of its diverse population are complex. To a very large extent, California’s teaching force is the product of its own public schools – schools which have had little success in preparing underrepresented students to go on to college. Thus, relatively few Native Americans, Latinos, African Americans and Southeast Asians are equipped to pursue a career in teaching. And those who are prepared have more and more been opting for careers with better pay and higher prestige. The educational pipeline runs almost dry at the point of delivering students of color and linguistically diverse students into teacher preparation programs.

Very little effort has been expended in recruiting those well-prepared, but underrepresented, students to pursue teaching. This is especially unfortunate because, as Haberman (1996) notes, it is easier to begin with the “right” people – aspiring teachers who have the backgrounds and inclinations that give them the most potential for success with culturally and linguistically diverse students – than it is to educate those with less diverse backgrounds.

The “right” teachers are not necessarily those from the same underrepresented communities as the students, but more often than not, these individuals have insights, experiences, and skills that are difficult to replicate in the short space of time that teacher preparation programs have to train new teachers. Certainly, the acquisition of a second language will rarely occur in that time frame.

Moreover, these individuals may be the “right” teachers because they tend to come from the same geographic areas where many of the teachers who are currently graduating from teacher preparation programs do not want to work. Because teachers are drawn to teaching in near proximity to where they live (Murnane, et al., 1991; Shields, et al., 1998), the inclusion of more teachers from these underrepresented communities could have a salutary effect on the problem of unequal distribution of the teacher force. There is also reason to believe that teachers who share the backgrounds of these students are more likely to persist both in the teacher corps and in schools with high minority populations. For example, Murnane and his associates (1991) found that African American teachers teaching in largely African American inner-cities were twice as likely to remain in the teaching force after five years as white teachers who taught in those schools.

Unfortunately, new teachers are not apt to find a great deal in their credentialing programs that will prepare them for the kinds of students they will be teaching, and those teachers who are already in the teaching force receive very little support and guidance on how to address the needs of ethnic minority, low income, and linguistically diverse students. The evidence suggests that feelings of lack of efficacy contribute to the teacher attrition problem (Darling-Hammond, 1999), which is a fundamental cause of California’s teacher shortages. The majority of California’s students are students of color; the majority of its teacher force is not. Diversifying the teaching force is a strategy that can attack multiple problems simultaneously.
There is no shortage of recommendations to increase the effectiveness of the existing teaching force and to augment that group with more teachers who bring the skills, experience, and language competencies that are so critical to better preparing California’s diverse student body. In fact, the challenge is not to simply provide recommendations, but to weigh carefully which of the many recommendations that one might make would likely have the greatest impact on the problem.

For maximum effectiveness, policy recommendations should be coordinated and synergistic. Therefore, we look to *The Status of the Teaching Profession* (Shields, et al., 1999) as a baseline of recommendations to improve both the quality and quantity of California’s teacher workforce. We then build on this foundation, recommendations that are aligned but more explicitly focused on the specific need to address the needs of California’s diverse students. We have attempted to select those recommendations we think are most key and to organize them by category: Pipeline/Recruitment, Preservice, Professional Development, and Research.

**PIPELINE/RECRUITMENT STRATEGIES**

To diversify the teaching force, it makes sense to concentrate efforts where the target population is found in greatest numbers. In California, most Latino high school graduates who go on to college and a high percentage of African American and other first-time college-goers from underrepresented groups attend community colleges. Currently, we lose most of these students before they complete a bachelor’s degree. Among the reasons that figure most prominently into this loss are financial pressures, inadequate career counseling, and lack of focus in their studies. Thus, we recommend that the state consider:

- A teacher preparation program that begins at the community college, with focused coursework and counseling, and forgivable loans to support both the student and the student’s education. Such an initiative could help stem the drop-out problem among students of color in the community colleges and significantly augment the teacher pool. As a part of this program, a specialized associate of arts degree awarded to these students at the completion of the community college course work could prepare them to work as classroom aides, serving dual objectives of helping students to acquire needed experience to and supplement their incomes while they continue their studies.

- A system of sign-up bonuses to encourage the selection of teaching as a profession. The armed services (as well as some school districts) pay substantial sign-up bonuses, as well as funding the education of promising recruits, to enhance their pool of candidates. Surely the need for qualified teachers is as great as the need for military recruits. Sign-up bonuses should be paid to qualified teacher candidates who have the skills, background, and experience that are needed to teach diverse students. Thus, individuals with multiple language competencies and experience living and working among culturally diverse populations should be eligible for a sign-up bonus large enough to attract people who clearly have other, often more compelling occupational options.

- The expansion of forgivable loans to allow teacher candidates to focus solely on obtaining their credential. Students who are already in the college pipeline who have special knowledge of minority communities and languages and who have demonstrated an interest in teaching should be eligible for forgivable loans sufficient to ensure that they complete their undergraduate degrees and credentials in a timely manner and quickly enter the teaching force. This recommendation involves increasing resources to existing efforts rather than devising new ones. Forgivable loan opportunities already exist but it is our suggestion that students receive sufficient funding from these loans to allow them to forgo other work and focus solely on their teacher preparation studies.

The University of California (as well as other bac-
calærate-granting institutions in California) graduates thousands of students each year with bachelor’s degrees, many of whom could be successful teachers but who have never even considered this career, in part because the university does not encourage this option. A recent review of the postgraduate occupational status of psychology degree-holders from one of the UC campuses yielded the finding that many worked in relatively low-paying, non-professional positions outside their field of preparation, but very few had pursued teaching. Students reported never having been encouraged by their department counselors to consider teaching. Therefore, we recommend:

- An active campaign within the university to direct its graduates, and especially those who would help to diversify the teacher corps, into careers in teaching. This would include easing the way for direct entry into the credential program on the university campus.

Many teachers leave the profession every year and thus there is a large pool of qualified, credentialed teachers who are not currently in the teaching force. Often they leave teaching due to family situations that are temporary in nature. Some leave because they are attracted by more lucrative offers outside the classroom. Publicity surrounding the need for teachers as a result of the class-size reduction initiative drew some of these teachers back into the classroom, but many more might be induced to re-enter. We recommend:

- Signing bonuses and guarantees of preserving all seniority accrued before leaving teaching. These benefits should be portable to any district to which the teacher applies. In addition, teachers should receive credit for relevant experiences acquired in the interim. A particular priority should be placed on attracting those teachers who help to diversify the teaching force, and/or who can demonstrate skills in working with diverse students.

An impressive recruitment campaign, CalTeach, is currently underway in California to attract more teachers. This outreach effort includes Spanish language advertising, television ads portraying people of diverse ethnicity as teachers, celebrity endors-

ers who are people of color, and print ads (including billboards, bus placards and posters) placed in channels of communication likely to reach ethnic audiences. We recommend:

- A greater emphasis on and expansion of the use of images of diverse teachers in promotional efforts and appeals to individuals with diverse backgrounds.

## PRE-SERVICE TRAINING

### CLAD and BCLAD

The State of California currently offers two credentials aimed at preparing teachers to teach diverse populations – the CLAD and the BCLAD. On the books, the state is very near to having sufficient numbers of CLAD-credentialed teachers to meet the targeted needs of the state. In part, this is because many already-credentialed teachers have been able to earn a CLAD-type authorization under a grandfather clause that requires an exceptionally low level of preparation – 45 hours of coursework that is sometimes compressed into a couple of weekends. Many teachers who have experienced CLAD training note that it is a place to start, but that it does little more than heighten their awareness that they must increase their knowledge and skills of how to effectively work with these students. Thus immediate attention is required to strengthen the CLAD credential and encourage more teachers to pursue the BCLAD. We recommend that the state of California:

- Strengthen the CLAD credential and integrate it with the regular credential. The CLAD credential must be seen as a floor and not a ceiling in the preparation of teachers for diverse classrooms. Measures such as AB 1969, which included a grandfather clause for existing teachers and allowed them to earn an authorization to teach EL students with very little training, should be reconsidered.

- Initiate a high-profile campaign to recruit more teachers for the BCLAD credential, sending the message that the credential is still an important valuable tool for California’s teachers. To motivate more individuals to seek the BCLAD credential, pursuit of the creden-
tial should be subsidized by the state and the state should provide funding to local districts to augment the salaries of its holders.

- Require experience with diverse communities. The research is consistent in finding that immersion experiences for teachers are the most effective means of learning how to work with diverse students. Therefore, teacher preparation should include opportunities for future teachers to work and experience life first-hand in diverse communities for some period of time as a part of the credentialing requirement.

Four-Year Degree
While California’s fifth-year, post-baccalaureate credential has often been touted as a model for the nation, it is also a fact that it places an additional burden on students in terms of foregone income and additional educational costs. This can be most daunting for low-income students of color. Many potential bilingual teachers fall within this category. Therefore, we recommend that:

- The state continue to develop and offer integrated Bachelor of Arts/credentialing programs that operate on a 12-month calendar and provide sufficient support for students to pursue their degree and credential full time and year round. This allows students to enter the classroom, fully credentialed and with the same degree of preparation they would attain from a five-year program, within four years, but without the burden of debt associated with programs of longer duration. However, it is also important to rigorously monitor and evaluate this program to ensure that it does not trade quality for efficiency.

 Implemented on a large scale, this initiative would require that more resources be redirected into teacher preparation at the institutions of higher education (IHEs). Therefore, we recommend that:

- The state work with the IHEs to provide incentive funds in the form of additional resources matched to existing campus resources that are redirected to this task, and that a priority be placed on staffing these programs with faculty who are experts in training teachers for cultural and linguistic diversity.

Professional Development
The literature is clear and consistent that effective practices for preparing teachers to teach diverse students must be infused into the entire preparation program, and possibly prior to that through the undergraduate program. Nonetheless, the literature is equally clear that although there are some admirable examples of programs that take the infusion approach recommended in the research, the majority do not, and many pay only cursory attention to issues of linguistic and cultural diversity.

This neglect in preservice programs makes the importance of focusing on the skills and knowledge teachers need to work effectively with these students essential in professional development activities. In order to enhance student achievement, such skill development needs to go beyond a human relations approach. Furthermore, these skills and knowledge should be an integral part of the planning of all professional development rather than an add-on or afterthought. Therefore we recommend that:

- Professional development should focus specifically on the instructional strategies, skills, and knowledge shown in the literature to be present in successful programs for diverse learners, including an infusion of content related to issues of teaching culturally and linguistically diverse students into all aspects of the program.

Research
Although there is a growing body of research on effective strategies for increasing the quantity and quality of teachers for California’s diverse students, there is much we still need to know. For example:

- To what extent are the CBEST (California Basic Education Skills Test) and RICA (Reading Instruction Competence Assessment) exams preventing potential teachers...
from diverse backgrounds from pursuing a teaching job?

- Why do we lose 40 percent to 60 percent of those who earn credentials from the field before they ever take a teaching job? To what extent is this related to the feelings expressed by some teacher education students that they did not feel prepared by their programs to be effective teachers for culturally and linguistically diverse students?

- What are the sources of the high rates of attrition from the ranks of teachers, particularly among those working with diverse students?

- What kinds of institutions, both public and particularly private, are attracting the most minority teacher candidates? What are these institutions doing in order to attract these students?

- How successful in preparing teachers who are more effective with diverse learners are the alternative routes to teacher credentials, including internships and district credentialing programs? How successful are these programs at increasing the diversity of the teacher corps?

- How can we most effectively increase the status of the teaching profession in order to attract more qualified candidates, particularly from underrepresented communities?
REFERENCES


