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Multicultural Literature in the Elementary Classroom: A Comparison of Traditional and Dual  
Language Classroom Teachers

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of  
Philosophy in Education at Virginia Commonwealth University.

by

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## List of Abbreviations

CRE	Culturally relevant education
DL	Dual language
DLL(s)	Dual language learner(s)
EL(s)	English learner(s)
ESSA	Every Student Succeeds Act
L1	First language
L2	Second language
MES	Multicultural Efficacy Scale
NAEP	National Assessment of Educational Progress
NCLB	No Child Left Behind
TWI	Two-way immersion
USDOE	United States Department of Education

## Abstract

Multicultural Literature in the Elementary Classroom: A Comparison of Traditional and Dual Language Classroom Teachers

by Virginia R. Massaro  
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B.A., University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, 2007

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Virginia Commonwealth University, 2020

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The number of English learners in the United States continues to increase and these students' literacy scores are dramatically lower than their native English-speaking peers. White, female teachers dominate the teaching workforce, creating a cultural mismatch between teachers and students. Culturally relevant education can benefit student outcomes and incorporating multicultural literature is one way to do so. This non-experimental quantitative study examined the relationships between teachers' multicultural characteristics, teachers' use of multicultural literature, classroom level factors, and teacher demographics. A total of 35 teachers participated in an online survey and completed a book log, indicating texts used in their instruction. Data were analyzed to answer each of the research questions. Findings revealed significant relationships between experiences of diversity and country of birth and languages spoken, teachers' efficacy and the number of years taught, multicultural literature use and grade level, teachers' recent experience with diversity and teachers' efficacy, teachers' efficacy and their attitude of diversity, and teachers' use of multicultural literature and their attitude of diversity. Limitations and implications for research and practice are discussed.

## Chapter 1: Introduction

The number of emergent bilingual students continues to grow in the United States. In 2018, more than 44.7 million immigrants lived in the United States making up about 13.7 percent of the total population (Batalova et al., 2020). In comparison, the number of immigrants in the United States in 2000 was a little over 30 million, making up just over 10 percent of the total population (Batalova et al., 2020). The estimated total number of immigrants and their U.S.-born children was about 90 million, or 28 percent of the total population in the United States in 2018 (Batalova et al., 2020). This notable shift in the population is mirrored in the student population of U.S. public schools, where the number one language spoken by students at home other than English is overwhelmingly Spanish, followed by Chinese (Mandarin and Cantonese), Tagalog, Vietnamese, Arabic, French, and Korean (Batalova et al., 2020).

The children of recent immigrants are typically classified as English learners (ELs) within the public school system. The term English learner (EL) refers a student who is enrolled in an elementary or secondary school, was born outside of the United States or speaks a native language other than English, and has difficulty speaking, reading, writing, or understanding English (National Academies of Science, Engineering, and Medicine [NASEM], 2017). Though they all fall under the same label of EL, these students vary extensively in their economic background, home life, country of birth, and language. According to the NASEM (2017), the majority of ELs live in families of the lowest-income bracket, 65% qualifying for free or reduced lunch at school. Some ELs are transnational, meaning the travel back and forth between the United States and their home country periodically, some are homeless, some are undocumented, and some are refugees (NASEM, 2017). However, most ELs are born in the United States (NASEM, 2017).

In 2017, ELs made up about 10.1% of the total student population in public schools in the United States (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2018b). In the state where this study takes place, the State Department of Education reported that ELs made up about 9% of the total student population during the current 2019-2020 school year. In the 2004-2005 school year, fifteen years prior, ELs made up approximately 5.6% of the total student population in this state. The significant increase in the EL student population in this state and overall in the United States has led to the creation of a sub-category to specifically evaluate ELs on high-stakes tests. This allows administrators, scholars, and policymakers at the local, state, and national levels the ability to document their academic and English proficiency progress.

### **Statement of the Problem**

The National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP; 2018) releases The Nation's Report Card every couple of years in order to provide an overview of how students in the United States are performing in all major subject areas in fourth, eighth, and twelfth grade. In the most recent national report card, NAEP (2018) indicated that fourth grade ELs scored significantly lower than their native English-speaking counterparts in reading. NAEP (2018) reported that the average reading score for all fourth grade ELs who took the test in 2017 passed at a rate of 12%, while their native English-speaking peers achieved an 88% pass rate. In math that same year, fourth-grade ELs had an 11% pass rate, while their native English-speaking peers achieved an 89% pass rate (NAEP, 2018). The national graduation rate for ELs is lower than native English speakers as well. In 2015-2016, the Common Core of Data reported that the national graduation rate for ELs was about 67%, while the overall high school graduation rate was 84% for all students (NCES, 2018a)

The NAEP (2018) standardized test scores for the state where this study took place reveal a slightly larger gap in achievement between ELs and native English speakers. In 2017, NAEP (2018) reported that the average reading score for fourth grade ELs in the state was at an 8% passing rate and their native English-speaking peers passed at a rate of 92%. In math that same year, ELs in the state passed at a rate of 9%, while their native English-speaking peers achieved a 91% passing rate in fourth grade (NAEP, 2018). The graduation rates reported by the Common Core of Data in this state indicated that in 2015-2016 the graduation rate for all students was approximately 87%, but only 45% of ELs graduated (NCES, 2018a).

This significant gap in academic achievement between ELs and native English speakers is a call for action at the federal, state, and local levels in order to support this growing population achieve academic success in school, graduate from high school, and ultimately contribute to the workforce. This group of students has the potential to be fully “biliterate, productive members of the workforce” (NASEM, 2017, p.26). However, the literacy achievement of ELs in school is far behind their English-speaking peers making it difficult for them to graduate high school. ELs are capable students and bring numerous assets to the classroom, but the language of instruction educational inequities and lack of culture in the classroom prevent them from achieving as high as their English-speaking peers.

### **Rationale for the Study of the Problem**

The rationale for this research stems from an examination of the school experiences of ELs including federal and state legislation that regulate the language of instruction for ELs and the growing body of research on the cultural mismatch both between teachers and students and students and schools. The United States Department of Education (USDOE) has enacted federal legislation as a result of the large discrepancy in student achievement between ELs and native



English speakers. For example, No Child Left Behind (NCLB; 2003) codified a culture of high-stakes testing in public schools holding every state accountable for reporting and demonstrating growth in students' academic achievement and English proficiency for the EL subgroup category. The current legislation, the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA; 2015) is the reauthorization of NCLB. ESSA mandates that states are accountable for annually reporting English proficiency scores of ELs and academic content scores (depending on grade level and the year of arrival if the student is a newcomer) to the USDOE.

The United States has historically had influxes of immigrants, which has led to the passing of federal legislation attempting to regulate and support the educational needs of the children of immigrant families (NASEM, 2017). This has caused educators, scholars, policymakers, and stakeholders to debate the best teaching practices and instructional methods for effectively teaching ELs, including the choice of language of instruction.

Another line of inquiry important to the school experiences of ELs investigates the cultural mismatch between students and schools and teachers and students (Hogan-Chapman et al., 2017; Ladson-Billings, 1995b; Scott & Scott, 2015). In the United States, school curricula are primarily written from a White, Eurocentric viewpoint that is biased towards and privileges the White student population while simultaneously further perpetuating a deficit perspective of ELs (McCarthy et al., 2003). According to Sleeter (2012), "The 'solution' from a deficit perspective, is to 'free' students from 'pathological' cultures of their homes by helping them to acquire more of the dominant culture" (p. 5). However, enforcing English-only policies, Eurocentric American perspectives, and Standardized Academic English upon all students has not proven successful in helping ELs succeed in school (Sleeter, 2012). Instead, this deficit approach sends students the

message that English is the only legitimate language and the Eurocentric perspectives taught in the curriculum are the only views of value.

A cultural mismatch between teachers and students also persists in education. While teachers are predominately White middle-class females, their students are steadily becoming more diverse in culture, ethnicity, and language (Gay & Howard, 2001; Hogan-Chapman et al., 2017; Scott & Scott, 2015). According to the NCES, about 80% of all public-school teachers were White, 9% were Hispanic, 7% were Black, and 2% were Asian during the 2015-2016 school year (Taie & Goldring, 2018). In contrast, 51% of the total U.S. student population was not categorized as White that same year (Geiger, 2018). A cultural mismatch between teachers and students can result in students not seeing their culture and language reflected and valued in the classroom; thus, it often impacts student outcomes negatively (Ladson-Billings, 1995b; Scott & Scott, 2015). The disproportion between teachers and students in race, ethnicity, culture, and language has resulted in a deficit perspective of ELs in schools (Sleeter, 2012).

One way scholars have tried to rectify the negative impact of the deficit perspective on ELs that is prevalent in schools is through an additive approach to bilingualism (Cummins, 2000; Reyes & Vallone, 2007). According to Cummins (2000), *additive bilingualism* is when “students add a second language to their intellectual tool-kit while continuing to develop conceptually and academically in their first language” (p. 37). Bilingual instruction is generally considered to be an additive approach because it respects minority languages and cultures (Reyes & Vallone, 2007). However, dual language (DL) programs further this approach because “minority language and culture are seen as gifts to not only be maintained but to be imparted to others” (Reyes & Vallone, 2007, p. 8). Many teacher preparation programs and professional development opportunities for in-service teachers have elected to include multicultural education courses and

effective instructional practices for teaching ELs as ways to increase pre- and inservice teachers' knowledge and skills and transform their attitudes and behaviors. Thus, they encourage teachers to take an additive approach to bilingualism.

Teachers who are able to take an additive approach to bilingualism perhaps possess certain multicultural characteristics. D'Andrea and colleague (2003) claimed that a failure to meet the educational needs of diverse students is directly associated with teachers' lack of cultural competence, the ability to appropriately and effectively interact with someone from another background. Other scholars, like Bennett et al. (1990), Gay and Howard (2001), Guyton and Wesche (2005), and McGeehan (1982), have suggested that teachers who possess multicultural characteristics are more equipped to meet the needs of ELs. These multicultural characteristics include specific knowledge of diverse students' backgrounds, diverse experiences, positive attitudes of diversity, appropriate behaviors around cultures different from their own, understandings of diverse students, skills to teach diverse students, and efficacy in teaching in diverse settings (Bennett et al., 1990; Gay & Howard, 2001; Guyton & Wesche, 2005; McGeehan, 1982). These scholars argued that if teachers have multicultural characteristics then their ability to meet the needs of diverse students would increase (Bennett et al., 1990; McGeehan, 1982). Consequently, the cultural mismatch between teachers and students would no longer be problematic.

Elementary schools, in general and in those where this study took place, charge teachers with the task of teaching students literacy skills. An important part of literacy instruction is selecting appropriate texts for students to read. Silverman and colleagues (2016) argued that when teachers have the flexibility to select texts for instruction they should be representative of students' cultures, rich in vocabulary, supportive through visuals and comprehensible language,

appropriately challenging, and include a variety of genres. Texts that represent cultural groups are often classified as multicultural literature (Cai, 2002; Temple et al., 2019). Scholars have found that students are more motivated to read and to be engaged in reading when they are able to see themselves reflected in literature (Bishop, 1990; Callins, 2006; Gangi, 2008). Therefore, teachers should purposefully select multicultural literature to include in their classroom instruction that is representative of their students' backgrounds.

DL is a term that encompasses several bilingual instructional models, including two-way immersion (TWI) programs (CAL, 2016b). Schools with a TWI program model are an ideal place to study the incorporation of multicultural literature, because the approach to additive bilingualism supported by the program lends itself to potentially higher uses of multicultural literature and racially/ethnically representative literature. It also provides an opportunity to compare the instructional practices between DL and traditional teachers. Literacy instruction in TWI programs takes place in two languages (English and another partner language). Students learn to speak, listen, read, and write in two languages in TWI programs. This provides the second language (L2) English speakers in TWI programs with the opportunity to maintain a connection with their home language and culture while simultaneously developing English literacy skills necessary for success in U.S. public schools. Traditional classroom teachers provide instruction in one language.

### **Statement of the Purpose**

This study specifically addresses teachers' multicultural characteristics of diverse experiences, attitudes of diversity, and efficacy in teaching in a diverse setting and their use of multicultural literature in elementary school classrooms. Thus, the purpose of this research is to investigate the relationship between teachers' multicultural characteristics and their use of

multicultural literature in DL classrooms compared to teachers in traditional classrooms as seen through the theoretical framework of multicultural education. The findings of this study reveal more information about the role of the multicultural teacher characteristics, how they may shape the literature used in classroom instruction, and differences between traditional and dual language teachers.

The findings from this study provide salient knowledge about instruction targeting ELs for educators and policymakers, inform pre-service teacher preparation programs, and suggest future research in terms of effective instructional methods and professional development. The findings will also contribute to the literature by filling an area of needed research that examines the relationships between teachers' multicultural characteristics, multicultural literature use, and student literacy achievement in elementary school traditional and DL classrooms.

### **Overview of the Literature**

The theoretical framework supporting this research comes from the disciplines of multicultural education and culturally relevant education. One of the main contributors to multicultural education research is James Banks. He has written a myriad of handbooks, chapters, articles, textbooks, and guidelines on multicultural education and worked diligently to define the discipline in terms of its assumptions, goals, theories, and methods within educational research. Though multicultural education still lacks a single definition (Bennett, 2001), it has been described as an educational reform, a program, a curriculum, a process, and an idea (Banks, 1993; Banks & Banks, 2007). Banks and Banks (2007) defined multicultural education as a “total school reform effort designed to increase educational equity for a range of cultural, ethnic, and economic groups” (p. 7). Banks (2002) argued that multicultural education is intended for all students and can be integrated into school curricula to help students succeed academically and in

the real world beyond high school; thus, multicultural education should be incorporated into every educational institution.

One area within the field of multicultural education is culturally relevant education. Gloria Ladson-Billings and Geneva Gay, two distinguished scholars, have devoted their work to challenging injustice in schools and advocating that all students should have access to an equitable education (Aronson & Laughter, 2016). Ladson-Billings (1995b) is known for her work on *culturally relevant pedagogy*, which asserted that teaching practices should focus on student achievement and help students to “accept and affirm their cultural identity while developing critical perspectives that challenge inequities that schools [and other institutions] perpetuate” (p. 469). Therefore, culturally relevant pedagogy provides a framework to help teachers meet the needs of culturally and linguistically diverse students. Gay (2002) is known for her work on *culturally responsive teaching*, which claimed that teachers should consider their students’ culture, experiences, language, and perspectives in order to effectively teach them.

More recently, Aronson and Laughter (2016) identified social justice as the main connection of Ladson-Billings and Gay’s work and introduced the concept of *culturally relevant education* (CRE) to combine these two lines of research. CRE is rooted in the literature of multicultural education as it aims “to combat oppression by enabling all groups to have an equitable portion of society’s resources” (Aronson & Laughter, 2016, pp. 167-168). Teachers of diverse students should not only consider the academic abilities of their students, but also their home language(s), ethnic identities, and cultural backgrounds as they all play a role in student learning (Santamaria, 2009).

This study is informed by the research on multicultural education and CRE, which are related bodies of literature. Though, multicultural education is viewed as a reform or a program

for an entire school, while CRE focuses on the teaching practices targeting individual students in the classroom. Schools that have developed whole-school instructional models may likely incorporate the tenants of multicultural education, but not all schools have done so. The growing number of culturally and linguistically diverse students in the United States signifies an immediate need to help teachers better serve the students in their classroom and prepare preservice teachers to work in diverse settings (Scott & Scott, 2015).

Thus, the literature review in chapter two examines multicultural education as a theoretical framework in detail, identifies characteristics of a multicultural teacher, and locates previous research on the impact of CRE, multicultural literature, and DL classrooms on students. Overall, the literature revealed that CRE is associated with higher student achievement (Aronson & Laughter, 2016; Au, 2009; Callins, 2006), multicultural literature has positive impacts on student achievement (Al-Hazza, 2010; Louie, 2005; Louie, 2006; Martens et al., 2015; Souto-Manning, 2016), and DL programs have positive impacts on student achievement in reading and math (Gándara & Escamilla, 2017).

Despite the literature on the positive impacts of CRE, multicultural literature, and DL programs on students, little has been written about the relationships among them. Thus, there is a need for research on whether or not teachers in DL classrooms employ more CRE and exhibit higher levels of multicultural characteristics (i.e., diverse experiences, attitudes, and efficacy) than teachers in traditional classrooms, and whether this impacts their inclusion of multicultural literature in the classroom.

### **Research Questions**

The research questions guiding this study aim to uncover more about the relationship between teachers' multicultural characteristics (experiences, attitudes, and teaching efficacy) and

their use of multicultural literature in DL classrooms compared to traditional classrooms. Since a major goal for students in elementary school is to learn to read, this study will focus on the amount of multicultural literature that teachers use in their instruction. The goal of the research questions is to learn more about the differences between DL and traditional classroom teachers' multicultural literature use based on the multicultural characteristics of experience, attitude, and efficacy. Thus, this study is guided by the following questions:

*Research Question 1:* What is the relationship between teachers' childhood experience with diversity and teachers' demographic covariates (birth country, first language, number of languages spoken, number of countries traveled to, immersion experiences, number of years taught, education level, race/ethnicity, age, and gender)?

*Research Question 2:* What is the relationship between teachers' recent experience with diversity and teachers' demographic covariates?

*Research Question 3a:* What is the relationship between teachers' attitude of diversity and classroom level factors (students' EL status, students' race/ethnicity, students' IEP status, students' gender, grade level, class size, and classroom type)?

*Research Question 3b:* What is the relationship between teachers' attitude of diversity and teachers' demographic covariates?

*Research Question 4a:* What is the relationship between teachers' efficacy with diversity and classroom level factors?

*Research Question 4b:* What is the relationship between teachers' efficacy with diversity and teachers' demographic covariates?

*Research Question 5a:* What is the relationship between teachers' use of multicultural literature and classroom level factors?



*Research Question 5b:* What is the relationship between teachers' use of multicultural literature and teachers' demographic covariates?

*Research Question 6:* What is the relationship between students' race/ethnicity and the race/ethnic classification of the characters in the multicultural literature reported by teachers and does this relationship differ by classroom type?

*Research Question 7:* To what extent are teachers' childhood experience, recent experience, attitude, efficacy, and their use of multicultural literature related and do these relationships differ by classroom type?

### **Design and Methods**

This study employs a quantitative survey methodology in order to examine elementary school teachers' multicultural characteristics (experiences, attitudes, and efficacy) and their use of multicultural literature. A quantitative approach is appropriate for this study because it allows for a larger sample size and offers a broader view of this topic, which is yet to be studied.

Further, much of the research conducted in DL classrooms has focused on reading and math scores (Gándara & Escamilla, 2017) and the majority of the conducted studies focused on CRE are qualitative in nature (Aronson & Laughter, 2016). Thus, this study links these two bodies of literature by comparing elementary DL and traditional teachers by examining their multicultural literature use and multicultural characteristics within the framework of CRE.

A non-experimental quantitative research design was selected for this study because surveys collect "information about a sample's attitudes, beliefs, and self-reported behaviors" (Mitchell & Jolley, 2013, p. 286). In this case, a survey is appropriate because it has the ability to capture teachers' multicultural experiences, attitudes of diversity, and efficacy teaching diverse students and connect them to their instructional practice. Moreover, the research questions

guiding this study do not call for a true experimental design since teachers cannot be randomly assigned to a dual language or traditional classroom. Thus, a survey design along with a book log kept by teachers adequately addresses this study's research questions.

The scale of measurement chosen for this study is the Multicultural Efficacy Scale (MES; see Appendix A), because it aims to capture teachers' diverse experiences, attitudes of diversity, and efficacy in instructing diverse students through 35 survey items. This scale of measurement has been validated and deemed reliable (Guyton & Wesche, 2005). For the purposes of this study, demographic questions were added and the MES answer choices were altered to increase sensitivity (see Appendix B for the adapted study survey). Additionally, this study sought to understand elementary school teachers' use of multicultural literature. Therefore, teachers were asked to record 10-20 books they had read *to* students, *with* students, and *assigned for* students.

All of the survey data from this research was analyzed using Google Sheets and Stata 15.1 statistical software. The reading log data was first entered into Google Sheets. Then, using a multicultural literature rubric (Wilfong, 2007; see Appendix C), the data were analyzed for content and a determination was made based on the rubric whether or not the text was multicultural. Once all of the books on the reading logs were categorized as multicultural or not multicultural, counts of multicultural books were totaled for each teacher and a percentage of multicultural book use was calculated for each teacher. This data was then combined with the MES survey data and analyzed in Stata in order to answer the research questions guiding this study. Correlation analysis, independent samples *t*-tests, and analysis of variance (ANOVA) models were used to answer each of the research questions.

### Summary

The current demographic data indicates that the U.S. population is becoming more culturally, ethnically, and linguistically diverse. The change in the nation's population is mirrored in the student population of U.S. public schools. The cultural mismatch both between students and schools and teachers and students continue to widen as school curricula is presented from a White, Western perspective and the teaching workforce stays predominately White and female. One approach to combating this problem and valuing all students' home languages and cultures is through DL programs. The literature teachers select during instruction can impact students' educational outcomes. Thus, there is an urgent need to better understand how teachers can influence their instructional literacy practices and whether or not there is a difference in practices between DL and traditional classrooms.

This chapter provided a rationale for the study, a statement of purpose, an overview of the literature on this topic of research, the research questions guiding this study, and a brief description of the study design and methods. Chapter two presents a detailed review of the literature central to this study, including the research on multicultural education, culturally relevant education, multicultural literature, and DL classrooms. Chapter three discusses the study design and methods in detail. Chapter four presents the findings from the data analysis. Chapter five provides an in-depth discussion of the findings, implications, limitations, and ideas for future research. Finally, chapter six summarizes and concludes the study.

### **Definitions of Key Terms**

*Culturally relevant education:* Culturally relevant education refers to “pedagogies of opposition committed to collective empowerment and social justice” that primarily focus on “effectively teaching diverse students” (Aronson & Laughter, 2016, p. 164).

*Dual language:* Dual language refers to two languages and is an “umbrella term that includes foreign language immersion for native English speakers, developmental bilingual programs, two-way immersion programs, and heritage language programs” (CAL, 2016b, para. 1)

*Multicultural education:* Multicultural education is a “total school reform effort designed to increase educational equity for a range of cultural, ethnic, and economic groups” (Banks & Banks, 2007, p. 7).

*Multicultural teacher efficacy:* Multicultural teaching efficacy refers to a teacher’s confidence that he/she can teach students effectively in diverse settings (Guyton & Wesche, 2005).

*Multicultural Efficacy Scale (MES):* The MES is an instrument designed to measure a teacher’s experiences with diversity, attitude of diversity, efficacy teaching diverse students, and his/her multicultural viewpoint (Guyton & Wesche, 2005).

*Multicultural literature:* Multicultural literature refers to books that depict a non-dominant culture by encompassing the perspectives of groups of people from the non-dominant culture (Cai, 2002).

*Teacher attitude:* Teacher attitude is the “awareness and reduction of one’s own prejudices and misconceptions” about students’ racial/ethnic, cultural, and linguistic backgrounds (Guyton & Wesche, 2005, p. 22).

*Teacher efficacy:* Teacher efficacy is defined as “teachers’ perceptions of their instructional effectiveness” (Nadelson et al., 2012, p. 1187). In this study, teacher efficacy will specifically be focused on diverse students.

*Two-way immersion program:* Two-way immersion programs are a type of dual language program where students spend 10-50% of the day receiving instruction in English and 50-

90% of the day receiving instruction in another language (Sugarman, 2018). The language taught alongside English is referred to as the “partner language.” For this study, the partner language is Spanish.

## **Chapter 2: Review of the Literature**

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a review of the literature related to the development of the multicultural teacher, the incorporation of multicultural literature in DL and traditional classrooms, and their impact on student outcomes as seen through the theoretical framework of multicultural education. This literature review has six sections. The first section goes over the literature search method and the criteria for inclusion. The second section provides a discussion of the background and evolution of multicultural education policy in the United States including assumptions and goals of multicultural education, criticisms, critical multicultural education, and the related research. The third section discusses culturally relevant education and empirical studies related to this topic. The fourth section describes bilingual education models and highlights the goals of and empirical research on DL programs. The fifth section reviews multicultural literature and discusses its inclusion in the classroom, its impact on student outcomes, and guidelines for classification. The sixth and final section describes the characteristics of a multicultural teacher and provides details on the Multicultural Efficacy Scale used to measure teachers' multicultural characteristics.

### **Literature Search Method**

A review of the literature was conducted in order to identify all studies related to multicultural education, culturally relevant education, and multicultural literature in DL and traditional classrooms. Searches were completed in ERIC, Google Scholar, and all of the databases on ProQuest. The key words used while searching only peer-reviewed articles included “multicultural education,” “multicultural teacher,” “cultural competence,” “multicultural literature,” “evaluation/classification of multicultural literature,” “dual language,” “bilingual education,” “English learners,” “literacy instruction,” “culturally relevant pedagogy,” and

“culturally responsive instruction.” Various combinations of these search terms were used to identify all relevant sources of literature. Additional sources were also identified through the references of identified studies and recommendations from colleagues.

### **Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria**

Criteria for inclusion and exclusion were created in order to determine relevant literature. For literature to be included in this review it had to be written in English, school-based research, set in the K-12 context of U.S. schools, focused on multicultural education and literacy development, about in-service teachers, and reflective of the search terms. Exclusion criteria were also developed to further help with inclusion determination. Studies were excluded if they were published in a language other than English, conducted outside of the United States, set in a context other than schools, focused on postsecondary education or adult education, or examined pre-service teachers or a population other than in-service teachers. The criteria were first applied to titles and abstracts. The remaining pieces of literature were evaluated by reading the full document, and the ones that met the inclusion criteria are the articles cited in this literature review.

### **Multicultural Education as a Theoretical Framework**

Multicultural education as a framework has been described as an educational reform, program, movement, curriculum, process, and an idea (Banks, 1993; Banks & Banks, 2007; Sleeter & Grant, 1987). James Banks and Cherry Banks (2007), two prominent scholars in the field of multicultural education research, defined multicultural education as a “total school reform effort designed to increase educational equity for a range of cultural, ethnic, and economic groups” (p. 7). These scholars expanded on their definition by saying that multicultural education has five dimensions: 1) content integration, 2) knowledge construction, 3) prejudice

reduction, 4) equity pedagogy, and 5) empowering school culture. Banks and Banks (2007) argued that these dimensions should serve as guidelines for practitioners incorporating multicultural education into their school reform.

Another well-known scholar in this area of study, Christine Bennett (2001), proposed a similar definition of multicultural education that encompassed four general principles: 1) cultural pluralism, 2) the embracement of social justice and the elimination of racism, sexism, and all other forms of prejudice and discrimination, 3) inclusion of culture in teaching and learning, and 4) academic excellence and educational equity for all students. Though these definitions differ, they both focus on equity, inclusion, and the elimination of racism and discrimination, and they stand in opposition to the Eurocentric curricula that continues to dominate U.S. public schools (Bennett, 2001).

### **The Evolution of Multicultural Education Policy**

In the United States during the 1950s and 1960s, multicultural education emerged in response to the Civil Rights Movement (Bennett, 2001). The 1954 decision of *Brown v. Board of Education* spurred a rise in hopeful expectations for equal opportunities and social justice in public school education. However, the overturn of “separate but equal” did not lead to the educational equities that many African Americans desired. Instead, school curricula continued to mirror Eurocentric perspectives and the number of White teachers was (and still is) disproportionate to the number of teachers of color. As a result, students of color experienced high levels of discrimination, racism, and underachievement compared to their White peers in the public education system (Bennett, 2001). This motivated many citizens to fight and advocate for equal educational opportunities for *all* students.



Courses on ethnic studies and cultural diversity school reforms were developed in the 1960s (Banks & Banks, 2007). The ethnic studies movement was initiated by scholars like W. E. B. DuBois and Carter G. Woodson in the early 20<sup>th</sup> century and carried on by other prominent African American and ethnic scholars like James Boyer, Asa Hilliard III, and Barbara Sizemore (Banks, 1993). In the 1970s contributing scholars to the formation of multicultural education included Gwendolyn Baker, James Banks, Geneva Gay, and Carl Grant (Banks, 1993). Out of the ethnic studies movement came a push to incorporate ethnic minority theories and concepts into teacher education and curricula. This led scholars to specialize in studying issues related to specific ethnic groups like Carlos Cortez (Mexican American), Jack Forbes (American Indian), Sonia Nieto (Puerto Rican), and Derald Wing Sue (Asian American) (Banks, 1993). Later, in the 1990s and 2000s, scholars like Kimberlé Crenshaw (1989) pushed to look at the intersectionality, a framework for understanding how one's identities of race, gender, class, among others combine to create privilege and disadvantage. More recently, scholars have fought to have diverse histories, theories, and voices included in the development of school curricula and the structures of educational institutions (Banks, 1993; Bennett, 2001).

Several U.S. policies and Supreme Court decisions have strongly influenced the advancement of multicultural education and its place in the U.S. public school system. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 emphasized equality by stating that any student in a federally funded program could not be discriminated against because of race or national origin (Stewner-Manzanares, 1988). President Lyndon B. Johnson signed the Bilingual Education Act (BEA), Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, into law in 1968. This was the first federally funded initiative that supported language minorities. It proposed bilingual education as

an approach to teaching non-native English speaking students and promoted cultural awareness (Gándara & Escamilla, 2017; Stewner-Manzanares, 1988).

A few years later, in the case of *Lau v. Nichols* (1974), the Supreme Court concluded that students attending the same school with the same teachers, textbooks, and curriculum do not necessarily receive an equitable education. This decision was determined following a lawsuit that stated 1,800 Chinese students in San Francisco were denied adequate educational opportunities due to the lack of English language instruction (Banks & Banks, 2007; Stewner-Manzanares, 1988). This case led to the Equal Educational Opportunity Act of 1974, which declared that school districts must provide language support for students whose native language was not English (Stewner-Manzanares, 1988). As a result, school districts were now required to have programs to support non-native English-speaking students. These programs were required to have a foundation in theoretically based research, to be implemented correctly, and to demonstrate effectiveness as was decided in the case of *Castañeda v. Pickard* (1981).

As the population of immigrants in the United States continued to grow, legal issues regarding education of students of these families became more complicated. For example, in the case of *Plyler v. Doe* (1982) the Supreme Court decided that states must provide free public education to immigrant children regardless of their citizenship status. In the same year, the Reagan administration also significantly cut funding for the BEA, which prompted nationwide debates over English-only policies in schools (Banks & Banks, 2007). Proponents of an English-only policy believe that students will learn English best if they are immersed in only the English language. Proposition 227 was passed in California in 1998, which dismantled bilingual programs in the state and adopted an English-only policy in schools (Banks & Banks, 2007).

This prompted Arizona in 2000 and Massachusetts in 2002 to pass similar policies (FindLaw, 2018).

In 2001, the federal government enacted No Child Left Behind (NCLB; 2003), which mandated that the states must provide programs to develop English proficiency for students and annually report ELs' English proficiency scores to the United States Department of Education (USDOE). This law prompted states to develop or acquire English proficiency tests, which measure English language proficiency using standardized assessments. One example is the WIDA Access test, which is used by more than 35 states (WIDA, 2018).

The Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA; 2015), the reauthorization of NCLB, was fully enacted in the 2017-2018 school year. It shifted the control of educational policy from the federal government back to the states. Under this law, states are required to submit an accountability plan to the USDOE, which includes goals, standards, and testing procedures for the state. ESSA (2015) still holds state and local agencies accountable for providing ELs with instructional services and demonstrating their progress in English proficiency each year. The states now have more control of the language and model of instruction they choose to implement in schools. In 2016, California overturned its 1998 decision on Proposition 227 giving way for bilingual instruction and the inclusion of various language programs (Park et al., 2017). Massachusetts did the same in 2017 (Vaznis, 2017). Since 2011, the Seal of Biliteracy, which recognizes students who are biliterate and bilingual in two or more languages by high school graduation has been approved in 35 states and Washington, DC (Seal of Biliteracy, 2018). It has been widely championed by world language educators, perhaps more so than educators of English to Speakers of Other Languages. While these are positive changes for ELs in the United States, multicultural education and language of instruction are still being disputed and researched due to

the continual increase of immigrant students and their underperformance on high-stakes tests compared to their native English-speaking peers (Gándara & Escamilla, 2017).

### **Assumptions and Goals of Multicultural Education**

One of the leading contributors to multicultural education research and known as one of its founders is James Banks (Nieto, 2009). He identified the main assumptions and goals of multicultural education. Banks (2008) asserted that race, ethnicity, culture, and social class are indubitably important aspects of U.S. society. He brought to light that some students have greater opportunities for academic success because their culture is aligned with the culture of the school curriculum while other students' culture is not. As a result, school curriculum can have negative effects on students of color, because "they often find the school culture alien, hostile, and self-defeating" (Banks, 2008, p. 2). A curriculum focused on mainstream groups tends to leave out the "experiences, voices, and struggles of people of color, women, and of other cultural, language, and social-class groups in U.S. society" (Banks, 2008, p. 43). Banks (2002) also claimed that a diverse society has the power to enrich the nation and influence how citizens interpret and solve problems. Therefore, another assumption is that individuals will gain respect and empathy for cultures and groups of people through experience and understanding of other cultures (Banks, 2002).

These assumptions have helped define the goals of the multicultural education and have remained stable over time (Nieto, 2009). The goals of multicultural education outlined by Banks (2002) are paraphrased here: 1) to help individuals view themselves from the perspectives of other cultures in order to better understand themselves; 2) to give students the opportunity to learn about minority cultures or cultures other than the Eurocentric perspective that dominates school curricula; 3) to teach students the skills, knowledge, and attitudes needed to thrive within

their own culture, mainstream culture, and across other cultures; 4) to assuage the discrimination and pain as experienced by members of some ethnic and racial groups; and 5) to help all students master reading, writing, and math skills.

According to Banks and Banks (2010), these goals can be accomplished through the five dimensions of multicultural education: 1) content integration, 2) knowledge construction, 3) prejudice reduction, 4) empowering school culture, and 5) equity pedagogy. Content integration allows teachers to integrate examples and subject matter from a variety of cultures. However, Banks and Banks (2010) cautioned teachers that only including multicultural education within content areas makes it likely to be dismissed; thus, this strengthens their argument for multicultural education as a whole school reform. Knowledge construction gives teachers the powerful opportunity to help students recognize, investigate, and understand multiple ethnic perspectives, cultural assumptions, and biases (Banks & Banks, 2010). Prejudice reduction, as a dimension of multicultural education, includes “lessons and activities teachers use to help students develop positive attitudes toward different racial, ethnic, and cultural groups” (Banks & Banks, 2010, p. 21). An empowering school culture is one in which all school staff members promote and work to maintain gender, racial/ethnic, cultural, and social-class equity (Banks & Banks, 2010). Finally, equity pedagogies are teaching styles and procedures that “facilitate the academic achievement of students from diverse, racial, cultural, gender, and social-class groups” (Banks & Banks, 2010, p. 22). Equity pedagogies focus on teachers’ abilities to meet the needs of students from diverse backgrounds; thus, they will be discussed in more detail in the section on the multicultural teacher.

Banks and Banks (2007) also identified four ways in which multicultural content can be integrated into the curriculum: 1) the contributions approach, which focuses on heroes and

holidays; 2) the additive approach, which adds content and perspectives to the curriculum without changing the structure of the course; 3) the transformation approach, which adds ethnically and culturally diverse concepts by changing the structure of the curriculum to allow students to view concepts and issues from several ethnic perspectives; and 4) the social action approach, which allows students to develop plans of action to solve societal problems. The contributions and additive approaches are the most common but the least effective. Practitioners wanting to include multicultural education in their curriculum should strive for a transformation or social action approach as they best align with the goals of the framework.

In sum, multicultural education is intended for all students and can be incorporated into school curricula, through teaching methods, and an empowering school culture to help students succeed academically and in the real world beyond high school. Multicultural education assumes that all students are capable of academic success and seeks to value and integrate the ethnic, culture, and linguistic diversity of all students into schools (Banks, 2002, 2008; Banks & Banks, 2007, 2010; Bennett, 2001; Gay & Howard, 2001; Sleeter & Grant, 1987).

### **Criticisms of Multicultural Education**

The primary emphasis of multicultural education in this literature review has thus far been positive; however, there are criticisms of this scholarship too. One criticism of multicultural education is essentialism, in which groups of people are uniformly defined and individual difference is lost (May, 2003). Critics believe that when teachers include multicultural education into the curriculum, especially in a contribution or an additive approach, students come to see the people of a minority ethnic group as all the same (May, 2003). This static way of viewing an ethnic group does not take into account that people and cultures evolve over time and that members of a group are unique.

Another criticism of multicultural education is that it has resulted in a box for school districts and teachers to check off. For example, multicultural education often gets reduced down to the incorporation of heroes and holidays in the curriculum. This type of instruction falls under the contribution and additive approaches Banks (2007) warns practitioners against, because they do little to increase cultural competency and the academic achievement of students. Even if the curriculum includes multicultural aspects, teachers are often underprepared and have little time to effectively incorporate them into the classroom (Sleeter, 2012).

Other critics think multicultural education is a movement against Western civilization and its Eurocentric perspectives (Banks, 2002). However, multicultural education scholars think Western civilization should be taught, alongside other perspectives in history, e.g., African American, Native American, and women's history (Banks, 2002). Another criticism is that multicultural education creates a dichotomy between White people and people of color (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001). In other words, instead of bringing people together, critics think it further divides students by race and ethnicity. Sleeter (2012) responds to this by stating that much of the research in multicultural education is conceptual and scholars have conducted little empirical research to justify this claim.

A final noteworthy criticism is multicultural education has had a difficult time being viewed as something other than an anti-racist movement. This is due to the fact that it was formed out of the racism and discrimination as experienced by students of color in the United States in the 1960s through 1980s and therefore often viewed as a response to that rather than initiative to better serve these students (Sleeter, 2004). Though in the last two decades, scholars have moved away from traditional forms of multicultural education to take a more critical approach to the discipline. Critical multicultural education scholars have emphasized that culture

is social construction and cultures evolve; therefore, culture and the concept of multicultural education need to be continuously critically examined (May, 2003).

### **Critical Multicultural Education**

In the 1990s and early 2000s, the criticisms of multicultural education led Peter McLaren (1995) to propose the idea of critical multiculturalism to “stress the central task of transforming the social, cultural, and institutional relations in which meanings are generated” (p. 98). McLaren (1995) saw race, class, and gender as socially constructed concepts that individuals struggle with because of language and cultural representations. He thought the only way to work through this challenge was through a total transformation. Stephen May, a critical multicultural theorist, defines critical multiculturalism as having four parts which are paraphrased here: 1) the understanding and theorizing of ethnicity and social and cultural practices as they continuously evolve, 2) recognition of unequal power relations, 3) the critique of culture construction, and 4) maintaining critical reflexivity. (2003, pp. 208-210). Here, May expands upon McLaren’s definition to include critiques and reflections as part of the ongoing critical approach to multicultural education.

Christine Sleeter, another well-known scholar for her work on critical multicultural education, suggests that critical multicultural education is the combination of multicultural education, progressivism, and critical pedagogy (2004). This allows scholars to study the “relationships between power and the teaching-learning process” and students to create their own knowledge with empowerment (Sleeter, 2004, p. 124). In classrooms, critical multicultural education is exemplified when teachers and students “consciously engage in the construction of knowledge, critique the various forms of inequities and injustices embedded in the educational system, and strive to gain the empowerment needed to engage in culturally responsive and



responsible practice” (Ukpokodu, 2003, p.19). This expansion on multicultural education is comparable to Banks’ transformative and social justice approaches.

### **Research on Multicultural Education**

The evolution of multicultural education has led to numerous studies within the field. Sleeter and Grant (1987) conducted a review of the literature on multicultural education and found that at that time most of the literature was conceptual and race and ethnicity were seen as the main form of diversity amongst individuals. Ladson-Billings (1994) identified five important areas in the education of culturally and linguistically diverse students, “teachers’ beliefs about students, curriculum content and materials, instructional approaches, educational settings, and teacher education” (p. 22). She goes on to specify that teachers who are committed to multicultural education include content materials that contain diverse perspectives of the same event or multiple versions of the same story for students to analyze and make sense of their similarities and differences.

Bennett (2001) identified four main areas of research within the field of multicultural education: 1) curriculum reform, 2) equity pedagogy, 3) societal equity, and 4) multicultural competence. Curriculum reform aims to rethink and transform the traditional Eurocentric curriculum to include minority perspectives and knowledge through the idea of centricity, or using students’ culture to inform teaching and learning (Bennett, 2001). Equity pedagogy “aims at achieving fair and equal educational opportunities” for all students, particularly low-income students and students of color, through a total transformation of the school environment (Bennett, 2001, p. 183). This includes teaching styles, instructional practices, learning environments, school disciplinary policies, and the grouping of students in classrooms (Bennett, 2001). Research on societal equity focuses on “equitable access, participation, and achievement

in social institutions” (Bennett, 2001, p. 200), and it investigates inequitable economic policies like health care, school funding, social structures, access to higher education, and the stereotypes and omissions of particular cultural groups in popular culture, news, and media. Finally, research on multicultural competence focuses on “individual competence in a multicultural society” (Bennett, 2001, p. 191). Bennett (2001) describes this category as a continuum where individuals move along as they develop cultural awareness, appropriate social cues, intercultural competence, empathy for cultures outside their own, and abilities to communicate with people from other cultures. Multicultural competence research tends to focus on individual cognitive and social psychological variable like attitudes, beliefs, and perceptions (Bennett, 2001).

Gay and Howard (2001) argued for multicultural education to be incorporated into teacher preparation programs as a way to mitigate the cultural mismatch between teachers and students. Other notable scholars such as Lucas and Villegas (2013) have also investigated the inclusion of multicultural education in teacher preparation programs. Lucas and Villegas (2013) put forth that preservice teachers need to first analyze their preexisting beliefs, develop sociolinguistic consciousness, value linguistic diversity, and learn to advocate for ELs. They also suggested that preservice teachers should have language immersion and community-based learning experiences in order to learn what it is like to be an EL. These should then be followed up with an opportunity for discussion and reflection.

Zirkel (2008) conducted a comprehensive literature review on the empirical research conducted on multicultural education and found evidence that all five components of Banks and Banks’ (2010) multicultural educational practice have positive academic impacts on students of color. In particular, Zirkel (2008) noted that generally, multicultural curricular content is positively related to identity development, student engagement, and interethnic relations.

Moreover, a more positive ethnic identity is related to higher educational achievement. She concluded that multicultural education has the potential to benefit all students, is most effective when teachers implement it with care, and builds academic and intergroup relations.

### **Culturally Relevant Education**

The dimensions of multicultural education most important to this study are content integration and equity pedagogy, because their inclusion in school classrooms have the potential to “help reverse the problems that many ethnic minorities and low-income students face in school and ensure that they attain the highest standards of academic excellence” (Sleeter, 2001, p.183). Equity pedagogies go by various names including *culturally responsive teaching* (Gay, 2002), *culturally relevant pedagogy* (Ladson-Billings, 1995a, 1995b), *culturally sustaining pedagogy* (Paris & Alim, 2014), *culturally responsive instruction* (Au, 2009), *culturally revitalizing pedagogy* (McCarty & Lee, 2014), *funds of knowledge* (Moll et al., 1992), and *funds of identity* (Esteban-Guitart & Moll, 2014).

Geneva Gay (2002) defined *culturally responsive teaching* as “using the cultural characteristics, experiences, and perspectives of ethnically diverse students as conduits for teaching them more effectively” (p. 106). She goes on to say that in order for educators to teach effectively with cultural responsiveness they need to have knowledge of cultural diversity, include ethnic and cultural diversity into their curriculum, build caring learning communities, communicate appropriately with all students, and respond to ethnic diversity in their instructional methods (Gay, 2002). Gloria Ladson-Billings (1995a) stated that *culturally relevant pedagogy* is designed to help teachers meet the needs of culturally and linguistically diverse students through three essential components: academic achievement, cultural competence, and sociopolitical consciousness. These dimensions enable teachers to deliver academic knowledge within the

personal lives of students to create more meaningful school experiences in order to improve academic achievement (Ladson-Billings, 1995a).

Paris and Alim (2014) built on Paris's (2012) notion of *culturally sustaining pedagogy* through their discussion of language and culture as assets to value and explore. They referred to student identities as fluid and constantly emerging through music, fashion, traditional cultural practices, and contemporary cultural practices. Paris and Alim (2014) argued that we need pedagogies that acknowledge this reality and "go with the flow" (p. 92) but recognized that culturally sustaining pedagogy is difficult to implement and has therefore rarely been done. Au's (2009) *culturally responsive instruction* takes into consideration students' diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds and aims to close the achievement gap between these students and their mainstream peers. McCarty and Lee's (2014) concept of *culturally sustaining/revitalizing pedagogy* looks forward at the same time as it looks back to reclaim lost languages and cultures. *Funds of knowledge* are viewed as a household set of knowledge and skills that have been historically and culturally developed to aid in the well-being and functioning of household members (Moll et al., 1992). Esteban-Guitart and Moll (2014) extended that concept to funds of identity to emphasize that children internalize their funds of knowledge to describe themselves. This implies that identities are social products and individuals are constantly engaged in redefining their identities (Esteban-Guitart & Moll, 2014).

Aronson and Laughter (2016) constructed a framework called *culturally relevant education* (CRE)<sup>1</sup> that encompasses the various strands of equity pedagogies. Figure 1 illustrates how Aronson and Laughter (2016) saw these equity pedagogies as connected and together they

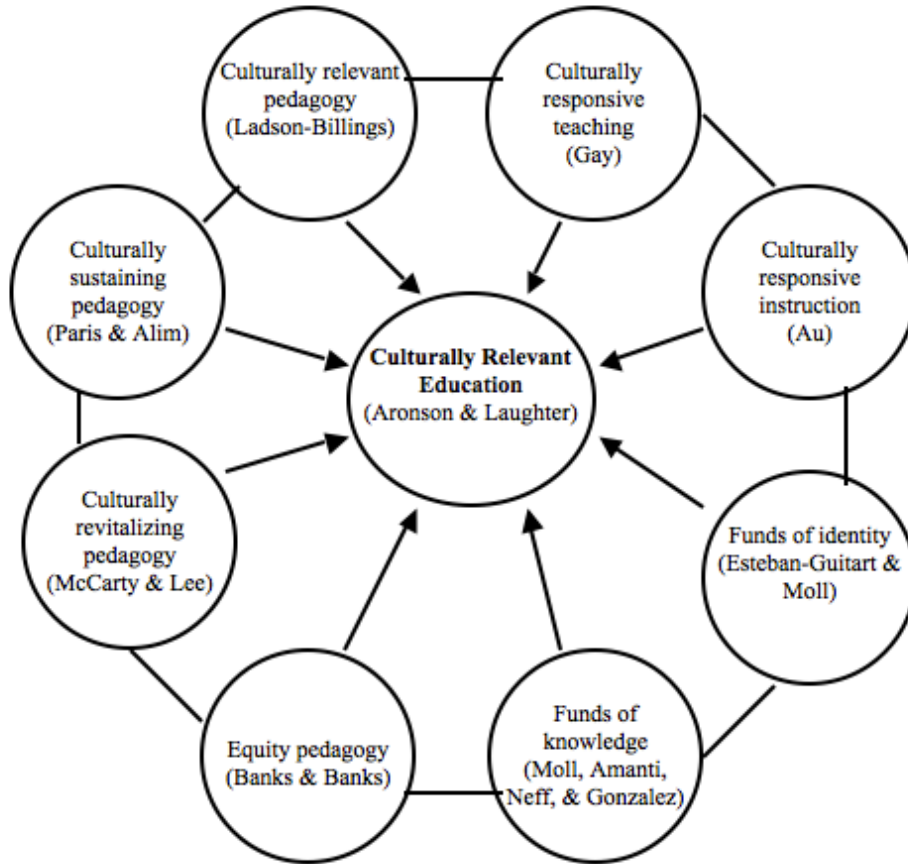
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<sup>1</sup> In keeping with the current literature, this study will refer to this concept as culturally relevant education.

make up CRE. Aronson and Laughter (2016) argued that out of all of the identified equity pedagogies the two most prominent ones are Gay's (2002) culturally responsive teaching and Ladson-Billings' (1995a, 1995b) culturally relevant pedagogy. Aronson and Laughter (2016) distinguished between these two researchers' focus on teaching and pedagogy in terms of how they affect practice and competence versus attitudes and dispositions, respectively. In other words, they saw teaching as what teachers do in the classroom and pedagogy as how teachers plan, instruct, and assess (Aronson & Laughter, 2016). Culturally relevant education is rooted in the literature of multicultural education as it aims "to combat oppression by enabling all groups to have an equitable portion of society's resources" (Aronson & Laughter, 2016, pp. 167-168). They identified social justice and the classroom as the setting for social change as the common threads between the two strands and synthesized their individual tenants in order to identify four markers of CRE, paraphrased here: 1) CRE is based on constructivist methods that aim to connect students' cultural backgrounds to academic skills and concepts, 2) CRE engages students in critical reflection about themselves and societies, 3) CRE builds students' cultural competence, and 4) CRE strives to unveil and challenge oppressive systems by critiquing discourses of power (Aronson & Laughter, 2016). Thus, CRE aims to incorporate students' culture, prior knowledge, and background experiences into the classroom in an effort to help them succeed academically, while simultaneously combating issues of injustice, oppression, and discrimination in the classroom.

**Figure 1**

*The Pedagogies Encompassing Culturally Relevant Education (Aronson & Laughter, 2016)*



### **Research on Culturally Relevant Education**

There is a multitude of conceptual scholarship on CRE. Much of which provides theories for teachers to consider or suggestions for teachers to practice such as have high expectations for all students, use active teaching methods, have positive perspectives of parents and families of English learners, have an appreciative rather than deficit perspective of all students, and demonstrate cultural sensitivity (Bomer, 2017; Brown-Jeffy & Cooper, 2011; Callins, 2006; Ladson-Billings, 1995a, 1995b; Paris, 2012; Paris & Alim, 2014).

Nonetheless, only a few studies have examined CRE in practice. Cammarota (2007) implemented a culturally relevant curriculum that integrated social justice content with Chicano studies in a predominately Latinx high school in Arizona where many of the students were deemed “at risk” for dropping out of school. The curriculum was designed to help students understand their own backgrounds and histories with the intention of making school interesting and applicable to their lives in hope that they would stay in school and graduate. He described how the culturally relevant curriculum provided students with the knowledge to understand their own experiences, space to critically reflect on their social realities, and the opportunity to voice their frustration with society. Cammarota (2007) reported that 93% of students learning the culturally relevant curriculum felt it made them more likely to stay in school and graduate. In another empirical study, Irizarry (2007) explored how a teacher employed CRE in a classroom of minority students through community connection, language, and music integration. His work led him to conclude that teacher-student relationships based on respect and shared identities are vital to a student’s academic success further providing evidence that the pedagogical approach a teacher takes should be guided by the cultures of the students in the classroom.

Two large-scale quantitative studies that have been conducted on ethnic studies curriculum, which is based in CRE, have revealed positive outcomes for students. Dee and Penner (2017) found that students enrolled in an ethnic studies course in ninth-grade, increased their attendance, grade point average, and credits earned. Cabrera et al. (2014) examined the impact of a Mexican American Studies program in Arizona and discovered that student participation in the program was significantly related to student achievement on the Arizona state standardized tests and high school graduation.

Morrison and colleagues (2008) located 45 empirical studies that integrated CRE in the classroom from 1995 to 2008. They coded each study on the three tenets of culturally relevant pedagogy (high expectation, cultural competence, and critical consciousness) and discovered that none of them contained all three. They did note that an overwhelming majority of the studies were qualitative in nature and most took place in classrooms in nearly homogenous classrooms of ethnic minorities (e.g., all African American students or all Latinx students).

Aronson and Laughter (2016) provided a more recent comprehensive literature review of CRE by identifying over 40 empirical studies (both quantitative and qualitative) on CRE across content areas and found that CRE is indeed effective in increasing student academic achievement, motivation, engagement, interest, and confidence. It is noteworthy that in the 37 studies Aronson and Laughter (2016) included in their table of examples of CRE research that four employed a quantitative research design, two used mixed-methods research, and 31 were qualitative studies. This large discrepancy in research design signifies that even though perhaps CRE lends itself to qualitative study, there is also a need for more quantitative research in this area. The multitude of conceptual literature on CRE indicates an area of needed empirical studies in K-12 classrooms, especially at the elementary level. As a result, scholars, such as Christine Sleeter (2012), have called for more empirical research that explores what CRE looks like in K-12 classrooms and its impact on student outcomes.

### **Bilingual Education Models**

The first marker of CRE states that its aim is to link students' cultural backgrounds to academic skills and concepts (Aronson & Laughter, 2016). One approach to doing this is through language, because, as was noted in chapter one, a large percentage of students speak a language at home other than English. However, there has been ongoing debate on the language of



classroom instruction (NASEM, 2017), where opponents “perceive using languages of instruction other than English as a threat to national unity and even as unpatriotic” (Nieto, 2009, p. 85). Although the United States does not have an official language, over half of the states have declared English as their official language and a few have even passed English-only education laws that allow English as the only language of instruction in public schools (FindLaw, 2018).

Kim et al. (2015) identified five dominant bilingual education models used in U.S. schools: 1) submersion, 2) English as a second language (ESL), 3) early-exit or transitional, 4) late-exit, and 5) two-way immersion. Submersion classrooms completely immerse students in English the entire school day and have been referred to as a “sink or swim” approach (Gándara & Escamilla, 2017; Kim et al., 2015). ESL models pull ELs out of the mainstream classroom for a class period to work with an ESL teacher or an ESL teacher pushes-in to work with ELs in the mainstream classroom (Kim et al., 2015). Both of these models primarily instruct students in English.

NASEM (2017) argued that students would learn a second language faster and with more ease if they were literate in their first language, supporting instruction in students’ native languages. In early-exit, or transitional, programs the goal is for students to acquire English quickly by receiving the majority of instruction in their first language (L1) at first and decreasing that time until all of their instruction is in English (Kim et al., 2015; NASEM, 2017). Late-exit programs extend the early-exit program model for several years and support the goal of additive bilingualism (Kim et al., 2015). Finally, DL programs provide content and language instruction in two languages to students that are L1 speakers of one of the two languages of instruction (Kim et al., 2015). Students enrolled in this type of program are approximately half first language (L1)

English speakers and half L1 speakers of the partner language. These bilingual education programs also support additive bilingualism.

### **Dual Language Programs**

TWI programs, which fall under the category of DL programs have been chosen as one of the settings for this study, because according to the *Guiding Principles of Dual Language Education*, released by the Center for Applied Linguistics, one of the key points in their curriculum states that it should be “culturally responsive and representative of the cultural and linguistic backgrounds of all students” (Howard et al., 2018, p. 42). There are three pillars of DL education: bilingualism and biliteracy, academic achievement, and cross-cultural understanding for all students (Howard et al., 2018; Kennedy & Medina, 2017; Lindholm-Leary & Howard, 2008). Moreover, Rendon et al. (2014) stated that DL programs address the problems of access to education and the absence of relevant linguistic and cultural educational content faced by ELs at school. De La Trinidad (2015) even stated that DL programs are culturally relevant, because they “employ students’ ‘cultural capital,’ i.e., their native language, ethnic background, home culture and experiences, in their pedagogical methods and curricula” (p. 319). The pillars of DL programs, especially their emphasis on an additive bilingualism, suggests they align with the markers of CRE (Aronson & Laughter, 2016; Gándara & Escamilla, 2017).

Students in TWI programs in the United States receive literacy and content instruction in two languages, and the majority participate in one of two models: a 90:10 model where students spend 90% of the instructional time in the partner language and 10% in English or a 50:50 model where students spend 50% of their time in English and the other 50% in the partner language (Kennedy & Medina, 2017; Kim et al., 2015; Lindholm-Leary & Howard, 2008). The significant amount of time spent in the partner language reflects the program’s goals of developing

biliteracy, bilingualism, high levels of academic achievement, and cross-cultural competence (Gándara & Escamilla, 2017; Gilzow & Rhodes, 2000; Kennedy & Medina, 2017; Nikolov & Djigunović, 2011; Pufahl & Rhodes, 2011).

Another unique feature of a TWI program is that generally the population of students within these classrooms is purposefully comprised of approximately 50% native speakers of the host country and 50% native speakers of the partner language (Gándara & Escamilla, 2017; Kim et al., 2015). While Spanish is the most common partner language in the United States, the partner language is generally chosen based on a significant student population that speak a language other than English at home within a school district (Gándara & Escamilla, 2017).

By purposefully creating classrooms containing half English speakers and half speakers of the partner language, all students end up being on a more even playing field in terms of language learning. Other approaches to teaching ELs (i.e., submersion and transitional programs) overly stress the importance of learning English and assimilating to American culture resulting in a deficit perspective, whereas DL programs foster an additive perspective of bilingualism and biliteracy by valuing ELs' home languages cultures and teaching students to become bilingual and biliterate in their home language and English (Alanís & Rodríguez, 2008; Gándara & Escamilla, 2017).

The Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL; 2016a) tracks of the number of DL programs in the United States along with detailed information about the program including school level, the language taught alongside English, the ratio of time taught in English and the partner language, and whether the program is a whole school model, a strand of classes in each grade level within a school, one-way, or TWI. According to CAL (2016a), there are nearly 900 DL

programs in the United States, and the most common type is an English-Spanish model at the elementary school level (Gándara & Escamilla, 2017; Kim et al., 2015).

### **Research on Dual Language Programs**

A review of the research on DL programs revealed positive benefits for *all* students. Marian et al. (2013) investigated 2,009 third, fourth, and fifth graders in one school district in the Chicago area and found that among students enrolled in DL programs both the native English speakers and English learners outperformed their monolingual peers in reading and math in an English-only classroom. Alanís and Rodríguez (2008) reviewed one school district's DL English-Spanish program and found that students outperformed students at other schools in the district and across the state in reading, math, and science. They also noted that students' development of English language skills was not impeded by Spanish language instruction for either the L1 English speakers or the L1 Spanish speakers.

Gándara and Escamilla (2017) highlighted in their review of bilingual education in the United States that studies revealing higher impacts on dual language learners (DLLs) tend to come from longitudinal studies. Umansky and Reardon (2014) discovered that long-term DLLs had higher rates of English proficiency and scored higher on all academic measures than their English-only counterparts and were more likely to be reclassified to a non-EL status than their EL counterparts in traditional classrooms. Cobb and colleagues (2006) examined students in a dual English-Spanish language program for four years beginning in third grade and found substantively positive effects in reading and writing for native English speakers compared to native English speakers in a traditional English-only classroom. Alanís and Rodríguez (2008) noted that the "length of time spent in a dual language bilingual program is positively correlated with student academic achievement" (p. 309). Thus, CAL (2016a) suggested that students should

remain in DL programs for at least five years due to the greater potential for positive student outcomes. This suggests that students in the upper elementary grades (third through fifth) of DL programs that started in early elementary school (kindergarten through second) are more likely to have higher academic achievement.

### **Culturally Relevant Education in Dual Language Programs**

A review of the literature also revealed little on CRE in DL programs. Alanís and Rodriguez (2008) investigated an elementary school that has sustained a DL program for more than a decade. They found that pedagogical equity, qualified bilingual teachers, active parent-home collaboration, and knowledgeable leadership contributed to the program's success. The teachers who held high expectations for their students were committed to CRE. Castro et al. (2011) reviewed practices for language and literacy development of DLLs and recommended that teachers should incorporate culturally relevant resources and literacy-based materials to enhance student learning. They specifically mentioned books in students' home language to be among these culturally relevant resources. Fitts (2009) investigated how fifth graders and their teachers created "third spaces," or "hybrid learning spaces" (p. 88), in a DL program and discovered students' learning was informed by the combination of the curricula and students' experiences. Fitts (2009) concluded that there are challenges to creating multicultural learning environments and teachers were uncertain as to what culturally responsive pedagogy and curricula should look like in those spaces.

### **Multicultural Literature**

CRE can be incorporated in all subjects and across all grade levels as children enter the classroom with their culture, language, and personal experiences (Aronson & Laughter, 2016). One way the CRE goal of connecting instruction to students' lives in order to make school more

culturally relevant can be achieved is through the use of multicultural literature (Aronson & Laughter, 2016; Al-Hazza, 2010; Au, 2009; Callins, 2006). A teacher's choice to include multicultural literature in instruction that is reflective of the students in classroom can be viewed as a transformative approach to multicultural education, because it changes the structure of the curriculum to give students the opportunity to view ethnically and culturally diverse concepts and issues from different perspectives (Banks & Banks, 2007). Since this research aims to investigate the impact of multicultural literature in classrooms, this review now turns to the literature specific to multicultural literature.

### **Multicultural Literature Defined**

English language arts have historically enforced Eurocentric ideologies, but they have the power to engage students through culturally relevant texts (Bomer, 2017). The inclusion of multicultural literature is not new, but like many efforts, it has more than one understanding among scholars. Temple et al. (2019) suggested there is general agreement among scholars that multicultural literature depicts non-mainstream people, but the debate lies in defining those non-mainstream populations. Therefore, they defined multicultural literature as “literature that reflects the multitude of cultural groups within the United States” (Temple et al., 2019, p. 90). Callins (2006) defined multicultural literature as literature that focuses on people of color, religious minorities, regional cultures, the disabled, and the elderly. Cai (2002) provided another suggestion saying multicultural literature has a literary definition and a pedagogical definition. Cai's (2002) literary definition stated that multicultural literature is comprised of works that are explicitly or implicitly about multicultural societies. Cai's (2002) pedagogical definition viewed multicultural literature as a group of texts, rather than a single text, that is “used to break the monopoly of the mainstream culture and make the curriculum pluralistic” (p. 4). Though all of

these definitions have their own nuances, they have a common understanding that multicultural literature encompasses the perspectives of minority and often marginalized groups of people.

### **Multicultural Literature in the Classroom**

The inclusion of multicultural literature in curricula and in the classroom continues to be pertinent because of its ability to provide all students with new perspectives (Gangi, 2004; Landt, 2006), help students see “commonalities across cultures” (Cai, 2002, p. 121), help “children develop positive attitudes and respect for individuals in all cultures” (Wilkins & Gamble, 1998, p. 28), and positively influence how students view themselves and their own culture (Gangi, 2004; Landt, 2006; Temple et al., 2019; Wilkens & Gamble, 1998). Multicultural literature provides students of color and second language (L2) English speakers a chance to see and hear themselves reflected in literature (Al-Hazza, 2010; Callins, 2006). It also gives L1 English students the opportunity to learn about their classmates as well as about cultures around the world. Rudine Sims Bishop (1990) is acclaimed for her noteworthy piece of scholarship entitled, *Mirrors, Windows, and Sliding Glass Doors*, in which she uses those objects as metaphors to describe children’s literature. A *mirror* book allows a child to see him/herself reflected in the literature through aspects such as language, community, family, race/ethnicity, religion, and culture (Bishop, 1990). A *window* book gives a child a view into a familiar or strange, real or imagined world, and a *sliding glass door* book invites the child to become part of whatever world the author has created (Bishop, 1990). Using this metaphor, reading is self-affirming and students seek their reflection (Bishop, 1990), and this in turn helps them become better readers. Gangi (2008) claimed, “[readers] who can make text-to-self connections move more quickly along the road to proficient reading” (p. 30). However, on the other side, when students cannot see themselves reflected in books or the images they do see are negative or false, students learn a

powerful lesson about their value and that of their family and origins in the L1 society (Bishop, 1990). Overall, students with access to multicultural books are afforded more opportunities to read, speak, and hear literature in more than one language, see themselves reflected in books, and are able to learn about their own culture as well as others (Al-Hazza, 2010; Bishop, 1990; Gangi, 2004, 2008). Thus, multicultural literature is for all students (Wilfong, 2007).

Some studies have examined the impact of the inclusion of multicultural literature in the classroom. Al-Hazza (2010) found that the inclusion of multicultural literature, specifically about the Middle East, helped students from the Middle East become more motivated and engaged in reading. Louie (2005) conducted an observational case study to examine the implementation of a high school unit on China that incorporated multicultural literature and discovered that students developed cognitive, historical, parallel emotional, reactive, and cross-cultural empathy. In another study by Louie (2006), fourth graders read five versions of the tale of *Mulan*, and through qualitative data analysis she noticed students developed a critical understanding of their similarities and differences and the ability to infer and evaluate various aspects of the tale. Martens et al. (2015) investigated a group of early elementary school teachers who created cultural identity text sets in order to help students better understand their own cultures and identities. These scholars suggested that a key part to a child's cultural identity is how they see themselves as related to others and the world. As a result of the text sets, the students began to take action for themselves, for others, and for the environment (Martens et al., 2015). When students see themselves reflected in the literature they read at school, their motivation, engagement, confidence, and literacy skills all have the potential to increase (Al-Hazza, 2010; Callins, 2006; Landt, 2006; Short, 2009).



The extant research on multicultural literature also reveals benefits for White students. Thein et al. (2007) observed students' responses to multicultural literature in a high school English class and interviewed students about their experience. They witnessed powerful changes in perspectives as White students navigated the tensions they felt when reading multicultural literature and became "more critically aware of their beliefs and perspectives" (Thein et al., 2007, p. 55). This led to students trying on alternative perspectives and some even adapted their original perspective to fit with new ideas they learned through the text and paired activities (Thein et al., 2007).

### **Multicultural Literature in the Dual Language Classroom**

Only one study specifically investigated multicultural literature in a DL or bilingual classroom. Osorio (2018) examined how multicultural literature was used as a tool in a second grade bilingual classroom and found that it helped students learn to appreciate diversity, honored students' voices, connected to students' diverse backgrounds, and promoted critical consciousness. The findings from this study led Osorio (2018) to argue that, "multicultural literature is for *all students* and that it should be part of the classroom curriculum" (p. 49, emphasis in the original). Thus, she considered multicultural literature as a classroom tool. In sum, multicultural literature acts as a foundation for all students to develop language, knowledge, multiple perspectives, empathy, and tolerance and to construct their own identities (Al-Hazza, 2010; Landt, 2006; Louie, 2005; Louie, 2006; Lowery & Sabis-Burns, 2007; Martens et al., 2015; Short, 2009; Temple et al., 2019).

### **Classification of Multicultural Literature**

The debate over a solid definition of multicultural literature has led to the challenge of classifying texts as multicultural. One of the major problems of selecting an accurate piece of

multicultural literature is that much of the literature presents stereotypical representations of people from culturally diverse backgrounds (Wilkins & Gamble, 1998). Other issues concerning the quality of multicultural literature are that they may have an underlying theme of racism, they are historically or culturally inaccurate, they include misconceptions, they are written from an outsider's perspective, and they are generic in the sense that while the main character may be a child of color the story is not about that child's life or culture (Cai, 2002; Temple et al., 2019; Wilkins & Gamble, 1998). These concerns make it difficult for teachers to select appropriate multicultural texts for students. Several scholars offer specific guidelines on what to look for in texts in order to know whether or not they are multicultural.

Temple et al. (2019) suggested that a book is not multicultural just by counting the diverse faces, but rather by the degree to which cultures and members of those cultures are being portrayed. Thus, they suggest multicultural texts fall along a continuum between *culturally generic books* and *culturally specific books*. Culturally generic books are those that are "generic to any culture" in theme and plot even though they might portray an ethnically diverse character (Temple et al., 2019, p. 92). Culturally specific books are those that accurately depict the nuances of a certain cultural group including language use, attitudes, values, beliefs, daily life, and historical events (Temple et al., 2019). In order to determine which category books may fall into Temple et al. (2019) stated four criteria to look for: 1) cultural authenticity, whether a book accurately represents a culture; 2) whether the author writes from an insider or outsider perspective, meaning does the author write as a member of the cultural group represented in the text?; 3) whether stereotypes are presented of the cultural group(s); and 4) which cultural groups are represented in the text.

Cai (2002) offered three types of classifications of multicultural literature: 1) by content and intended audiences, 2) by cultural specificity, and 3) by geographical and cultural boundaries. These classifications were informed by Sims' (1982) study that examined African American children's literature. When books are classified by their content and intended audiences, they fall into three categories: 1) socially conscious books, which help White students empathize and sympathize and develop social consciousness; 2) melting pot books, which illustrate all of the characters as "culturally homogenous" (Sims, 1982, p. 22); and 3) culturally conscious books, which strive to portray the experiences of a particular cultural group with accuracy. Similar to Temple et al.'s (2019) classification, Cai (2002) also suggested books could be categorized by cultural specificity. However, Cai (2002) posits three categories instead of two: 1) culturally specific books, which accurately represent a particular cultural group in terms like attitudes, religious beliefs, language, familial relationships, values, behaviors, lifestyle, and experiences of racism, discrimination, and oppression; 2) generically American books, which "reflect generic experiences that are shared by all Americans" (p. 24); and 3) culturally neutral books, which feature culturally diverse people but are ultimately about a topic other than culture.

When determining cultural authenticity and authority is too difficult to assess, scholars like Gangi (2008) and Landt (2006) suggested locating multicultural texts by looking up specific cultural awards given to books and by reviewing websites dedicated to particular cultures. Cultural awards given out in literature include the Coretta Scott King Award for African American literature, the Pura Belpré Award for Latinx literature, the Tomás Rivera Award for Mexican American literature, the Sydney Taylor Award for Jewish literature, and the Mildred L. Batchelder Award for literature originally published in a language other than English and then translated into English (Gangi, 2008; Landt, 2006). Websites devoted to specific cultures are also

a place to look for authentic multicultural literature (Landt, 2006). Two examples provided by Landt (2006) are the Asian American Curriculum Project (2018) for Asian Americans resources and Oyate (2020) for Native American resources.

While these scholars provided guidelines to evaluate and locate multicultural texts, tools such as a rubric to help teachers and scholars systematically classify texts are scarce in the literature. Wilfong (2007) designed a multicultural literature rubric to help classify texts. The rubric is based on two main aspects: authority and authenticity. Authority here refers to the author, and authenticity evaluates the accuracy of the text in terms of characterization, citation and acknowledgement, setting, style, and themes (Wilfong, 2007). Wilfong's (2007) rubric is set up, so a teacher, student, or scholar must first read the text and then rate each of the six items on a scale of 1-3 (see Appendix C). Then, the scores are totaled and Wilfong (2007) leaves it up to the scorer to decide how to determine which scores signify strong examples of multicultural texts versus poor examples of multicultural texts. This rubric incorporates the guidelines of classification offered by other scholars (Cai, 2002; Temple et al., 2019; Sims, 1982) with the exception of noting whether or not the book has received a cultural award or was previously identified on a website (Landt, 2006).

### **The Multicultural Teacher**

The inclusion of multicultural literature is not an easy task and requires teachers to have the knowledge of what multicultural literature entails and an understanding of its inclusion in the classroom. This suggests that teachers are expected to have certain characteristics that enable them to effectively teach all students regardless of their classroom type (traditional or a DL). Santamaria (2009) stated that teachers need to not only consider the academic abilities of their students but also their home language(s), ethnic identities, and cultural backgrounds as they all

play a role in student learning. The ability to do this is not something most teachers are naturally able to do. Therefore, scholars have identified certain characteristics that are common among multicultural teachers.

### **Characteristics of Multicultural Teachers**

Individuals drawn to the teaching profession bring their personal experiences with them and possess their own attitudes and efficacy in the classroom. All multicultural teachers are educators, but not all teachers may consider themselves to be multicultural. McGeehan (1982) identified four characteristics of an effective multicultural teacher: knowledge, experience, attitudes, and behavior. Similarly, Bennett et al. (1990) found multicultural teachers possessed specific knowledge, understandings, attitudes, and skills. Here, knowledge means possessing the information about different ethnic groups such as their history, culture, and values (Guyton & Wesche, 2005). Teacher attitude is the “awareness and reduction of one’s own prejudices and misconceptions about race” (Guyton & Wesche, 2005, p. 22). For this study, teacher attitude will also include students’ cultural and linguistic backgrounds (see Appendix B).

These characteristics have the potential to translate into instructional practice. Pennington and Salas (2016) suggested that teachers’ knowledge of language acquisition, instructional methods, and the curriculum are crucial to student success, but are affected by teachers’ attitudes. When teachers plan instruction according to their students’ backgrounds and their personal understanding of culture, race/ethnicity, language, custom, religion, socioeconomic status, citizenship status, and gender they are putting their multicultural characteristics into action. However, Guyton and Wesche (2005) argued that specific knowledge, a personal experience, or an attitude does not necessarily mean a teacher will incorporate them into their instruction. Thus, they included teacher efficacy into their measure of multicultural

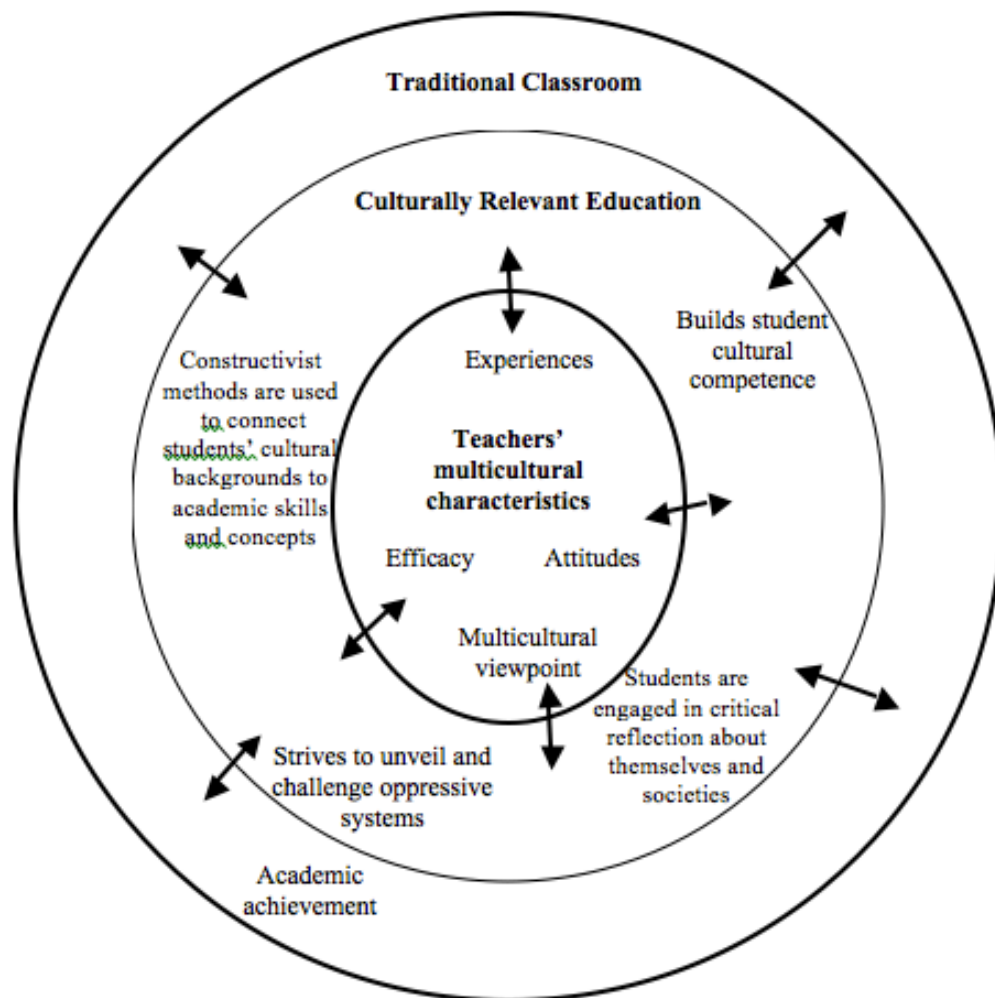
characteristics. Teacher efficacy, or the confidence to provide effective instruction to students, is positively related to teacher's support and concern for students and an accepting classroom climate (Guyton & Wesche, 2005; Nadelson et al., 2012). In this study, teacher efficacy will extend into multicultural classroom settings; thus, the term multicultural teacher efficacy refers to the confidence that teachers have in effectively instructing students in multicultural settings (Guyton & Wesche, 2005).

Guyton and Wesche (2005) also highlighted possible multicultural viewpoints teachers can have of their students. These are classified as viewpoints of tolerance, assimilation, pluralism, multiculturalism, and advocacy. No other studies were found that examined these specific viewpoints as they relate to multicultural teachers. However, Alismail (2016) and Jenks et al. (2001) describe three perspectives of multicultural education: conservative, liberal, and critical. A conservative perspective is one that expects minority groups to "assimilate into the mainstream culture" and members of the mainstream culture neither accept nor appreciate their perspectives (Alismail, 2016, p. 140). A liberal perspective recognizes cultural pluralism, accepts and values difference, and support diversity programs (Alismail, 2016). A critical multicultural perspective challenges conservative and liberal perspectives by emphasizing that teachers should critically examine social inequalities, value multiple identities and perspectives, acknowledge inequalities are the result of power, control, and access, and transform these barriers to equality (Alismail, 2016). Guyton and Wesche (2005) only reported the data they collected about multicultural viewpoints from teachers as percentages, but thinking about those viewpoints in the context of multicultural education perspectives one could classify tolerance and assimilation as conservative perspectives, pluralism and multiculturalism as liberal perspectives, and advocacy as a critical perspective of multicultural education. Therefore, according to Alismail (2016) and

Jenks et al. (2001), teachers wishing to employ Banks and Banks' (2007) transformative or social justice approach to multicultural education should have a critical or advocacy perspective. Figure 2 illustrates the specific characteristics of multicultural teachers and CRE are fluid within a traditional classroom.

**Figure 2**

*A Framework for Understanding How Teachers' Multicultural Characteristics and the Markers of CRE are Applied to the Traditional Classroom*



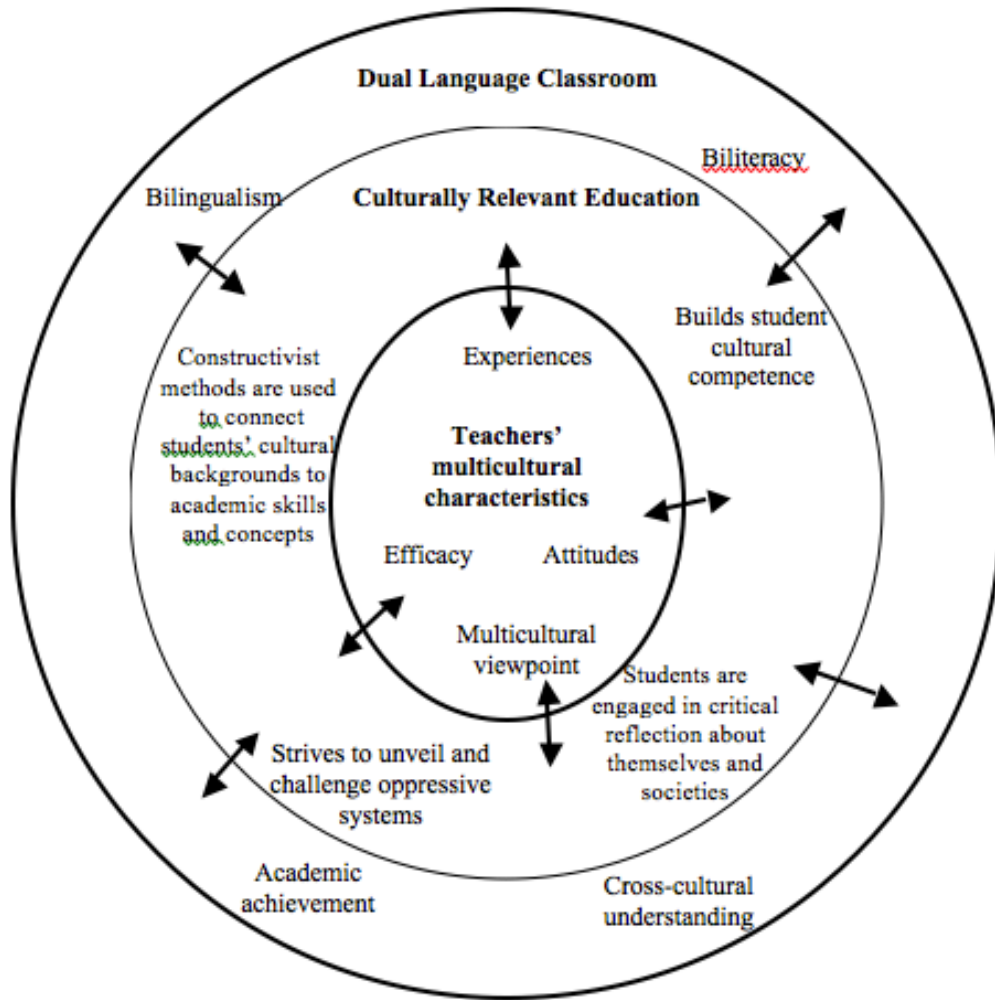
## **Requirements and Characteristics of Dual Language Teachers**

Of course, teachers of DL programs possess their own experiences, attitudes, efficacy, and perspectives in teaching diverse students, but are often required to have certain certification to teach in these positions. Under ESSA (2015), states are required to set parameters for teacher certification, which includes a minimum of a bachelor's degree, state licensure, and demonstrated competence in the subject area of instruction (Boyle et al., 2015). Further, it requires teachers of EL programs funded under Title III to be fluent in English and any other language of instruction. According to Boyle et al. (2015), all states and Washington DC have established requirements for teacher's seeking a certificate in English as a second language (ESL) instruction, but only 25 states and Washington DC offer teaching certification in bilingual education and only seven states require teachers of DL program to have a bilingual certificate. A teaching certificate in ESL and/or bilingual education means teachers have studied specific knowledge related to DLLs and have been trained in instructional methods geared towards DLLs (Boyle et al., 2015). Thus, this suggests that teachers with an ESL or bilingual education certificate may have higher levels of efficacy in teaching diverse students. While experiences, attitudes, efficacy, and multicultural views have been identified as important characteristics among multicultural teachers, no studies have comparatively examined them between traditional teachers and DL teachers (see Figure 3).



**Figure 3**

*A Framework for Understanding How Teachers' Multicultural Characteristics and the Markers of CRE are Applied to the Pillars of Dual Language Classrooms*



### **Assessment of Multicultural Teachers**

In order for teachers to implement CRE effectively, they need a firm understanding of language development and the relationship between culture and language (Zepeda et al., 2011).

Much of the research on the assessment of multicultural characteristics of teachers has focused

on pre-service teachers (Beutel & Tangen, 2018; Cruz & Patterson, 2005; Cushner, 2011; Hernández, 2017; Hogan-Chapman et al., 2017; Landa & Stephens, 2017; Santerini, 2010; Scott & Scott, 2015; Spooner-Lane et al., 2013). This emphasis is not surprising given the high rate of cultural mismatch between students and their teachers, and the argument to develop more culturally responsive teachers (Gay, 2002; Gay & Howard, 2001; Hogan-Chapman et al., 2017; Lucas & Villegas, 2013; Sleeter, 2001; Scott & Scott, 2015; Sleeter & Grant, 1987).

The continuously increasing number of English learners in the United States has added numerous languages and cultures to public schools. Finding teachers who are trained to educate students in DL programs is one of the biggest barriers for school districts, because DL programs need bilingual teachers who understand appropriate instructional methods for emerging bilinguals, incorporate multicultural and global perspectives into their classroom, and are interculturally competent (Gándara & Escamilla, 2017; Kim et al., 2015).

The majority of instruments that measure multicultural teachers were developed using some or all of the previously identified characteristics of multicultural teachers as a framework (Guyton & Wesche, 2005). The Multicultural Efficacy Scale (MES) developed by Guyton and Wesche (2005) is a 35-item measure that assesses teachers' diverse experiences, attitudes about diversity, and their efficacy to teach in diverse settings. Guyton and Wesche (2005) developed the MES because they found no other scale that was designed to measure the four dimensions of multicultural teacher education developed by Bennett et al. (1990). They initially designed the measure to be used for pre-service teachers and argued that teaching efficacy is as an important characteristic of teaching and one that carries over to multicultural settings. Guyton and Wesche (2005) concluded that the MES is a useful tool in predicting teacher effectiveness in multicultural settings, determining an individual's level of multicultural efficacy, and indicating

types of teacher education or professional development needed in the context of diverse classrooms.

The development of the MES has led other scholars to administer this scale to better understand multicultural perceptions of pre-service teachers and education students (Groulx & Silva, 2010; Nadelson et al., 2012) and in-service teachers (Bradshaw et al., 2018; Debnam et al., 2015; Larson et al., 2018). Groulx and Silva (2010) conducted a pre- and post-test survey research design that included 232 undergraduate pre-service teachers. They found pre-service teachers' attitudes and efficacy levels to be relatively high initially, so there was not a significant change on the post-test. Groulx and Silva (2010) also analyzed possible effects on the participants' diverse experience with their teaching efficacy in diverse classrooms and found that participants with a "minimal experience" had significantly lower efficacy in diverse settings than those with "some experience" and those who were "more-experienced." Nadelson et al. (2012) surveyed 88 undergraduate education students using the MES and found students' demographic covariates (gender, ethnicity, SES, second language, etc.) were not predictive of their multicultural attitudes or their efficacy in teaching in multicultural settings. However, they did discover that multicultural teaching efficacy was significantly related to students' diverse experiences.

Three studies have used the MES in combination with another scale to measure in-service teachers' multicultural perspectives. Debnam et al. (2015) investigated the relationship between culturally responsive teaching and student engagement in elementary and middle school classrooms. These scholars collected 142 teacher surveys that combined four scales including the MES and conducted observations of teachers in the classrooms. Debnam et al. (2015) found that teachers tended to self-report higher levels of teaching efficacy and cultural responsiveness than

they observed in their practice. Bradshaw et al. (2018) conducted a randomized controlled trial study examining 158 elementary and middle school teachers who either received coaching as professional development or served as a control comparison. They collected data in the form of office discipline referrals, classroom observations, and teacher self-reported surveys. Bradshaw et al. (2018) constructed the teacher survey, which combined 15 items from the subscale of efficacy from the MES with three other measures along with demographic questions. Surveys were administered in the fall of the school year and again in the spring at the end of the school year. Bradshaw and colleagues (2018) discovered that teachers rated their efficacy higher at the end of the school year and differences between teachers who received coaching and teachers who did not were not significant. Finally, Larson et al. (2018) examined the relationship between student behaviors and teachers' self-reported levels of efficacy through classroom observations and an online survey that encompassed 14 items from the efficacy subscale of the MES along with five other measures and demographic questions. They surveyed 274 elementary and middle school teachers and observed 248 of them in practice. The finding, most closely related to this study, indicated that observational measures were not significantly associated with teaching efficacy. However, Larson et al. (2018) noted that females, on average, reported lower teaching efficacy than males.

These studies revealed that the MES is an adaptable measure that has been administered to pre- and in-service teachers, in pre- and post-test research designs, and to serve as a baseline to understand teachers' experiences with diversity, attitudes of diversity, and efficacy in multicultural settings. Four of the five studies reviewed here collected multiple measures of data (Bradshaw et al., 2018; Debnam et al., 2015; Larson et al., 2018), while two studies administered only the MES (Groulx & Silva, 2010; Nadelson et al., 2012). Guyton and Wesche (2005) argued

that a scale like the MES should not be used as a single measure because multicultural education and teacher efficacy are too complex to be captured in one measure. The studies that included multiple sources of data also included classroom observations. However, none of them focused on multicultural literature.

### **Summary**

This review of the literature on multicultural education, the multicultural teacher, multicultural literacy instruction, and the assessment of multicultural teachers revealed that scholars are indeed searching for ways to support students of color and emergent bilingual students in the classroom by valuing the assets they bring into the classroom and through instruction that reflects their identities. The inclusion of multicultural literature is an example of culturally relevant education that can benefit all students (Aronson & Laughter, 2016; Souto-Manning, 2016; Thein et al., 2007), and it has shown increases in language, knowledge, motivation, engagement, confidence, literacy skills, empathy, tolerance, and the development of multiple perspectives (Al-Hazza, 2010; Callins, 2006; Landt, 2006; Louie, 2005; Louie, 2006; Lowery & Sabis-Burns, 2007; Martens et al., 2015; Short, 2009).

This chapter also highlighted the importance of developing efficacy among teachers in diverse settings in order to effectively teach a diverse population of students. Scholars have administered the MES or parts of the MES to gain insight into pre- and in-service educators' teaching efficacy in multicultural settings (Bradshaw et al., 2018; Debnam et al., 2015; Groulx & Silva, 2010; Larson et al., 2018; Nadelson et al., 2012). However, none of these studies connected this measure to teachers' instructional practice in literacy.

This review of the literature also indicated that the majority of the studies focusing on multicultural literature are qualitative in nature as scholars aim to understand how texts influence

student thinking and development. On the other hand, the studies that included scales to measure teachers' multicultural characteristics are primarily quantitative in nature. Perhaps the varying research methods have caused scholars to avoid combining these areas of research. Thus, little has been written about how multicultural teachers implement literacy instruction, specifically the use of multicultural literature, and how that, in turn, impacts student outcomes.

### Chapter 3: Methodology

This study examined how teachers' multicultural characteristics (childhood experiences with diversity, recent experiences with diversity, attitudes of diversity, and efficacy in teaching diverse students) related to their use of multicultural literature (in this case the books they read *to* students, *with* students, and *assigned for* students) and to classroom level factors and teacher demographic covariates. Classroom level factors include students' EL status, students' race/ethnicity, students' IEP status, students' gender, grade level, class size, and classroom type. Teacher demographic covariates include birth country, first language, number of languages spoken, number of countries traveled to, immersion experiences, number of years taught, education level, race/ethnicity, age, and gender. The research questions guiding this study and hypotheses informed by the literature review in chapter two are as follows.

*Research Question 1:* What is the relationship between teachers' childhood experience with diversity and teachers' demographic covariates (birth country, first language, number of languages spoken, number of countries traveled to, immersion experiences, number of years taught, education level, race/ethnicity, age, and gender)?

*Research Hypothesis 1:* There is a positive relationship between teachers' childhood experience with diversity and teachers' demographic covariates.

*Research Question 2:* What is the relationship between teachers' recent experience with diversity and teachers' demographic covariates?

*Research Hypothesis 2:* There is a positive relationship between teachers' recent experience with diversity and teachers' demographic covariates.

*Research Question 3a:* What is the relationship between teachers' attitudes of diversity and classroom level factors (students' EL status, students' race/ethnicity, students' IEP status, students' gender, grade level, class size, and classroom type)?

*Research Hypothesis 3a:* There is a positive relationship between teachers' attitude of diversity and classroom level factors.

*Research Question 3b:* What is the relationship between teachers' attitude of diversity and teachers' demographic covariates?

*Research Hypothesis 3b:* There is a positive relationship between teachers' attitude of diversity and teachers' demographic covariates.

*Research Question 4a:* What is the relationship between teachers' efficacy with diversity and classroom level factors?

*Research Hypothesis 4a:* There is a positive relationship between teachers' efficacy with diversity and classroom level factors.

*Research Question 4b:* What is the relationship between teachers' efficacy with diversity and teachers' demographic covariates?

*Research Hypothesis 4b:* There is a positive relationship between teachers' efficacy with diversity and teachers' demographic covariates.

*Research Question 5a:* What is the relationship between teachers' use of multicultural literature and classroom level factors?

*Research Hypothesis 5a:* There is a positive relationship between teachers' use of multicultural literature and classroom level factors.

*Research Question 5b:* What is the relationship between teachers' use of multicultural literature and teachers' demographic covariates?



*Research Hypothesis 5b:* There is a positive relationship between teachers' use of multicultural literature and teachers' demographic covariates.

*Research Question 6:* What is the relationship between students' race/ethnicity and the race/ethnic classification of the characters in the multicultural literature reported by teachers and does this relationship differ by classroom type?

*Research Hypothesis 6:* There is a positive relationship between the race/ethnic classification of multicultural literature used in the classroom and students' race/ethnicity and this relationship differs by classroom type.

*Research Question 7:* To what extent are teachers' childhood experience, recent experience, attitude, efficacy, and their use of multicultural literature related and do these relationships differ by classroom type?

*Research Hypothesis 7:* There are positive relationships between teachers' childhood experience, recent experience, attitude, efficacy, and their use of multicultural literature and these relationships differ by classroom type.

This non-experimental quantitative survey study explored teachers' experiences with diversity, attitudes of diversity, perceptions of their ability to teach a diverse population of students, and identified the types of books they use in their classroom instruction. The results of this study have the potential to provide much needed information about the relationships between teachers' experiences, attitudes, and efficacy teaching diverse students and an aspect of their teaching practice. This chapter describes in detail the methods and procedures that were used to carry out this study. This includes detailed descriptions of the study design, population and sample, measures, procedures, data analysis techniques, and limitations.

### **Study Design**

A quantitative survey research design was chosen for this study in order to determine the relationships between teachers' experiences with diversity, attitudes of diversity, efficacy in teaching a diverse population of students, teachers' use of multicultural literature, classroom level factors, and teacher demographic covariates. Much of the literature on teachers' multicultural perceptions and practices is either conceptual in nature, qualitatively researched, or focused on pre-service teachers (Alanís & Rodriguez, 2008; Al-Hazza, 2010; Castro et al., 2011; Fitts, 2009; Groulx & Silva, 2010; Landt, 2005; Louie, 2005; Louie, 2006; Martens et al., 2015; Nadelson et al., 2012; Osorio, 2018; Thein et al., 2007). A quantitative design in this area of research not only provides needed data but also allows for a larger sample size, lending itself to greater generalizability beyond the study participants (McMillan, 2000; Mitchell & Jolley, 2013). More specifically, a survey design was selected as it aims to capture what "people are thinking, feeling, or doing" (Mitchell & Jolley, 2013, p. 276). Mitchell and Jolley (2013) stated that advantages to using an online survey include less social desirability bias, fewer ethical problems, increased anonymity of participants, the potential for a large sample size, and the lack of geographical constraints compared to other data collection methods. Further, this design allowed teacher-level data to be matched with student-level data.

### **Population and Sample**

The population for this study is public elementary school classroom teachers working at schools with a TWI program in the United States. The sample for this study is the elementary classroom teachers at all of the elementary schools in Smith Creek Public Schools<sup>2</sup> (SCPS) and the classroom teachers at Rosewood Elementary School (RES) in Bell Public Schools<sup>3</sup> (BPS),

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<sup>2</sup> The name of this school district has been given a pseudonym for confidentiality purposes.

<sup>3</sup> The name of this school and school district has been given a pseudonym for confidentiality purposes.

both located in the same mid-Atlantic state. SCPS and RES are both a good fit for this study because the student demographics at each indicate that the population is diverse in terms of race/ethnicity and language (see Table 1). According to the state Department of Education's website where SCPS and BPS are located, SCPS has an EL population of 33% and RES has an EL population of 13%, which exceed the state average of 9%. SCPS has a strand TWI program in all but one of its elementary schools making it a focus among district-wide professional development and hiring initiatives. RES is the only elementary school in BPS that has a strand TWI program; thus, it was the only one in its school district to be invited to participate in this study in order to acquire enough DL teachers in comparison to traditional classroom teachers.

An assumption could be made that teachers in these school districts have diverse experiences, attitudes, and experience teaching in multicultural settings. Thus, this makes them an ideal place to learn more about teachers' experiences, attitudes of diversity, efficacy in teaching diverse students, and their literacy instructional practices. The diversity of language and race and ethnicity in SCPS and RES lends itself to the necessity of efficacy and positive attitudes among teachers within this school system, which serve as an optimal setting for this study.

**Table 1***Fall 2019 Student Enrollment in Grades PK-12 in Smith Creek Public Schools and Rosewood**Elementary School Compared to the State by Demographic Categories*

Demographics	SCPS	%	RES	%	State	%
White, not of Hispanic origin	2,178	33	131	18.0	617,310	47.5
Black, not of Hispanic origin	667	10	324	45.6	283,426	22
Hispanic	3,303	50	179	25.0	220,968	17
Asian	186	2.8	13	2.0	93,573	7
Non-Hispanic, two or more races	270	4	63	9.0	77,269	6
Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander	5	<1	<1	<1.0	2,159	<1
American Indian/Alaska Native	2	<1	-	-	3,378	<1
English Learners	2,196	33	95	13	116,454	9
Total # of students	6,613	100	711	100	1,298,083	100

*Note.* The data were retrieved from the state’s Department of Education website. The demographic categories in the table reflect those used by the state; SCPS: Smith Creek Public Schools; RES = Rosewood Elementary School.

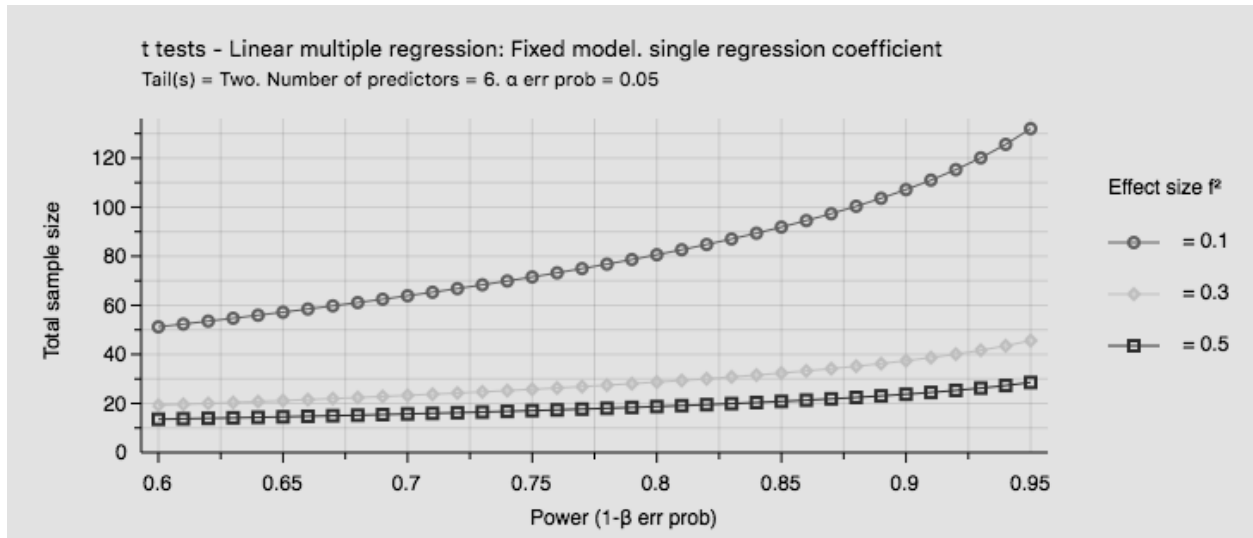
All elementary school classroom teachers in grades K-5 in SCPS and at RES were invited to participate in the study. Asking teachers to participate in a research project places another responsibility on their already heavy workload. This study included a one-time survey and a book log that took approximately 15 to 20 minutes to complete.

### **Power Analysis**

A power analysis was conducted a priori in order to determine the number of participants needed in order to have adequate power to detect a significant effect (Acock, 2016). Using the statistical power analysis program G\*Power (Institute for Digital Research and Education, 2018) and Acock’s (2016) suggestions of an alpha value of .05 and power of .80 with the aim of detecting a small to medium effect size of .3 (Cohen, 1988), it was determined that 29 participants were needed given the planned data analysis procedures (see Figure 4).

**Figure 4**

*Power Analysis Conducted for This Study*



### Participants

Study participants were recruited via email invitation (see Appendix D). Potential teacher participants included all K-5 classroom teachers employed by SCPS and at RES in BPS. Initially, SCPS was the only school district to be invited to participate in this study, but due to low participation at the end of the 2018-2019 school year, teachers at RES were invited to participate in the fall of 2019. The recruitment email described the purpose, study design, human subjects' considerations, compensation information, a link to the study survey, and attachments of the Informed Consent Form (see Appendix E) and the Teacher Book Log (see Appendix F). The online survey began with a check box for all individuals to electronically acknowledge that continuing the survey indicated consent to participate in the research study. Email reminders were sent out to potential participants in accordance with the Institutional Review Board (IRB; see Appendix G). Compensation was given to participants in order to recruit enough teachers.

All participants who completed both the survey and book log received either a \$25 Amazon or Target gift card. Information on teacher participant demographics is displayed in Table 2.

**Table 2**

*Teacher Participant Demographics*

Variable	<i>n</i>	Frequency	Percent	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min.	Max.
School district	35						
Smith Creek Public Schools		29	82.86				
Bell Public Schools		6	17.14				
Gender	35			1.09	0.28		
Female		32	91.43				
Male		3	8.57				
Age	35			1.89	1.02		
21-30		16	45.71				
21-40		11	31.43				
41-50		4	11.43				
51-60		4	11.43				
61 or older		0	0.00				
Racial/ethnic background	35			1.54	1.48		
White		30	85.71				
Latinx or Hispanic		4	11.43				
Other		1	2.86				
Grade level	35			2.40	1.58		
K		4	11.43				
1		7	20.00				
2		8	22.86				
3		9	25.71				
4		1	2.86				
5		6	17.14				
Class size	35			26.86	10.95	13	44
Teaching position	35			0.49	0.51		
Traditional classroom		18	51.43				
Dual language classroom		17	48.57				
Years taught	35			2.14	1.44		
0-5		18	51.43				
6-10		5	14.29				
11-15		5	14.29				
16-20		3	8.57				
21 or more		4	11.43				
First language	35			1.17	0.45		
English		30	85.71				

Variable	<i>n</i>	Frequency	Percent	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min.	Max.
Spanish		4	11.43				
French		1	2.86				
Number of languages spoken	35			1.51	0.56	1	3
1		18	51.43				
2		16	45.71				
3		1	2.86				
Country of birth	35			0.17	0.38		
United States		29	82.86				
Outside of the United States		6	17.14				
Number of countries visited	35			1.89	1.18		
0		2	5.71				
1-5		15	42.86				
6-10		8	22.86				
11-15		5	14.29				
16-20		5	14.29				
Immersion experience	35			1.46	0.61		
At least 1 trip		21	60.00				
None		12	34.29				
Not applicable		2	5.71				
Highest level of education	35			3.43	0.50		
Bachelor's degree		20	57.14				
Master's degree		15	42.86				

The students of each teacher who participated in this study were also recruited. No student interaction occurred, but student demographic covariates were obtained from each school district in order to get a better picture of the teachers' classrooms. Information on student participant demographics is displayed in Table 3. There was a total of 940 student participants from the classrooms of the 35 teacher participants.

**Table 3***Student Participant Demographics*

Variable	<i>n</i>	Frequency	Percent
Gender	940		
Female		476	50.64
Male		464	49.36
English learner classification	940		
Yes		454	48.30
No		486	51.70
Free or reduced lunch status	940		
Yes		517	55.00
No		310	32.98
Not reported		113	12.02
Individualized Education Program	940		
Yes		76	8.09
No		864	91.91
Racial/ethnic background	940		
White		295	31.38
Black		129	13.37
Hispanic		484	51.49
Asian		19	2.02
American Indian or Alaska Native		0	0.00
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander		1	<1.00
Non-Hispanic, two or more races		12	1.28

**Measures**

This study collected four measures of data: 1) the Multicultural Efficacy Scale (MES), 2) teacher demographic covariates, 3) teacher book logs, and 4) student demographic covariates. The existing MES (Guyton & Wesche, 2005) was adapted and combined with additional questions to collect information about the books that teachers have selected for classroom instruction and the teachers' demographics. Student demographic data were obtained directly from each school district.



## The Multicultural Efficacy Scale

Guyton and Wesche's (2005) MES is a 35-item measure designed to capture teachers' experiences with diversity, positive attitudes of diversity, and teaching efficacy in diverse settings. The MES was created in response to the absence of an instrument that measured all of Bennett et al.'s (1990) four dimensions of multicultural teacher education. The four parts of Bennett et al.'s (1990) conceptual model of multicultural teacher education are: knowledge, understanding, attitude, and skill. Guyton and Wesche (2005) argued that other measures have assessed each of the four dimensions of Bennett et al.'s (1990) model, but none encompassed them all. As the scale was developed, the MES was evaluated by more than a dozen experts in the field of multicultural education in the United States. The scale initially contained 160-items and was piloted to 665 undergraduate and graduate teacher education students from various regions across the United States. According to Guyton and Wesche (2005), the norming population used for this scale generally reflected the United States teacher workforce in that participants were 81% female, 19% male; 82.3% Caucasian, 10.5% African American, 2.6% Latino, 1.5% East Asian, and 1.7% Native American. Through an exploratory factor analysis followed by a confirmatory factor analysis, Guyton and Wesche (2005) discarded items and revised items until they finalized the MES.

The final 35-item MES aims to capture teachers' multicultural perspectives through four subscales: 1) their experiences with diversity (7-items), 2) their attitudes about diversity (7-items), 3) their personal teaching efficacy in multicultural settings (20-items), and 4) their viewpoint of multicultural teaching (1-item). Participants are asked about their diversity experiences through statements in which they are asked to respond on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from *never* to *frequently*. An example of one of these statements is, "As a child, I played

with people different from me.” The section on attitudes is also presented as statements for participants to respond on a 4-point Likert ranging from *agree strongly* to *disagree strongly*. An example of one of these statements is, “The classroom library should reflect the racial and cultural differences in the class.” The section of the MES on teaching efficacy again is written as statements for participants to respond on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from *I do not believe I could do this very well* to *I am quite confident that this would be easy for me to do*. An example of an efficacy statement is, “I can adapt instructional methods to meet the needs of learners from diverse groups.” The last item on the MES asks teachers to choose the statement that most closely reflects their teaching beliefs. The choices for this item are the five different viewpoints of multiculturalism that Guyton and Wesche (2005) identified: tolerance, assimilation, pluralism, multiculturalism, and advocacy.

Based on the means and medians for each of the subscales, Guyton and Wesche (2005) concluded that the experience of diversity subscale is not meant for scoring but rather to provide background information that could be salient for comparison purposes. The attitudes subscale measures of central tendencies led Guyton and Wesche (2005) to suggest that a score of 1 or 2 on an item is low, 3 is average, and 4 is high. This assumption led them to suggest that total scores for attitude ranging from 0 to 15 should be considered low, 16 to 24 are average, and 24 to 28 are high. The individual items on the efficacy subscale are calculated the same as on the attitude scale with a score of 1 or 2 being low, 3 is average, and 4 is high. However, since there are more efficacy items, Guyton and Wesche (2005) suggested that total scores ranging from 0 to 54 are low, 55 to 66 are average, and 67 to 80 are high. For the final item on the scale about multicultural views, Guyton and Wesche (2005) stated that everyone’s response should be tallied

together rather than scored individually. This allows a researcher to report the percentages of participants who believe each viewpoint.

The psychometric properties of this instrument were examined as part of Guyton and Wesche's (2005) initial scale development. To measure internal reliability, they computed a Cronbach's alpha of .89 for the 35-item measure. Alphas were also calculated for each subscale: .78 for experiences of diversity, .72 for attitudes about diversity, and .93 for teaching efficacy in multicultural settings. Other scholars have also used the MES in their research and found similar measures of reliability for the composite scale: alphas of .89 (Nadelson et al., 2012) and .87 (Dodici, 2011). This indicates that participants tend to answer the questions in a relatively consistent manner. Specific information on validity analysis of the MES was not available. However, Guyton and Wesche (2005) indicated that the MES should not be the only measure of multicultural education in a study. Thus, book log data was also collected in this study.

One major critique of the MES is that it has too few steps on the Likert scale. Three studies, reviewed in chapter two, altered Guyton and Wesche's 4-point Likert scale on the MES to a 6-point Likert scale to increase variability in responses (Bradshaw et al., 2018; Debnam et al., 2015; Larson et al., 2018). Nadelson et al. (2012) even stated in their limitations that they found the MES limited variability in participant responses. Siwatu and colleagues (2009) critiqued Guyton and Wesche's 4-point Likert scale stating it is not consistent with the literature on the guidelines for self-efficacy scale constructs because it contains few steps and therefore lacks the ability to detect differences between individuals. Thus, the experiences, attitudes, and efficacy sections of the MES have been altered to a 6-point Likert scale to increase sensitivity in responses for this study (see Appendix B).

This scale was also modified to reflect participants' experiences with diversity in the last five years. The section on experiences with diversity in Guyton and Wesche's (2005) scale asks about an individual's childhood. However, individuals who may have grown up with limited experiences with diversity could possibly have had many as an adult. Therefore, the scale includes a section that mirrors five of the items on Guyton and Wesche's (2005) childhood experiences subscale. The statement, "A person from a cultural background different than my own was one of my role models when I was younger" was not translatable to the recent experience scale. Therefore, two additional statements were included that have the potential to reflect an individual's experience with diversity: 1) "I traveled abroad" and 2) "I spoke a language other than English." This subscale asks participants to consider these statements "in the last five years" to account for their adult experiences with diversity. This gave the current measure for this study a total of 43-items. Two open-ended questions were added to the online survey (see Appendix B). However, they were not analyzed in this study.

Finally, the wording on some of the questions on the MES was modified to include linguistic difference as well as cultural difference. For example, question eight on the original scale stated, "Teachers should adapt lesson plans to reflect the different cultures represented in the classroom" (see Appendix A). Now, on the adapted MES scale (see Appendix B) the question reads, "Teachers should adapt lesson plans to reflect the different cultures and languages represented in the classroom." This decision was made because this study takes place in schools with DL classrooms where there is an emphasis on language and culture.

### **Teacher Demographics**

At the end of the survey, participants were asked 13 demographic and personal experience questions related to the research questions. Teacher participants were asked about

their gender, age, race/ethnicity, grade level of instruction, teaching position (DL or traditional classroom), number of years of teaching experience, their first language, the number of languages they speak, which languages they speak, their country of birth, the number of countries they have traveled to outside of the United States, if any of their travel experience was for cultural immersion, and their highest level of education. The two school districts also provided information about the teachers who participated in this study. The school districts provided data on class size and whether the teacher taught in a traditional or DL classroom.

### **Teacher Book Logs**

The second part of the online measure collected a teacher book log. Participants were asked to record 15-20 books they read *to* students, read *with* students, and assigned *for* students to read in their instruction. Participants were given the option to record their books electronically in the online survey link or in a Word document in which they would later upload to the online survey. In both formats, participants were instructed to record the title, author(s), content area of instruction in which the book was used, whether the book was a required reading or the teacher's choice, and a brief rationale for selecting the book if it was a choice.

### **Student Demographics**

Student level data were obtained from each school district. The school districts provided information at the class level for each of the teachers who participated in the study. SPCS provided information on the number of boys and girls in the class, the students' race/ethnicity, the number of students with an EL classification, the number of students who receive free and reduced lunch, the number of students with an Individualized Education Program (IEP), and the number of English speakers and Spanish speakers for students enrolled in a DL classroom. BPS provided the same information with the exception of free and reduced lunch status and with the

addition of students' home language. Since information about students' home language and students who receive free and reduced lunch was not provided for all of the teacher participants, these variables were not examined in the findings.

## **Procedure**

### **Data Collection**

Once the study was approved by the IRB and both school districts, teachers were invited to participate in the study online via email. Teacher surveys and book logs were collected from May through December 2019. If a participant submitted the survey but did not complete the book log, a reminder email was sent out (see Appendix H). The survey collected email addresses, and once participants had completed the online survey and book log, they were sent a \$25 gift card as compensation. The study was closed once the number of participants needed had been reached as indicated in the power analysis. Throughout the seven-month time period, prospective participants viewed the survey 83 times and 72 possible participants started the survey measure. Of those 72 individuals, 39 completed both the survey measure and book log, for a 53% completion rate. However, four participants were dropped because they were not K-5 classroom teachers. One was a reading specialist, one a STEM teacher, and two were English to speakers of other languages teachers. This resulted in 35 completed observations.

Once the survey was closed, data analysis began. The teacher book logs were analyzed and the books were categorized as multicultural or not. That information was added to the survey data. Then, an Excel spreadsheet was sent to the research point person for each school district with the teachers' emails, survey data, and book log data. Each school district added the classroom and student level data, deleted the identifiers, and then returned the spreadsheet. At

that point, all of the data needed had been obtained and statistical analyses were conducted in accordance with the research questions.

### **Data Analysis**

All statistical analyses were conducted in Stata 15.1 statistical software (StataCorp, 2018) unless indicated otherwise. Google Sheets were used for maintaining book log data, which were password protected.

### ***Missing Data***

There was potential for missing data to occur, as participants were not required to answer all of the survey items. Therefore, the data for the 43-item MES were first examined through the summarize function in Stata to get a look at the number of observations. This indicated that most items had 35 observations, one for each participant. Three items were missing an observation for a total of 34 observations. One was an experience item and two were efficacy items. Next, the data were searched in Stata using the misstable function for patterns in missing observations. This concluded that three items had missing observations, but in addition, it revealed that the survey was 94% complete.

In response to the three missing observations, the means of each subscale (childhood experiences, recent experiences, attitudes, and efficacy) were calculated for each observation, which created a new variable. With so few missing observations and the means generated for each subscale, the primary analyses could commence without much concern. The research questions lent themselves to a number of variables that are examined in this study (See Table 4). Two items listed under the variable “attitudes of diversity” were reverse coded prior to analysis.

**Table 4***Study Variables*

Variable Name	Dependent or Independent	Categorical or Continuous
Childhood experiences of diversity	Dependent	Continuous
Recent experiences of diversity	Dependent	Continuous
Attitudes of diversity	Dependent	Continuous
Efficacy in teaching diverse students	Dependent	Continuous
Percentage of multicultural literature use	Dependent	Continuous
Viewpoint of multiculturalism	Dependent	Categorical
Teacher race/ethnicity	Independent	Categorical
Years of teaching experience	Independent	Categorical
Grade level	Independent	Categorical
Classroom type	Independent	Categorical
Teacher gender	Independent	Categorical
Teacher age	Independent	Categorical
Teacher first language	Independent	Categorical
Number of languages spoken by teachers	Independent	Continuous
Teacher country of birth	Independent	Categorical
Number of countries traveled to outside of the United States	Independent	Categorical
Teacher immersion experiences	Independent	Categorical
Teacher highest level of education obtained	Independent	Categorical
Percentage of students' race/ethnicity	Independent	Continuous
Percentage of EL status of students	Independent	Continuous
Percentage of students' gender	Independent	Continuous
Percentage of IEPs of students	Independent	Continuous

***Book Log Analysis***

The book logs were recorded on Word documents and within the online survey. The first step in their analysis was to move the book logs over to a Google Sheet in which each book log



occupied its own sheet. The following columns were created to help with the analysis process: title, author, year of publication, required or not, trade book status, the applicability of Wilfong's (2007) rubric, each of the categories of the rubric (authority, characterization, citations/acknowledgements, setting, style, and theme), and notes.

Using websites dedicated to specific cultures and cultural awards in literature and Wilfong's (2007) multicultural literature rubric (as mentioned in Chapter 2), a determination was made on whether or not each text listed on the book logs was a multicultural text. Books that have been recognized with a cultural award or were listed on culture-specific websites were automatically classified as multicultural literature (e.g., *Dreamers*, written and illustrated by Yuyi Morales [2018], 2019 medal winner of the Pura Belpré Award and *Thank You, Omu!*, written and illustrated by Oge Mora [2018], the 2019 winner of the Coretta Scott King - John Steptoe Award for New Talent).

An attempt was made to evaluate the remaining texts with Wilfong's (2007) multicultural literature rubric. Every text on the book logs was located in public libraries, online, or purchased. The pictures and words of each text were closely examined, and author information was researched in order to complete the items on the rubric. However, it was evident from the beginning that some books did not fit into Wilfong's (2007) rubric because the rubric aims to classify fiction texts. The directions for the book log did not specify which types of books teachers should record; therefore, there were a number of non-fiction texts that could not be adequately assessed with the rubric. The texts that fell into this situation were analyzed on a case-by-case basis. For example, *Ladybugs* by Gail Gibbons (2012) is an informational book about ladybugs. It is an informational text but it is not multicultural because it does not address another culture. However, *Malala Yousafzai: Defender of Education for Girls* by Kelly Spence

(2016) is a biography of Malala Yousafzai and describes her survival of an assassination attempt in Pakistan and her current advocacy work for women and girls. This text did not fit the parameters of Wilfong's (2007) rubric, but it was classified as multicultural since it accurately depicted the story of a girl in Pakistan and aspects of her life and culture.

The texts that were analyzed by Wilfong's (2007) rubric were given a score for each of the six criteria on a scale of 1 to 3; thus, the range of total scores was 6 to 18. Wilfong (2007) purposefully did not suggest cut off numbers to determine whether or not a text is multicultural. No articles were found that stated how previous researchers determined this number; therefore, books were considered multicultural if they received a score of 15 to 18, because this meant that at least half of the criteria were given a score of 3. They were not considered multicultural if they received a score of 6 to 9, because this meant that at least half of the criteria were given a 1. A second coder analyzed texts that received a score of 10 to 14 since they fell in the middle. Having a second coder analyze these texts ensured a more reliable analysis. The second coder was a professor emeritus in the field of children's literature. This individual was sent a list of 44 texts on an Excel spreadsheet, along with a copy of Wilfong's (2007) rubric. After the second coder analyzed the list of texts, the scores were compared to the initial set of scores and discussion about each one occurred until an agreement was reached on multicultural classification. In the end, some were classified as multicultural and some were not. Once the analysis of the texts listed in the book logs was complete, teacher participants were given a percentage score for their use of multicultural literature. This was the number of books classified as multicultural divided by the total number of books on their list. These percentage scores, along with the total number of books reported, and the total number of multicultural books for each teacher were then added to the MES survey data.

Each multicultural text was also classified by the race/ethnicity of its main character(s). Only the main characters of the multicultural texts, as opposed to all of book log texts, were categorized by their race/ethnicity to ensure quality literature with accurate representation and without stereotypes. The race/ethnicity of the characters were counted like the Cooperative Children's Book Center (2019), an organization at the University of Wisconsin-Madison dedicated to identifying excellent literature for children and adolescents, classifies characters. They do not count White characters. They count characters of color and characters from First/Native Nations. They examine the main character(s) of a text and count each race/ethnicity present. This means several races/ethnicities can be counted for one text. For example, if there were two main characters, one Black and one Hispanic, then they would count both races/ethnicities for that text. Also, if a character represents two races/ethnicities, then both of those are counted. For example, if a character was Black and Hispanic, then both races/ethnicities would be counted. In order to compare the race and ethnicities of the characters to students' race and ethnicities, the same classifications were used as the state's student demographic categories. Teacher participants were also given a percentage score for each racial/ethnic classification of characters.

### ***Descriptive Statistics***

The next part of data analysis examined descriptive statistics of teacher participants and their students including measures of central tendency and distribution information about teacher-level and student-level variables. This provided an overview of the participants (see Table 2) and their students (see Table 3).

### ***Correlation Models***

The research questions of this study aim to examine relationships between variables. The research questions that looked at the relationship between continuous variables were analyzed through a correlation model. A correlation was an appropriate analysis for these research questions because it measures the relationship between two continuous variables. A correlation analysis examines the covariance between two continuous variables, which means that if there is a relationship, “then as one variable deviates from its mean, the other variable should deviate from its mean in the same or the directly opposite way” (Field, 2013, p. 264). The relationships between continuous variables were measured using the Pearson correlation coefficient, or  $r$ . A Pearson correlation was run to analyze the relationships between continuous variables. The following is the equation for covariance.

$$Cov(x, y) = \frac{\sum(x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{N-1}$$

The equation for Pearson’s correlation coefficient,  $r$ , is as follows.

$$r = \frac{Cov_{xy}}{s_x s_y}$$

Correlation coefficients indicate three results: 1) whether there is a positive relationship between two variables, 2) a negative relationship between two variables, or 3) no relationship between the two variables (Mitchell & Jolley, 2013). Correlation coefficients fall between -1 and +1. A perfect positive relationship is a coefficient of +1, a perfect negative relationship is a coefficient of -1, and no linear relationship is a coefficient of 0. Correlation coefficients are often used as measures of effect sizes. Generally, coefficients of  $\pm .1$  represent a small effect,  $\pm .3$  represent a medium effect, and  $\pm .5$  represent a large effect (Field, 2013). It is important to note that the presence of a correlation means a relationship exists and does not indicate causation.

Correlation analysis assumes normality and linearity. Normality assumes that the “sampling distribution of what is being tested must be normal” (Field, 2013, p. 168). Viewing histograms of the data tests for this assumption. Linearity assumes that there is a linear relationship between variables and this relationship can be positive or negative. Scatter plots and histograms can test for these assumptions. Correlation analysis also implies that a linear relationship is a cause and effect relationship. However, Mitchell and Jolley (2013) cautioned researchers that significant results in correlation analysis do not signify a cause and effect relationship, but rather that the two variables are related and it is the strength of that relationship that matters the most. Thus, Mitchell and Jolley (2013) suggest not only looking at whether a correlation is different from zero, but also looking at the strength of the relationship.

### ***t-Tests***

This study’s research questions aimed to examine relationships between variables. While correlation models are appropriate to examine the relationships between continuous variables, not all of the variables in this study were continuous (see Table 4 for details). The research questions that looked at the relationship between a continuous variable and a binary variable were analyzed through a *t*-test. A *t*-test was an appropriate analysis for these research questions because it measures the relationship between a continuous variable and a categorical variable with two groups. This study used an independent samples *t*-test to compare the difference between the means of two groups (Field, 2013). For example, the relationship between teacher efficacy and gender contains a continuous variable (efficacy) and a binary categorical variable (gender). The equation for a *t*-test is as follows.

$$t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{\sqrt{\frac{s_p^2}{n_1} + \frac{s_p^2}{n_2}}}$$

The *t*-tests conducted in Stata resulted in a *t*-score, degrees of freedom, a *p*-value, and a mean difference between the two groups. If the *p*-value revealed a significant relationship between the two groups, then an effect size, Cohen's *d*, was calculated to determine the magnitude of the relationship. According to Cohen's (1988) guidelines, an effect size of .10 is considered small, one of .30 is medium, and one of .50 is large.

### ***Analysis of Variance***

Additionally, some of the research questions were analyzed using a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). Not all of the identified categorical variables contained two groups. Some contained three or more groups. Thus, an ANOVA was an appropriate analysis when examining the relationship between a continuous variable and a categorical variable containing more than two groups. For example, the relationship between teacher attitude and grade level contains a continuous variable (attitude) and a categorical variable (grade level) with more than two groups. The formula for ANOVA is as follows.

$$F = \frac{\frac{SS_{between}}{g - 1}}{\frac{SS_{within}}{N - g}}, df_1 = g - 1, df_2 = N - g$$

The ANOVAs conducted in Stata resulted in an F-statistic, a *p*-value, degrees of freedom, means, standard deviations, and frequencies for each group, sums of squares between groups, within groups, and total, and mean scores between groups, within groups, and total. If the *p*-value revealed a significant relationship among the groups, then a post-hoc test was conducted. For this study, Tukey's honestly significant difference test (Tukey's HSD) was used in order to determine where the significance of the relationship was located between group means.

### **Summary**

This chapter began with details of the study's research questions and hypotheses. Then, study design, population, sample, and power analysis were described. Next, information on the teacher and student participants who willingly volunteered for this study was presented.

Following that, the four measures of this study: 1) the MES survey, 2) teacher demographic information, 3) book logs, and 4) student demographic information were explained. This was followed by details of the procedure. This chapter concluded with an explanation of the data analysis process.

## **Chapter 4: Findings**

This chapter reports a summary of the participant demographics, the reliability of the MES measure, a summary of each dependent variable, and the results of the correlation analyses by research question. This chapter concludes with a summary of the results obtained from the MES and book logs before proceeding to the discussion section in Chapter 5.

### **Participant Demographics**

Table 2 in Chapter 3 provides a complete overview of the teacher participants' demographics gathered on the survey in this study. Table 5 presents a summary of this information.



**Table 5***Summary of Teacher Participant Demographics*

Variable	Detail	Percent of Sample
School district	Smith Creek Public Schools	82.86
	Bell Public Schools	17.14
Gender	Female	91.43
	Male	8.57
Age	21-30	45.71
	31-40	31.43
	41-50	11.43
	51-60	11.43
Racial/ethnic background	White	85.71
	Latinx or Hispanic	11.43
	Other	2.86
Grade level	K	11.43
	1	20.00
	2	22.86
	3	25.71
	4	2.86
	5	17.14
Teaching position	Traditional classroom	51.43
	Dual language classroom	48.57
Years taught	0-5	51.43
	6-10	14.29
	11-15	14.29
	16-20	8.57
	21 or more	11.43
First language	English	85.71
	Spanish	11.43
	French	2.86
Number of languages spoken	1	51.43
	2	45.71
	3	2.86
Country of birth	United States	82.86
	Outside of the United States	17.14

Variable	Detail	Percent of Sample
Number of countries visited	0	5.71
	1-5	42.86
	6-10	22.86
	11-15	14.29
	16-20	14.29
Immersion experience	At least 1 trip	60.00
	None	34.29
	Not applicable	5.71
Highest level of education	Bachelor's degree	57.14
	Master's degree	42.86

Table 3 in Chapter 3 provides a complete overview of the student participants' demographics as reported by the school districts in this study. Table 6 displays a summary of this information.

**Table 6**

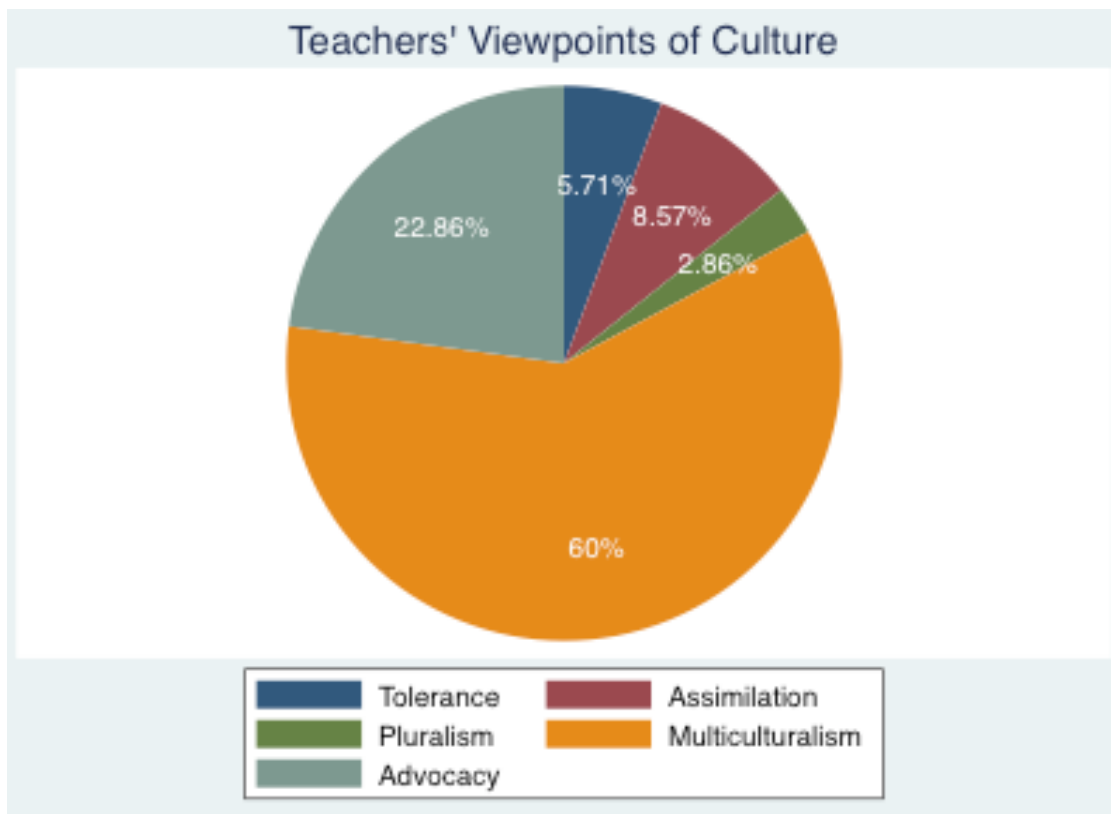
*Summary of Student Participant Demographics*

Variable	Detail	Percent of Sample
Gender	Female	50.64
	Male	49.36
English learner classification	Yes	48.30
	No	51.70
Individualized Education Program	Yes	8.09
	No	91.91
Racial/ethnic background	White	31.38
	Black	13.37
	Hispanic	51.49
	Asian	2.02
	American Indian or Alaska Native	0.00
	Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	<1.00
	Non-Hispanic, two or more races	1.28

There was one question on the MES that asked about teachers' viewpoint of culture. Guyton and Wesche (2005), who developed the MES, stated that the responses to this question should be counted and reported as percentages. Figure 5 shows the percentage of teacher participants' responses to this question ( $M = 3.86$ ,  $SD = 1.06$ ).

**Figure 5**

*Summary of Teachers' Viewpoints of Culture*



### **Reliability of the Measure**

Alpha reliability coefficients were conducted in order to ensure reliability of the overall measure and for the four sub-scales on the MES (childhood experiences of diversity, recent experiences of diversity, attitudes of diversity, and efficacy in teaching diverse students).

Childhood experiences of diversity and recent experiences of diversity had alphas of .91 and .82, respectively. The alpha for the combined experiences subscales was .87. Attitudes of diversity had an alpha of .63 and efficacy in teaching diverse students had an alpha of .95. Overall, the alpha for the 42-item measure was .93. These are comparable to the alpha coefficients Guyton and Wesche (2005) calculated, which were alphas of .78 for experiences, .72 for attitudes, .93 for efficacy, and .89 for the overall 35-item measure. Therefore, this measure continues to provide high reliability.

### **Summary of the Teacher Book Logs**

Each teacher participant submitted a book log that contained 10 to 20 texts that they have used in their instruction. These are texts that teachers read to students, read with students, or assigned to students to read. During analysis, every effort to locate the texts was made including searching public libraries, searching online, and contacting the teacher participant who listed the text. Though all these efforts were made, seven texts were not located and were dropped from the book log data as a result.

There were a total of 568 texts reported by the 35 teacher participants. Of these, 474 were unique titles. Since calculations were considered for each teacher, the total number of texts was kept for analysis. Of the 568 total texts reported, 140 (or 24.65%) were classified as multicultural using Wilfong's (2007) multicultural literature rubric and the help of a second coder. This meant that 428 books (or 75.35%) were not classified as multicultural. Of the 140 multicultural texts, there were 115 unique titles. Appendix I presents a sample of the classified multicultural literature reported by teacher participants. The use of multicultural literature per teacher was calculated as a percentage, as were the scores for the books featuring characters of color and First/Native Nations. Table 7 presents a summary of the book logs. For texts representing more

than one race/ethnicity, each race/ethnicity was counted (see Chapter 3 for information on character analysis).

**Table 7**

*Summary of the Book Logs*

Variable	Obs.	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min.	Max.
Books reported by teacher	35	16.23	2.68	10	20.00
Multicultural books reported by teacher	35	4.00	3.65	0	13.00
Percentage of multicultural book use	35	24.15	21.70	0	81.25
Percentage of multicultural books by character race/ethnicity	35				
Black characters		10.43	13.97	0	56.25
Hispanic characters		10.01	9.90	0	30.00
Asian characters		4.23	5.66	0	20.00
American Indian or Alaska native characters		1.51	3.54	0	13.33
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander characters		0.33	1.39	0	6.67

*Note.* Black characters include African Americans and people from Kenya, Malawi, and South Africa. Hispanic characters include people from Mexico, Peru, Puerto Rico, Costa Rica, and the Dominican Republic. Asian characters include people from Korea, China, Japan, Vietnam, Pakistan, and India. American Indian and Alaska Native characters include people from the Lakota, Algonquin, Taíno, Sac, and Fox Nations. Native Hawaiian and Pacific Islander characters include people from the Spice Islands and Samoa.

The categorizes for the race/ethnicity of the main characters are broad, but are so in this study to examine whether or not they are representative of the students' races/ethnicities. However, it is important to note that within the categories of Black, Hispanic, Asian, American Indian and Alaska Native, and Native Hawaiian and Pacific Islander, there is an extensive number of races/ethnicities represented. While not every text explicitly stated a specific race/ethnicity, many did. The category of Black characters includes people who are African

American and people from Kenya, Malawi, and South Africa. The category of Hispanic characters includes people from Mexico, Peru, Puerto Rico, Costa Rica, and the Dominican Republic. The category of Asian characters includes people from Korea, China, Japan, Vietnam, Pakistan, and India. The category of American Indian and Alaska Native characters includes people from the Lakota, Algonquin, Taíno, Sac, and Fox Nations. The category of Native Hawaiian and Pacific Islander characters includes people from the Spice Islands and Samoa. Finally, there were multicultural texts that featured White characters. The cultures represented in these texts included people from Italy, Greece, Sweden, Russia, Ireland, Norway, and France. These texts were not included in the final count, in accordance with the parameters of the Cooperative Children's Book Center (2019), an organization committed to research and examination of children's and young adult literature housed at the School of Education at the University of Wisconsin-Madison.

### **Survey Results by Research Question**

The descriptive statistics for the teacher demographics covariates, student demographic covariates, and the teacher book logs were previously presented. In this section, results will be presented by research question. There are five dependent variables in this study: 1) childhood experience, 2) recent experience, 3) attitude, 4) efficacy, and 5) multicultural literature use. Since the MES collected data on two sets of experiences, participants' childhood and recent experience with diversity, a bivariate correlation analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between them. Childhood experiences were positively correlated with recent experiences ( $r = .43, p < .01$ ). This finding indicates a moderate relationship and signifies that these two variables should remain distinct from one another. Thus, there were five dependent variables. Table 8.

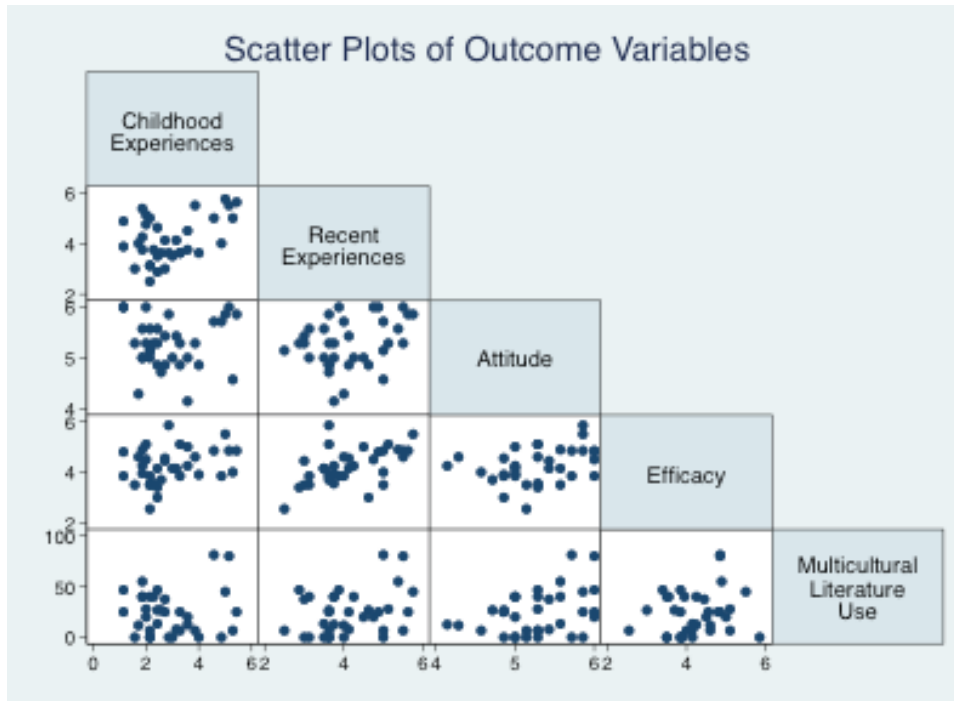
**Table 8***Summary of Dependent Variables*

Variable	Obs.	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min.	Max.
Childhood experience	35	2.92	1.20	1.14	5.43
Recent experience	35	4.14	0.88	2.50	5.75
Attitude	35	5.27	0.49	4.14	6.00
Efficacy	35	4.24	0.71	2.55	5.85
Multicultural literature use	35	24.15	21.7	0	81.25

Each research question examines relationships between variables and was analyzed through correlations, *t*-tests, ANOVAs, or a combination of analyses. The phrase *classroom level factors* refers to students' EL status, students' race/ethnicity, students' gender, students' IEP status, grade level, class size, and classroom type in the research questions. The phrase *teachers' demographic covariates* refers to teachers' country of birth, first language, number of languages spoken, number of countries traveled to, immersion experiences, number of years taught, education level, race/ethnicity, age, and gender in the research questions. Figure 6 shows scatter plots for each of the outcome variables

**Figure 6**

*Scatter Plots of the Outcome Variables*



**Research Question 1: Childhood Experience**

In response to research question 1, descriptive statistics were run on the outcome variable teachers' childhood experience. For reference, research question 1 is listed again below.

*Research Question 1:* What is the relationship between teachers' childhood experience with diversity and teachers' demographic covariates?

To answer this research question, the variable childhood experience was examined. Table 9 shows a summary of the variable.



**Table 9***Summary of Dependent Variable Childhood Experience*

Variable	Observations	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min.	Max.
Childhood experience	35	2.92	1.20	1.14	5.43

The subscale for childhood experience contains seven items on the MES. Table 10 presents the means and standard deviations for the items on this subscale. For complete details on the individual items in this subscale see Appendix B.

**Table 10***Means and Standard Deviations of Childhood Experiences Subscale*

Variable	Obs	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min.	Max.
1. Played with kids of different cultural backgrounds	35	3.14	1.54	1	6
2. School had students of different cultural backgrounds	35	3.14	1.59	1	6
3. Lived in a diverse neighborhood	34	2.62	1.76	1	6
4. Read diverse books	35	2.91	1.22	1	6
5. Had a role model of a different cultural background	35	2.43	1.44	1	6
6. Watched diverse TV shows and movies	35	3.06	1.24	1	6
7. On a team/club with students of diverse backgrounds	35	3.14	1.65	1	6

An independent samples *t*-test was conducted to examine the relationship between teachers' childhood experiences and the binary variables of gender, country of birth, education, and classroom type. On average, teachers born outside of the United States ( $M = 4.43$ ,  $SD = 1.32$ ) reported more childhood experiences of diversity than teachers born in the United States ( $M = 2.61$ ,  $SD = 0.93$ ). This difference,  $t(33) = -4.08$ ,  $p < .05$ ,  $d = 1.6$ , was significant and can be interpreted as a large effect size (Cohen, 1988) since the difference between the two means is

larger than one standard deviation. This suggests that the null hypothesis that teachers' childhood experience of diversity does not differ by country of birth can be rejected with 99.9% confidence. No relationship was found between teachers' childhood experience with diversity and their gender, education, or classroom type.

An ANOVA was conducted to examine the relationship between teachers' childhood experiences with diversity and the categorical variables of first language, number of languages spoken, number of countries traveled to, immersion experiences, number of years taught, race/ethnicity, and age. The results of a one-way ANOVA suggest that there was a significant relationship between teachers' childhood experience of diversity and their first language,  $F(2, 32) = 8.49, p < .01, \eta^2 = .35$ , and between childhood experience of diversity and their race/ethnicity,  $F(2, 32) = 8.49, p < .01, \eta^2 = .35$ . Therefore, the null hypothesis, that teachers' childhood experience of diversity does not differ by first language and race/ethnicity, can be rejected with 99.9% confidence. These findings both have a large effect size according to Cohen's (1988) guidelines, which stated that an effect size of .10 is small, an effect size of .30 is medium, and an effect size of .50 is large.

A post-hoc analysis was conducted to further examine differences between specific first languages and found that teachers whose first language was Spanish had reported about 1.79 more experiences with diversity as a child than teachers whose first language was English (Tukey HSD,  $p < .01$ ). Teachers whose first language was French had reported about 2.65 more experiences with diversity as a child than teachers whose first language was English (Tukey HSD,  $p < .05$ ). The difference between teachers whose first language was French and teachers whose first language was Spanish was not significant ( $p = 0.73$ ).

A post-hoc analysis was conducted to further examine differences between specific race/ethnic groups and found that Latinx/Hispanic teachers had reported about 1.79 more experiences with diversity as a child than White teachers (Tukey HSD,  $p < .01$ ). Post-hoc analysis also revealed that teachers who identified as Other had reported about 2.65 more experiences with diversity as a child than White teachers (Tukey HSD,  $p < .05$ ). The difference between Latinx/Hispanic teachers and teachers who identified as Other was not significant ( $p = 0.73$ ).

No relationship was found between teachers' childhood experience with diversity and their gender, classroom type, the number of languages they speak, the number of countries they have traveled to, their immersion experiences, the number of years taught, or their education level. Therefore, the null hypothesis for these teacher demographic covariates cannot be rejected.

### **Research Question 2: Recent Experience**

In response to research question 2, descriptive statistics were run on the outcome variable teachers' recent experience. For reference, research question 2 is listed again below.

*Research Question 2:* What is the relationship between teachers' recent experience with diversity and teachers' demographic covariates?

To answer this research question, the variable recent experience was examined. Table 11 shows a summary of the variable.

**Table 11**

*Summary of Dependent Variable Recent Experience*

Variable	Observations	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min.	Max.
Recent experience	35	4.14	0.88	2.50	5.75

The subscale for recent experience contains eight items on the MES. Table 12 presents the means and standard deviations for the items on this subscale. For complete details on the individual items in this subscale see Appendix B.

**Table 12**

*Means and Standard Deviations of Recent Experiences Subscale*

Variable	Obs.	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min.	Max.
1. Befriended someone of a different cultural background	35	4.54	0.92	2	6
2. Had colleagues of a different cultural	35	4.66	1.14	2	6
3. Lived in a diverse neighborhood	35	4.17	1.62	1	6
4. Read diverse books	35	4.34	0.97	3	6
5. Watched diverse TV shows and movies	35	4.23	1.19	2	6
6. Socialized with people of different cultural backgrounds	35	4.23	1.14	2	6
7. Traveled abroad	35	3.54	1.62	1	6
8. Spoke another language	35	3.43	1.69	1	6

An independent samples *t*-test was run to examine the relationship between teachers' recent experience and the binary variables of gender, country of birth, education, and classroom type. On average, teachers born outside of the United States ( $M = 5.06$ ,  $SD = 0.62$ ) reported more recent experiences of diversity than teachers born in the United States ( $M = 3.95$ ,  $SD = 0.8$ ). This difference,  $t(33) = -3.18$ ,  $p < .05$ ,  $d = 1.55$ , was significant and can be interpreted as a large effect size (Cohen, 1988) since the difference between the two means is larger than one standard deviation. This suggests that the null hypothesis that teachers' recent experience of diversity does not differ by country of birth can be rejected with 99.9% confidence.

An ANOVA was conducted to examine the relationship between teachers' recent experiences with diversity and the categorical variables of first language, number of languages spoken, number of countries traveled to, immersion experiences, number of years taught,

race/ethnicity, and age. The results of a one-way ANOVA suggest that there was a significant relationship between teachers' recent experience of diversity and their race/ethnicity,  $F(2, 32) = 3.6, p < .05, \eta^2 = 0.18$ . This suggests that the null hypothesis that teachers' recent experience of diversity does not differ by race/ethnicity can be rejected with 99.9% confidence. This is a small effect size according to Cohen's (1988) guidelines. A post-hoc analysis was conducted to further examine differences between specific groups and found that Latinx/Hispanic teachers had reported about 1.07 more recent experiences with diversity than White teachers (Tukey HSD,  $p < .05$ ). The difference between White teachers and teachers who identified as Other was not significant ( $p = 0.45$ ) and neither was the difference between Latinx/Hispanic teachers and teachers who identified as Other was not significant ( $p = 1$ ).

The results of a one-way ANOVA suggest that there was a significant relationship between teachers' recent experience of diversity and their first language,  $F(2, 32) = 3.6, p < .05, \eta^2 = 0.18$ . This suggests that the null hypothesis that teachers' recent experience of diversity does not differ by first language can be rejected with 99.9% confidence. This is a small effect size according to Cohen's (1988) guidelines. A post-hoc analysis was conducted to further examine differences between specific groups, and found that teachers whose first language was Spanish had reported about 1.07 more recent experiences with diversity than teachers whose first language was English (Tukey HSD,  $p < .05$ ). The difference between teachers whose first language was French and teachers whose first language was Spanish was not significant ( $p = 1$ ) and neither was the difference between teachers whose first language was French and teachers whose first language was English ( $p = 0.45$ ).

The results of a one-way ANOVA suggest that there was a significant relationship between teachers' recent experience of diversity and the number of languages they speak,  $F(2,$

32) = 4.23,  $p < .05$ ,  $\eta^2 = 0.21$ . This suggests that the null hypothesis that teachers' recent experience of diversity does not differ by the number of languages teachers speak can be rejected with 99.9% confidence. This is a small effect size according to Cohen's (1988) guidelines. A post-hoc analysis was conducted to further examine differences between specific groups, and found that teachers who spoke two languages had reported about .77 more recent experiences with diversity than teachers who spoke one language (Tukey HSD,  $p < .05$ ). The difference between teachers who spoke three languages and teachers who spoke one language was not significant ( $p = 0.93$ ) and neither was the difference between teachers who spoke three languages and teachers who spoke two languages ( $p = 0.41$ ).

No relationship was found between teachers' recent experience with diversity and the number of countries they have traveled to, their immersion experiences, the number of years taught, their education level, their age, or their gender. Therefore, the null hypothesis for these teacher demographic covariates cannot be rejected.

### **Research Question 3: Attitude**

In response to research questions 3a and 3b, descriptive statistics were run on the outcome variable attitude. For reference, research questions 3a and 3b are listed again below.

*Research Question 3a:* What is the relationship between teachers' attitude of diversity and classroom level factors?

*Research Question 3b:* What is the relationship between teachers' attitude of diversity and teachers' demographic covariates?

To answer these research questions, the variable attitude was examined. Table 13 shows a summary of the variable.

**Table 13***Summary of Dependent Variable Attitude*

Variable	Observations	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min.	Max.
Attitude	35	5.27	0.49	4.14	6.00

The subscale for attitude is comprised of seven items on the MES. Table 14 presents the means and standard deviations for the items on this subscale. For complete details on the individual items in this subscale see Appendix B.

**Table 14***Means and Standard Deviations of Attitude Subscale*

Variable	Obs.	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min.	Max.
1. Lesson plans should reflect students' cultures and languages.	35	5.37	0.65	4	6
2. Students should share cultural differences.	35	5.49	0.66	4	6
3. Discussing ethnic traditions/beliefs leads to disunity.	35	2.00	1.37	1	6
4. Children should have mostly teachers of their own ethnicity.	35	2.17	1.10	1	4
5. Diverse perspectives of American history should be taught.	35	5.46	0.56	4	6
6. Curricula/textbooks should include all cultural groups.	35	5.40	0.60	4	6
7. Classroom libraries should reflect student differences.	35	5.40	0.81	2	6

A bivariate correlation analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between teachers' attitude of diversity and the classroom level factors of students' EL status, students' IEP status, students' gender, students' race/ethnicity, and class size since all of these are continuous variables. Teachers' attitudes of diversity were significantly negatively related to the percentage of Black students in their classroom ( $r = -.34, p < .05$ ). Therefore, the null hypothesis for this classroom level factor can be rejected. No relationships were found between teachers' attitudes of diversity and students' EL status, students' gender, the percentage of White,

Hispanic, Asian, American Indian or Alaskan Native, Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander students, or students of two or more races, students' IEP status, class size, grade level, or classroom type. Therefore, the null hypothesis for these classroom level factors cannot be rejected.

An independent samples *t*-test was run to examine the relationship between teachers' attitude and the binary variables of gender, country of birth, education, and classroom type. No relationships were found between teachers' attitude and their gender, country of birth, education, or classroom type. Therefore, the null hypothesis for these factors cannot be rejected.

An ANOVA was conducted to examine the relationship between teachers' attitude of diversity and the categorical variables of grade level, first language, number of languages spoken, number of countries traveled to, immersion experiences, number of years taught, race/ethnicity, and age. The results of a one-way ANOVA suggest that there was a significant relationship between teachers' attitude of diversity and their immersion experiences,  $F(2, 32) = 4.53, p < .05, \eta^2 = 0.22$ . This suggests that the null hypothesis that teachers' attitude of diversity does not differ by their immersion experiences can be rejected with 99.9% confidence. This is a small effect size according to Cohen's (1988) guidelines. A post-hoc analysis was conducted to further examine differences between specific groups, and found that teachers with whom this question was not applicable because they had not traveled outside of the United States reported about .91 points higher on their attitude of diversity than teachers who had traveled outside of the United States but not for an immersion experience (Tukey HSD,  $p < .05$ ). The difference between teachers with an immersion experience and teachers without an immersion experience was not significant ( $p = 0.1$ ) and neither was the difference between teachers with an immersion experience and teachers with whom this question was not applicable ( $p = 0.21$ ).



No relationships were found between teachers' attitudes of diversity and their first language, the number of languages they speak, the number of countries they have traveled to, their age, the number of years they have taught, and their race/ethnicity. Therefore, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected for these teacher demographic covariates.

#### **Research Question 4: Efficacy**

In response to research questions 4a and 4b, descriptive statistics were run on the outcome variable efficacy. For reference, research questions 4a and 4b are listed again below.

*Research Question 4a:* What is the relationship between teachers' efficacy with diversity and classroom level factors?

*Research Question 4b:* What is the relationship between teachers' efficacy with diversity and teachers' demographic covariates?

To answer these research questions, the variable efficacy was examined. Table 15 shows a summary of the variable.

**Table 15**

*Summary of Dependent Variable Efficacy*

Variable	Observations	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min.	Max.
Efficacy	35	4.24	0.71	2.55	5.85

The subscale efficacy is made up of 20 items on the MES. Table 16 presents the means and standard deviations for the items on this subscale. For complete details on the individual items in this subscale see Appendix B.

**Table 16***Means and Standard Deviations of Efficacy Subscale*

Variable (I can...)	Obs.	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min.	Max.
1. Provide instructional activities to combat racism.	34	4.18	1.19	2	6
2. Adapt instruction to meet the needs of diverse learners.	35	4.97	0.75	4	6
3. Develop materials appropriate for the multicultural classroom.	35	4.51	0.85	2	6
4. Develop lessons that dispel myths about diverse groups.	35	3.97	1.01	2	6
5. Analyze instructional materials for stereotypes and prejudices.	35	4.06	0.94	2	6
6. Help student examine their own prejudices.	35	3.83	1.07	2	6
7. Present diverse groups in a way that will build mutual respect.	34	4.41	0.96	2	6
8. Develop activities to build diverse students' self-confidence.	35	4.83	0.82	3	6
9. Show students how prejudice affects individuals.	35	4.02	0.99	2	6
10. Plan instructional activities to reduce prejudices.	35	3.83	0.99	1	6
11. Identify cultural biases in teaching materials.	35	4.37	0.94	2	6
12. Help with situations caused by stereotypes/prejudices.	35	4.09	1.10	2	6
13. Get diverse groups of students to work together.	35	5.00	0.88	3	6
14. Identify school practices that may harm diverse students.	35	4.43	0.88	2	6
15. Identify solutions to problems as a result of diversity.	35	4.20	1.08	1	6
16. Identify societal forces.	35	3.80	0.93	2	6
17. Identify ways various groups contribute to society.	35	4.11	0.93	2	6
18. Help students take on multiple perspectives.	35	4.03	1.01	2	6
19. Help students view events from different perspectives.	35	4.14	1.09	2	6
20. Involve students in decision making.	35	3.97	1.10	2	6

A bivariate correlation analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between teacher efficacy and the continuous classroom level factors of students' EL status, students' IEP status, students' gender, students' race/ethnicity, and class size. Teachers' efficacy was significantly positively related to the percentage of students with IEPs ( $r = .34, p < .05$ ) and significantly positively related to the percentage of Asian students in the classroom ( $r = .38, p < .05$ ). Therefore, the null hypothesis can be rejected for these classroom level factors. No relationships were found between teacher efficacy and students' EL status, students' gender, the

percentage of White, Black, Hispanic, American Indian/Alaskan Native, and Hawaiian/Pacific Islander students, percentage of students of two or more races, class size, or classroom type.

An independent samples *t*-test was run to examine the relationship between teacher efficacy and the binary variables of gender, country of birth, education, and classroom type. No relationships were found between teacher efficacy and gender, country of birth, education, or classroom type. Therefore, the null hypothesis for these factors cannot be rejected.

An ANOVA was conducted to examine the relationship between teacher efficacy and the categorical variables of grade level, first language, number of languages spoken, number of countries traveled to, immersion experiences, number of years taught, race/ethnicity, and age. The results of a one-way ANOVA suggest that there was a significant relationship between teacher efficacy and immersion experiences,  $F(2, 32) = 3.58, p < .05, \eta^2 = 0.18$ . This suggests that the null hypothesis that teacher efficacy does not differ by their immersion experiences can be rejected with 99.9% confidence. This is a small effect size according to Cohen's (1988) guidelines. A post-hoc analysis was conducted to further examine differences between specific groups, and found that teachers with whom this question was not applicable because they had not traveled outside of the United States reported about 1.34 points higher on their level of efficacy than teachers who had traveled outside of the United States but not for an immersion experience (Tukey HSD,  $p < .05$ ). The difference between teachers with an immersion experience and teachers without an immersion experience was not significant ( $p = 0.55$ ) and neither was the difference between teachers with an immersion experience and teachers with whom this question was not applicable ( $p = 0.08$ ).

The results of a one-way ANOVA also suggest that there was a significant relationship between teacher efficacy and the number of years they have taught,  $F(4, 30) = 3.16, p < .05, \eta^2 =$

0.3. This suggests that the null hypothesis that teacher efficacy does not differ by the number of years taught can be rejected with 99.9% confidence. This is a small to medium effect size according to Cohen's (1988) guidelines. A post-hoc analysis was conducted to further examine differences between specific groups, and found that teachers with 21 or more years of teaching experience reported about 1.08 points higher on their level of efficacy than teachers with zero to five years of teaching experience (Tukey HSD,  $p < .05$ ). The differences between all other groups were not significant.

No relationships were found between teachers' efficacy and their first language, the number of languages they speak, the number of countries they have traveled to, gender, or race/ethnicity. Therefore, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected for these teacher demographic covariates.

#### **Research Question 5: Multicultural Literature Use**

In response to research questions 5a and 5b, descriptive statistics were run on the percentage of teachers' multicultural literature use. For reference, research questions 5a and 5b are listed again below.

*Research Question 5a:* What is the relationship between teachers' use of multicultural literature and classroom level factors?

*Research Question 5b:* What is the relationship between teachers' use of multicultural literature and teachers' demographic covariates?

To answer these research questions, the variable multicultural literature use was examined. This variable shows the percentage of multicultural books that teachers included in their book log. Table 17 displays a summary of the variable.

**Table 17***Summary of Teachers' Use of Multicultural Literature*

Variable	Observations	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min.	Max.
Percentage of multicultural literature use	35	24.15	21.7	0	81.25

A bivariate correlation analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between the continuous variables of teachers' use of multicultural literature and the classroom level factors of students' EL status, students' IEP status, students' gender, students' race/ethnicity, and class size. No relationships were found between teachers' use of multicultural literature and students' EL status, students' gender, students' IEP status, students' race/ethnicity, class size, or classroom type. Therefore, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected for these classroom level factors.

An independent samples *t*-test was run to examine the relationship between teachers' use of multicultural literature and the binary variables of gender, country of birth, education, and classroom type. No relationships were found between teachers' use of multicultural literature and their gender, country of birth, education, and classroom type. Therefore, the null hypothesis for this research question cannot be rejected.

An ANOVA was conducted to examine the relationship between teachers' use of multicultural literature and the categorical variables of grade level, first language, number of languages spoken, number of countries traveled to, immersion experiences, number of years taught, race/ethnicity, and age. The results of a one-way ANOVA suggest that there was a significant relationship between teachers' use of multicultural literature and grade level,  $F(5, 29) = 4.18$   $p < .01$ ,  $\eta^2 = 0.42$ . This suggests that the null hypothesis that between teachers' use of multicultural literature does not differ by grade level can be rejected with 99.9% confidence. This is a large effect size according to Cohen's (1988) guidelines. A post-hoc analysis was

conducted to further examine differences between specific groups, and found that third grade teachers reported using multicultural books at about 28.15 percent higher than second grade teachers (Tukey HSD,  $p < .05$ ). The post-hoc analysis also revealed that fifth grade teachers reported using multicultural books at about 33.45 percent higher than second grade teachers (Tukey HSD,  $p < .05$ ). The differences between all other groups were not significant.

### **Research Question 6: Relationship between Books and Students**

In response to research question 6, descriptive statistics were reviewed for the percentages of reported multicultural with Black characters, Hispanic characters, Asian characters, American Indian or Alaska Native characters, and Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander characters (See Table 7 for more details) and the student demographic covariate of race/ethnicity (See Table 6 for more details). For reference, research question 6 is listed again below.

*Research Question 6:* What is the relationship between students' race/ethnicity and the race/ethnic classification of the characters in the multicultural literature reported by teachers and does this relationship differ by classroom type?

A bivariate correlation analysis was conducted to examine the relationships between the percentages of characters of color in the multicultural literature reported by traditional classroom teachers and DL teachers and their students' race/ethnicity. No relationships were found between the multicultural literature characters' races/ethnicities and students' races/ethnicities. When this question was analyzed by classroom type (traditional classroom versus DL classroom), no relationship was found between the multicultural literature's characters' races/ethnicities and students' races/ethnicities. Therefore, the null hypothesis for these variables cannot be rejected.

### **Research Question 7: Relationships between Dependent Variables**

In response to research question 7, the descriptive statistics were reviewed for all five dependent variables: childhood experiences, recent experiences, attitudes, efficacy, and their use of multicultural literature related. See the findings of research questions one through five for a summary of each of these variables. Research question 7 is listed again below.

*Research Question 7:* To what extent are teachers' childhood experience, recent experience, attitude, efficacy, and their use of multicultural literature related and do these relationships differ by classroom type?

A bivariate correlation analysis was conducted to examine the relationships between teachers' childhood experiences, recent experiences, attitudes, efficacy, and their use of multicultural literature related because all of these variables are continuous (see Table 18 for complete results). Teachers' childhood experience with diversity was significantly positively related to teachers' recent experience with diversity ( $r = .43, p < .01$ ). Teachers' recent experience with diversity was significantly positively related to teachers' efficacy ( $r = .54, p < .001$ ). Teachers' efficacy was significantly positively related to their attitudes of diversity ( $r = .34, p < .05$ ). Teachers' use of multicultural literature was significantly positively related to their attitudes of diversity ( $r = .37, p < .05$ ). Therefore, the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between these variables can be rejected. No relationships were found between teachers' childhood experience and multicultural literature use, efficacy, or attitude. No relationships were found between teachers' recent experience and multicultural literature use or their attitude. No relationship was found between efficacy and multicultural literature use. Therefore, the null hypothesis for these variables cannot be rejected.

**Table 18***Correlation Coefficients of Outcome Variables*

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Childhood experiences	-				
2. Recent Experiences	0.43 <sup>b</sup>	-			
3. Attitude	0.07	0.30	-		
4. Efficacy	0.31	0.54 <sup>c</sup>	0.34 <sup>a</sup>	-	
5. Multicultural Literature Use	0.08	0.32	0.37 <sup>a</sup>	0.18	-

<sup>a</sup> $p < .05$ .<sup>b</sup> $p < .01$ .<sup>c</sup> $p < .001$ 

This research question was then analyzed by classroom type (traditional classroom or a DL classroom). By analyzing the question in this manner, traditional classroom teachers can then be compared to DL classroom teachers. For traditional classroom teachers, efficacy was significantly positively related to their attitude ( $r = .53, p < .05$ ). For DL teachers, childhood experience was significantly positively related to their recent experiences with diversity ( $r = .56, p < .05$ ), recent experience was significantly positively related to their efficacy ( $r = .68, p < .01$ ), and attitude was significantly positively related to their use of multicultural literature ( $r = .48, p < .05$ ). According to Cohen (1988) these are all large effect sizes.

**Summary**

This chapter began with a summary of the descriptive statistics for teacher and student participants in this study. Alpha coefficients were conducted for the measure, the MES, to ensure reliability. An overview of the book log data was also provided. Finally, a summary of the dependent variable and a correlation analysis was provided for each research question. In the following chapter, the findings presented here will be further discussed.



## **Chapter 5: Discussion**

This chapter begins with a brief overview of the study. It then provides an in-depth discussion of the major findings from this study and connects them to the relevant literature previously reviewed. Following the discussion, this chapter elaborates on the implications for teachers, administrators, faculty educators, and researchers. Finally, this chapter presents the limitations of this study, offers recommendations for future research, and provides a conclusion.

### **Overview of Current Study**

This study sought to examine the relationships between teachers' multicultural characteristics and their use of multicultural literature in classroom instruction and classroom level factors and teacher demographic covariates. To do so, 35 teacher participants were recruited from two school districts with a TWI program and asked to complete an online survey and book log. Data were collected from May 2019 through December 2019. Then, a series of correlations, *t*-tests, and ANOVAs were conducted to answer each of the research questions that guided the study. A discussion of each of the findings and its relevance to the literature is provided below.

### **Discussion of Major Findings**

Overall, the teacher participants in this study exhibited high levels of multicultural characteristics (recent experiences,  $M = 4.14$ ; attitude,  $M = 5.28$ ; efficacy,  $M = 4.24$ ). This could have been due to the fact that all of the teacher participants in this study were employed in schools with diverse student populations and a strand TWI program. The experience of teaching at a school with this program has the potential to influence teachers' multicultural characteristics, and teachers with multicultural characteristics perhaps may apply in greater numbers to work in these school districts than teachers without these characteristics. However, it is interesting to

note that while these characteristics were high among teacher participants, their percentage of multicultural literature use ( $M = 24.15$ ) in the classroom instruction was low. This could be due to curriculum and/or school district requirements, lack of knowledge of multicultural texts, limited access to multicultural texts, or a failure of the design of the study to capture teachers' use of multicultural literature.

Similar to Guyton and Wesche's (2005) finding of teachers' conceptualization of culture, the majority of participants (60%) chose the multiculturalism viewpoint. However, the next largest viewpoint was advocacy, which was the smallest group in Guyton and Wesche's (2005) study. Guyton and Wesche (2005) mentioned the importance of multicultural education going beyond tolerance and recognition, which in fact the majority of teacher participants in this study indicated.

### **Experiences with Diversity**

It was not surprising that teachers' childhood experiences with diversity ( $M = 2.92$ ) were less frequent overall than their recent experiences with diversity ( $M = 4.14$ ). In fact, the difference between these means supports the addition of this variable on the MES measure. This points to the fact that teachers, particularly White teachers who grow up in predominately White environments, are able to have meaningful experiences with diversity later on in their adult lives. These diverse experiences then have the potential to influence an individual's multicultural characteristics, their teaching practices, and relationships with students (Bennett et al., 1990; Gay & Howard, 2001; Guyton & Wesche, 2005; McGeehan, 1982). White teachers generally begin their teacher preparation programs with few experiences of diversity and are unfamiliar with working with individuals from cultures other than their own (Sleeter, 2001). Teacher participants in this study were not asked to report whether their recent experiences with diversity were a

result from their teacher preparation programs, their teaching environments, or their personal lives. However, this is one way that teacher preparation programs could better prepare their preservice teachers for working, interacting, and communicating with individuals other than their own by including diverse, cross-cultural experiences, especially if there is a large population of White preservice teachers.

The examination of teachers' childhood experiences revealed three main findings. Teachers born outside of the United States ( $M = 4.43$ ) reported more childhood experiences of diversity than teachers born in the United States ( $M = 2.61$ ). Teachers' whose first language was Spanish ( $M = 4.43$ ) and teachers' whose first language was French ( $M = 5.29$ ) reported more childhood experiences of diversity than teachers whose first language was English ( $M = 2.64$ ). Latinx/Hispanic teachers ( $M = 4.43$ ) and teachers who racially/ethnically identified as Other ( $M = 5.29$ ) reported more childhood experiences of diversity than White teachers ( $M = 2.64$ ).

These findings are not surprising as three of the four teachers who identified as Latinx/Hispanic and the teacher who identified as Other were born outside of the United States, and all four teachers who identified as Latinx/Hispanic and the teacher who identified as Other made up the five teachers whose first language was not English. Individuals who live as an adult in a country different from the one of their childhood most likely have experienced different events, customs, and interactions with others than individuals who reside as an adult in the same country of their childhood. The influence of music, television, movies, and media coming out of the United States dominates world markets (Feigenbaum, 2007). Statements on that particular subscale included components such as watching TV shows and movies about people from different cultural backgrounds, reading books about people of different cultural backgrounds, and having a role model who is from a different cultural background than their own. This could

explain why teachers who were born outside of the United States, whose first language is Spanish or French, and who identified ethnically as Latinx/Hispanic or Other scored higher on the childhood experiences of diversity subscale.

The examination of teachers' recent experiences with diversity revealed four main findings. Teachers born outside of the United States ( $M = 5.06$ ) reported more recent experiences of diversity than teachers born in the United States ( $M = 3.95$ ). Teachers whose first language was Spanish ( $M = 5.06$ ) and teachers whose first language was French ( $M = 5$ ) reported more recent experiences of diversity than teachers whose first language was English ( $M = 3.99$ ). Latinx/Hispanic teachers ( $M = 5.06$ ) and teachers who racially/ethnically identified as Other ( $M = 5$ ) reported more recent experiences of diversity than White teachers ( $M = 3.99$ ). Teachers who spoke two languages ( $M = 4.57$ ) reported more recent experiences with diversity than teachers who spoke one ( $M = 3.8$ ) or three languages ( $M = 3.5$ ).

Again, these findings are not surprising given the overlap of teachers' country of birth, race/ethnicity, and first language as previously explained. Living in a country as an adult that is different from one's childhood has certain implications. It is quite likely given their current environment that these teacher participants recently spoke a language other than English, traveled outside of the United States to visit family and/or friends, lived in a neighborhood and worked with individuals of a different cultural background from their own, and watched TV shows and movies featuring people of different cultural backgrounds.

The additional finding of the number of languages a teacher spoke is interesting because there were 18 teachers who reported only speaking one language, 16 who reported speaking two languages, and one who reported speaking three languages. This provides a concrete example of how an individual can have a diverse experience in their adult life – by learning and speaking

another language. The similar sample sizes of teachers who spoke one language and teachers who spoke two languages is most likely attributed to the fact that 17 of the 35 teacher participants were DL classroom teachers. Even though the DL teachers in this study include the teachers on the English-speaking side and the target language side of the program, it is possible some of them have learned the partner language in order to better help their students and communicate with their families.

### **Attitudes of Diversity**

Attitude in this study refers to teachers' awareness of their own prejudices and misconceptions about their students' cultural, linguistic, and racial/ethnic backgrounds and their ability to review those thoughts (Guyton & Wesche, 2005). A higher the mean on this subscale indicates a more positive attitude of diversity. The examination of teachers' attitude of diversity revealed two significant relationships. One was with the percentage of Black students in the classroom and the other with their immersion experiences. Teachers' attitudes of diversity were significantly related to the percentage of Black students in their classroom ( $r = -.34, p < .05$ ). The negative  $r$  value indicates that as the percentage of Black students in a classroom increased, teachers' reported attitude level decreased. This finding is not necessarily significant in application because teachers do not generally have control over which students are put on their roster each school year. However, this does say that if a teacher were to have a high population of Black students, then the teacher's attitude towards diversity would decrease. This could be problematic for these students who might suffer academically as a result.

The other finding revealed that teachers who had not traveled outside of the United States and therefore an immersion experience question did not apply to them ( $M = 5.93$ ) reported higher levels of attitude than teachers who had experienced at least one immersion experience ( $M =$

5.36) and teachers who had traveled abroad but did not have an immersion experience ( $M = 5.02$ ). These sample means are interesting to consider, but are missing the important note that the sample sizes between the three groups are uneven. This uneven distribution between groups could be the reason that the group means do not support what is indicated in the literature, which is that immersion experiences have positively impacted teachers' attitudes of diversity (FERENCE & BELL, 2004; LUCAS & VILLEGAS, 2013; MEDINA ET AL., 2015; SMOLCIC & KATUNICH, 2017; WIGGINS ET AL., 2007). However, it is noteworthy to mention that out of the teachers who traveled abroad, those who participated in an immersion experience reported higher levels of attitude than those who did not. This supports the idea that immersion experiences have the potential to impact teachers' attitudes of diversity (FERENCE & BELL, 2004; LUCAS & VILLEGAS, 2013; MEDINA ET AL., 2015; SMOLCIC & KATUNICH, 2017; WIGGINS ET AL., 2007).

### **Efficacy Teaching Diverse Students**

In this study, efficacy is defined as a teacher's belief that s/he can have a positive impact on culturally and linguistically diverse students' learning (Nadelson et al., 2012). The examination of teachers' efficacy teaching culturally and linguistically diverse students revealed significant relationships with immersion experiences and the number of years they have taught. Teachers' efficacy was significantly related to immersion experiences. Teachers who had not traveled outside of the United States and therefore an immersion experience question did not apply to them ( $M = 5.35$ ) reported higher levels of efficacy than teachers who had experienced at least one immersion experience ( $M = 4.26$ ) and teachers who had traveled abroad but did not have an immersion experience ( $M = 4.01$ ). Though these findings are inconsistent with the literature, which indicates that immersion experiences impact teachers' efficacy (Cushner, 2007; Medina et al., 2015). Here again, it is important to point out that the sample sizes between the

three groups are uneven, which likely impacted this finding. Also noteworthy is that out of the teachers who traveled abroad, those who participated in an immersion experience reported higher levels of efficacy than those who did not. This supports the idea that immersion experiences have the potential to impact teachers' efficacy in teaching diverse student populations (Cushner, 2007; Medina et al., 2015).

Teachers' efficacy was also significantly related to the number of years they have taught. Most notably, teachers with 21 or more years of classroom experience ( $M = 5.03$ ) reported higher levels of efficacy than teachers who had taught 0-5 years ( $M = 3.94$ ). Klassen and Chiu (2010) stated that self-efficacy fluctuates throughout an individual's careers as influenced by life and job events and challenges. Though, the findings here indicate that the teachers who have taught longer reported higher levels of efficacy in their teaching practice. This could be because efficacy was defined in terms of being able to teach in diverse environments, which may take more time for teachers, especially White female teachers to feel capable of doing so.

### **Multicultural Literature Use**

One of the goals of this study was to examine whether teachers' use of multicultural literature was related to classroom level factors and their own demographic covariates. Findings revealed only one significant relationship, which was between teachers' use of multicultural literature and the grade level that they taught. Overall, teachers in the upper elementary school grades of third ( $M = 37.13$ ), fourth ( $M = 27.78$ ), and fifth ( $M = 42.43$ ) reported higher percentages of multicultural literature than teachers in the primary grades of kindergarten ( $M = 7.92$ ), first ( $M = 17.87$ ), and second ( $M = 8.98$ ). This finding is interesting and one explanation is to consider literacy instruction in the primary and upper elementary school grades. The primary grades tend to teach reading through adopted reading programs that focus on decoding, isolated

comprehension skills, a weekly theme, and increasing reading stamina (López-Robertson, 2017; Toppel, 2015). This could result in little flexibility of including multicultural and/or culturally relevant texts. Whereas the upper elementary school grades are not as likely to have such structured reading programs and have more flexibility in the texts that they choose for classroom instruction.

Another interesting finding to point out about the use of multicultural literature in the classroom is that it was not a frequently used instructional strategy. This study did not specifically ask teachers to report multicultural texts in order to gain a true snapshot of teachers' instructional texts. The percentage of multicultural texts used in first grade classrooms was less than 20 percent and in kindergarten and second grade classrooms it was less than 10 percent. The percentage of multicultural texts used across all grade levels was less than 50 percent in each grade. Out of the 35 teacher participants, seven reported zero percent of their texts as multicultural, while another eight reported less than 12 percent of their texts to be multicultural. Only three of the 35 teachers reported more than 50 percent of their texts as multicultural. Furthermore, this study was not able to assess the impact of multicultural literature on student literacy achievement. However, multicultural education and the inclusion of multicultural literature in content materials has been shown to increase student achievement outcomes, engagement and motivation in reading, and identity development (Al-Hazza, 2010; Callins, 2006; Landt, 2006; Short, 2009; Zirkel, 2008).

Though the research questions related to multicultural literature revealed only one significant finding, it is important to note here what was not significant. Teachers' use of multicultural literature was not significant to students' races/ethnicities nor were the races/ethnicities of the characters in the literature that teachers used significantly related to



students' races/ethnicities. The research literature emphasizes that students should be reading diverse books in the classroom and giving students "mirror books" increases their motivation and engagement in reading (Al-Hazza, 2010; Bishop, 1990; Bomer, 2017; Callins, 2006; Fleming et al., 2015; Hadaway & Young, 2010; Massaro, 2019). The fact that ELs are achieving at lower rates on literacy tests than native English-speaking students (NAEP, 2018) signifies that teachers should be doing everything they can in their power to build their reading skills and their motivation to read. This includes incorporating mirror books for students and a variety of diverse books.

### **Relationships between Dependent Variables**

Research question seven examined the relationships between the five dependent variables and revealed four significant relationships:

- 1) Teachers' childhood experience with diversity was significantly positively related to teachers' recent experience with diversity ( $r = .43, p < .01$ ).
- 2) Teachers' recent experience with diversity was significantly positively related to teachers' efficacy ( $r = .54, p < .001$ ).
- 3) Teachers' efficacy was significantly positively related to their attitude of diversity ( $r = .34, p < .05$ ).
- 4) Teachers' use of multicultural literature was significantly positively related to their attitude of diversity ( $r = .37, p < .05$ ).

As previously discussed, it was no surprise that teachers' childhood experience with diversity was related to their recent experience with diversity given that these two subscales were similar in their statements. What is more interesting is the fact that even though teachers may have had limited experiences with diversity as children, their recent adult experiences revealed

positive significant relationship with their teaching efficacy while their childhood experiences revealed no relationship with efficacy. Since efficacy is defined as a teacher's confidence that s/he can teach diverse students effectively (Guyton & Wesche, 2005), this particular finding suggests the possibility that teachers' efficacy has the potential to increase with the more diverse experiences they have in adulthood. Though it is important to note that this is not a causal relationship. This positive relationship supports teacher preparation program initiatives focusing on the inclusion of diverse experiences for preservice teachers (Sleeter, 2001), especially for White, English-speaking preservice teachers who more likely have fewer experiences with diversity.

Teachers' efficacy in teaching diverse students was also significantly positively related to their attitude of diversity. This means as teachers' efficacy increased, so did their attitude. This finding suggests the possibility that the more confident a teacher is in working in a diverse environment, their attitudes about diverse students also increase. However, this relationship does imply causation. Though, this would make sense because as Sandell and Tupy (2015) indicated, the more experiences one has with individuals from other cultural groups other than their own, the more his/her cultural competency and attitude changes. This finding is also related to the finding that efficacy develops over time. The number of years teaching experience one has was positively related to their efficacy. However, attrition rates among teachers are high across the United States and a revolving door of teachers has been associated with low student achievement (Zhang & Zeller, 2016). Effective teachers with high levels of self-reported efficacy and positive attitudes would be a benefit for schools and students. Therefore, school districts may want to consider focusing their efforts on teacher retention, increasing teachers' awareness and

knowledge of diverse student populations, and building their confidence in their own teaching practice.

The last finding among the dependent variables revealed that teachers' use of multicultural literature was significantly positively related to their attitude of diversity. This suggests that as teachers use more multicultural literature, their attitude of diversity also increases. Perhaps teachers are selecting more multicultural texts because they have more positive attitudes of diversity. Attitudes are positively defined in this study as a teacher's awareness of students' racial/ethnic, cultural, and linguistic backgrounds (Guyton & Wesche, 2005). While attitudes are in the same realm as an individual's beliefs, which seem difficult to change, defined in this way as an awareness indicates that they can change. This is paramount because teachers with little awareness of diverse students' backgrounds can learn through experience, new knowledge, and critical reflection (Miller Dyce & Owusu-Ansah, 2016). Gay and Howard (2001) argued that multicultural education, which includes the use of multicultural literature in classroom instruction, is one way to assuage the effects of the cultural mismatch between teachers and students. Thus, incorporating multicultural education and understanding diverse student populations has the potential to greatly benefit student achievement and the relationships between students and their teacher.

### **Traditional Versus Dual Language Teachers**

A primary focus of this study was to compare the multicultural characteristics of experience, attitude, and efficacy and the instructional practice of multicultural literature use between traditional and DL classroom teachers. No studies were found in the research literature that comparatively examined the characteristics between traditional teachers and DL teachers.

When the five dependent variables were analyzed by classroom type, four significant relationships were identified.

1. DL teachers' childhood experience was significantly positively related to their recent experiences with diversity ( $r = .56, p < .05$ ).
2. DL teachers' recent experience was significantly positively related to their efficacy ( $r = .68, p < .01$ ).
3. DL teachers' attitude was significantly positively related to their use of multicultural literature ( $r = .48, p < .05$ ).
4. Traditional classroom teachers' efficacy was significantly positively related to their attitude ( $r = .53, p < .05$ ).

These findings reveal the same relationships as discussed in the previous section but now show the possibility of a moderating variable – classroom type. However, no moderator analysis was conducted, so this cannot be confirmed. As such, this does present statistical evidence for differences in multicultural characteristics and literature use between traditional and DL teachers. It is not surprising that DL teachers' childhood and recent experiences with diversity are related for reasons previously mentioned; the subscales contained similar statements and the two variables were largely correlated. The relationships between DL teachers' recent experience and efficacy and the relationship, between DL teachers' attitude and multicultural literature use, and traditional classroom teachers' efficacy and attitude when viewed through the lens of classroom type signify that while these important relationships exist among all teachers, classroom type is acting as a possible moderator.

This study hypothesized that these relationships would be larger for DL teachers because of the diverse population of students in DL programs and the emphasis and goals of DL

programs. However, the teacher participants working in traditional classrooms in this study were employed at schools with a significant population of culturally and linguistically diverse students and could have been impacted by their students or mediated by their interest in working in diverse schools (see Table 1 in Chapter 3). Therefore, this finding is interesting when considering what might impact DL teachers to exhibit these significant relationships.

### **Classifying Texts**

Though the students in this study were not statistically significantly represented in the texts by their race/ethnicity, much can be learned from the reported texts on the book logs. The book log rubric developed by Wilfong (2007) provided a way to classify fiction texts. However, this study discovered a need to classify non-fiction texts as multicultural. No existing rubric to classify informational texts was located in the literature. Therefore, Wilfong's (2007) rubric was modified to include components to assess informational texts (see Appendix K). This updated rubric changed the wording of Wilfong's (2007) rubric from *books* to *texts* to be more inclusive for what can be analyzed using the rubric. Part one of the rubric, authority, remains the same, but it now provides two sections for part two, cultural authenticity. Section A on part two is identical to Wilfong's (2007) section on cultural authenticity and should be used for classifying fiction texts. It contains five items. Section B on part two address non-fiction text components and contains five items. This updated rubric provides educators and researchers a systematic way to classify fiction and non-fiction texts as multicultural.

Wilfong (2007) purposefully did not report cutoff scores for multicultural determination. However, there should be consistency among researchers using this rubric. The systematic cutoff scores reported in this study should be considered by future researchers. Scores ranging from 6-9 were not classified as multicultural literature, scores ranging from 15-18 were considered

multicultural literature, and a second coder analyzed scores ranging from 10-14. This method made the classification of the texts more reliable and should be considered by educators and researchers in the future. For individuals wishing to consider whether or not texts are culturally relevant to a student, a different approach must be taken in classifying texts. The markers of culturally relevant education (as described in chapter two; Aronson & Laughter, 2016) provide a foundation for what to consider when determining whether or not a text is culturally relevant to a student. In order to determine cultural relevancy of a text, one must determine whether or not the text is representative of the student's cultural background (Sharma & Christ, 2017). This study did not include this measure, but future researchers may benefit from a literature classification rubric based on culturally relevant education (see Appendix L).

### **Limitations**

This study has several limitations to consider. First of all, this is the first step in research and additional data is needed to provide a better picture of the types of texts used in classroom instruction and how the texts impact student learning outcomes. The teachers who participated were not a random sample but those who self-selected to participate in the study. Therefore, this may not be an accurate representation of the sample population but instead represent those who may be more interested in multicultural education. Survey research relies on self-reported measures and depending on where participants took the survey, there may be aspects of social desirability if they took it alongside others or even alone. Since the questions were not required, participants may not have selected an answer for every item. This study also asked participants to record a list of 10-20 books that they have used in classroom instruction along with related questions to each text. This is also a self-reported measure and depending on where and when participants filled this out, they may have included texts that have not been taught yet or the texts

they chose to include may not have provided an accurate snapshot of their instructional materials.

There are limitations within the data itself. Originally, literacy scores were to be collected for all students at the beginning of the school year and again at the end in hopes of analyzing the impacts on student literacy achievement. However, end of year literacy assessments were not given due to the closure of schools because of COVID-19 and therefore that data does not exist. This study was the first step in the research of instructional texts and teachers' characteristics and additional data is needed to draw more definite conclusions.

The information received from the two school districts was not identical and limited analysis possibilities. One school district provided data on the number of students in each teacher's class that qualified for free or reduced lunch and the other did not. One school district provided information on students' home language but the other did not. Also, three sets of teachers in the data were DL partner teachers, meaning they shared the same students and one taught English and one taught Spanish. These sets of teachers had the same classroom level data (students' EL status, students' race/ethnicity, students' gender, students' IEP status, grade level, class size, and classroom type), which may have had unintentional effects on analysis.

Another limitation to consider is that this dataset contains participants from two school districts during two different school years. Due to the timing of this study and a relatively small sample size, it took time to gain the number of participants needed as indicated in the power analysis. It is possible that instructional texts required by each school district changed from one school year to the next. This could have influenced the book logs, which were collected during two academic years, if schools changed required readings and teachers listed those as opposed to texts they would have selected on their own. It is also possible that the timing of the survey (the

end of the school year versus the beginning of the school year) influenced responses as teachers' mindsets and instruction vary over the school year. Additionally, the book log only asked a certain number of books and not weeks or a month's worth of books. Finally, all teacher participants received a \$25 gift card for participating in the study. Therefore, a possible limitation is that teachers chose to complete the survey for the monetary incentive and did not take their time to respond to the survey items. These could all have had unintentional effects on the outcome of the study.

### **Implications for Research and Practice**

Considering the findings generated from this study, there are several implications for future research and practice. This section first discusses ideas for future researchers who are interested in this field of study. Following this are implications for practice. These are ideas for teachers, teacher educators, and administrators to consider based on this study.

### **Directions for Future Research**

Future researchers wanting to gain more insight into the instructional texts used in classrooms may want to be more specific about the books being reported by teachers. This study asked teachers to list books used in classroom instruction, which resulted in a wide variety of fiction and informational texts. Asking teachers specifically to list multicultural texts used in instruction would gain more information about their knowledge of multicultural texts and a better idea of whether or not those texts are representative of their students' racial/ethnic identities. Qualitative studies are needed to ask teachers to explain their reasoning for their choice of texts. This could provide even more insight into their instructional practices.

This study originally planned to collect student literacy scores at the beginning and the end of the school year. However, that was not feasible due to COVID-19. Low literacy scores



among ELs is still a major issue, so future studies could consider the impact of multicultural literature and/or racially/ethnically representative literature on student literacy achievement. A broader focus on students of color is worth pursuing as well. This study focused on ELs, but educational researchers have documented that students of color, particularly Black students, also achieve lower literacy scores than their White peers (NAEP, 2018). Therefore, investigating the instructional texts used by teachers and interviewing the students in the classroom to gain insight into whether or not the texts are culturally relevant and then comparing that information to their literacy scores is another step forward in this line of research.

All of the teacher participants recruited for this study were from schools with a strand TWI program and findings revealed no significant relationships between traditional teachers and DL teachers. In order to gain more variability between traditional classroom teachers and DL teachers, future researchers could recruit traditional classroom teachers from schools without a TWI program and compare them to DL teachers. This study examined 35 teacher participants and their students, a larger sample size in the future could also provide more concrete evidence.

This study examined teachers' use of multicultural literature in the classroom. However, future research could investigate culturally relevant literature used in the classroom by having students complete a questionnaire or interviewing them in order to gain insight into whether or not each text relates to their personal lives. See Paulson and Freeman's (2003) work and Appendix L for sample rubrics on classifying culturally relevant literature for students.

### **Implications for Practice**

There are several implications for teachers, administrators, teacher educators, and teacher preparation programs as a result of this study. Preservice teachers considering a career in public schools should consider what they know about culturally and linguistically diverse students and

their personal experiences with these populations. If their knowledge and number of experiences are limited, then they should aim to expand their knowledge and experience. For example, preservice teachers could take courses focused on the topics of culturally and linguistically diverse students, multicultural education, and culturally relevant pedagogy or request field placements and student teaching placements in schools with diverse student populations. They could also seek volunteer opportunities with minority populations, enroll in world language courses, read books by authors of different backgrounds other than their own, and study abroad if their finances permitted them to do so.

Inservice teachers wanting to expand their classroom libraries or the texts used in their instruction to represent the cultures and races/ethnicities of the students in their classroom could use the updated multicultural literature rubric for fiction texts (see Appendix J), the multicultural literature rubric for informational texts (see Appendix K), or the culturally relevant literature rubric (see Appendix L) to analyze their texts and see if they are authentic and accurately represent the group or groups of people within them. For teachers seeking quality diverse literature to include in their instruction, online websites like We Need Diverse Books (2020), websites dedicated to providing resources focused on specific cultural groups like Asian Americans (Asian American Curriculum Project, 2018) and Native Americans (Oyate, 2020), and the list of winners of the Coretta Scott King Award, the Pura Belpré Award, the Tomás Rivera Award, the Sydney Taylor Award, and the Mildred L. Batchelder Award (Landt, 2006) can provide them with resources as needed. Inservice teachers wanting to learn more about a specific topic, such as culturally relevant pedagogy or best practices for teaching ELs could enroll in a course, do their own research online, or locate professional development opportunities focused on the topic.

School administrators can provide and support teachers with professional development in the areas of culturally relevant education, literacy practices for culturally and linguistically diverse students, and best teaching practices for English learners. They can also support their school library by designating funds to purchase multicultural literature and literature that represents the student body culturally and racially/ethnically. Administrators in central office who help make curriculum decisions should take the time to make sure textbooks, reading lists, and curricula include diverse groups of people. Students need to see themselves culturally, racially, and ethnically represented in mirror texts as well as be exposed to cultures different from their own through window and sliding glass door texts (Bishop, 1990; Egalite et al., 2015; Fleming et al., 2015; Hadaway & Young, 2010; Silverman et al., 2016).

Generally, teacher educators and teacher preparation programs are aware of the dominance of White females in the teaching profession and the need to prepare them for teaching culturally and linguistically diverse students. Teacher educators should consider providing carefully structured diverse experiences inside and outside of the classroom and give preservice teachers a safe environment to discuss their thoughts, deconstruct internalized assumptions and biases, and reflect upon these experiences. Teacher preparation programs should consider building in required courses on teaching English learners, culturally relevant pedagogy, and teaching minority populations to their curriculum if they have not done so already. Some programs have been uniquely designed to be a residency program in which preservice teachers are trained to teach in urban schools with minority majority student populations (Guha et al., 2017). However, these are not part of every teacher preparation program. They should also require preservice teachers to complete at least one field placement or a student teaching placement in an urban, Title I, or high English learner population school in order to prepare

preservice teachers for the realities of a public-school classroom and the disproportionate literacy scores among students by race/ethnicity.

### **Conclusion**

This study aimed to investigate the numerous relationships between teachers' multicultural characteristics, their use of multicultural literature in classroom instruction, classroom level factors, and teacher demographic covariates. In the year and a half it took to complete this study, there were numerous setbacks ranging from IRB issues, timing of data collection, recruitment of participants, limitations of the data, and COVID-19 affecting the available student-level data. While the results of this study did not reveal what was originally hypothesized, important information and lessons were learned.

The findings of this study reveal the significant relationships between childhood and recent experiences of diversity and country of birth and languages spoken, teachers' efficacy and the number of years taught, multicultural literature use in the upper elementary grade levels, teachers' recent experience with diversity and teachers' efficacy, teachers' efficacy and their attitude of diversity, and teachers' use of multicultural literature and their attitude of diversity. These findings provide implications for future research regarding instructional texts used in the classroom and practice at the school, administrative, and higher education levels. The implications have the potential to help increase literacy achievement among ELs and students of color. Teachers of all grades, working in an online or in-person classroom environment should take careful consideration in their instruction, and one way to do that is to match books with readers (Hadaway & Young, 2010).

Finally, it would be remiss to conclude this study without mentioning the social context in which this dissertation was completed. The momentous events of 2020, which include the

COVID-19 pandemic and the protests across the United States following the death of George Floyd against systemic racism and police brutality have without a doubt impacted the discussion section of this paper, particularly the implications for practice and suggestions for future research. Regardless of how K12 schools will operate in the future, the implications of the 2020 protests across the United States will most certainly impact classroom instruction, teachers' relationships with students of color, and increase the pressure to expose preservice teachers to more diverse experiences prior to entering the classroom.

One of the main lessons learned at the completion of this study is that there is still so much unknown to explore. Studying culturally relevant education and its potential benefits can only go so far. Preservice and inservice teachers, administrators, teacher educators, and teacher preparation programs need to go beyond merely studying about concepts to continue learning about the students in our classroom, building meaningful relationships with them, letting them teach us as we teach them, and supporting their learning from a place of care, respect, and value.

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## Appendix A

### Multicultural Efficacy Scale (Guyton & Wesche, 2005)

#### Section A

**Definition:** The authors intend the terms “diversity” and “people different from me” to include people of different races, ethnic groups, cultures, religions, socio-economic classes, sexual orientations, and physical abilities.

**Directions:** Please choose the word that best describes your experience with people different from you.

- 1) As a child, I played with people different from me.  
A) never B) rarely C) occasionally D) frequently
- 2) I went to school with diverse students as a teenager.  
A) never B) rarely C) occasionally D) frequently
- 3) Diverse people lived in my neighborhood when I was a child growing up.  
A) never B) rarely C) occasionally D) frequently
- 4) In the past I chose to read books about people different from me.  
A) never B) rarely C) occasionally D) frequently
- 5) A diverse person was one of my role models when I was younger.  
A) never B) rarely C) occasionally D) frequently
- 6) In the past I chose to watch TV shows and movies about people different from me.  
A) never B) rarely C) occasionally D) frequently
- 7) As a teenager, I was on the same team and/or club with diverse students.  
A) never B) rarely C) occasionally D) frequently

#### Section B

**Directions:** Respond to each statement by choosing one answer that best describes your reaction to it. Since we are simply trying to get an accurate sense of your opinions on these matters, there are no right or wrong answers.

#### Key:

- A) agree strongly B) agree somewhat C) disagree somewhat D) disagree strongly
- 8) Teachers should adapt lesson plans to reflect the different cultures represented in the classroom.
  - 9) Teachers should provide opportunities for children to share cultural differences in foods, dress, family life, and beliefs.
  - 10) Discussing ethnic traditions and beliefs in school leads to disunity and arguments between students from different cultures.



- 11) Children should be taught mostly by teachers of their own ethnic and cultural background.
- 12) It is essential to include the perspectives of diverse groups while teaching things about American history that are common to all Americans.
- 13) Curricula and textbooks should include the contributions of most, if not all, cultural groups in our society.
- 14) The classroom library should reflect the racial and cultural differences in the class.

### Section C

Directions: To the best of your knowledge, self-assess your own ability to do the various items listed below.

#### Key:

A = I do not believe I could do this very well.

B = I could probably do this if I had to, but it would be difficult for me.

C = I believe that I could do this reasonably well, if I had time to prepare.

D = I am quite confident that this would be easy for me to do.

- 15) I can provide instructional activities to help students to develop strategies for dealing with racial confrontations.
- 16) I can adapt instructional methods to meet the needs of learners from diverse groups.
- 17) I can develop materials appropriate for the multicultural classroom.
- 18) I can develop instructional methods that dispel myths about diverse groups.
- 19) I can analyze instructional materials for potential stereotypical and/or prejudicial content.
- 20) I can help students to examine their own prejudices.
- 21) I can present diverse groups in our society in a manner that will build mutual respect.
- 22) I can develop activities that increase the self-confidence of diverse students.
- 23) I can provide instruction showing how prejudice affects individuals.

#### Key:

A = I do not believe I could do this very well.

B = I could probably do this if I had to, but it would be difficult for me.

C = I believe that I could do this reasonably well, if I had time to prepare.

D = I am quite confident that this would be easy for me to do.

- 24) I can plan instructional activities to reduce prejudice toward diverse groups.
- 25) I can identify cultural biases in commercial materials used in teaching.
- 26) I can help students work through problem situations caused by stereotypical and/or prejudicial attitudes.
- 27) I can get students from diverse groups to work together.
- 28) I can identify school practices that may harm diverse students.
- 29) I can identify solutions to problems that may arise as the result of diversity.
- 30) I can identify the societal forces which influence opportunities for diverse people.
- 31) I can identify ways in which various groups contribute to our pluralistic society.
- 32) I can help students take on the perspective of ethnic and cultural groups different from their own.
- 33) I can help students view history and current events from diverse perspectives.

34) I can involve students in making decisions and clarifying their values regarding multicultural issues.

**Note: The following item is different from the others in this section.**

35) Choose the position which most closely reflects your strongest beliefs about teaching:

A = If every individual learned to accept and work with every other person, then there would be no intercultural problems.

B = If all groups could be helped to contribute to the general good and not seek special recognition, we could create a unified America.

C = All cultural groups are entitled to maintain their own identity.

D = All cultural groups should be recognized for their strengths and contributions.

E = Some groups need to be helped to achieve equal treatment before we can reach the goals of a democratic society.

## Appendix B

### Adapted MES for Study Use

Directions for survey: Please respond to each item using the directions provided for each section. Because I am merely trying to get an accurate sense of your opinions on these topics, there are no right or wrong answers. Please be assured that this information and all of your responses on this survey will be kept strictly confidential. Data will be reported in such a way that identification of individuals will be impossible. Your identification number allows this information to be compared with your responses on other measurements or observations.

#### Section A

Definition: The terms “diversity” and “people different from me” are intended to include people of different races, ethnic groups, cultures, languages, religions, socio-economic classes, sexual orientations, and physical abilities.

Directions: Please choose the word that best describes your childhood experiences with people different from you.

**Key:** A) never B) very rarely C) rarely D) occasionally E) very frequently F) always

During my childhood...

- 1) I played with kids of cultural backgrounds different than my own.
- 2) I went to school with students of cultural backgrounds different than my own.
- 3) People of diverse backgrounds lived in my neighborhood.
- 4) I read books about people cultural backgrounds different than my own.
- 5) A person from a cultural background different than my own was one of my role models when I was younger.
- 6) I chose to watch TV shows and movies about people from cultural backgrounds different than my own.
- 7) I was on the same team and/or club with students from cultural backgrounds different than my own.

In the past 5 years...

- 8) I became friends with people from cultural backgrounds different than my own.
- 9) I worked closely with colleagues from cultural backgrounds different than my own.
- 10) I lived in a neighborhood with people of cultural backgrounds different than my own..
- 11) I read books about people of cultural backgrounds different than my own.
- 12) I chose to watch TV shows and movies about people of cultural backgrounds different than my own.
- 13) I socialized with people of cultural backgrounds different than my own on a regular basis.
- 14) I traveled abroad.
- 15) I spoke a language other than English.

#### Section B

Directions: Respond to each statement by choosing one answer that best describes your reaction to it. There are no right or wrong answers since this section is simply trying to get an accurate sense of your opinions on these matters.

**Key:** A) strongly disagree B) disagree C) slightly disagree D) slightly agree E) agree F) strongly agree

- 16) Teachers should adapt lesson plans to reflect the different cultures and languages represented in the classroom.
- 17) Teachers should provide opportunities for children to share cultural differences in foods, dress, family life, and beliefs.
- 18) Discussing ethnic traditions and beliefs in school leads to disunity and arguments between students from different cultures.
- 19) Children should be taught mostly by teachers of their own ethnic and cultural background.
- 20) It is essential to include the perspectives of diverse groups while teaching things about American history that are common to all Americans.
- 21) Curricula and textbooks should include the contributions of most, if not all, cultural groups in our society.
- 22) The classroom library should reflect the racial, cultural, and linguistic differences in the class.

### **Section C**

Directions: To the best of your knowledge, self-assess your own ability to do the various items listed below.

**Key:**

A = I am positive I could not do this well.

B = I do not believe I could do this well.

C = I could probably do this if I had to, but it would be difficult for me.

D = I believe that I could do this reasonably well, if I had time to prepare.

E = I believe that I could do this well.

F = I am quite confident that this would be easy for me to do and I could do this well.

- 23) I can provide instructional activities to help students to develop strategies for dealing with racial confrontations.
- 24) I can adapt instructional methods to meet the needs of learners from diverse groups.
- 25) I can develop materials appropriate for the multicultural classroom.
- 26) I can develop instructional methods that dispel myths about diverse groups.
- 27) I can analyze instructional materials for potential stereotypical and/or prejudicial content.
- 28) I can help students to examine their own prejudices.
- 29) I can present diverse groups in our society in a manner that will build mutual respect.
- 30) I can develop activities that increase the self-confidence of diverse students.
- 31) I can provide instruction showing how prejudice affects individuals.
- 32) I can plan instructional activities to reduce prejudice toward diverse groups.
- 33) I can identify cultural biases in commercial materials used in teaching.

- 34) I can help students work through problem situations caused by stereotypical and/or prejudicial attitudes.
- 35) I can get students from diverse groups to work together.
- 36) I can identify school practices that may harm diverse students.
- 37) I can identify solutions to problems that may arise as the result of diversity.
- 38) I can identify the societal forces that influence opportunities for diverse people.
- 39) I can identify ways in which various groups contribute to our pluralistic society.
- 40) I can help students take on the perspective of ethnic and cultural groups different from their own.
- 41) I can help students view history and current events from diverse perspectives.
- 42) I can involve students in making decisions and clarifying their values regarding multicultural issues.

**Note: The following item is different from the others in this section.**

- 43) Choose the position that most closely reflects your strongest beliefs about teaching:
- A = If every individual learned to accept and work with every other person, then there would be no intercultural problems.
- B = If all groups could be helped to contribute to the general good and not seek special recognition, we could create a unified America.
- C = All cultural groups are entitled to maintain their own identity.
- D = All cultural groups should be recognized for their strengths and contributions.
- E = Some groups need to be helped to achieve equal treatment before we can reach the goals of a democratic society.

### **Open-Ended Questions**

- 44) What considerations do you take when selecting texts to include in your instruction?
- 45) Please provide any additional thoughts you have about the opportunities and challenges of selecting texts to include in your classroom instruction.
- 46) Please upload a digital copy of the book log here. Thank you in advance for taking the time to accurately fill this out. If you prefer to type your book log directly into the survey, you may do so in the next question.
- 47) If you prefer to type your book log directly into the survey, you may do so here. If you uploaded your book log in the previous question, you may move on to the next question. Please be sure to address all 5 sections for every book:  
1. Title 2. Author(s) 3. Content area of instruction in which this book was used 4. Was this book a required reading or your choice? 5. Provide a brief rationale for selecting this text if you chose it.

### **Demographic Questions**

Directions: The demographic information requested below is an integral part of the research process. Please respond to each question (e.g., even if the response is “none”). My understanding of the research problem is dependent on information that is accurate from each participant. Please be assured that this information and all of your responses will be kept strictly confidential.

- 48) How do you identify your gender?  
A) Male B) Female C) Other D) Prefer not to respond
- 49) In which range is your age?  
A) 21-30 years B) 31-40 years C) 41-50 years D) 51-60 E) 61 or older F) Prefer not to respond
- 50) What is your racial/ethnic background?  
A) White B) African American C) Asian D) Latinx or Hispanic E) Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander F) American Indian/Alaska Native G) Two or more races H) Other I) Prefer not to respond
- 51) What grade level(s) do you teach? Select all that apply.  
A) PreK B) K C) 1 D) 2 E) 3 F) 4 G) 5 H) 6 I) Other
- 52) Which of the following best describes your teaching position?  
A) traditional classroom teacher B) dual language English teacher C) dual language Spanish teacher D) reading specialist E) English as a second language teacher D) newcomer teacher E) art teacher F) physical education teacher G) librarian H) music teacher I) instructional technology teacher J) world language teacher K) Other
- 53) How many years (in total) of experience do you have teaching?  
A) 0-5 years B) 6-10 years C) 11-15 years D) 16-20 E) 21 or more years
- 54) What is your first language?  
[Fill in the blank answer choice]
- 55) How many languages do you speak at a conversational or fluent level?  
A) 1 B) 2 C) 3 D) 4 or more
- 56) Please list all of the languages you speak at a conversational or fluent level.  
[Fill in the blank answer choice]
- 57) In which state/province and country were you born?  
[Fill in the blank answer choice]
- 58) How many countries have you traveled to outside of the United States?  
A) 0 B) 1-5 C) 6-10 D) 11-15 E) 16-20 F) 21 or more
- 59) If so, were any of these trips a study abroad or cultural immersion experience (language study, Peace Corps, volunteering abroad, living with a host family etc.)?  
A) Yes, at least one was a trip like this. B) No, all of my trips were for tourism only. C) Not applicable
- 60) What is the highest level of education you have obtained?

A) High school diploma B) Associates degree C) Bachelors degree D) Masters degree D) Doctorate degree

Appendix C

The Multicultural Literature Rubric (Wilfong, 2007)

Criteria	3	2	1
<b>I. Authority</b>			
	Novel is written by a person from the culture being depicted.	Novel is not written by a person from the culture being depicted but cultural accuracy is demonstrated across the book.	Novel is not written by a person from the culture being depicted and several cultural inaccuracies are found throughout the book.
<b>2. Cultural Authenticity</b>			
<b>Characterization</b>	Characters are believable, grow naturally, and show depth. Characters are described without exaggeration in relation to their culture.	Characters are somewhat believable but depth is questionable. Characters are described with a few stereotypes or biases.	Characters are portrayed as caricatures of the culture being presented. Characters are described with several stereotypes or biases.
<b>Citations or Acknowledgments</b>	Author cites or acknowledges multiple works or people that contributed to his or her own knowledge for the writing of the book.	Author cites or acknowledges few works or people that contributed to his or her own knowledge for the writing of the book.	Author does not cite or acknowledge any works or people in relation to the creation of the book.
<b>Setting</b>	Setting is natural in relation to the content of the book and described without using stereotypes. Setting is universal instead of "typical" to the culture.	Setting is related using few stereotypes. Setting is in keeping with the content of the book. Setting could be "typical" to the culture presented.	Setting is related using overt stereotypes. Setting is unnatural in relation to the content. Setting is "typical" to the culture presented.
<b>Style</b>	Dialogue and discourse of book are natural to the culture presented. Content is easily understood by both members of the culture portrayed and other readers.	Dialogue and discourse are slightly out of sync with the culture presented through some stereotypes. Content may be misinterpreted by the members of the culture portrayed and/or other readers.	Dialogue and discourse present overt stereotypes of the culture presented. Content is harmful to the members of the culture portrayed and/or misunderstood by other readers.
<b>Theme</b>	The theme is universal to all cultures and applied correctly to the culture portrayed.	The theme may be "stereotypical" of the culture presented or may not be applied correctly.	The theme is "stereotypical" of the culture presented and/or is applied in a hurtful way to the culture portrayed.



## *Appendix D*

### Invitation Email

Subject Line: You are invited to participate in the multicultural teacher research study

Hello X,

My name is Virginia Massaro and I am a PhD candidate at Virginia Commonwealth University. It was a pleasure to meet most of you at your most recent faculty meeting. I am currently working on my dissertation project titled, "Culturally relevant education in the elementary classroom: A comparison of traditional and dual language classroom teachers."

This study is designed to explore how elementary teachers' multicultural characteristics and their choice of instructional text impact student literacy achievement. I believe the knowledge gained through this research study has the potential to inform teacher preparation programs, professional development for educators, and guide future research.

All elementary school classroom teachers are invited to participate in this research study. Remember your participation in this study is voluntary. If you wish to participate, please follow the link to the online survey. It should take you about 15 minutes to complete. Compensation is available for participants who complete both the survey and the book log.

#### Multicultural Teacher Survey

If you have any question please contact me via email [mXXXXXXXXXX@mymail.vcu.edu](mailto:mXXXXXXXXXX@mymail.vcu.edu) or telephone 336-XXX-XXXX.

Thank you for your consideration,  
Virginia Massaro

## Appendix E

### Informed Consent to Participate in a Research Study

**Study Title:** Culturally relevant education in the elementary classroom: A comparison of traditional and dual language classroom teachers

**Principal Investigator:** Virginia Massaro

**Principal Investigator Phone Number:** 336-XXX-XXXX

**Principal Investigator Email Address:** mXXXXXXXXXX@mymail.vcu.edu

**Faculty Advisor:** Dr. Joan Rhodes

**Faculty Advisor Phone Number:** 804-XXX-XXXX

**Faculty Advisor Email Address:** jXXXXXXXX@vcu.edu

You are being invited to participate in a research study. This consent form will provide you with information on the research project, what you will be asked to do, and any associated risks and benefits of the research. Participation in the study is voluntary. You may refuse to join, or you may withdraw your consent to be in the study, for any reason, at any time, without penalty. Research studies are designed to obtain new knowledge. This new information may help educators in the future.

Details about this study are discussed below. Please read this form carefully. It is important that you understand this information so that you can make an informed choice about participating in this research study. Should you have any questions, please contact the researchers listed above.

#### **Voluntary Participation**

Taking part in this research study is entirely voluntary. You may choose not to participate or you may discontinue your participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits. You will be informed of any new, relevant information that may affect your health, welfare, or willingness to continue your study participation.

#### **Purpose**

The purpose of this study is to explore how elementary teachers' multicultural characteristics and the literature they choose to include in their instruction impact student literacy achievement. More specifically, I am interested in how students are instructed within dual language and traditional classroom settings. You are invited to participate in this study because you are an elementary school teacher in a school district with a dual language immersion program.

#### **Procedures**

If you choose to participate in this study, you will be asked to complete an online survey and list 10-20 books you have included in your instruction this school year (title, author[s], content area of instruction, and reason for inclusion). An email invitation to participate in this study and email reminders will be sent out over the course of this study. Upon completion of this study, you students' Phonological Awareness Literacy Screening (PALS) scores for the school year and demographic information will also be collected and analyzed.

### **Benefits**

Compensation will be available for all participants who complete both the survey and book log. This study may also provide ideas and knowledge that may benefit teacher preparation programs and professional development for educators.

### **Costs**

It will not cost you anything to be in this study.

### **Privacy and Confidentiality**

VCU and the VCU Health System have established secure research databases and computer systems to store information and to help with monitoring and oversight of research. Your information may be kept in these databases but are only accessible to individuals working on this study or authorized individuals who have access for specific research related tasks.

Your study data and responses will not be linked to you. Any identifying information will be kept in a secure location and only the researchers will have access to the data. Research participants will not be identified in any publication or presentation of research results. What is learned from this data may be presented at conferences, published in journals, or used to inform subsequent research. Any identifying information collected will not be included in any of these uses.

In general, we will not give you any individual results from the study. Once the study has been completed, a summary of the results of the study and what they mean can be sent to you upon request. In the future, identifiers might be removed from the information you provide in this study, and after that removal, the information could be used for other research studies by this study team or another researcher without asking you for additional consent.

### **Contact Information**

This study has been reviewed by the dissertation committee and approved by the Virginia Commonwealth University Institutional Review Board. If you have any questions or concerns about this research, please contact Virginia Massaro at mXXXXXXXXXX@mymail.vcu.edu or Dr. Joan Rhodes at jXXXXXXXXX@vcu.edu.

If you have general questions about your rights as a participant in this or any other research, or if you wish to discuss problems, concerns or questions, to obtain information, or to offer input about research, you may contact:

Virginia Commonwealth University Office of Research  
800 East Leigh Street, Suite 3000, Box 980568, Richmond, VA 23298  
(804) 827-2157; [https://research.vcu.edu/human\\_research/volunteers.htm](https://research.vcu.edu/human_research/volunteers.htm)

### **Statement of Consent**

I have been provided with an opportunity to read this consent form carefully. All of the questions that I wish to raise concerning this study have been answered. By signing this consent form, I have not waived any of the legal rights or benefits to which I otherwise would be entitled. My electronic signature at the beginning of the online survey will indicate that I freely consent to participate in this research study and have received a copy of the consent form for my records.

Appendix F

Teacher Book Log

Please record 10-20 books that you have read *to* students, read *with* students, and *assigned to* students to read during the current school year. If you wish to include more, you are welcome to add more rows. If you have any questions in regards to this book log, please email Virginia Massaro at mXXXXXXXXX@mymail.vcu.edu. Thank you kindly for your participation.

#	Title	Author(s)	Content area of instruction in which this book was used	Was this book a required reading or your choice?		Provide a <u>brief</u> rationale for selecting this text if you chose it.
				Required	My choice	
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						
7						
8						
9						
10						

#	Title	Author(s)	Content area of instruction in which this book was used	Was this book a required reading or your choice?		Provide a <u>brief</u> rationale for selecting this text if you chose it.
				Required	My choice	
11						
12						
13						
14						
15						
16						
17						
18						
19						
20						

## *Appendix G*

### Email Reminder

Subject Line: Reminder to participate in the multicultural teacher research study

Hello X,

This is a polite reminder to participate in my online survey by (XX/XX/XXXX). As you may remember from my introduction, this study is designed to explore how elementary teachers' multicultural perspectives and their choice of instructional text impact student literacy achievement. I believe this knowledge gained through this research study has the potential to inform teacher preparation programs, professional development for educators, and guide future research.

Again, all elementary school classroom teachers are invited to participate in this research study. Remember your participation in this study is voluntary. If you wish to participate, please follow the link to the online survey. It should take you about 15 minutes to complete. Compensation is available for participants who complete both the survey and the book log.

#### Multicultural Teacher Survey

If you have any question please contact me via e-mail [mXXXXXXXXXX@mymail.vcu.edu](mailto:mXXXXXXXXXX@mymail.vcu.edu) or telephone 336-XXX-XXXX.

Thank you for your consideration,  
Virginia Massaro

## Appendix H

### Follow-Up Book Log Email

Subject Line: Follow-up to complete book log for the multicultural teacher research study

Hello X,

Thank you for submitting the survey for my research study. However, my records indicate that you did not upload a book log of 10-20 books you read *to* students, read *with* students, and *assigned for* students to read during the school year. Please consider filling out the attached book log and returning it to me by email. It should take you about 5-10 minutes to complete.

Remember your participation in this study is voluntary. Compensation will be available to all participants who complete both the survey and the book log.

If you have any questions please contact me via e-mail [mXXXXXXXXXX@mymail.vcu.edu](mailto:mXXXXXXXXXX@mymail.vcu.edu) or telephone 336-XXX-XXXX.

Thank you for your consideration,  
Virginia Massaro

Appendix I

Sample List of Multicultural Literature Reported by Teacher Participants

Race/Ethnicity of Characters	Citation
Black	Ahmed, R. (2018). <i>Mae among the stars</i> . HarperCollins.
	Curry, J. (2019). <i>Parker looks up: An extraordinary moment</i> . Aladdin.
	Kamkwamba, W. (2016). <i>The boy who harnessed the wind</i> . Puffin Books.
	Mora, O. (2018). <i>Thank you Omu!</i> Little, Brown and Company.
	Tarpley, N. (2010). <i>Destiny's Gift</i> . Lee & Low Books Incorporated.
Latinx or Hispanic	Engle, M. (2017). <i>Bravo! Poems about amazing Hispanics</i> . Henry Holt and Co.
	Krull, K. (2003). <i>Harvesting hope: The story of Cesar Chavez</i> . Harcourt.
	Medina, M. (2015). <i>Mango, Abuela, and me</i> . Candlewick Press.
	Morales, Y. (2018). <i>Dreamers</i> . Holiday House.
	Quintero, I. (2019). <i>My papi has a motorcycle</i> . Kokila.
Asian	Choi, Y. (2003). <i>The name jar</i> . Dragonfly Books.
	Lê, M. (2018). <i>Drawn together</i> . Little, Brown Books for Young Readers.
	Yousafzai, M. (2017). <i>Malala's magic pencil</i> . Little, Brown and Company.
American Indian or Alaska native	George, J. C. (2009). <i>The last polar bear</i> . HarperCollins
	Nelson, S. D. (2003). <i>The star people: A Lakota story</i> . Abrams.
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	Sierra, J. (2000). <i>The gift of the crocodile: A Cinderella story</i> . Simon & Schuster.
Multiple races/ethnicities	Dooley, N. (1991). <i>Everybody cooks rice</i> . First Avenue Editions.
	Fox, M. (1998). <i>Whoever you are</i> . HMH Books.
	Isadora, R. (2010). <i>Say hello!</i> G. P. Putnam's Sons Books.
	Penfold, A. (2018). <i>All are welcome</i> . Knopf Books for Young Readers.



Appendix J

Updated Multicultural Literature Rubric for Fiction Texts (Wilfong, 2007)

Title \_\_\_\_\_

Author(s) \_\_\_\_\_

Multicultural classification	
Yes	No

Multicultural Criteria	3	2	1
<b>1. Authority</b>			
	Text is written by a person from the culture being depicted.	Text is not written by a person from the culture being depicted but cultural accuracy is demonstrated across the text.	Text is not written by a person from the culture being depicted and several cultural inaccuracies are found throughout the text.
<b>2. Cultural Authenticity</b>			
<i>Characterization</i>	Characters are believable, grow naturally, and show depth. Characters are described without exaggeration in relation to their culture.	Characters are somewhat believable but depth is questionable. Characters are described with a few stereotypes or biases.	Characters are portrayed as caricatures of the cultural begin presented. Characters are described with several stereotypes or biases.
<i>Citations or Acknowledgments</i>	Author cites or acknowledges multiple works or people that contributed to his or her own knowledge for the writing of the text.	Author cites or acknowledges few works or people that contributed to his or her own knowledge for the writing of the text.	Author does not cite or acknowledge any works or people in relations to the creation of the text.
<i>Setting</i>	Setting is natural in relation to the content of the text and described without using stereotypes. Setting is universal instead of “typical” to the culture.	Setting is related using few stereotypes. Setting is in keeping with the content of the text. Setting could be “typical” to the culture presented.	Setting is related using overt stereotypes. Setting is unnatural in relation to the content. Setting is “typical” to the culture presented.
<i>Style</i>	Dialogue and discourse of text are natural to the culture presented. Content is easily understood by both members of the culture portrayed and other readers.	Dialogue and discourse are slightly out of sync with the culture presented through some stereotypes. Content may be misinterpreted by the members of the culture portrayed and/or other readers.	Dialogue and discourse present overt stereotypes of the culture presented. Content is harmful to the members of the culture portrayed and/or misunderstood by other readers.
<i>Theme</i>	The theme is universal to all cultures and applied correctly to the culture portrayed.	The theme may be “stereotypical” of the culture presented or may not be applied correctly.	The theme is “stereotypical” of the culture presented and/or is applied in a hurtful way to the culture portrayed.
<b>Column totals</b>			
<b>Grand total</b>		<b>Multicultural classification</b>	Yes      No

Appendix K

Multicultural Literature Rubric for Informational Texts

Title \_\_\_\_\_

Author(s) \_\_\_\_\_

Multicultural classification	
Yes	No

Multicultural Criteria	3	2	1
<b>1. Authority</b>			
	The author and illustrate are experts on the topic and can speak with cultural authority on the subject.	Text is not written by a person from the culture being depicted but cultural accuracy is demonstrated across the text.	Text is not written by a person from the culture being depicted and several cultural inaccuracies are found throughout the text.
<b>2. Cultural Authenticity</b>			
<i>Characterization</i>	Characters are believable, grow naturally, and show depth. Characters are described without exaggeration in relation to their culture.	Characters are somewhat believable but depth is questionable. Characters are described with a few stereotypes or biases.	Characters are portrayed as caricatures of the cultural begin presented. Characters are described with several stereotypes or biases.
<i>Pictures</i>	The pictures in the text are real photographs or illustrations that accurately portray the person or cultural group being presented in the text.	The pictures may be photographs or illustrations and may be “stereotypical” of the person or cultural group being presented in the text.	The pictures in the text are illustrations and/or do not accurately portray the person or cultural group being presented in the text.
<i>Citations or Acknowledgments</i>	Author cites or acknowledges multiple works or people that contributed to his or her own knowledge for the writing of the text.	Author cites or acknowledges few works or people that contributed to his or her own knowledge for the writing of the text.	Author does not cite or acknowledge any works or people in relations to the creation of the text.
<i>Accuracy</i>	The information provided in the text is accurate to the cultural presented.	The information provided in the text is partially accurate to the cultural presented.	The information provided in the text is not accurate, or out of date, to the cultural presented.
<i>Main Idea</i>	The main idea is presented correctly to the culture portrayed.	The main idea may be “stereotypical” of the culture presented or may not be applied correctly.	The main idea is “stereotypical” of the culture presented and/or is applied in a hurtful way to the culture portrayed.
<b>Column totals</b>			
<b>Grand total</b>		<b>Multicultural classification</b>	Yes      No

Appendix L

Culturally Relevant Literature Rubric  
(Aronson & Laughter, 2016)

Title \_\_\_\_\_  
Author(s) \_\_\_\_\_

Culturally relevant classification	
Yes	No

Cultural Relevancy Criteria	3	2	1
<i>Connection to students' backgrounds</i>	Culture of the text matches students' cultural backgrounds. Text aims to connect students' cultural backgrounds to academic skills and concepts.	Cultural of the text attempts to match students' cultural backgrounds, but the presence of stereotypes may interfere. Text somewhat connects students' backgrounds to academic skills and concepts.	Culture of the text does not match students' cultural backgrounds nor does it attempt to connect students' cultural backgrounds to academic skills and concepts.
<i>Critical reflection</i>	The text engages students in critical reflection about themselves and societies through questions and alternative perspectives.	The text is limited in its attempt to engage students in critical reflection about themselves and/or societies.	The text makes no attempt to engage students in critical reflection about themselves or societies.
<i>Builds cultural competency</i>	The content of the text aims to build students' cultural competence through knowledge, appropriate behaviors, and communication.	The content of the text attempts to build students' cultural competence but inaccuracies or the presence of stereotypes limits its ability to do so.	The content of the text makes no attempt to build students' cultural competence or does not do so appropriately.
<i>Social justice and empowerment</i>	The text contains elements of social justice and empowerment, which strive to unveil and challenge oppressive systems.	The content of the text is limited in its attempt to unveil and challenge oppressive systems.	The content of the text makes no attempt to unveil or challenge oppressive systems.
<b>Column totals</b>			
<b>Grand total</b>		<b>Culturally relevant classification</b>	Yes      No