



## Research paper

# Cultural responsiveness and common conceptualizations of “good” teaching in culturally and linguistically diverse elementary classrooms in the U.S. and the Netherlands



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## HIGHLIGHTS

- Observation instruments purported to measure “good” teaching and culturally responsive instruction provide unique information about teachers’ instructional practice.
- Teachers who are high in culturally responsive instruction also tend to be strong in providing emotional support for their students.
- “Good” teachers are not always culturally responsive teachers and vice versa.

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## ABSTRACT

Schools are becoming increasingly diverse. While observing teaching is critical for improving and evaluating teacher practice, few studies have explored how culturally responsive instruction (CRI) might expand dominant understandings of good teaching. Using classroom observations of teachers (U.S.:  $n = 10$ , Netherlands:  $n = 8$ ), we compare an observational measure of CRI with a more common measure of good teaching. Findings indicate that instruments measuring good teaching and CRI provide unique information about teaching practices. High-CRI teachers are particularly strong in providing emotional support, however, good teachers are not always culturally responsive teachers and vice versa. Implications are discussed.

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## 1. Introduction

Globally, schools are becoming increasingly racially, culturally, and linguistically diverse (United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees Agency [UNHCR], 2019). These trends require teachers and school leaders to respond in ways that acknowledge this increasingly heterogeneous student body and their needs (e.g., incorporating cultural assets into classroom experiences). Furthermore, the rapid change in student demographics has placed an even brighter spotlight on the achievement disparities between non-white and white students in the U.S. (NCES, 2017) and between students with and without immigrant descents in Europe (OECD/European Union, 2018). Opportunity gaps play a strong

explanatory role in these disparities (Dutch Inspectorate of Education, 2020; Howard & Rodriguez-Minkoff, 2017)—disparities that are likely to widen due to the impact of COVID-19 (Schoorman et al. under review; McKinsey & Company, 2020).

In alignment with the growing recognition of the opportunity gap, research (e.g., Dee & Penner, 2017; Matthews & López, 2019) and theory (e.g., Gay, 2010; Ladson-Billings, 1994; Lucas & Villegas, 2011; Paris & Alim, 2017) suggest that culturally and linguistically minoritized (CLM) youth may benefit from teachers who possess a specialized set of skills, experiences, and practices, including culturally responsive approaches to teaching. However, teacher education programs struggle to incorporate this knowledge (Lambeth & Smith, 2016; Warren, 2018) and have been shown to postpone addressing these imperative topics until the end of students’ teacher education programs (Severiens et al., 2014). As such, pre-service teachers experience low levels of culturally responsive teaching efficacy, report that they are not well prepared to teach

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CLM students once they enter the classroom (Geerlings et al., 2018; Hansen-Thomas et al., 2016; Mansikka & Holm, 2011; Seidl, 2007; Siwatu, 2007, 2011; Szelei et al., 2019), and rarely demonstrate culturally responsive and sustaining practices, even in culturally and linguistically diverse classrooms (Michener et al., 2015). Even teachers who receive culturally responsive-focused professional development experience barriers to implementation that include: constraints placed upon them by administrators, pressures from high-stakes accountability, language barriers, and the complexity of culturally responsive instruction (Powell et al., 2016).

For pre- and in-service teachers, observations of and feedback on their instructional practice often dictates what are essential teaching practices and those worthy of improvement efforts. Yet, there exist few observational measures of culturally responsive practice (Debnam et al., 2015). Notably, commonly used classroom observation instruments (e.g., Danielson Framework for Teaching, Marzano Causal Teacher Evaluation Model) rarely measure teachers' attention to students' culture and language (Lavigne & Oberg De La Garza, 2015). Informed by these concerns, in this study we examine how Culturally Responsive Instruction (CRI) relates to 'good' teaching (Ladson-Billings, 1995a) as manifested in a commonly used instrument that measures and establishes normative definitions of good teaching. This study is critical as little is known about how CRI or the instruments that measure such practices reveal more or different information about teachers' instruction than commonly used observation instruments, because few observational studies have examined multiple observation instruments or operationalizations of teaching in tandem.

### 1.1. Good teaching in observational measures

Observation instruments that intend to assess teaching quality are value-laden and therefore represent choices about what is and is not good teaching. For this study, we follow Fenstermacher and Richardson's (2005) line of reasoning in their examination of the notion of quality teaching and its conceptual, empirical, and normative properties. These scholars argue that quality teaching includes both good teaching, defined as the quality of the task or process of instruction, and successful or effective teaching—the realization of intended outcomes or student learning (Fenstermacher & Richardson, 2005). The prior, 'good' teaching is typically what observers are looking for when they use observational measures in classrooms, as intended outcomes can simply not be observed. Fenstermacher and Richardson's (2005) understanding of good teaching entails that the content is in accordance with disciplinary standards of adequacy and completeness, the ways in which this content is delivered are morally defensible, suit students' age and needs, and are undertaken with the intention of enhancing the learner's competence in the targeted content. In this study, we do not collect student outcome data but focus intentionally on the process of instruction to inform what values about instructional practices (and definitions of good teaching) are propagated through the choice of an observation instrument.

We collect classroom observation data using one instrument designed to capture, as articulated by the instrument's authors, good teaching, and one instrument designed to capture, as articulated by the instrument's authors, CRI in culturally and linguistically diverse classrooms in two settings—the U.S. and the Netherlands. These sites, while convenience samples, share the experience of increased calls for CRI but differ in the historical and modern-day evolution of classroom diversity, immigration and migration patterns, and related inequities. We describe these demographic shifts below.

## 1.2. Classroom heterogeneity in the U.S. And the Netherlands

### 1.2.1. United States

With a long history in the U.S., Black, Indigenous, Asian and Pacific Islander, and Latinxs represented 11%, 5%, 0.3%, and 3% of the population in 1960, while nearly 90% of the population in the U.S. identified as white. Today, Black, Latinx, and Asian and Pacific Islanders represent 13%, 18%, and 6%, of the U.S. population, and there has been a fourfold increase of immigrants living in the U.S. since the 1960s (López & Radford, 2015). CLM students are now the majority in K-12 enrollment, with multilingual learners representing more than 400 languages in U.S. classrooms (NCES, 2019; U.S. Department of Education, 2017). Notably, the teacher population remains predominantly (79%) white (Taie & Goldring, 2020).

### 1.2.2. Netherlands

The Netherlands has a history of work-related migration since the 1960s. The largest ethnic minority groups (up to third generation) in the Netherlands are Surinamese, Antillians, Turks and Moroccans. Recently, migration from East European countries such as Poland and Bulgaria have steeply increased, simultaneously with asylum seekers from countries in conflict, such as Syria and Eritrea. Recently, the influx of refugees from areas of conflict has increased the cultural diversity of the Dutch population even more. In 2020, 24.4% of the population was of immigrant descent - both Western (e.g., Poland) and non-Western (e.g., Morocco, Turkey, and Syria) (CBS [Statistics Netherlands], 2020). As a result, many Dutch elementary school classrooms – especially urban ones – are characterized by a highly culturally and linguistically diverse student population. The national average of students of immigrant descents in K-12 classrooms is 37%. In urban areas, the percentage of students of immigrant descent can be as high as 100% (Dutch Inspectorate of Education, 2020).

These two sites were interesting sites for the current study because the U.S. and the Netherlands have both struggled to adequately reduce achievement gaps between CLM and non-CLM students. Schools alone cannot solve all the problems that result in the marginalization of culturally and linguistically diverse learners, but we do believe that teachers can play an important role. While both sites may benefit from the vast literature on CRI, we ground our study in theory and research that has primarily emerged in the U.S. and Europe which we summarize below.

## 2. Literature review

### 2.1. Teaching CLM learners: theory

Starting in the 1970s, various responses to the growing need to effectively teach CLM students have emerged, including: culturally appropriate instruction (Au & Jordan, 1981), multicultural education (Banks, 2004; Banks & Banks, 2005), culturally responsive teaching (Gay, 1975, 2002, 2010, 2013, 2018), and culturally relevant (Ladson-Billings, 1994; 1995a; 1995b, 2014), sustaining (Paris, 2012; Paris & Alim, 2017), and disruptive pedagogy (San Pedro, 2018).

Rooted in a critical race paradigm, culturally relevant, responsive, and sustaining pedagogies prioritize the awareness, scrutiny, and challenge of racial policies that perpetuate the status quo (Milner, 2008). In the U.S., such approaches seek to disrupt messages that "normal" equals "white" (Benson & Fiarman, 2019) and the centering of Eurocentric values, beliefs, and practices which are commonly reflected in the hidden curriculum of schools (Apple & King, 1983). This is critical as CLM students often report that they "always" learn about Europeans, but "never" about their own ethnic groups in schools (Branch, 2020). Explicitly teaching ethnic identity

serves, in part, to reduce prejudice and bias, enhance equity, and empower students (Banks, 2004). Teachers who are high implementers of CRI attend to the social contexts of students through their practices as opposed to a focus on the methodology of their practices. Such teachers hold high expectations for all students and their achievement and are culturally competent and critically conscious (Ladson-Billings, 1995b). Affirming students' cultural backgrounds—a key feature of CRI—starts with teachers learning the funds of knowledge students bring to the classroom. When teachers know the historically and culturally developed skills, resources, and knowledge that emerge from and are present in students' daily lived experiences, teachers can connect these funds of knowledge to instruction (González et al., 2005). Extending this work even further, Gay (2018) argues that such practices can be organized into eight key pedagogical features: validating and affirming; comprehensive and inclusive; multidimensional; empowering; transformative; emancipatory humanistic; normative and ethical. It is through these eight elements that culturally responsive teachers use “the cultural knowledge, prior experiences, frames of reference, and performance styles of ethnically diverse students to make learning encounters more relevant to and effective for them” (Gay, 2010, p. 31).

## 2.2. Teaching CLM learners: research on practices

In some classrooms serving CLMs, deficit models are what is observed in classroom practice (Guerra & Wubbena, 2017) resulting in CLM students experiencing: fewer opportunities to participate in classroom activities (DaSilva Iddings, 2005), limited language support in the classroom (Piker & Rex, 2008), limited support when engaging in peer interactions (Girolametto et al., 2005), and less positive teacher-child relationships (Sullivan et al., 2015). Culturally responsive instruction is a means of directly disrupting these patterns of instruction.

### 2.2.1. Culturally responsive instruction (CRI)

Extant literature overwhelmingly indicates that when teachers do enact CRI, they also tend to acquire positive student outcomes. For example, Howard and Rodriguez-Minkoff (2017) in their review of CRI and research across various content areas (e.g., language arts, mathematics, social studies) and student groups, illustrate the benefits of CRI, including, but not limited to: cultural referents for Black students' text analysis and comprehension (Lee, 2007), funds of knowledge for Mexican American student engagement (González et al., 2005), Mexican American/Raza studies for Chicano/a achievement and graduation rates (Cammarota & Romero, 2009), and culturally relevant tools and artifacts for mathematical knowledge (Nasir, 2000). Furthermore, Abdulrahim and Orosco (2020), in their review of thirty-five studies conducted in the U.S., found culturally responsive mathematics instruction to be a promising practice for fostering equitable and inclusive learning environments for mathematics. Likewise, Brown (2017) examined the complementarity of inquiry-based and culturally responsive practices in science in a review of fifty-two empirical articles and found inquiry-based practice to be one method to advance equitable, culturally responsive practices, although it was an underutilized one. Despite evidence that CRI can be applied in mathematics and science, at least one study found such behaviors to be less present in mathematics lessons relative to other content areas (Debnam et al., 2015). Furthermore, students may not receive the opportunities to learn afforded to them through CRI because it is infrequently and inconsistently leveraged in classrooms that serve CLM youth (Daniel & Zyбина, 2019; Michener et al., 2015). Given that what teachers do in classrooms may have a greater impact on students than what teachers believe (Lavigne & Good,

2021), that teacher beliefs are not always congruent with their practices (Guerra & Wubbena, 2017), and that there are limited observations of CRI in classroom (Daniel & Zyбина, 2019; Michener et al., 2015), in this study, we use observational research to prioritize what teachers do in classrooms.

## 2.3. The current study

There is growing evidence that teachers' culturally responsive beliefs and practices matter for students, and especially for CLM students. Twenty-five years ago, Ladson-Billings (1995a) made the case that CRI is synonymous with “good teaching” and that it is also much more than that. Ladson-Billings expressed the concern that “good teaching” was rarely happening in classrooms that serve CLM students. This absence persists today (Daniel & Zyбина, 2019; Michener et al., 2015).

We recognize that addressing this issue has been problematized by few observational measures of culturally responsive practice. Further, none of these above-mentioned studies have assessed how cultural frameworks and practices might expand dominant understandings of good teaching, specifically for observing instructional practice (Lavigne and Oberg De La Garza, 2015). These challenges make it difficult to: 1) understand what CRI looks and sounds like in classrooms, and 2) illustrate how and in what ways CRI goes above and beyond good teaching as reflected in commonly-used observation instruments that are taught in teacher education and used in schools. This information is necessary to establish a bridge from existing to evolving understandings of practice that help enhance existing teachers' and develop future teachers' abilities to enact CRI. Applying the lens of classroom observation to classrooms in the U.S. and the Netherlands, we examine a single, yet essential question: What is the relationship between teachers' good teaching and culturally responsive instruction?

## 3. Method

### 3.1. Teaching Diverse Youth project

This study was part of a larger project, the Teaching Diverse Youth project. The goal of this exploratory cross-cultural study was to advance the discussion on whether and how good teaching and culturally responsive instruction differ, including the identification of culturally responsive exemplars in the form of video or vignettes for facilitating teacher education and professional development. Data were collected during the 2018–2019 school year and included: classroom observations, teacher interviews, teacher surveys, and teacher focus groups on supporting teacher growth and development in culturally responsive beliefs and practices. In this current study, we focused on a sub-set of these data—classroom observations.

### 3.2. Recruitment and participants

In the current study, teachers from multiple school sites in the U.S. and the Netherlands were recruited to participate in the study. The recruitment pool for the U.S. was drawn from the most culturally and linguistically diverse district within a Western state. Within that district, elementary schools became eligible sites for the recruitment pool if their student population is comprised of 25% or more Limited English Proficient students (a term used by the federal government in the U.S.) and 50% or more racially minoritized students. School districts utilized a home language survey to identify a student's language background. For students who speak a language other than English in their home, districts verified their

Limited English Proficient status using a valid and reliable test that assessed English language proficiency in speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Principal consent to recruit in the school was sought first followed by teacher recruitment ( $n = 80$  3rd grade teachers across 25 schools were included at this stage in recruitment). Ultimately, ten U.S. teachers participated in the study. The age range of the children in participating teachers' classrooms varied from 8- to 9-year-olds; classrooms are organized by age.

In the Netherlands, a school for newcomer children was recruited for participation. The use of the term "newcomer" for this school refers to "newness" and "recent". This includes refugee students who have recently arrived oftentimes from zones of conflict, and also children from recently arrived expat workers. For expat students, their stay in the Netherlands is usually temporary and for refugee students, this information is not always known at the time of arrival. Children of newcomer parents attend this school for a maximum of two years and then move to regular schools. They are immersed in a Dutch program, to boost their proficiency in the Dutch language before they enter a regular classroom. Given the exploratory nature of the study, we considered this highly culturally and linguistically heterogeneous school as a suitable place to start. Eight teachers agreed to participate in the study. Their classrooms were organized around level of achievement instead of age. The age range of the children they taught varied from 6- to 11-year-olds. In sum, a total of 18 teachers participated in the study, across two study sites ( $n = 10$  US;  $n = 8$  Netherlands), and seven schools ( $n = 6$  US,  $n = 1$  Netherlands). Despite large differences in the characteristics of diversity between these two sites and within the U.S. site, both sites shared the commonality of serving a significant percentage of refugee students (with this being particularly true in the Dutch site).

### 3.3. Procedures and instruments

#### 3.3.1. Classroom observation

Recognizing that teachers may report higher levels of practice than is actually observed (Debnam et al., 2015), we chose to directly observe classrooms. Teachers scheduled one or two observations. Eleven teachers were observed in language arts, Dutch teachers were also observed in social studies) lasting a minimum of 20 min. For consistency, only language arts lessons were used for analysis. To adequately examine the research questions, it was important to observe CRI, however, we also wanted to capture normative teacher practice. Thus, instead of asking teachers to conduct what they believed to be a culturally responsive lesson, we focused on content areas that might increase the likelihood of observing CRI (Debnam et al., 2015). Although the length of lessons varies, we did our best to honor teachers' lesson structure and sought to capture a full lesson from start to finish. To reduce disruptions to the classroom environment from researchers entering and exiting, some observations were fairly long (up to 2 h in length). Teachers were asked to conduct lessons as planned and were observed live, video-recorded, or both. Each lesson was coded using two instruments.

**3.3.1.1. Culturally responsive instruction.** The third edition of the Culturally Responsive Instruction Observation Protocol (CRIOP; Powell et al., 2014) was used to capture CRI. The CRIOP evolved from a research study that examined literacy practices from primary classrooms in hopes of identifying instructional practices that bridge the achievement gap between white students and their CLM peers (CRIOP; Powell et al., 2014). It has also been used to guide school-based professional development in the U.S. (Cantrell et al., 2014; Powell et al., 2016). To the best of our knowledge, the instrument has been used outside the U.S. only in one study (Civittillo et al., 2019). According to Powell et al. (2016), the CRIOP is informed

by scholarship on culture (e.g., Banks, 2008; Gay, 2000; Irvine & Armento, 2001; Ladson-Billings, 1994), language, specifically bilingualism and multilingualism (e.g., Cummins, 2000; Gutiérrez et al., 2001; Moll & Díaz, 1987; Thomas & Collier, 2002), and instruments that have sought to measure iterations of culturally and linguistically responsive practices in the classroom (e.g., Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (Echevarria et al., 2000)). Scale reliability for the CRIOP has ranged from Cronbach's alpha values of .61–.94 (Cantrell et al., 2014; Malo-Juvera, Powell, & Cantrell, 2013; Powell et al., 2016).

The CRIOP consists of twenty-three indicators organized into six pillars: Classroom Relationships (4 indicators), Family Collaboration (3 indicators), Assessment Practices (3 indicators), Instructional Practices (6 indicators), Discourse (4 indicators), and Sociopolitical Consciousness (3 indicators). See Table 1.

To support coder accuracy, the instrument includes examples of "generally effective practices", "culturally responsive practices" and "non-examples". One of the examples of generally effective practices of classroom relationships is that *the teacher refers to students by name*, while the corresponding culturally responsive practice of classroom relationships is that *the teacher differentiates patterns of interaction and management techniques to be culturally congruent with the students and families s/he serves* (CRIOP; Powell et al., 2014). Indicators are scored on a 4-point scale (1 = not at all, 2 = occasionally, 3 = often, 4 = to a great extent) using data from classroom observation(s). The family collaboration pillar, however, is scored using data from teachers' responses to the interview component of the CRIOP (the Family Collaboration teacher interview which includes questions such as: What methods do you typically use to communicate with parents/caregivers?).

In preparation for coding classroom observations using the CRIOP, research team members followed *The Culturally Responsive Instruction Observation Protocol: A Training Guide for CRIOP Observations* (Correll, Powell, & Cantrell, 2015), which included extensive review of the instrument and practice videos. All research team members were certified to code by achieving 80% inter-rater agreement with the master coder from scoring three videos. Team members engaged in additional practice in conducting the interview portion of the CRIOP.

**3.3.1.2. Good teaching.** The Classroom Assessment Scoring System (CLASS K-3; Pianta et al., 2008) was used to capture good teaching. The CLASS K-3 is one instrument that is part of the larger CLASS family of observation instruments, which also includes observation instruments for infant, toddler, pre-K, secondary, and Spanish Pre-K settings. The CLASS instruments were originally developed to study the extent to which interaction between teachers and students made some teachers more effective than others. Effective teacher-student interaction is essential for student success; the CLASS instruments are firmly grounded in this well-documented finding (Hamre & Pianta, 2005; Pianta, 2006). Informed by research on children's social and emotional functioning, teachers' organization of classrooms as it pertains to student behavior and learning, and children's cognitive and language development, the CLASS observation systems have been used widely for research (Hamre et al., 2014) and most notably as an instrument in the U.S. in the Measures of Effective Teaching Project funded by the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation and as the primary observation scale for Head Start. The organizational structure of the instrument has been validated in more than 3000 classrooms Hamre et al., (2014) and is increasingly used in countries outside the U.S. (Salminen et al., 2012; Slot et al., 2017).

The CLASS K-3—the specific CLASS instrument utilized in this study—was scored during an observation cycle (20-min period); the coder watched the classroom while taking notes followed by a 10-min recording and scoring period. In this study, the CLASS K-3

**Table 1**  
CRIOP pillars and indicators.

Pillars and Indicators
Classroom Relationships
1. The teacher demonstrates an ethic of care (e.g., equitable relationships, bonding)
2. The teacher communicates high expectations for all students
3. The teacher creates a learning atmosphere that engenders respect for one another and toward diverse populations
4. Students work together productively
Family Collaboration
1. The teacher establishes genuine partnerships (equitable relationships) with parents/caregivers
2. The teacher reaches out to meet parents in positive, non-traditional ways
3. The teacher uses parent expertise to support student learning and/or classroom instruction
Assessment Practices
1. Formative assessment practices are used that provide information throughout the lesson on individual student understanding; students demonstrate their learning in a variety of ways, including authentic assessments
2. Teacher uses formative assessment data throughout instruction to promote student learning
3. Students have opportunities for self-assessment
Instructional Practices
1. Instruction is contextualized in students' lives, experiences, and individual abilities
2. Students engage in active, hands-on, meaningful learning tasks
3. The teacher focuses on developing students' academic vocabularies
4. The teacher uses instructional techniques that scaffold student learning
5. Students are engaged in inquiry and the teacher learns with students
6. Students have choices based upon their experiences, interests and strengths
Discourse
1. The teacher promotes active student engagement through discourse practices
2. The teacher promotes equitable and culturally congruent discourse practices
3. The teacher provides structures that promote academic conversation
4. The teacher provides opportunities for students to develop linguistic competence
Sociopolitical Consciousness
1. The curriculum and planned learning experiences provide opportunities for the inclusion of issues important to the classroom, school and community
2. The curriculum and planned learning experiences incorporate opportunities to confront negative stereotypes and biases
3. The curriculum and planned learning experiences integrate and provide opportunities for the expression of diverse perspectives

was coded during the first 20-min of the observation. The CLASS K-3 consists of ten indicators organized in three different domains: Emotional Support (4 indicators), Classroom Organization (3 indicators), and Instructional Support (3 indicators). See Fig. 1.

Each domain is rated on a 7-point scale from low (1–2) to middle (3–5) to high (6–7), with high ratings indicating positive instructional and classroom climate with one indicator, negative climate, having an opposite scoring pattern (Pianta et al., 2008). Final scores on the CLASS dimensions are calculated by averaging scores across cycles.

In preparation for scoring the CLASS K-3, the research team attended a two-day intensive coder training conducted by Teachstone which included instruction about the instrument as well as practice coding cycles. Research team members then completed a reliability test which included viewing and scoring five videos. A 'pass' designation is determined by 80% or better within one point agreement with the master coder. All research term members passed

this exam and were certified coders of the CLASS K-3 before data collection.

#### 4. Results

##### 4.1. Descriptive

##### 4.1.1. Classroom characteristics

Language arts lessons that were observed for this particular study averaged 38.83 min in length. Classrooms ranged in size from 11 to 28 students ( $M = 19.67, SD = 4.56$ ). U.S. classrooms served a significantly larger number of students ( $M = 22.30, SD = 3.97$ ) than classrooms in the Netherlands study site ( $M = 16.38, SD = 2.83$ ),  $t(16) = 1.554, p < .05$ .

##### 4.1.2. CLASS K-3

Negative climate was reverse coded, then, we calculated overall means, standard deviations, and ranges overall and by study site for

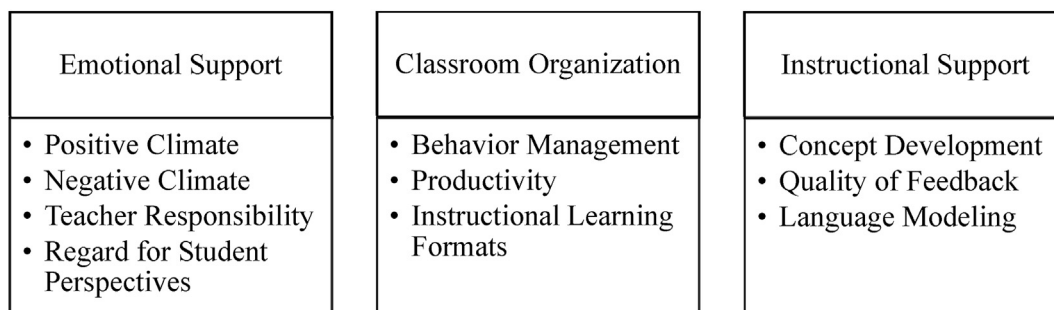


Fig. 1. CLASS K-3 domains and indicators.

the three CLASS dimensions as well as individual indicators. Overall, the classrooms were observed to be the strongest in emotional support ( $M = 6.03, SD = 0.51$ ) and had the least variation in this component, followed by classroom organization ( $M = 5.91, SD = 0.82$ ), and instructional support ( $M = 4.04, SD = 0.98$ ). See Table 2.

Teacher-student interaction quality in classrooms measured by CLASS K-3 indicates that classrooms with diverse student populations were, on average, rated as being moderate to high quality, regardless of study site.

4.1.3. CRIOP

We calculated overall means and standard deviations by study site for the CRIOP dimensions. Overall, the quality of CRI in the observed lessons as measured by the CRIOP was strong in Classroom Relationships ( $M = 3.14, SD = 0.55$ ), moderate in Assessment Practices ( $M = 2.46, SD = 0.56$ ), Instructional Practices ( $M = 2.57, SD = 0.49$ ), and Discourse ( $M = 2.57, SD = 0.57$ ), and low in Sociopolitical Consciousness ( $M = 1.48, SD = 0.33$ ) and Family Collaboration ( $M = 1.89, SD = 0.44$ ). See Table 3.

What is the relationship between teachers' good teaching and culturally responsive instruction?

We enacted three approaches to examining this primary research question. First, prior to analysis, all teachers' CLASS K-3 and CRIOP average scores were plotted (with Negative Climate on the CLASS K-3 reverse coded). Fig. 2 demonstrates that no relationship exists between a teacher's CLASS K-3 and CRIOP average scores. A Pearson's correlation confirms the pattern detected on the scatterplot,  $r = .017, p = .945$ , however, given that a small sample size can result in unreliable correlations, we calculated the confidence interval and found that there is the 95% chance that the confidence interval [-0.453, 0.480] contains the true correlation between CLASS K-3 and CRIOP average scores.

To further illuminate in what ways these instruments provide distinct information, we conducted correlations between the six CRIOP and three CLASS K-3 dimensions. Except for a few correlations, most correlations hovered near zero, suggesting little measurement overlap between the two instruments. While all correlations were non-significant, due to a small sample size, confidence intervals are wide and findings must be interpreted with caution. With this in mind, we have reported  $r, p$ -values, and confidence intervals in Table 4 and have plotted the sub-dimension correlations in Figs. 3–20.

Finally, to further examine the congruency, or lack thereof, between teachers' CLASS and CRIOP scores, we examined the CRIOP for instructional indicators with intentional and explicit inclusion of CRI as noted in the observation rubric. Of the twenty-three

indicators (practices) on the CRIOP, thirteen (57% of the instrument) specifically captured culturally responsive practice:

1. Classroom Relationships: The teacher demonstrates an ethic of care (e.g., equitable relationships, bonding).
2. Classroom Relationships: The teacher communicates high expectations for all students.
3. Classroom Relationships: The teacher creates a learning atmosphere that engenders respect for one another, and toward diverse populations.
4. Family Collaboration: The teacher establishes genuine partnerships (equitable relationships) with parents/caregivers.
5. Family Collaboration: The teacher reaches out to meet parents in positive, non-traditional ways.
6. Family Collaboration: The teacher uses parents' expertise to support student learning and/or classroom instruction.
7. Assessment Practices: Formative assessment practices are used that provide information throughout the lesson on individual student understanding; students can demonstrate their learning in a variety of ways, including authentic assessments.
8. Assessment Practices: Students have opportunities for self-assessment.
9. Instructional Practices: Instruction is contextualized in students' lives, experiences, and individual abilities.
10. Discourse: The teacher promotes equitable and culturally congruent discourse practices.
11. Sociopolitical Consciousness: The curriculum and planned learning experiences provide opportunities for the inclusion of issues important to the classroom, school, and community.
12. Sociopolitical Consciousness: The curriculum and planned learning experiences incorporate opportunities to confront negative stereotypes and biases.
13. Sociopolitical Consciousness: The curriculum and planned learning experiences integrate and provide opportunities for the expression of diverse perspectives.

Teachers' scores on these thirteen items were summed. With possible scores ranging from 13 to 52, teachers' scores ranged from 21 to 36 ( $M = 29.06, SD = 3.90$ ). We closely examined the CRI of teachers whose observational scores fell into the top 25th percentile (a score of 32 or more). Notably, these scores corresponded to six teachers (3 – U.S., 3 – Netherlands). Mean CRI item scores for this high-CRI group of teachers were significantly different than those of teachers whose observational scores fell into the middle of the CRI score distribution,  $t(10) = 4.179, p = .004$ . Mean scores by CRIOP pillar for all high-CRI teachers are provided in Table 5.

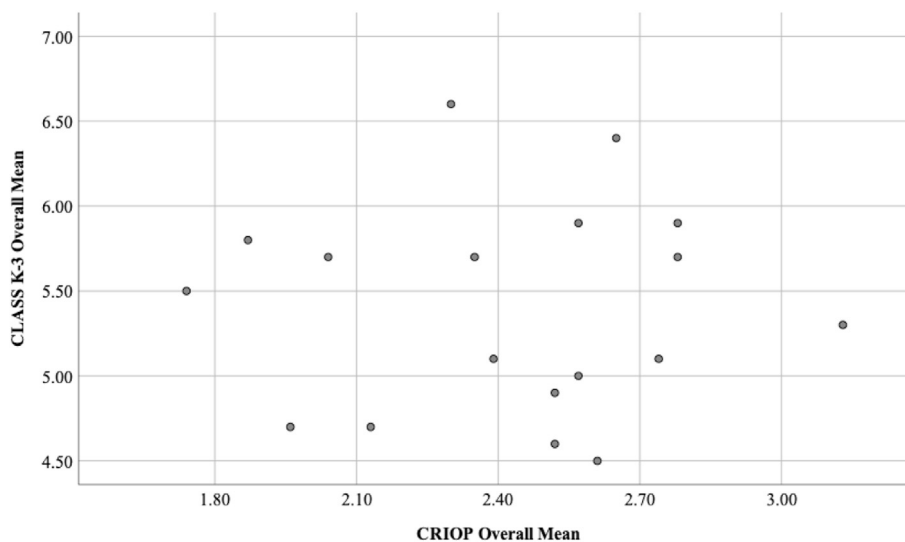
Table 2  
Descriptive statistics: CLASS K-3.

	Overall				US				Netherlands			
	N	Range	M	SD	N	Range	M	SD	N	Range	M	SD
Emotional Support	18	5.5–7.00	6.03	0.51	10	5.75–7.00	6.23	0.48	8	5.50–6.50	5.78	0.45
Positive Climate	18	6–7	6.61	0.50	10	6–7	6.80	0.42	8	6–7	6.38	0.52
Negative Climate*	18	6–7	6.83	0.38	10	7–7	7.00	0.00	8	6–7	6.63	0.52
Teacher Sensitivity	18	4–7	6.17	0.92	10	4–7	6.20	1.14	8	5–7	6.13	0.64
Regard for Student Perspectives	18	3–7	4.50	1.10	10	3–7	4.90	1.20	8	3–5	4.00	0.76
Classroom Organization	18	4.33–7.00	5.91	0.82	10	4.67–7.00	6.13	0.88	8	4.33–6.33	5.63	0.70
Behavior Management	18	4–7	6.22	0.88	10	4–7	6.20	1.03	8	5–7	6.25	0.71
Productivity	18	2–7	5.78	1.31	10	5–7	6.30	0.67	8	2–7	5.13	1.64
Instructional Learning Formats	18	4–7	5.72	1.02	10	4–7	5.90	1.20	8	4–6	5.50	0.76
Instructional Support	18	2.00–6.00	4.04	0.98	10	3.33–6.00	4.27	0.95	8	2–5.67	3.75	1.00
Concept Development	18	2–6	3.72	1.02	10	3–6	4.00	1.05	8	2–5	3.38	0.92
Quality of Feedback	18	2–6	3.89	1.13	10	3–6	4.10	1.10	8	2–6	3.63	1.19
Language Modeling	18	2–6	4.50	1.20	10	3–6	4.70	1.16	8	2–6	4.25	1.28

\* Values for negative climate represent reverse-coded values.

**Table 3**  
Descriptive statistics for CRIOP: Pillars and indicators.

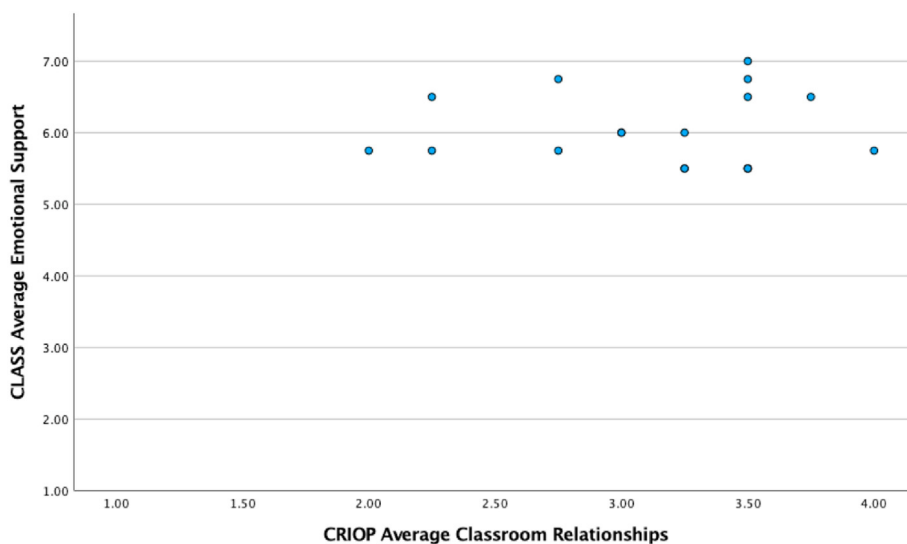
	Overall				United States				Netherlands			
	N	Range	M	SD	N	Range	M	SD	N	Range	M	SD
Classroom Relationships	18	2–4	3.14	0.55	10	2–3.5	2.83	0.53	8	3.25–4	3.53	0.25
1. The teacher demonstrates an ethic of care (e.g., equitable relationships, bonding)	18	2–4	3.11	0.76	10	2–4	2.60	0.52	8	3–4	3.75	0.46
2. The teacher communicates high expectations for all students	18	2–4	3.56	0.62	10	2–4	3.50	0.71	8	3–4	3.63	0.52
3. The teacher creates a learning atmosphere that engenders respect for one another and toward diverse populations	18	2–4	2.89	0.47	10	2–3	2.70	0.48	8	3–4	3.13	0.35
4. Students work together productively	18	1–4	3.00	0.97	10	1–4	2.50	0.97	8	3–4	3.63	0.52
Family Collaboration	18	1–4	1.89	0.44	10	1–2.33	1.70	0.40	8	1.33–2.67	2.13	0.40
1. The teacher establishes genuine partnerships (equitable relationships) with parents/ caregivers	18	1–4	2.11	0.76	10	1–3	1.90	0.74	8	2–4	2.38	0.74
2. The teacher reaches out to meet parents in positive, non-traditional ways	18	1–3	1.89	0.47	10	1–2	1.80	0.42	8	1–3	2.00	0.53
3. The teacher uses parent expertise to support student learning and/or classroom instruction	18	1–3	1.67	0.59	10	1–2	1.40	0.52	8	1–3	2.00	0.53
Assessment Practices	18	1.33–3.67	2.46	0.56	10	1.33–3.00	2.23	0.45	8	1.67–3.67	2.75	0.58
1. Formative assessment practices are used that provide information throughout the lesson on individual student understanding; students are able to demonstrate their learning in a variety of ways, including authentic assessments	18	2–4	2.61	0.70	10	2–4	2.40	0.70	8	2–4	2.88	0.64
2. Teacher uses formative assessment data throughout instruction to promote student learning	18	1–4	3.22	0.88	10	1–4	2.90	0.88	8	2–4	3.63	0.74
3. Students have opportunities for self-assessment	18	1–4	1.56	0.78	10	1–2	1.40	0.52	8	1–4	1.75	1.04
Instructional Practices	18	1.83–3.50	2.57	0.49	10	1.83–3.17	2.37	0.48	8	2.33–3.50	2.83	0.38
1. Instruction is contextualized in students' lives, experiences, and individual abilities	18	2–4	2.83	0.51	10	2–3	2.90	0.32	8	2–4	2.75	0.71
2. Students engage in active, hands-on, meaningful learning tasks	18	2–4	2.83	0.86	10	2–4	2.40	0.70	8	2–4	3.38	0.74
3. The teacher focuses on developing students' academic vocabularies	18	2–4	2.83	0.62	10	2–4	2.60	0.70	8	3–4	3.13	0.35
4. The teacher uses instructional techniques that scaffold student learning	18	2–4	3.17	0.79	10	2–4	2.80	0.79	8	3–4	3.63	0.52
5. Students are engaged in inquiry and the teacher learns with students	18	1–3	1.94	0.80	10	1–3	1.80	0.92	8	1–3	2.13	0.64
6. Students have choices based upon their experiences, interests and strengths	18	1–3	1.83	0.71	10	1–3	1.70	0.82	8	1–3	2.00	0.53
Discourse	18	1.50–3.50	2.57	0.57	10	1.50–3.25	2.43	0.60	8	2.25–3.50	2.75	0.50
1. The teacher promotes active student engagement through discourse practices	18	2–4	2.89	0.76	10	2–4	2.90	0.74	8	2–4	2.88	0.83
2. The teacher promotes equitable and culturally congruent discourse practices	18	1–3	2.39	0.61	10	1–3	2.40	0.70	8	2–3	2.38	0.52
3. The teacher provides structures that promote academic conversation	18	1–4	2.44	0.86	10	1–4	2.20	0.92	8	2–4	2.75	0.71
4. The teacher provides opportunities for students to develop linguistic competence	18	1–4	2.56	0.92	10	1–3	2.20	0.79	8	2–4	3.00	0.93
Sociopolitical Consciousness	18	1–2	1.48	0.33	10	1–2	1.47	0.32	8	1–2	1.50	0.36
1. The curriculum and planned learning experiences provide opportunities for the inclusion of issues important to the classroom, school and community	18	1–2	1.56	0.51	10	1–2	1.50	0.53	8	1–2	1.63	0.52
2. The curriculum and planned learning experiences incorporate opportunities to confront negative stereotypes and biases	18	1–2	1.28	0.46	10	1–2	1.30	0.48	8	1–2	1.25	0.46
3. The curriculum and planned learning experiences integrate and provide opportunities for the expression of diverse perspectives	18	1–3	1.61	0.61	10	1–2	1.60	0.52	8	1–3	1.63	0.74



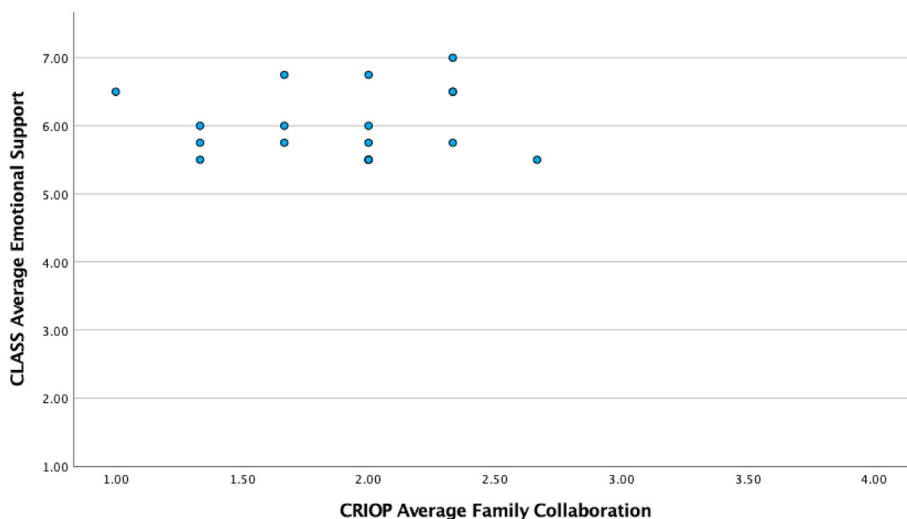
**Fig. 2.** Scatterplot of average CLASS K-3 x CRIOP scores.

**Table 4**  
Correlations between scale sub-scores.

Variables	n	Pearson Correlation	p-value	95% CI	
				Lower	Upper
CLASS Emotional Support * CRIOP Classroom Relationships	18	0.025	0.922	-0.448	0.486
CLASS Emotional Support * CRIOP Family Collaboration	18	0.036	0.886	-0.439	0.494
CLASS Emotional Support * CRIOP Assessment Practices	18	0.021	0.934	-0.451	0.483
CLASS Emotional Support * CRIOP Instructional Practices	18	-0.029	0.91	-0.488	0.445
CLASS Emotional Support * CRIOP Discourse	18	0.018	0.942	-0.453	0.481
CLASS Emotional Support * CRIOP Sociopolitical Consciousness	18	0.358	0.145	-0.142	0.701
CLASS Classroom Organization * CRIOP Classroom Relationships	18	0.063	0.805	-0.418	0.513
CLASS Classroom Organization * CRIOP Family Collaboration	18	-0.191	0.447	-0.601	0.308
CLASS Classroom Organization * CRIOP Assessment Practices	18	-0.001	0.998	-0.467	0.466
CLASS Classroom Organization * CRIOP Instructional Practices	18	-0.072	0.777	-0.520	0.411
CLASS Classroom Organization * CRIOP Discourse	18	0.183	0.469	-0.316	0.595
CLASS Classroom Organization * CRIOP Sociopolitical Consciousness	18	0.296	0.233	-0.207	0.665
CLASS Instructional Support * CRIOP Classroom Relationships	18	-0.055	0.827	-0.508	0.424
CLASS Instructional Support * CRIOP Family Collaboration	18	0.025	0.921	-0.448	0.486
CLASS Instructional Support * CRIOP Assessment Practices	18	-0.021	0.934	-0.483	0.451
CLASS Instructional Support * CRIOP Instructional Practices	18	-0.170	0.499	-0.587	0.327
CLASS Instructional Support * CRIOP Discourse	18	-0.049	0.847	-0.530	0.429
CLASS Instructional Support * CRIOP Sociopolitical Consciousness	18	0.307	0.216	-0.196	0.672



**Fig. 3.** Scatterplot of CLASS emotional support X CRIOP classroom relationships.



**Fig. 4.** Scatterplot of CLASS emotional support X CRIOP family collaboration.



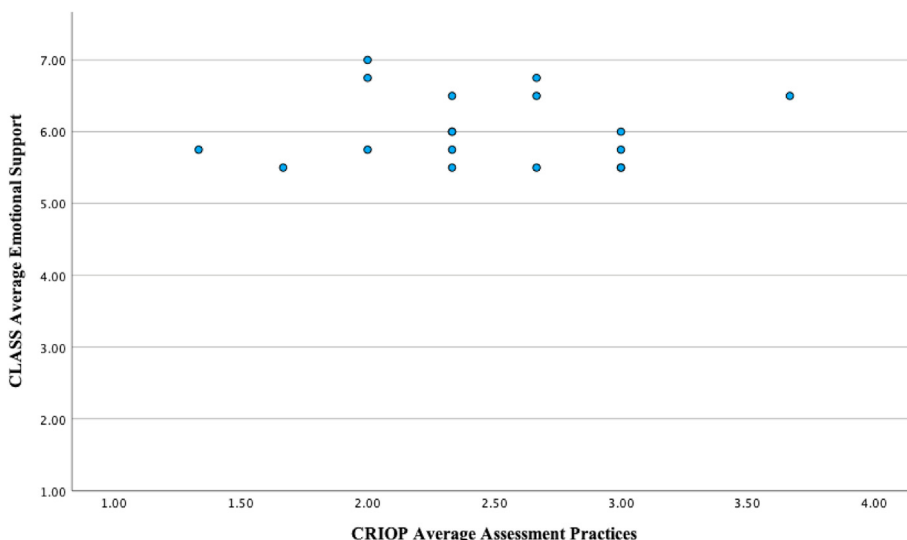


Fig. 5. Scatterplot of CLASS emotional support X CRIOP assessment practices.

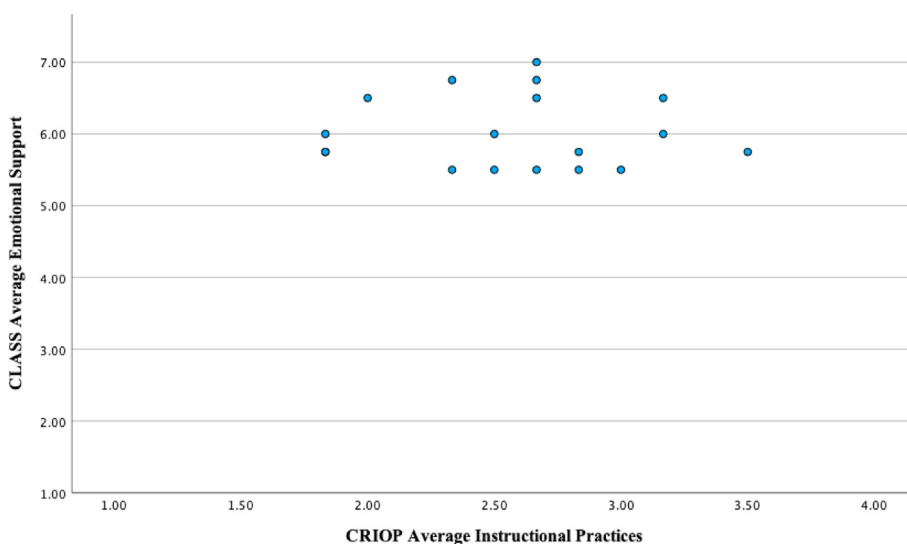


Fig. 6. Scatterplot of CLASS emotional support X CRIOP instructional practices.

We examined whether high-CRI teachers were also identified in unique ways by the CLASS K-3 and found that high-CRI teachers were found to have scored significantly higher on emotional support on the CLASS K-3 ( $M = 6.42, SD = 0.47$ ) when compared to their participating peers who were not identified as high-CRI teachers ( $M = 5.83, SD = 0.42$ ). However, only two of the six high-CRI teachers also fell into the top quartile on the CLASS K-3 (as measured by total CLASS K-3 scores). Taken together, these findings suggest two patterns: 1) high-CRI teachers appear to be particularly strong in providing emotional support for their students or teachers effective in emotional support may be particularly poised for CRI, and 2) the identification of effective teachers varies significantly by instrument—good teachers are not always culturally responsive teachers and vice versa.

### 5. Discussion

Our study sought to determine the relationship between teachers' good teaching (as measured by the CLASS K-3) and CRI (as

measured by the CRIOP). There was no significant correlation between teachers' scores on the two instruments suggesting that an instrument purported to measure good teaching and one purported to measure culturally responsive instruction appear to capture distinctive components of instructional practice. In other words, the belief that CRI is "just good teaching" (Ladson-Billings, 1995a), was not adequately reflected in a commonly-used observation instrument intended to capture good teaching.

#### 5.1. Normativity in observation instruments

Focusing on the process of instruction (good teaching) in this study, as articulated in two distinct observation instruments, necessitates our reliance on how the instrument developers articulated and chose "morally defensible and rationally sound principles of instructional practice" (Fenstermacher & Richardson, 2005, p.189). While the low correlations between teachers' scores on the CLASS K-3 and the CRI must be interpreted with caution because of the small sample size, these results provide emerging evidence that

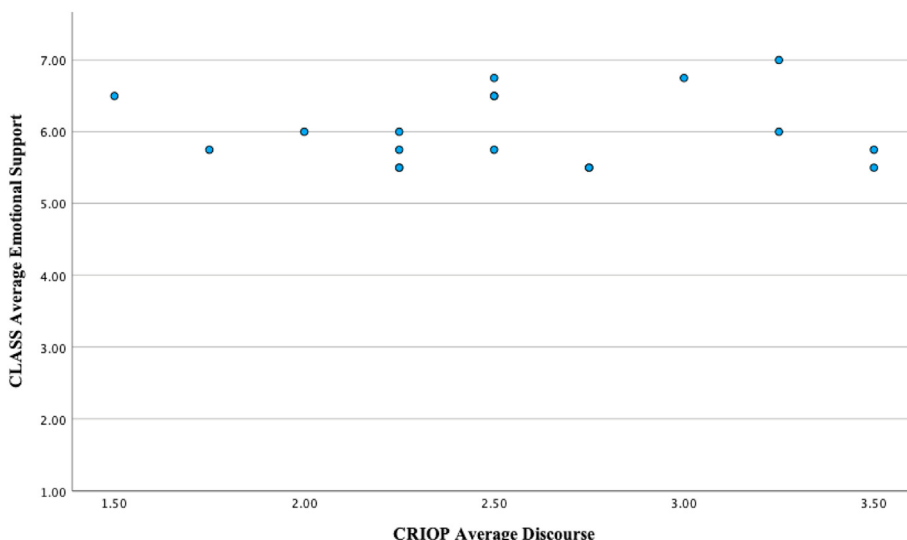


Fig. 7. Scatterplot of CLASS emotional support X CRIOP discourse.

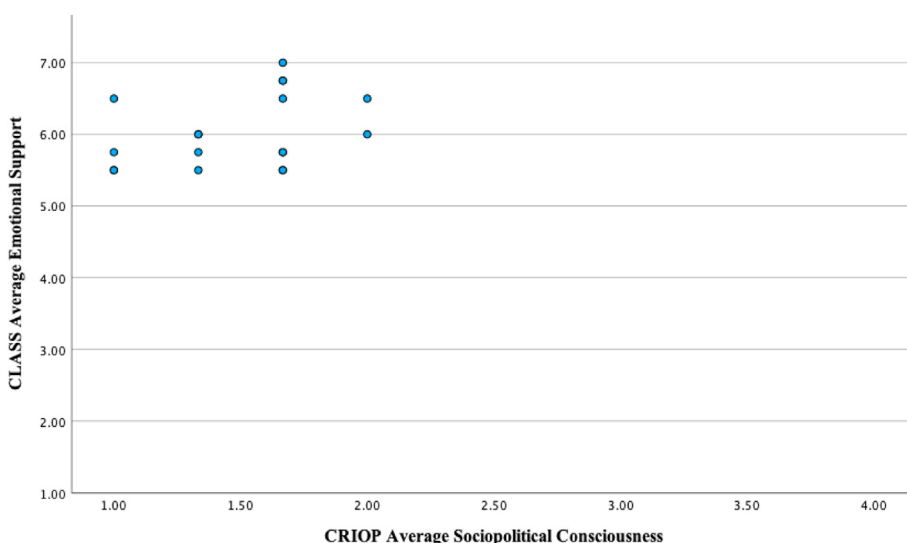


Fig. 8. Scatterplot of CLASS emotional support X CRIOP sociopolitical consciousness.

normative illustrations of good teaching are not synonymous with CRI. Our findings suggest that when indicators of CRI are not explicitly incorporated in observational measures of teaching quality, we do not do justice to what a good teacher might mean for minoritized learners. Thus, we encourage those who use observation instruments, researchers and those who use observation instruments to supervise and evaluate pre-service and in-service teachers, to be critically aware of how any particular observation instrument represents good teaching—both what practices are included and what practices are omitted.

### 5.2. Observing CRI

In our study, the top percentile of our sample had a substantial gap between their average score and the possible high score in CRI, signaling that this group, as a whole, is emerging in their culturally responsive practice. Teachers are more likely to enact CRI in classrooms when they have, at a minimum, adequate training and support from their administrators (Powell et al., 2016). However,

these supports are likely undermined because CRI is often not included in the definitions of good (and even effective teaching) and thus, not explicit in the instruments used to observe and provide teachers with feedback (Author, 2015). Notably, the CLASS K-3, is similar to instruments commonly used in schools for teacher supervision and evaluation (Lavigne and Oberg De La Garza, 2015; Kim & Sun, 2020). Limited observations or occurrences of as well as the dominant use of instruments that do not include CRI in their measurement of good teaching continues to impact the measurement, understanding, and implementation of CRI (Civitillo et al., 2019; Michener et al., 2015).

### 5.3. Limitations

The instruments chosen in this study likely affected our findings and how we arrived at those findings. For instance, recent research suggests that much of teachers' interaction with immigrant students (and vice versa) happens at the individual level as opposed to the whole class and can vary by students' country of origin (Ortega

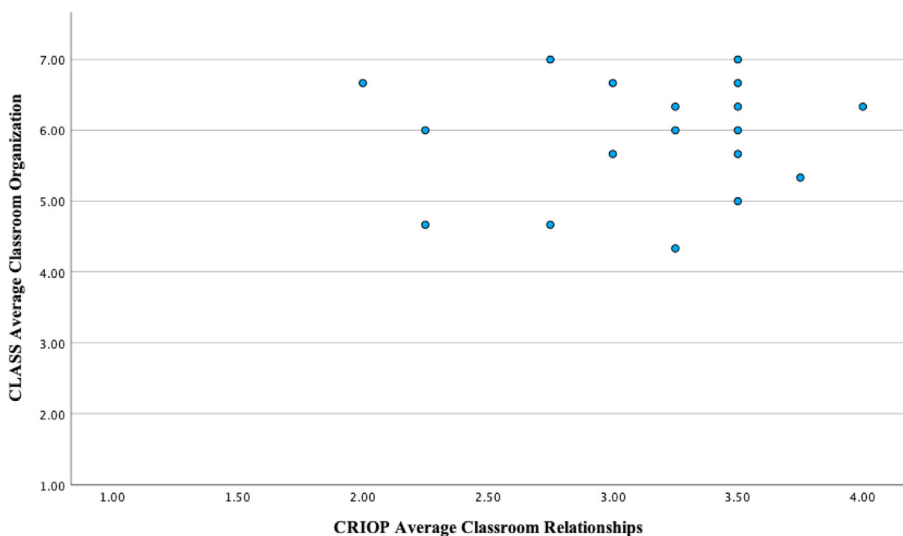


Fig. 9. Scatterplot of CLASS classroom organization X CRIOP classroom relationships.

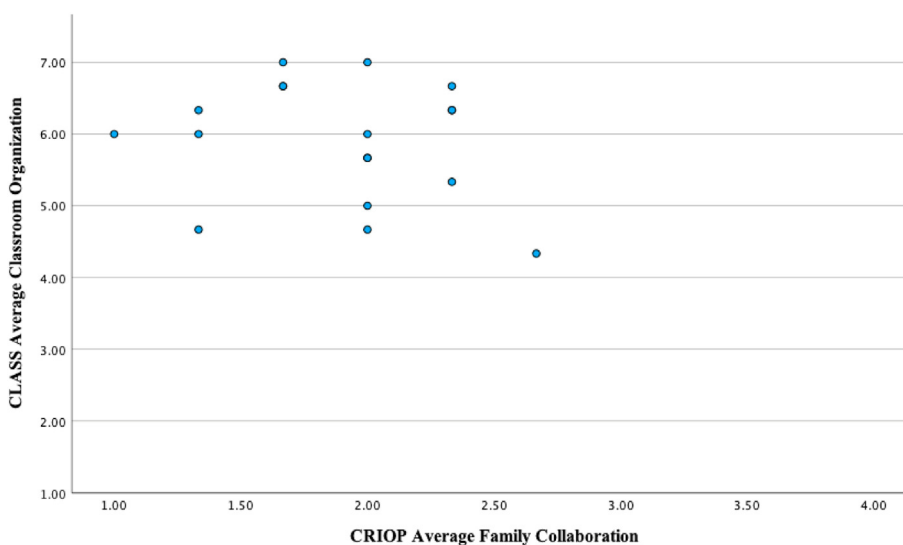


Fig. 10. Scatterplot of CLASS classroom organization X CRIOP family collaboration.

et al., 2020). Using an instrument that captures whole class interactions, like those used in our study, may have masked important and potentially powerful dyadic teacher-student interactions or interactions that teachers have with groups of CLM students (Gay, 2018), which were not specified in our study protocol.

Second, our study narrowly focused on classroom observation. Despite our efforts to ensure inter-rater reliability, raters in this study may not have been reliable with one another and conducting only one observation may need to be viewed as a snapshot of teachers' practice. The small sample size in this study limits the reliability of the correlations presented in the results. Given that mean scores from participants on the CLASS K-3 and the CRIOP are representative of patterns found in extant research with much larger samples (Civitillo et al., 2019; Pianta et al., 2008), we do not have reason to believe that additional data would reveal different patterns. Furthermore, our choice of classroom observation meant

that we narrowly focused on the task or process of instruction (Fenstermacher & Richardson, 2005). We did not include student achievement or learning measures as an outcome or product variable, however, one might hypothesize that our high CRI teachers would emerge as particularly effective as measured by overall classroom achievement and/or might be particularly effective in reducing achievement gaps between groups across cultural and linguistic lines (Dee & Penner, 2017).

Finally, our small study sample and potential differences between classrooms may limit extending this work to understand classrooms that serve CLM students, even within our study sites. For example, notable segregation characterized the U.S. study site. Recent data from the National Assessment of Educational Progress reveals that only one in eight white students (12.9%) attends a school where most students are Black, Latinx, Asian, or American Indian. In contrast, nearly seven in 10 Black students (69.2%) attend

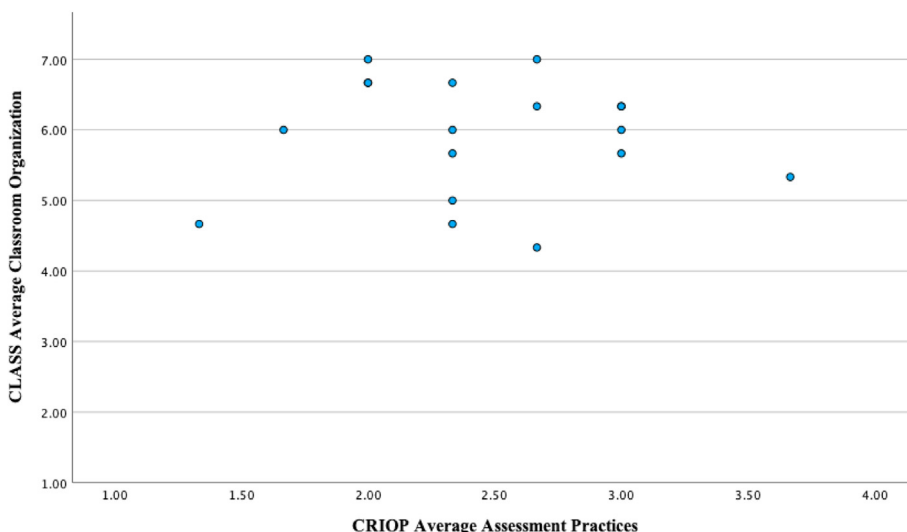


Fig. 11. Scatterplot of CLASS classroom organization X CRIOP assessment practices.

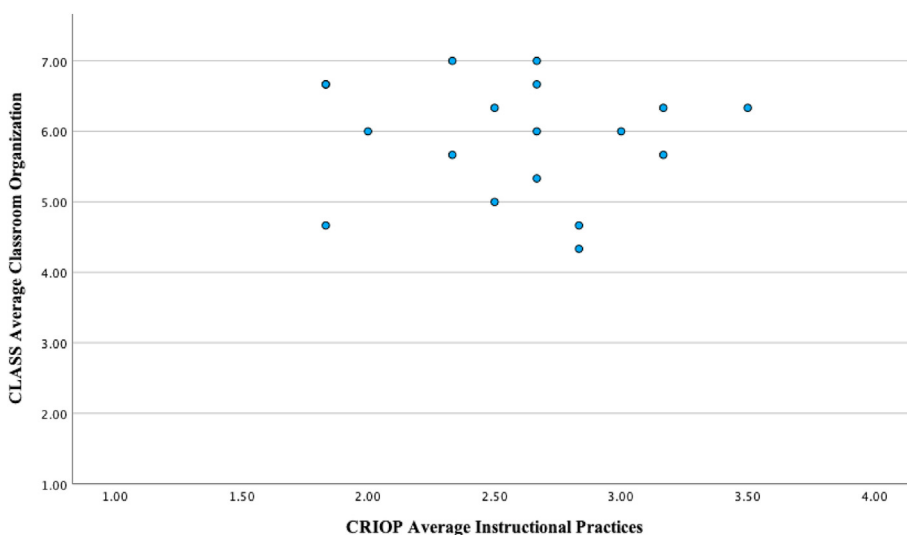


Fig. 12. Scatterplot of CLASS classroom organization X CRIOP discourse.

such schools (Economic Policy Institute, 2020). Reflecting these national trends, in U.S. classrooms in our study we observed relatively homogenous classrooms (e.g., classrooms composed of almost entirely Latinx students), whereas other classrooms mirrored super-diverse settings composed of multiple home languages and recently arrived refugees, Black students born in the U.S. or outside of the U.S., and first- and second-generation immigrants. While all these student groups are identified by schools as CLM, they vary in their histories and cultural and linguistic assets and may have significantly different experiences in classrooms (Gay, 2018). These contextual influences were not examined deeply in the current study.

## 6. Implications

Despite these limitations, study findings suggest that teachers may benefit from opportunities to “interrogate how their own

educational experiences inform their teaching practices regardless of race, ethnicity, socio-economic status, gender, etc.” in their journey to enact and improve upon CRI (Coffey & Farinde-Wu, 2016, p. 32). Using an instrument to help center in-service and pre-service teachers (and those who supervise and guide them) on such opportunities may foster adaptive beliefs and practices that better serve CLM students.

### 6.1. Teacher education

Findings provide important implications for teacher education practice and research. First, it was likely that the teachers who participated in our study received very little preparation in teaching CLM learners (Lambeth & Smith, 2016; Severiens et al., 2014; Warren, 2018). Experiences in teacher education matter, specifically for student teachers who feel uncomfortable adjusting instruction to meet the needs of CLM students and addressing their

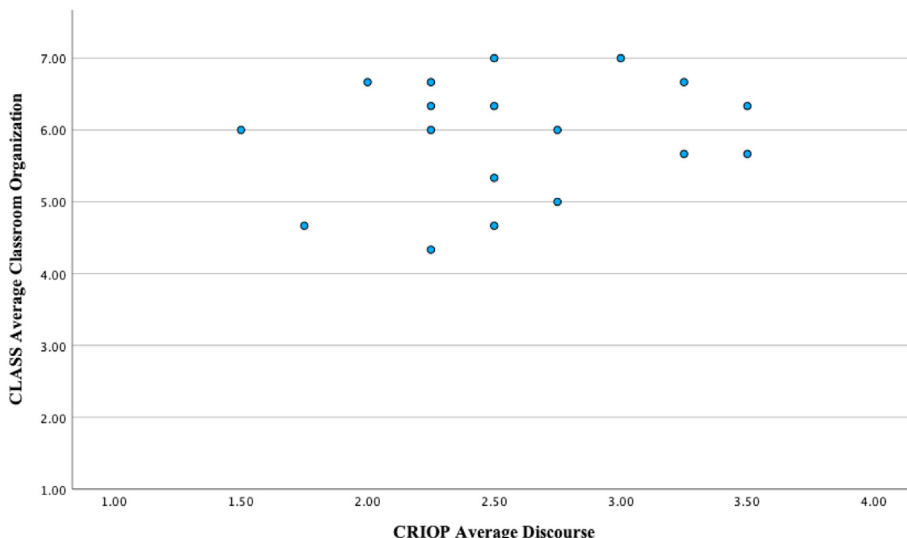


Fig. 13. Scatterplot of CLASS classroom organization X CRIOP discourse.

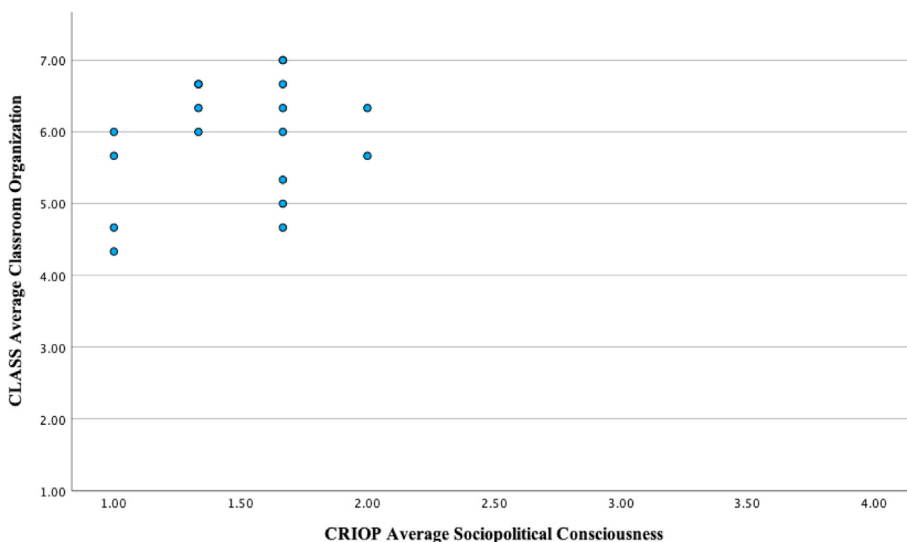


Fig. 14. Scatterplot of CLASS classroom organization X CRIOP sociopolitical consciousness.

own stereotypic beliefs (Kumar & Lauermann, 2018). As a result, we agree with scholars who have advocated and provided frameworks for teacher education programs to integrate the interrogation of race, power, and privilege into teacher preparation coursework so that teacher candidates are better prepared to enact CRI into their future classrooms (Abacioglu et al., 2019; Allen et al., 2017) as well as movements within teacher education that have responded to such calls (Chou et al., 2018). This includes experiential learning experiences that may foster positive cultural diversity beliefs (Civitillo et al., 2019), such as: multi-cultural field experiences (Wu, 2011) and opportunities to design culturally relevant curriculum (Gay, 2002). Dialogic online discussions offer promise, especially if the prompts: leverage the immediate context of teachers (not just the wider socio-political contexts), require pre-service teachers to connect immediate and wider contexts to policies and

policymakers and to connect pedagogical skills and critical engagement, and afford pre-service teachers the opportunity to take multiple perspectives (Suh & Michener, 2019).

### 6.2. K-12 schools

Findings indicate that the teachers in our study could benefit from professional learning as it relates to teaching CLM students, equity, and specifically, CRI, confirming extant literature (Daniel & Zybina, 2019; Michener et al., 2015). Such practices can be learned (Brown & Crippen, 2016). We advocate for high-quality professional learning that is: focused on content knowledge, active, and aligned with other teacher professional learning opportunities (Garet et al., 2001). Finally, Cardozo-Gaibisso and Harman (2019) argue that teacher agency, through bottom-up

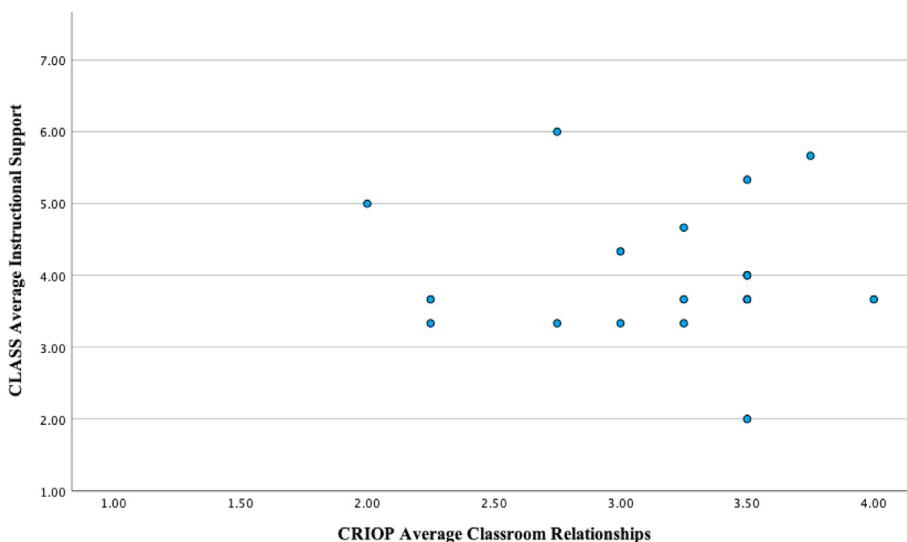


Fig. 15. Scatterplot of CLASS instructional support X CRIOP classroom relationships.

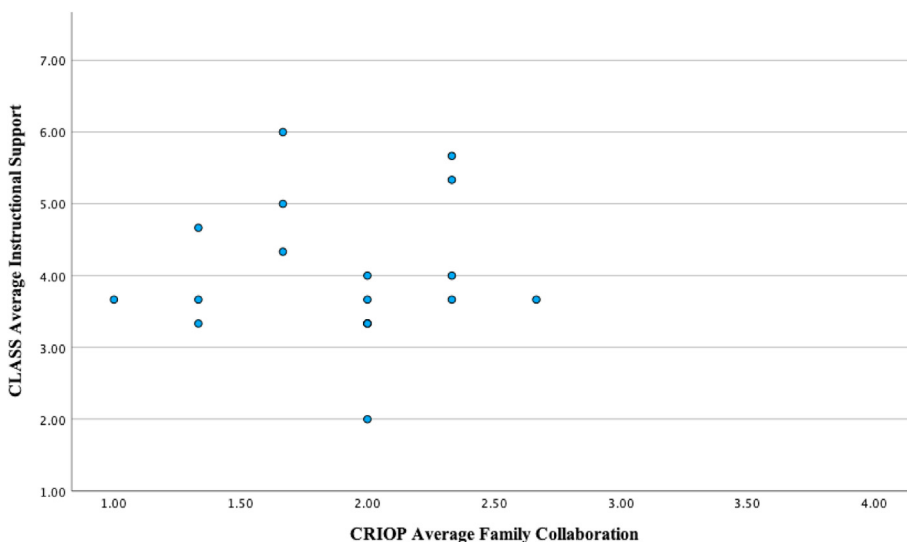


Fig. 16. Scatterplot of CLASS instructional support X CRIOP family collaboration.

professional learning opportunities that help teachers examine underlying belief systems are key (Civitillo et al., 2019). Professional learning focused on CRI may underscore where teachers struggle the most—connecting to families’ funds of knowledge and raising critical consciousness (Brown & Crippen, 2016). Such professional learning might first expose teachers to their biases, which are often implicit. Prejudice reduction techniques that include perspective-taking and imagining stereotype-disconfirming examples appear to have lasting effects on implicit bias up to 2 months (Abacioglu et al., 2019). Subsequent learning might include exercises where students and families demonstrate their roles as experts (their funds of knowledge) and where teachers are positioned as participant observers, language learners, and advocates for their students. Legitimizing students’ and families’ home languages can help shift how teachers may perceive power and language

dynamics in their classrooms (Cardozo-Gaibisso & Harman, 2019). High-quality professional learning can be particularly powerful when it is tied to supervision and formative feedback practices that center CRI, and affirm, celebrate, and value instructionally the strengths and assets of CLM students (Lance, 2021).

Finally, one possible implication from these study findings for those who prepare future teachers and support current ones is to examine how supplementing commonly used observation instruments with those that capture CRI (the absence, presence, and when present, the quality) can generate more conversations about CRI in practice. We believe doing so will also allow for better identification of areas of development and support in CRI and efforts to make and create opportunities to foster teachers’ development in those CRI areas of improvement.

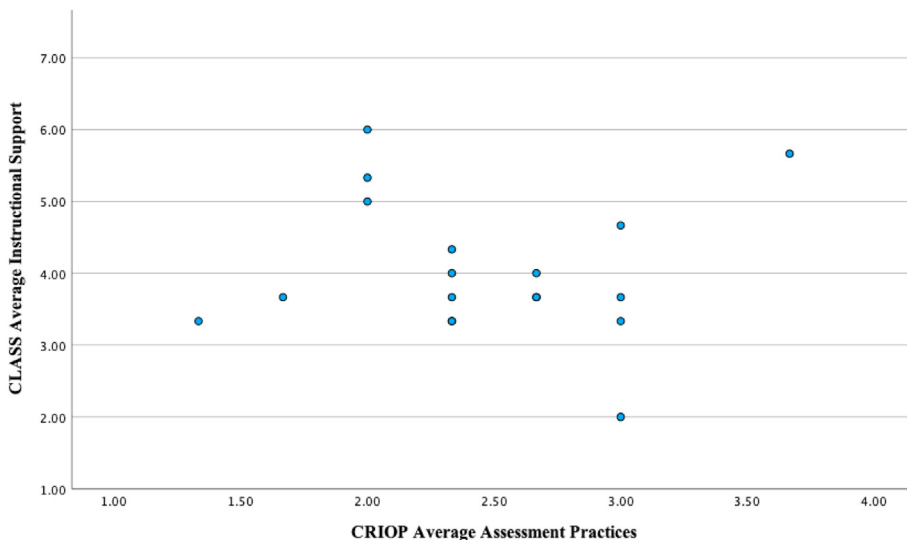


Fig. 17. Scatterplot of CLASS instructional support X CRIOP assessment practices.

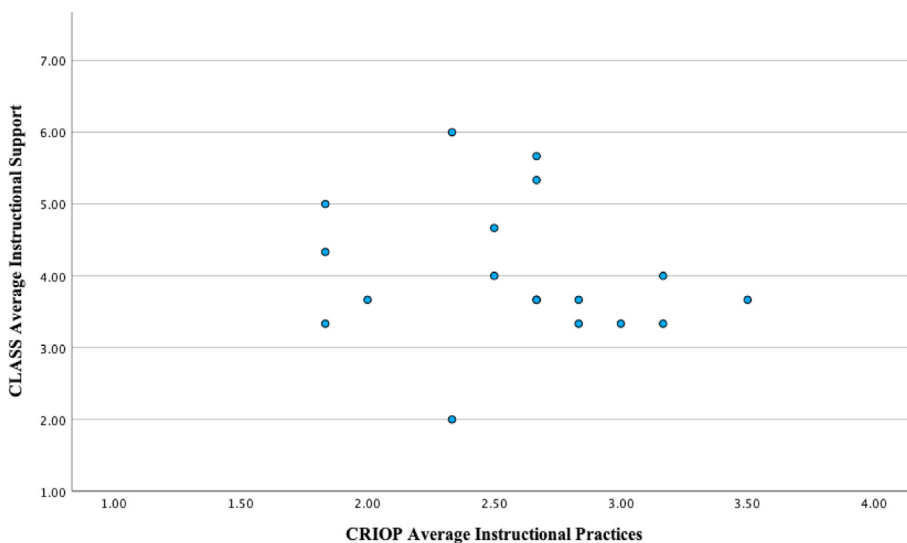


Fig. 18. Scatterplot of CLASS instructional support X CRIOP instructional practices.

### 7. Future research

Future research can build upon this study by examining how teachers enact more advanced illustrations of CRI, particularly those that seek to decolonize curriculum, sustain (not just respond to) students' culture and language, and disrupt conceptualizations of normative practice. This also includes antiracist and anti-oppressive instructional approaches which may better help teachers center race in their instructional efforts and avoid color-

evasive approaches to practice (Galloway et al., 2020). We believe this type of research would add to emerging illustrations (Calabrese Barton et al., 2020; Suh & Michener, 2019). In advancing this line of research, it is important to also examine how teacher learning and development relative to CRI occurs (Desimone, 2009). Such research would help establish: 1) where teachers are in their trajectory of culturally responsive practices, and 2) what opportunities may be beneficial to support their growth and development. Finally, Daniel and Zybina (2019) theorize that students, not just

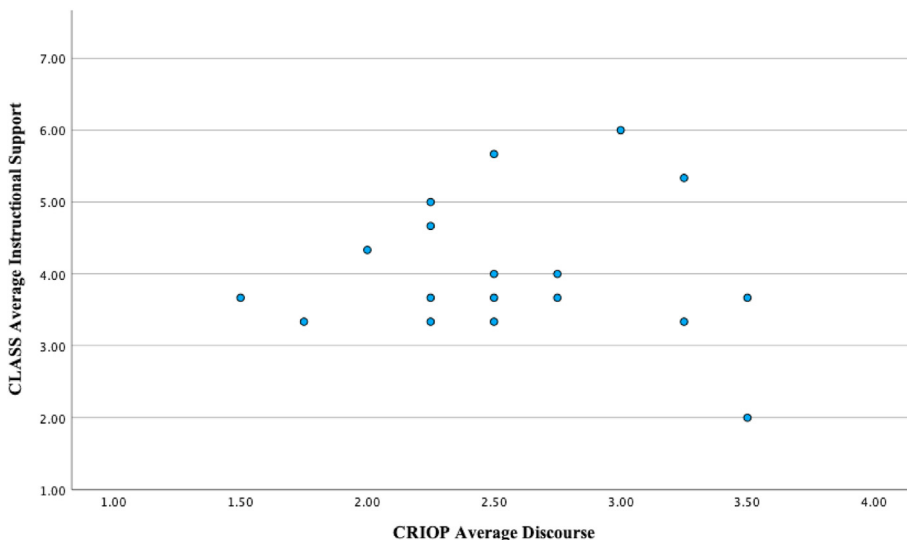


Fig. 19. Scatterplot of CLASS instructional support X CRIOP discourse.

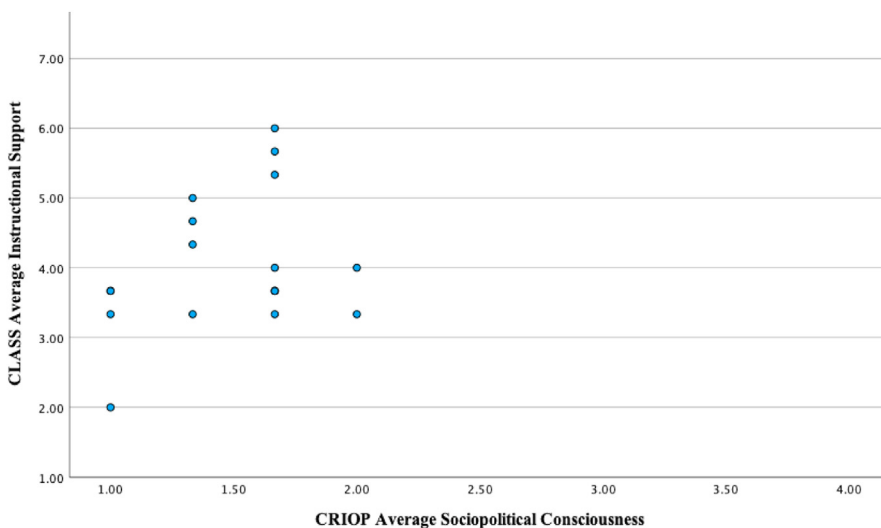


Fig. 20. Scatterplot of CLASS instructional support X CRIOP sociopolitical consciousness.

Table 5  
High-CRI teachers: Mean CRIOP pillar scores.

	US 1	NED 1	NED 2	US 2	NED 3	US 3
Classroom Relationships	3.00	2.00	2.33	3.17	3.25	2.00
Family Collaboration	4.00	2.33	3.00	3.50	3.50	1.67
Assessment Practices	3.50	2.33	2.67	3.17	2.50	2.00
Instructional Practices	3.50	2.00	2.67	2.67	2.50	1.67
Discourse	3.75	2.33	3.67	2.67	2.50	1.67
Sociopolitical Consciousness	3.50	2.33	2.00	2.67	3.25	1.67

teachers, play a role in implementing CRI. Therefore, in research on CRI, incorporating perspectives, voices, and dyadic engagement of CLM students (Dickson et al., 2016) may be particularly fruitful. Adding student learning outcome measures to these larger studies would help bridge new with extant research (Dee & Penner, 2017).

### 8. Conclusion

For those committed to CRI and the support needed to help implement, sustain, and enhance the effectiveness of CRI, it is important that CRI is included in any definitions or instruments that articulate good teaching, otherwise such efforts will be futile, especially given that the dominant instruments that measure good teaching rarely include CRI (Lavigne and Oberg De La Garza, 2015; Kim & Sun, 2020). Until this can be done, more immediate action may include supplementing existing instruments with those that explicitly capture CRI are needed to foster dialogue and changes to practice for teachers, many of whom may be in the very early stages of CRI. These efforts are important conduits to help teachers move from learning *about* their CLM students to *with* and *from* their CLM students (Tandon et al., 2017).



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