

THE EFFECT OF MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION ON HISPANIC STUDENTS'
ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

by

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ABSTRACT

This paper discusses how multicultural education affects Hispanic students' academic achievement and reviews current research literature to determine how multicultural education affects the academic achievement of Hispanic/Latino/a students. The history of education in the United States, the history of education for Hispanic students and the emergence of multicultural education from social movements in the mid 1900's is discussed. The body of research on multicultural education and Hispanic students' engagement, motivation, academic achievement and general achievement in relation to their teachers, community and parents showed that there have not been many studies performed on how multicultural practices affect Hispanic students. The majority of the studies found that teacher support and acceptance of students had the greatest influence on students' engagement, motivation and achievement in school. Parents and community members' support was also influential but did not have as great an effect as teachers'. The paper concludes with the suggestion that studies on multicultural education's influence on Hispanic students will occur and that further support for Hispanic students' achievement will be found.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Unsmiling, ever watchful, my teachers noticed my silence. They began to connect my behavior with the difficult process my older sister and brother were making. Until one Saturday morning three nuns arrived at the house to talk to our parents. Stiffly, they sat on the blue living room sofa. From the doorway of another room, spying the visitors, I noted the incongruity – the clash of two worlds, the faces and voices of school intruding upon the familiar setting of home. I overheard one voice gently wondering, ‘Do your children speak only Spanish at home, Mrs. Rodriguez?’ While another voice added, ‘That Richard especially seems so timid and shy.’ *That Rich-heard!* With great tact the visitors continued, ‘Is it possible for you and your husband to encourage your children to practice their English when they are home?’ Of course, my parents complied. What would they not do for their children’s well-being? And how could they have questioned the Church’s authority which those women represented? In an instant, they agreed to

give up the language (the sounds) that had revealed and accentuated our family's closeness. The moment after the visitors left, the change was observed.

(Rodriguez, 1982, p. 20-21)

Having classrooms of students with differing cultures than the teachers, to attempt to learn those cultures and incorporate them into a classroom may alleviate the feeling that this student experienced. The feeling of loss he experienced through losing the lingual sanctuary he saw in his home created anger and frustration (Rodriguez, 1982). This chapter outlines the rationale for this research paper. It discusses the importance of the question of whether or not multicultural education is an effective practice for helping Latino/a students achieve academic success, describes the controversies surrounding the question and states the limits of the question.

Rationale

The current population of the United States contains different ethnicities that bring different cultures to the country. According to the US Census Bureau report of April 1, 2000, of the 281,421,906 people in the United States, 35,305,818 consider themselves Hispanic or Latino/a; 35,704,124 consider themselves Black; 10,589,265 consider themselves Asian and 372,574 consider themselves American Indian and Alaskan Native (US Census, 2000). In a population projection created by the US Census of 2000, in 2050, 24.4% of the population of the United States will be Hispanic (US Census, 2000). That is a

17% change from the population surveyed in the census of 2000. The diverse group of citizens in the country displayed by the census statistics, augments multicultural education's argument that this society is pluralistic. According to the OSPI Graduation and Dropout Rate Report of 2004-2005, of the 15,921 students in Washington State that dropped out of high school, Hispanic students were the second largest group of dropouts: 2,618 students dropped out (OSPI, 2006). The first largest group is white students with 10,195 dropping out. This gives statistical data to the argument that Hispanic students are not achieving academically in schools by their lack of participation in school shown through the dropout rates given above.

Views of Multicultural Education and Terms

There are several different views on multicultural education presented through literature. A few of the main proponents and their views are described below. Sleeter and Grant (1994) claimed that multicultural education is a term to describe policies and practices while Neito (1992) claimed that it is a process of educational reform. Bennett (1999) described it as an approach to teaching and learning and Gollnick and Chinn (1990) depicted multicultural education as a term that has been around only recently but with ideas from the 1920's. I will use the definition given by Banks (1999) stating that multicultural education is a concept, education school reform movement and a process.

Sleeter and Grant's View on Multicultural Education

Sleeter and Grant (1994) described multicultural education as "a popular term that educators increasingly use to describe education policies and practices

that recognize, accept and affirm human differences and similarities related to gender, race, disability, class and (increasingly) sexual preference” (p. 167) and insist that clarification is needed as to what advocates mean when they use this term. The ideology attributed to multicultural education by Sleeter and Grant (1994) is to create social change or a “change in the very fabric of that society” (p.170). This change has two key components to it: cultural pluralism and equal opportunity. Cultural pluralism is defined by Sleeter and Grant (1994) as a respect for differences, having a right to actively participate in society without losing ones identity while maintaining diversity in the society. This definition is expressed to have indicated only race and ethnicity but gender is included with great debate in the definition of cultural pluralism as well (Sleeter and Grant, 1994). Equal opportunity is described in a more complicated way. In its basic form, equal opportunity in multicultural education means to have different groups of people gain equal outcomes in the social institution of education (Sleeter and Grant, 1994). What equal opportunity means to race, culture, language, disability and gender only differs slightly but includes the same message: children should have the chance to achieve equally in schools (Sleeter and Grant, 1994).

Nieto’s View on Multicultural Education

In contrast to the Sleeter and Grant (1994) idea of multicultural education as a term, Nieto (1992) described multicultural education as a process of educational reform and a basic education. Nieto (1992) attributed seven characteristics to multicultural education. They are that “multicultural education is antiracist education, basic education, important for all students, pervasive,

education for all social justice, a process and a critical pedagogy” (Nieto, 1992, p. 208). The belief proposed by Nieto (1992) is that multicultural education is a key tool for reforming schools to provide “an equal and excellent education for all students” (p.208).

Bennett's View of Multicultural Education

Bennett (1999) described multicultural education as an approach to teaching and learning which contrasts with the definition given by Nieto (1992) as a process of reform. Bennett (1999) stated that multicultural education is “based upon democratic values and beliefs” (p.11) that “affirms cultural pluralism within culturally diverse societies and in an interdependent world” (p.11). Bennett (1999) continues to identify four core values of multicultural education. These core values are acceptance and appreciation of cultural diversity, respect for human dignity and universal human rights, responsibility to the world community and reverence for the earth (Bennett, 1999, 13). The description for multicultural education’s main goal is to develop all students to their highest level (Bennett, 1999). The aim of the approach is to achieve equality in education and create a transformation of school environment to eradicate the current hidden curriculum. The transformation of school environments hinged on the change to a multicultural curriculum divided into six goals. These goals are to develop multiple historical perspectives, strengthen cultural consciousness, strengthen intercultural competence, combat racism, sexism and other forms of prejudice and discrimination, increase awareness of the state of the planet and global dynamics and to finally build social action skills (Bennett, 1999, p. 29). Bennett

(1999) suggested that multicultural education be based on these goals and core values.

Gollnick and Chinn's View of Multicultural Education

Gollnick and Chinn (1990) explained multicultural education as being an educational concept to speak to cultural diversity and equality in schools. This concept is based on six beliefs or assumptions described as: American culture has been contributed to by diverse cultural groups, cultural diversity strengthens the fiber of U.S. society, equal opportunity for all people and social justices are for all citizens, distribution of power should be equal among all ethnic groups, “the education system provides the critical function of molding attitudes and values necessary for continuation of a democratic society” (Gollnick and Chinn, 1990, p. 31) and teachers and other professional educators have to take on a leadership role to create an environment that is supportive of multiculturalism. Gollnick and Chinn (1990) stated that multicultural education should permeate the school system throughout and promote the cultural diversity, human rights, alternative life choices, social justice and equality for everyone and equity in power and income distribution.

Banks' View on Multicultural Education

Banks (1997) argued that multicultural education is an idea, educational reform movement and a process. Banks (1997) stated that

“As an idea or concept, multicultural education maintains that all students should have equal opportunities to learn regardless of the racial, ethnic, social-class, or gender group to which they belong...

Multicultural education is also an educational reform movement that tries to reform schools in ways that will give them voice...

Multicultural education is a continuing process. One of its major goals is to create within schools and society the democratic ideals...stated in the nation's founding documents" (p. 68)

With the three statements, Banks (1997) claimed that there are five dimensions of multicultural education. These are: content integration, the knowledge construction process, prejudice reduction, equity pedagogy and an empowering school culture and social structure (Banks, 1999, p. 69). Content integration is defined as ways the teacher uses examples and content from different cultures and groups while knowledge construction is described as the methods, activities, and questions a teachers uses to encourage students to "understand, investigate and determine how implicit cultural assumptions, frames of reference, perspectives, and biases within a discipline influence the ways that knowledge is constructed" (Banks, 1999, p. 69). Banks (1999) described prejudice reduction as using characteristics of students' ideas and strategies around race to the help the teacher develop their democratic values whereas equity pedagogy is illustrated as the time when a teacher modifies their teaching so that it allows students from different racial, cultural, ethnic and gender groups have an equal opportunity for academic achievement. The fifth dimension described by Banks (1999) is empowering school culture and social structure. This is described as a way to structure the school environment into a complex social system larger than its parts and requires the whole system be restructured (Banks, 1999).

Opposition to Multicultural Education

Controversies have risen around the topic of multicultural education from people with various ideologies. Some argued that schools should teach to a single culture, the Anglo-Protestant culture, that had been emphasized throughout American schools' history (Spring, 2007). Those that supported this argument often supported the Americanization programs in the United States as well (Spring, 2007). The civil rights movement spurred the multicultural education movement by pushing for the 1965 Immigration Act allowing immigrants from all different countries into the United States decreasing the limitations that were created by the 1924 Immigration Act (Spring, 2007). While this allowed more immigrants into the country, as seen by the population statistics above, a diverse group of cultures were coming into the school systems in the United States. A core value of multicultural education is that society is culturally pluralistic meaning that there is more than the Anglo-Protestant culture present in US society. One of the controversies that stems from multicultural education is that cultural pluralism is thought to be dangerous to society by people who think it heightens ethnic groups' identity that brings them to separate from other groups (Bennett, 1999, p.18).

Other authors have written books opposing the implementation of a multicultural education curriculum to advocate for a different method of change. Hirsch (1988) opposed multicultural education on his belief that the basics of multicultural education have been tried for the last century beginning with Rousseau and have not succeeded in their goals. Schlesinger (1992) argued

that the idea of separating ethnicities into groups and using the groupings in education is not the idea that American society was based on; therefore history or social studies should not group ethnicities. Schlesinger (1992) believed that what students are taught in school affects the way those students treat and view others. Not just other Americans, but other people in general. With the idea that grouping ethnicities is what is being taught in U.S. schools, Schlesinger (1992) suggested that students will, because of what they were taught, group others into the ethnic groups that they were taught. Schlesinger (1992) asserted that multicultural education groups ethnicities and would therefore go against his theory.

Rebuttal to Opposition

Banks (1993) refers to the debate over traditional and multicultural education as the cannon debate. Described as Western Traditionalists by Banks (1993), he stated that these traditionalist proponents believe that Western history, literature and culture are in danger in US school curriculum and multicultural education will not support those subjects. These traditionalists see Afrocentrists, those that support the view that African history and culture should be in the center of education to motivate African-American students, and those that support multicultural education in the same light (Banks, 1993). The debate between these two sides has continued in education for the last 30 years.

Other Important Terms

I will be using terms within this research paper that must be defined for clarity. These terms are from single authors and compilations made toward my better understanding of authors' usage of the term.

Multicultural Education - a concept, education school reform movement and a process (Banks, 1999)

Achievement – success based on assessments in a subject that is placed on an individual by some one else or a group

Students of Color – students that do not consider themselves Caucasian, white or of European descent

Hispanic – sometimes used inter-changeably with Latino, group of people from Mexican, Puerto Rican or Native American-Spanish heritage (more on this term will be discussed in chapter two).

Latino/a – sometimes used inter-changeably with Hispanic, generally people from Spanish heritage from the Americas (North, Central and South America)

Statement of Purpose

Multicultural education is purported to bring the cultures of the students on the margins out into the classroom and incorporate them to build a more accepting classroom. The diverse population of the United States creates diverse classrooms as well. Multicultural education proposes that through multicultural

pedagogy, educators can achieve the theory's goals, and the diverse community in public schools may benefit from this. Therefore, this paper reviews the current research literature to determine how multicultural education affects the academic achievement of Hispanic/Latino/a students in the US classroom.

Limitations

This research paper is meant to assist me in my future teaching and I have placed the following limitations on it accordingly. The research literature I have procured has been performed in the United States on all levels of students. The limitation concerning the research literature to only research that has been peer reviewed is to make sure that the research that is included in this paper has been reviewed by members of the same field and that it is reliable information. I have narrowed my research subjects to Hispanic or Latino/a students because the areas of the country in which I hope to be teaching have a majority of Hispanic or Latino/a students.

Summary

This chapter provided the rationale for the research paper as this country is culturally pluralistic and needs to educate all children in the same manner. The population in the United States is culturally diverse and the theory of multicultural education attempts to incorporate the diverse cultures in classrooms to the pedagogy with in them. Not all educators are convinced that multicultural education achieves its goals because of existing circumstances. Those circumstances have been created through the historic clash between the cultures that set up the schools and those people of different cultures that attend the

schools. The second chapter outlines the course schooling has taken from the forming of the American Colonies to present day public schools and discusses how multicultural education came into the vocabulary of educators.

The third chapter critically reviews the current research literature on how multicultural education affects Hispanic students' achievement. The concluding chapter connects the historical background of multicultural education to the research done on the subject as well as gives recommendations or conclusions based on the historic background and research. It also provides suggestions for areas of future research.

CHAPTER TWO: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Introduction

This chapter outlines the course schooling has taken from the forming of the American Colonies to present day public schools, how schools were formed in the American South West and discusses briefly how multicultural education came into the vocabulary of educators. First, the chapter discusses the formation of schooling in the United States and how separation of cultures began from the start. Next, the history of schools in the west and southwest will be explained. This section of the chapter demonstrates how the segregation of Mexican students in the Southwest has influenced how Latino/a students are viewed in public schools today. Finally, this chapter examines how multicultural education got its start through those social movements. The chapter begins with the introduction of schools to the North American continent.

The Beginnings of US Schools

The schools that emerged in the early years of the United States were built for different reasons by people with differing ideologies as to the purpose of schooling. The majority of schools were in New England and were used to instill order and religious cohesion in the small population there (Spring, 2007). These schools only instilled submission to authority in students and used memorization as the only method of instruction (Spring, 2007). By instilling this sense of submission to any one in authority, those in control could maintain their authority in the system of government and religious authority over the people in the area. To keep the status quo in society, two different types of schools were built up in

the English Colonies in America. Apprenticeship and grammar schools were the only two options that were available to children in the colonies (Spring, 2007). Apprenticeship or reading and writing schools would prepare students to go into a particular field of study like blacksmithing or coppersmithing (Spring, 2007). Grammar schools prepared the upper class youth to become leaders of society through classical literature and political study (Spring, 2007). Reading and writing schools were to teach citizens of the country where grammar schools were to teach leaders of the country. The role of education was to maintain the social distinctions between the classes in society through different levels of schooling (Spring, 2007). Whichever level a student ended at would determine the place in society that student would have in adulthood. This class distinction continues today through the perceptions of those with out high school diplomas, those with GED's, people with just a high school diploma, to those with their PhD's. The class level in education determines, in many ways, their class level in society.

The attempt was made to give other groups of people in the new United States the chance to get an education. One of two notable endeavors was the government's attempt to Christianize Native Americans by taking their children, putting them in private schools miles from their families and stripping them from their culture and language (Spring, 2007). It didn't work out too well for either party. The second effort made by a significant group of people that were not government lead at the time was the attempt to force Anglicanism on German immigrants in Pennsylvania (Spring, 2007). The surrounding population tried to force German immigrants into schools that would teach them the English

language and the English way of life (Spring, 2007). Both of these examples are attempts to impress English Anglican culture on other groups. The trend persisted within school systems with the segregation of schools in the Southern United States and still exists today as students are marginalized even with the No Child Left Behind Act through pushing students headed to college in that direction and not giving students that are thought to not go to college the same opportunities for the education they deserve (Delpit, 2001). The idea of separation in schools began in England with secular schooling.

Secular schooling began in England and came to the United States through the ideas of freedom and the scientific revolution (Spring, 2007). Separating religion and education created a new avenue for education. Non-religious or secular schooling came to the United States creating the atmosphere needed to bring the sciences and ideas of freedom of thought to the country. With the introduction of secular schools and academies from England, the United States created a privatized school system that worked for the lower classes to stay where they are and for the upper classes to create the leaders of the future (Spring, 2007). One man believed that you could achieve social mobility through education and did so himself (Spring, 2007). Benjamin Franklin educated himself through experience and social interaction and believed that any one could move up the social ladder by using education to its fullest.

From the information above, it can be determined that separation of classes, ethnicities, cultures and races has existed from the start of schools in the United States. The previous chapter stated that the rationale for this research

paper was to investigate how multicultural education can affect Hispanic/Latino students of color. The section above brings the reason for the rationale to light. Dividing students by culture, class, gender, race and ethnicity means that Hispanic/Latino students have been separated in the past as well. Separation persists through the history of schooling. The definition of Hispanic according to Kaye/Kantrowitz (2000) is “not a racial identity, but a cultural/linguistic category conflating Spain and its former colonies” which has been used to separate students in schools. This definition is debated over between those who use the term and those that the term describes. Gómez-Peña (1988) described the term Hispanic as a way to “homogenize our cultural diversity” (p. 132) and only connects the people described by it to Spain and not their native countries. The use of Hispanic in his paper is to use the same terminology as the research analyzed. To achieve the goals that multicultural education theory has set out, a change in curriculum and thought on education must occur. A change can be seen as education moved toward the integration of students into desegregated schools. This move toward integration of students began from the activity of social movements in the 1960’s. The civil rights movement and women’s rights movement brought the separation in education into the limelight through pushing for education reform in law and the government (Spring, 2007).

Schools of the South West and Chicana/o Education

Pre-Columbian Civilizations

Pre-Columbian civilizations of what is now called Mexico and the South Western states of the United States of America were not without an educational

system. These civilizations had schools for upper level occupations and those for necessary occupations that kept the civilization working (Berumen et. al, 1999). During early colonization, colonists followed the same system of education for a short time but very quickly changed the systems to one implemented by missions also called Doctrina Schools (Berumen et. al, 1999). Once the Native Americans of the area covered by a mission were going to mass habitually, missionaries began formal schools for select Native children that showed promise in writing, reading, singing and music. This form of schooling was so popular with elite Native's and missionaries that the decision was made to form a second set of schools where the curriculum included advanced arts and vocational training (Berumen et. al, 1999). This schooling system began to change after the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo was signed in 1848. This treaty gave U.S. citizenship and all the rights that pertained to that title to those that lived in the newly acquired land that is now known as California, Texas, Arizona, New Mexico and most of Nevada (Berumen et. al, 1999). This treaty was broken when only those that the Mexican government considered white were given citizenship and the rest of the people living in the newly acquired land were given no such rights (Berumen et. al, 1999).

After the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo

Schools that were established after the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo was signed and the Mexican-American War was over were different from the schools erected previously in two ways. First, the schools were not only sponsored by the Catholic Church but by different religious, secular and public groups in the

community surrounding it (Berumen et. al, 1999). The state funded public schools would not start to come into the communities of this area until the late 1870's (Berumen et. al, 1999) so the groups that funded these new schools were on their own. The second difference found in post 1848 schools of the South West was that all of these schools had a new goal in mind for their students: Americanization (Berumen et. al, 1999; Spring, 2007). The schools strove to teach students how to acquire the same cultural identity as the country that took over the land that they lived on was thought to have.

Many of the Catholic run schools made the attempt to validate Mexican Americans and encourage them to practice their culture and heritage at the same time as teaching American social, economic and political ideas (Berumen et. al, 1999). Protestant run schools, on the other hand, were hostile to Mexican Americans at first and forcefully pushed Americanization on their students. Even though the harshness toward cultural holidays and some practices diminished over time, their policies on speaking Spanish in school did not change (Berumen et. al, 1999). When public schools came into the communities, many promoted Americanization while using Spanish in the school and incorporated cultural heritage into their curriculum since they were controlled by community members and their influence on the school was heavy (Berumen et. al, 1999).

Public schools became the leading form of education in the South West through a tumultuous stage in the 1900's. Public schools came out of this by recreating the system into a "centralized, mass, compulsory state agency organized to indoctrinate the citizenry with a common political culture aimed at

strengthening political stability, while inculcating the skills necessary for optimal economic growth and profitability” (Berumen et. al, 1999, p. 55-56). What was most often done about the ‘Mexican problem’ in the South West was to create separate schools when the population was large enough to accommodate for it (Berumen et. al, 1999). These separate schools taught English as a language and American customs, values and norms because, “educators and political leaders worried over Mexican habits thought to be antithetical to the national culture: unseemliness, shiftlessness, irresponsibility, lack of ambition, unthriftiness, fatalism, promiscuity and proneness to alcohol abuse” (Berumen et. al, 1999, p.57). Putting children into schools and teaching them how to be American was thought to solve this problem. The public schools in the south west continued in this tradition unchallenged until 1945 when five parents filed a class action lawsuit against Orange County school district in California called the Mendez v. Westminster case. The US district court made its ruling in February of 1946 that the school district was guilty of violating the 14th amendment by forcing Mexican children to attend segregated schools and the county was ordered to start the process of dismantling the segregation of the school district in the fall of 1948 (Berumen et. al, 1999). Although the school district did not end up desegregating the schools, the case had been made and won that segregation of students into separate schools was not lawful and had to be stopped. The segregation of Mexican students propagated the idea that Mexicans were inferior. “For example, in the Mendez decision, Judge McCormick stated “the methods of segregation prevalent in the defendant school districts foster

antagonisms in the children and suggest inferiority among them where none exists” (Berumen et. al, 1999, p.80). This suggested inferiority was perpetuated through de facto desegregation in California, Arizona and Texas and the fight still rages for equality although some steps forward have been achieved (Berumen et. al, 1999).

Multicultural Education Beginnings

Multicultural education began in the late 1960’s within the work of groups looking to education as a way to change the way that society constructed the education system. These groups saw that changes needed to be made to the national education system so that all students would receive the same education (Spring, 2007). Ideas and theories about multicultural education grew rapidly in the 1970’s as three aspects of society came together: the civil and women’s rights movements, textbooks were being critically analyzed, and underlying assumptions of the deficiency of students were reassessed (Sleeter and Grant, 1994). The civil rights movement looked toward education to bring equality to all marginalized students who were not receiving the same education as white students in schools while the women’s rights movement in the 1960’s & 1970’s looked to education to give women equal opportunity to get a higher education to compete with men at higher paying jobs (Spring, 2007). The 1970’s engaged support for diversity through education through court cases and federal legislation that gave legal precedence for incorporating multicultural education’s philosophies into the school system (Sleeter and Grant, 1994). Some examples of the court cases and federal legislation enacted were the 1974 U.S. Supreme

Court decision on *Lau v. Nichols* on guaranteeing equal opportunity for non-English speaking students and the Ethnic Heritage Act that gave money for the development of multiethnic curriculum (Sleeter and Grant, 1994). The 1980's brought a diminished support system to the multicultural education approach with economic hardship and increased criticism on the disuniting of the country it would do (Sleeter and Grant, 1994).

Politically, multicultural education was criticized by the left because it was seen as only focusing on the superficial pieces of cultural diversity and along with the narrow focus, multicultural education failed to look at the institutionalized racism that exists in the structures of societies (Nieto, 1992). These criticisms became points to which multicultural educationalists focused and addressed (Nieto, 1992). The right typically found that multicultural education legitimated "the maintenance of cultures and languages other than those of the dominant group" (Nieto, 1992, p.xvii). The 1980's also brought about school reforms looking for academic excellence from all students, but without an education foundation of equality for all students, it could not happen (Bennett, 1999). This reform was needed to get to the core of the problem but simple quick fixes and one class programs were not going to do the job (Bennett, 1999). Several authors cited in this paper began to provide scholarship in multicultural education during the early and mid 1980's "developing new, deeper frameworks that were grounded in the ideal of equal educational opportunity and a connection between school transformation and social change" (Gorski, 1999, p.1). As the cultural landscape of the United States changed through the decades, the need grew for a different

set of skills and knowledge for students that the system as it was would not be able to provide. The goals presented in the writings on multicultural education have come to look toward creating curriculum that includes a multicultural view of the world.

Summary

This chapter showed the path that schools have taken during the formation of the American Colonies through to present day public schools as well as how public schools were shaped in the American Southwest. The chapter briefly discussed the formation of the term multicultural education through the social movements in the 1960's to 1980's. The next chapter provides recent research on the effects of a multicultural educational view on pre-service teachers, Hispanic students' level of self esteem, self efficacy and how the school's outlook affects academic achievement and the community involvement's affect on Hispanic students' academic achievement.

CHAPTER THREE: CRITICAL REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

Chapter one discussed how the United States is culturally pluralistic, how multicultural education attempts to incorporate that diversity into classrooms and the multiple theories in multicultural education. There is need for a change in pedagogy because of the diverse population within the U.S. education system. Chapter two explained the beginnings of the education system in the United States and how multicultural education got its start during the Civil Rights Era. Chapter three reviews the research on Hispanic students and their parents in the education system, preparedness of teachers to teach multicultural education and programs and schools that have implemented multicultural education. The research used in this chapter is organized into five sections: drop out rates and disappearing, achievement and attitude, engagement and assessment, teacher trainings and programs. Each of the studies are summarized and analyzed based on the conclusions provided in the research.

Drop Out Rates and Disappearing

The studies of this section describe the need for a change in educational pedagogy to help keep Hispanic students from disappearing in the education system. Cammorta (2006) discussed how students are disappearing by being pushed to the side of education and consequently dropping out of school and Delgado-Gaitan (1988) discussed why Chicano/a students from the same community could drop out and some stay in school. Carpenter and Ramirez (2007) found a correlation between different ethnic groups and Worrell (2007)

investigated if self-concept and attitude have an affect on different ethnicities drop out rates.

Cammarota (2006) conducted an ethnographic study through interviews and observations of students over a six-month period. Cammorta (2006) explored how the permeation of racist ideologies in the school context renders the academic potential of Latina/o students invisible to school personnel. The students interviewed described the racism in the schools they attended through the placement in ESL classrooms if new students had Spanish surnames stunting the potential growth of those students significantly.

The first phase of the study included forty Latinas/os in the same California barrio 20 of which were female and 20 male. Most participants were of Mexican origin with a small percentage from El Salvador or Guatemala. All of the participants helped support families through their own employment. Thirty-five attended the same primary high school in the area. Less than 25% of the subjects were enrolled in community college and a few graduated from four year universities. In the second phase of the study, six young people; four of Mexican origin, one of Guatemalan origin, and one of El Salvadorean origin participated. Three were 1.5 generation and three were second generation in the US. Three participants were male and three were female. Three dropped out of high school and three went on to college. For the first phase of the study, Cammorta (2006) interviewed each subject on their life-history over a four year span from mid-1990's to 1999. In the second phase of the study, Cammorta (2006) followed and observed (shadowed) subjects periodically over a six month period. The

observations consisted of following youth at least once a week and observations were documented in field notes.

Students claimed that very few if any teachers, administrators and counselors showed any caring or concern for students. Multiple interviews, classroom observations and conversations with youth demonstrated that the school and people working at it had stopped trying to teach the students and discontinued caring actions towards students. Most students did not encounter any responsive teaching according to their life-history interviews. More than half of the 40 youth interviewed said that teachers and school officials did not care about students and nearly every youth complained about the poor quality of their education and the school system in general. Three believed that their education was near satisfactory; one attended a Catholic high school and the other two were tracked into advanced classes. Lack of investment by teachers lead many students to give up on education or look for it in other places. Cammorta (2006) stated that the apathetic education they received had the consequence of abandoning hope and not caring about school. The common practice for administration for new students with Spanish surnames was to place them in ESL classes regardless of their knowledge of English. Cammorta (2006) found that school personnel routinely ignored students' intellectual capacities and potential from the belief that Latinas/os did not 'belong' at the school or even in the country through administrative practice and second hand accounts of communications between students and teachers. Feeling or being ignored in classrooms was a common experience for many students. Counselors did not

dispense information to students to prepare for and attend college. The only way that any of the students interviewed found information about college and college prep was through their own research. Compassionate teachers were those that the students recalled that helped them and assisted them in their education. Demonstrations of caring for students gave the students the motivation to work toward the educational goals that they have.

This article described a methodology that produced believable and convincing findings but are difficult to reproduce and confirm without viewing the transcripts of the interviews. There was no indication that the analysis and product of the data collection are auditable by an outside party. A weakness of this study was that there was a small sample size of students and there were no interviews done with the staff and faculty at the schools described. This created a weakness in the credibility of the study. The transferability of the study is questionable because how the participants were chosen was not indicated and was very specific to a location. Cammorta (2006) gave an explanation as to why Latino students are not achieving in schools today and gave reference to how that could be changed through aspects of multicultural education. The students' statements on what would have helped them illustrate a need for multicultural education in classrooms.

Delgado-Gaitan (1988) constructed a qualitative ethnography to investigate why some Chicano students from the same community, socioeconomic and cultural group remain in school while their peers drop out. Delgado-Gaitan (1988) found that social conditions assist some students to stay

in school. Some common denominators included their time in the United States, language use, socioeconomic status and location at the time of the study. The differences emerged as teacher judgments about students' behavior, the family's value of schooling and the level of parental involvement in the students education. All of the subjects in the study resided in La Victoria outside Denver, CO. Three main adult informants came from the community, the high school and the alternative high school. Twelve students were the focus of the study. Seven were still in high school, three were on the advanced track at the high school and five students dropped out at some point during the study. Two of the drop outs returned to the alternative school and tried to continue their education. English was the primary language in all of the family's homes and were of working class economic status. Single and two parent families were represented in the sample.

Data was collected through ethnographic observations, interviews and demographic census data. The students were observed outside of school in community activities, church activities, at parks and recreation halls, shopping malls, restaurants and parent and administrator meetings. Observations were only able to be made within the alternative high school classrooms. Interviews were conducted with twelve Chicano students, their parents, peers and teachers, school board members and community leaders. Various questions were asked of them about their perceptions of the meaning of schooling, drop out rates and academic learning. Both parents were interviewed if present for two parent families and only heads of the household were interviewed for single parent families. The interviews with students were conducted in their home. This data

was analyzed to construct a general profile of education in La Victoria for Chicanos. This depicts their socialization path to schooling, their beliefs about education, self identity values, support systems and influential people in their lives.

A single motive for dropping out of school could not be determined from the data collected. Adults in the community stated that the worst problem for students is tracking that began in elementary school. Students indicated that deciding to drop out of school does not start in high school but “the day you begin school. Tracking has something to do with dropping out” (p. 362). Students also indicated that there were several reasons for dropping out such as uncaring teachers and boring classes. Teachers were often indifferent to students lives as indicated by Tony when he stated “teachers would say that I had to do my work if I came to class or not to bother coming to school ‘cause it wasted their time” (p. 363). Three students cases indicated that dropping out takes place over time that all involved their status in school, personal support at home, peer groups and what they saw for their future. “I realized it was really easy not to go to school and I started missing school” (p.366). This student stated that his anxiety over not being able to keep up with the work and his frustration over failing to get additional help from his instructor started his practice of missing class. Some students stated becoming vaguely bored with the classes they attended. Other students heard of the alternative school and started there so that they received individual attention. Seven of the twelve students interviewed and observed

stayed in school without any interruption. Steady support from family and friends kept a majority of the students in school.

The credibility of this study is one of its strengths. The methodology used produced findings that are believable, convincing and dependable. The process and product of data collection and analysis of the data is auditable by an outside party which made confirmability a strength as well. The sample size was small which created a weakness in the study. Transferability may not be a strength because of the small sample size, location of the study and access to the students. Delgado-Gaitan (1988) demonstrated that support from others allowed for academic achievement in students which is supported by multicultural education's ideals of incorporation of the community.

Carpenter and Ramirez (2007) used a quantitative static group comparison study to investigate if there was a pattern of within-group and between White, Black and Hispanic groups of students drop out gaps consistent with different dependent variables Carpenter and Ramirez (2007) found that there was far less overlap of significant predictors across groups than expected and school level variables only play one part of explaining why students drop out. Student level variables played a larger part in determining if a student dropped out or not. The subjects in this study were chosen by proxy through the NELS: 88 longitudinal study on cohorts of American students done by the National Center for Education Statistics. The NELS:88 used a two-stage, stratified random sample design to find participants. Schools were first stratified by region, urbanicity and percentage of minority students enrolled. This sample was

restricted to public and private schools that included independent, Catholic and other types of religious schools which enrolled eighth grade students. The second stage selected students within schools. Follow-ups on the NELS:88 were conducted at different years. The initial administration of the NELS: 88 Survey was done in 1988, the first follow up was in 1990, second in 1992, third in 1994 and last in 2000. The total number of participants was measured in 1990 at 17,613, 2,445 of which were Hispanic. This report on the study will only include Hispanic students findings as they are most pertinent to this research survey. No data was given on the socioeconomic status of the students or their sex.

Carpenter and Ramirez (2007) analyzed the data from the NELS: 88 for their study. The NELS: 88 collected data on eighth-grade students through their postsecondary education and into the labor force. Data was collected through a questionnaire and cognitive test on each student. Questionnaires were administered to each students parent/s, school principal and two of his/her teachers. The questionnaires asked for information on selected background characteristics which included English language proficiency, attitudes, career and college plans, school experience and extracurricular activities. Principals and headmasters answered questions about the school specifically while parents reported on family resources, parent involvement in school, educational opportunities provided outside of school and financial planning for college. Teachers completed a questionnaire concerning the educational process and motivation of the student, the academic difficulty of the class, the school itself and the teachers' prior educational experiences. Carpenter and Ramirez (2007)

implemented a three-level HGLM logistic model using socioeconomic status, ESL program use, Language other than English used at home, time spent on homework, school enrollment, school type, urbanicity, percentage of white students in the school, teacher certification, years of algebra 1 completed, family composition, parental involvement and race/ethnicity as variables to examine if there was a significant difference in the probability of dropping out based on race/ethnicity. To make the modeling of data more parsimonious, teacher certification was dropped from the variables and a two level HGLM model was conducted. The last phase of the study was done by running separate models for each racial group to facilitate a comparison of groups.

The overall dropout rate was 9.7% with Hispanic students' drop out rate at 15.4 % which was consistent with prior findings. Dropout rates for those who had been held back were much larger and consistent across all groups. None of the variables acted as common predictors across all three groups. White and Hispanic students shared three predictors of time spent on homework, units of algebra 1 and family composition. Units of algebra 1 and family composition were stronger predictors for Hispanic students. Hispanic students with two parent families had a higher percentage of students that did dropout (12.1%) than students of one parent families (23%). Teacher certification was not a significant variable for dropping out for the three-level HGLM model as indicated by the standardize beta statistic of $-.218$ with an odds ratio of $.80$ ($p=.498$) for the whole sample population. Hispanic students standardized beta statistic was 1.04 with an odds ratio of 2.85 ($p=.364$). Carpenter and Ramirez (2007) recognized the

limitations of the study as the findings can only be generalized to high school students, small sample sizes of Hispanic students were present in some of the modeling and the data is dated. Testing, instrumentation and regression are all strengths of this study design. No data was given on the socioeconomic status of the students or their sex. Selection and mortality are weaknesses of this type of study. Maturation is also a place of concern in this type of study design.

Carpenter and Ramirez (2007) showed how dropping out of school had multiple factors and may or may not have been influenced by multicultural education.

Worrell (2007) used a quantitative study which included MEIM and RSES questionnaires to investigate if African American, Asian American, Hispanic and White students differed on ethnic identity and other group orientation attitudes, ethnic identity and other group orientation attitudes predict self esteem in these groups, and if ethnic identity and other group orientation attitudes predict academic achievement above the contributions of students' academic self-rankings. Worrell (2007) found that ethnic identity attitudes were salient for academically talented minority students and academic environments did not have to be in conflict with students' reference group orientation. A convenience sample of 319 students with 57.7% of the students being female from an academically talented summer program put on by a research university in a western state comprised the participants of the study. Students attending the program had to have high achievement in school – competitive program. The average age was 14.8 years old with a mean GPA of 3.79 (standard deviation - .29). Twenty-eight students were African American, 28 students were Hispanic, 171 students were

Asian American and 92 students were White. The majority of students were middle or upper class. Where the students were from, and whether they went to a public or private school was not indicated in the article.

Participants provided academic information including school GPA, program GPA, academic ranking that compared themselves to students in their home school and in the summer program. Students' rankings were a measure of student ability. The rankings were put on a 5 point Likert scale where 1 equaled among the best, 2 equaled above average, 3 was average, 4 was below average and 5 was among the poorest. These rankings were reverse-coded for analyses so higher values indicated higher ranking. Students also filled out two questionnaires when they applied for the program. The questionnaires were the MEIM and RSES. The MEIM was a 20 item questionnaire with fourteen questions measuring ethnic identity attitudes and six measured other group orientation attitudes. Ethnic identity assessed students' ethnic behaviors, affirmation and belonging, and identity achievement while the group orientation pieces assessed students' willingness to interact with and learn about ethnic groups other than their own. These were rated on a four point Likert scale with 1 equaling strongly agree, 2 equaling somewhat agree, 3 equaling somewhat disagree, and 4 equaling strongly disagree. The items were reverse coded so that higher numbers show more positive attitudes. Four items on the MEIM were worded negatively to reduce response set. The Cronbach's alpha for the ethnic identity scores was less than or equal to .90 and greater than or equal to .81 while the Cronbach's alpha for the other group orientation scores was greater

than or equal to .54 and less than or equal to .76. The RSES questionnaire had 10 items that assessed self esteem or global self-concept. The Cronbach's alpha for this questionnaire was between .70 and .90. Five of the questions were worded negatively to avoid response set and were reverse scored. This was also rated on the same 4 point Likert scale that the MEIM was. The time line for when the questionnaires were filled out and received was not given.

The average age of the twenty-eight Hispanic students was 14.6 years (SD: 1.42), had an average program GPA of 3.4 (SD: .79) and program rank of 3.4 (SD: .83). The self esteem level for Hispanic students was 3.4 (SD: .79). There was a significant difference in school GPA (M: 3.6 $p < .002$ SD: .38), school rank (M: 4.1 $p < .006$ SD: .81) and ethnic identity attitudes (M: 3.4 $p < .002$, SD: .51). The regression equation for the prediction of self esteem in three of the four groups (Asian American, Hispanic and White) was significant. School ranking was a meaningful predictor for Hispanic students. Program rank made little or no contribution to any of the groups. Findings indicated that ethnic identity attitudes were salient to academically talented minority students. They also suggest that academic environment doesn't have to be in conflict with students' reference group orientation.

Worrell (2007) indicated the limitations of the study as the small numbers of Hispanic students and the self report method for school and program GPA's. Where the students were from, and whether they went to a public or private school was not indicated in the article which created a weakness in the selection of the study. The time line for when the questionnaires were filled out and

received was not given which also created a weakness in the study. Another weakness in the study is the maturation time because there was no time indicated for space between administration of the questionnaires. Worrell's (2007) investigation showed that Hispanic students' achievement was based on several factors that are not or cannot be controlled by any one other than the student. This implied that multicultural education may or may not have an affect on academic achievement.

The studies of this section showed that the drop out rates for Hispanic students are affected by the practices of schools and teachers. Cammorta (2006) found that school personnel ignored students' intellectual capacities and potential from the belief that Latinas/os did not 'belong' at the school through administrative practice and second hand accounts of communications between students and teachers. Feeling or being ignored in classrooms was a common experience for many of the students interviewed. Delgado-Gaitan (1988) found that social conditions like their language use, socioeconomic status and teacher judgments on students' behavior and family's value of schooling assisted some students to stay in school. Carpenter and Ramirez (2007) found that the largest determiner for a student to drop out was a student variable and that there was far less over lap of significant predictors across groups than expected. School level variables were only one part of explaining why students drop out. This contradicted the findings in Cammorta (2006). Worrell (2007) found that academically talented minority students' identity attitudes did not conflict with the

students' reference group orientation or have an affect on their academic achievement.

Achievement and Attitude

The seven studies in this section explore if student and parent attitude affects the achievement of Hispanic students. Vera (1999) examined how community aspirations affect students whereas Close and Solberg (2007) studied if certain social theories predict student achievement and retention.

Hadi-Tabassum (1999) explored how the implementation of a two-way immersion class affected the students attitude toward science. Delgado-Gaitan (1991) examined a communities involvement of its parents to find how parent involvement influenced education and Delgado-Gaitan (1994) examined the same communities construction of a parent group in their effort to relate to one another in support of the students and looked for the power relationships that exist in the relationship between school and parents. Melber (2006) considered how a museum's incorporation of whole families affected the connection those families made with the educational value of the museum, and Ogbu and Simons (1994) investigated how the differences between groups' cultural models, educational orientations and strategies helped explain the differences in school performance between minority groups.

Vera (1999) constructed a qualitative survey which investigated if the methodology set out by Lerner (1995) achieved its goal of incorporating the community into a research study and how the aspirations of the community come into a research study. Vera (1999) found that the methodology incorporates

community into research successfully and that the aspirations of the community were numerous. For the study, student focus groups of 8-10 children were selected from seventh-grade, eighth-grade and mixed seventh and eighth grade bilingual classrooms. Fifteen parents that had the time from work or did not work outside of the home were in a parents group. Six teachers participated in the teacher group for the study.

To gather information from the community, the research group used the Development-In-Context (DIC) approach to community work that identified problems that the program would be directed toward. The information came from focus groups of school administrators, teachers, parents and seventh and eighth grade students in an urban public school. The school was chosen because of the environment it was in. Vera (1999) searched for an environment that centralized the community members who have children in elementary school around it with an ethnically and socioeconomically mixed neighborhood with 67% of the population being Latino/a. The students were chosen for the focus group on a voluntary basis at the start and with classes with too many volunteers school administrators and teachers chose children who were very expressive and likely to freely offer their ideas. Parents were asked for their participation by being written to in English and Spanish and spoken with through teachers and school administrators. Parents that came to the focus groups went voluntarily without compensation and childcare was provided when parents brought children. All of the teachers in the grades present in the student group participated in the focus group because of the small number of teachers in those grades. Focus groups

were facilitated by graduate students in a counseling psychology program who were working toward doctoral degrees in Spanish and English. Facilitators were of various ethnic groups including African American, White and Latino. The teachers group was facilitated by a Chicano psychologist. Open-ended questions guided a discussion during the focus groups. Questions like “what goals do you have for you/your children’s futures” and “what might prevent you/your child from achieving those goals?” were asked during group time. Community stake holders were asked to identify problems that affected the students in and out of school, as well as resources and personnel in the community that were seen as assets. No time frame was discussed in the article. There was no treatment given and there was no description of how the researchers came up with their questions other than the DIC approach.

From questioning and interview of groups, six goals/aspirations were identified from all of the groups. They were graduating from 8th grade, getting into a good high school, getting high grades, having a career and money and going to college. Five barriers were identified by all the groups as peer pressure, poor relationships with parents and teachers, violence, no self confidence and not qualifying for a good high school. Three areas were identified as places for needed for support and assistance to achieving those goals and overcoming barriers. They were to have people to go to school, afternoon activities and acquiring decision making skills. The groups identified ways that they evaluated the outcomes of attempting to achieve goals as amount of self confidence, better relationships with adults and academic success. The transferability of the barriers

to goals for students was high because of the generalized barriers. The interview answers were credible by including community members and stated questions and answers of interviewees. The dependability and confirmability of the findings are uncertain. Expanding the survey to other communities that are of a similar composition would expand their argument for the generalization of those barriers that affect students. Vera (1999) illustrated the barriers to the goals of students, which included academic achievement, are places in education that multicultural education seeks to enhance. The implementation of multicultural education would affect those barriers described in the study.

Close and Solberg (2007) used a quantitative correlational method to evaluate whether a combination of social cognitive and self-determination theories would effectively predict high school students' distress, achievement and retention and which of three student outcomes – academic achievement, psychological/physical distress, and retention – could be predicted from constructs derived from two theoretical perspectives: self-determination theory and social cognitive theory. Close and Solberg (2007) found that the theories predicted different aspects of high school as well as outcomes. Social cognitive theory predicted academic achievement while self-determination theory predicted distress and retention. Four hundred and twenty-seven ethnically diverse ninth grade and tenth grade students participated in this study. Fifty-two percent of the participants were ninth grade students and forty-eight percent from a central city high school in the Midwest. There were 233 females and 192 males who self-reported their ethnicities. Seventy-two percent were Latino, thirteen percent were

African American, five percent were Asian American, five percent were Caucasian, two percent were Native American and three percent described themselves as other. The socioeconomic status of students was not indicated.

The participants completed a survey that assessed demographic information, autonomy, control, relatedness, academic self-efficacy and physical/psychological distress. The surveys were given in classrooms using standardized instructions during regular class times by trained experimenters and teachers. Completion of the survey was voluntary and it took about fifty minutes to complete the survey. Autonomous and controlled motivation was measured by an adapted version of the Academic Self-Regulation Questionnaire which measured the student's reasons for attending school regularly. The questionnaire asked the participant to report how true each reason listed for attending school was for them using a five-point Likert scale that ranged from 0 (very much untrue) to 4 (very much true). Fifteen items included, "the reason I keep coming to school is..." extrinsic regulation like "because if I don't I'll get punished", introjected regulation like "so important people in my life won't be disappointed in me", identified regulation like "because education is important to the goals I have" and intrinsic motivation like "because I enjoy school." Relatedness was assessed through a ten item measure that assessed the participant's connection to teachers and peers at school. Each item was rated on a five-point Likert scale that ranged from 0 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree). Academic self-efficacy was measured using a Class Self-Confidence and Social Self-Confidence subscales of the High School Academic Self-Efficacy Inventory. The

inventory consists of 22 items that measure the participants self confidence for performing various tasks associated with high school success like “taking good notes in class” and “asking questions in class”. The items were rated on an eight-point scale ranging from 0 (totally unconfident) to 7 (totally confident). Distress was measured using an adapted version of the College Distress Inventory. Words were re-worded for students’ comprehension. The inventory asked participants to indicate “how often you have experienced each of the following” in nineteen items rated on a six-point scale ranging from never to always.

The data gathered was analyzed by structural equation modeling and a two step modeling approach was used: a measurement model and a structural model. The raw data was prepared using Prelis 2. A confirmatory factor analysis was used to estimate the fit of the measurement model and six indicators were used to construct the model. The introjected and extrinsic indicators were not substantive on controlled motivation and the introjected factor was dropped as one of the indicators of controlled motivation because of this. The model was run again with one indicator for controlled motivation. This second measurement model showed a better model fit than model one which was indicated by the low p number ($p < .001$). This showed that extrinsic regulation is an indicator for controlled motivation. The analysis of the structural model indicated that ten of the thirteen hypothesized paths to retention were significant. Relatedness directly predicted autonomous motivation as indicated by the standardized coefficient of .66 while autonomous motivation directly influenced both self efficacy ($\beta = .47$) and achievement ($\beta = .22$). Achievement had a significant relationship to retention

($\beta=.43$). Self-efficacy had a positive influence on achievement ($\beta=.23$) and a negative influence on distress ($\beta=-.25$) as was expected. Controlled motivation had a positive influence on distress ($\beta=.21$) but a negative influence on achievement ($\beta=-.17$) which was not expected. Distress had a negative influence on achievement ($\beta= -. 17$) and retention ($\beta= -.12$). When students reported stronger connections to their teachers and peers they also reported higher levels of autonomous motivation which is consistent with self-determination theory. Students that reported autonomous reasons for coming to school reported higher levels of self-efficacy and displayed higher levels of achievement which was also consistent with self-determination theory. When students reported that they had high levels of academic confidence, earned high grades, attended school more regularly, and reported less physical and psychological distress which is consistent with social cognitive theory. Students that recorded high levels of achievement and reported low levels of distress were more likely to complete their school term. The researchers indicated the limitations of the survey as the control variable was a limited scope than initially proposed, students who transferred to different schools during the year or moved could not be differentiated from students who dropped out and caution should be taken when generalizing the results. Testing and instrumentation of the study design are strengths while history and maturation are weaknesses of this design. The socioeconomic status of students was not indicated. Close and Solberg (2007) showed that academic achievement is a significant factor in if students stay in school or not and that when students had stronger connections with their

teachers and parents, they achieved. This demonstrated a connection between multicultural education's theory on links to and between the school and the individual and achievement.

Hadi-Tabassum (1999) used qualitative case study and quantitative pretest post test survey to investigate the implications for reform that implementation of a two-way immersion classroom would have on education policy and practice. Hadi-Tabassum (1999) found that the two-way immersion curriculum had a positive effect on students' attitude toward science and would have a positive impact on education policy and practice. Twenty-five students participated in the study of which, 48% were limited-English proficient immigrant students from Mexican, Central American and South American origins. The rest of the class was one third Caucasian, African American and Chicana/o. All of the students attended a two-way immersion solar energy science class in Houston, Texas. All of the students were academically at risk. No socioeconomic status or age was given for the students.

The structure of the science class was drastically changed from the normal courses at the school. The course had a theme of solar energy that addressed the motivational and developmental needs of the students in the room. The curriculum was designed to engage students into understanding and processing the relationships between solar energy through hands-on experiments and group problem solving. The curriculum began with the basic concepts of solar energy which transitioned into the study of electronics and closed with solar-powered transportation. Students began reading mythologies

about the sun, examining the role of the sun in the solar system, the effects of solar light and heat, building solar collectors to study the water cycle and using the internet to research the greenhouse effect. The students next moved toward electronics through the study of its properties, built simple circuits and used solar cells to power student designed circuits. The instruction focused on two-way immersion, cooperative grouping, team teaching and portfolio assessments. The two-way immersion integrated limited-English proficient students with their peers and promoted development for both groups of students. Cooperative grouping provided the structure for two-way immersion to occur. Team teaching included the incorporation of one teacher creating the lessons in English while the other teacher focused the same lessons in Spanish. Student portfolios allowed for assessment of student learning on solar energy as well as language development. The final assessment of how this style of teaching affected students was a Likert-scale survey that measured the students' developing attitudes toward science. The survey was written in both Spanish and English and was administered to the same group as a pretest in the beginning of the year and a post test at the end of the year. Twenty statements were on the survey. Ten measured negative attitudes toward science and ten measured positive attitudes toward science. Each statement had a scale of one to five, five being the most positive (strongly agree/disagree).

The data from the survey showed that the range of scores on the pretest were 47 to 88 out of a possible 20 to 100. The post test range was from 46 to 98. This indicates that there were some students who responded more positively

after taking the class. The mean score for the pretest was 71 and the post test was 70 which were well above the neutral mean of 60 and lower than the pretest. The standard deviation for the pretest was 10 and the posttest was 12. The reliability score for the pretest was .77 and .81 for the posttest. This indicated that the survey was consistent. Through the student work in portfolios and assessments along the school year, the researcher found that students had a positive shift in attitude toward science after taking the class. The pretest/post test design of the survey has strengths in its history, maturation, testing, instrumentation, regression and selection. This indicates a strong positive statistical outcome for such a survey. The transferability of the change in curriculum is a strength. The methodology and conduct of this study produces findings that are not as believable and convincing concerning the case study. No socioeconomic status or age was given for the students. Hadi-Tabassum (1999) demonstrated through the tests and science portfolios that the students created, that a multicultural education approach to science changed the achievement level of the students in the classroom.

Delgado-Gaitan (1991) used a four year ethnographic qualitative method of study to examine parent involvement activities that encouraged isolated Spanish speaking parents to participate in their children's education. Delgado-Gaitan (1991) found that conventional practices for involving parents were closed to many Spanish speaking parents because of specific cultural knowledge that was required to participate. The nonconventional activities encouraged parents to participate through culturally responsive communication. The subjects of this

study included the whole of the Carpinteria School District in Carpinteria, CA. There were over 2,000 students in the school district of which 35% were Hispanic and 40% were limited English-speaking students. The school district administrators were exclusively Caucasian with one Mexican American male who coordinated the Migrant Program and one Mexican American principal. The school district consisted of four elementary schools, one junior high and one high school. The gender make up of the school district was not discussed nor were the other ethnicities or socioeconomic status of the student/parent population discussed. The population of Carpinteria was 12,000 with 67% white, 31% Mexican American, one percent Asian, .5% Black and .5% other which included American Indians. The Latino population was of low socioeconomic status.

Delgado-Gaitan (1991) looked to first define parent involvement because the community did not have a clear definition. School parent involvement activities were observed as well as various contexts of interaction in the home and school settings. Conventional activities included parent-teacher conferences, school site council meetings, and the Bilingual Preschool Parent Involvement program. Interviews with parents were conducted at each of those settings and with parents that were invited to them but did not attend. Interviews with teachers and administrators in the elementary schools who worked with Mexican American Spanish-speaking students and their parents were interviewed as well. All of the interviews were recorded and transcripts were made of them. One hundred and fifty-seven activities were observed. The school district provided different ways throughout the year for teachers and parents to communicate. The

school district held an annual open house and biannual teacher-parent conferences while each school held school-site council meetings. The other activities that served Spanish-speaking parents were linked to federal programs that required parent involvement such as the Preschool Program. Some of the conventional parent involvement activities were those listed above. Teachers reported that there was a high rate of parent involvement in the open house and principals reported a 90% attendance rate for Latino parents but the parents felt that the event did not offer enough time to discuss their children with the teachers. Parent teacher conferences brought out many of the Spanish-speaking parents as they made many accommodations to get to the conference and teachers made efforts to schedule conferences at convenient hours. The Bilingual Preschool Program and the Migrant Program were listed as the nonconventional parent involvement activities. They both had a parent involvement component by design. The preschool program was extremely successful with getting parents involved through teaching parents to be co-teachers with the head teacher. This empowered the parents to learn different skills. The families native language was used to educate parents about the curriculum and natural home activities were used to teach children cognitive concepts as well. The Migrant Program served students and families that worked in migratory-related industries from grades one through twelve. The program requirement was that the director had to meet with the parents of students three to four times a year to inform them of activities. Only ten to twenty-five percent of the parents attended. The director presented the activities in Spanish in a lecture

style and, when finished, opened the meeting for questions and comments. A parent who attended the meetings stated that the meetings were “very important because although we don’t have a drug problem in my family, we can understand how the problem exists in many families. I think it affects the Latin community” (p.30). The last component of nonconventional parent involvement was the creation of *Comite de Padres Latinos* or *Committee for Latin Parents (COPLA)*. The group was initiated when a preschool parent acknowledged that there were some parents who were skillful about ways to help their children in school and could share that knowledge with others. The group members were to assist each other with issues in the school or school district. Small groups of parents would meet, share their experiences and get parents to learn from each other to help their children progress through school. More on COPLA will be described in the next research article.

The methodology and conduct produced findings that are believable and convincing giving the study credibility. The study is transferable to other communities in California and across the United States that have a Latino population. The process and the product are auditable to any one which makes confirmability a strength for this study. The gender make up of the school district was not discussed nor were the other ethnicities or socioeconomic status of the student/parent population discussed. This is a weakness because the population being studied was the parents in the community and not the community as a whole which the demographic information was given for. Delgado-Gaitan (1994) found that to affect student achievement, empowerment of the parents is needed.

The empowerment of parents is a factor in the academic achievement of students by the parents being advocates for their children in schools. Inclusion of the community that surrounds a school, is one aspect of the goals of multicultural education's goals.

Delgado-Gaitan (1994) constructed a five year ethnographic, qualitative survey of the Carpinteria School district to describe the home-school link constructed by the school and the parents in their effort to relate to one another in support of the students and looked for the power relationships that exist in the relationship between school and parents. Delgado-Gaitan (1994) found that the group COPLA initiated a dialogue between the school and parents to receive support from the school for their students and receive advice on communication with the school and teachers. Schools began to incorporate home culture into the curriculum of Latino students and established closer communication with parents. It was found that teachers needed support to change their structural constraints and enable them to establish effective communication with Latino parents.

The participants in this study came from the same community of the previous Delgado-Gaitan (1999) study. The Latino population is mostly comprised of Mexican Americans that range from recently immigrated and who have lived in the area since the time of Mexican rule. The age range and socioeconomic status of the participants in COPLA, the teachers and principals interviewed were not given. The school parent involvement activities were observed as well as interactions within the home and school. Parent-teacher conferences, school site meetings and the Bilingual Preschool Parent

Involvement Program were observed. Interviews with parents, teachers and administrators in the elementary schools were conducted, recorded and made into transcripts. One hundred and fifty-seven activities were observed. The researcher collected thirty case studies and met with large groups of Spanish-speaking parents to verify, confirm, clarify or modify what they had learned from the community. Those parents formed *Comite de Padres Latinos* or Committee of Latino Parents (COPLA) which discussed issues of parental responsibility in their children's education. This emergent group became the focus of the researchers ethnography study.

COPLA found initial success with the school, went under structural changes including more groups of parents within the community and the study ended as COPLA began efforts to negotiate more improvements in the education of Spanish-speaking students. The initial success with the school was shown through advancements in the frequency with which Latino parents and school personnel interacted, more Latino parents attended meetings at the school and became active in issues that affected their children and parents reported more communication between them and teachers. Each school came to have a COPLA group and assisted Latino parents to become more knowledgeable about their role as advocates for their children. COPLA became an advocate organization and a viable community leadership group. The group then became highly involved in advocating parent involvement in all of the schools. The analysis of the data collected by the researcher found the most significant finding dealt with the district's proposals to support principals to make parent

involvement a priority in daily curriculum. The superintendent designed a policy that held principals accountable for outreach to parents. This new policy created a monthly meeting between teachers and parents at Canalino School (preschool to second grade). Even with the policy, bilingual teachers in Aliso (grade three to six) did not reach out to parents creating a major issue that was raised by teachers about if Latino parents should join the English speaking parents in meeting to not duplicate efforts. The Main (grade three to six) school hired a new Latino principal, teachers and made an effort to include a bilingual newsletter. The middle school made its first effort toward meeting the learning goals of Spanish speaking students when they hired a new Spanish speaking counselor and bilingual teacher. The high school vice principal made the effort to make more contact with students and parents to deal with academic concerns.

The findings are believable and convincing so the credibility of this study is a strength. The findings are confirmable by the availability of auditing the data and analysis. The age range and socioeconomic status of the participants in COPLA, the teachers and principals interviewed were not given. This is a weakness because the population being studied was the parents in the community and not the community as a whole which the demographic information was given for. The transferability of the study is a weakness because it is specific to the area and group formed by parents. COPLA is the embodiment of the empowerment that Delgado-Gaitan (1994) spoke of in the previous study. Delgado-Gaitan (1994) demonstrated how influential parent involvement is in

students' overall education. A full education is a goal of multicultural education and parent involvement is included within that.

Melber (2006) constructed a qualitative group pretest/posttest research study that examined how museum educators connect with members of the surrounding community through the PIPE (Parents Involved, Pigeons Everywhere) program and how they meet or do not meet the goals of identifying successful ways of attracting local, Latino families to the museum as visitors, increase comfort level with the museum and increase understanding of museum scientists and scientific work. Melber (2006) found that museum educators connected with the Latino families by the incorporation of interpreters available, using the Spanish they knew, pictorial descriptions, and activities available. Melber (2006) also found that mere attendance to the museum increased comfort level and understanding of museum scientists and scientific work. The participants in this study were low-income Latino families selected through a scholarship file kept for the children's programs at the museum. Eleven families were invited to participate but only six families participated. The mother of each family was the main contact for museum and the leader of the collaboration. Spanish was the first language of all of the families and a translator was made available at every stage of the program for assistance. Elementary age children were the target of the program but older age family members were also allowed to participate in the family fair day.

A three part program was implemented for this study. The first was a parent meeting at which a questionnaire regarding what the parents in the

families participating perceived the museum prior to the second component of the program. Those that were not able to attend completed the questionnaire through the mail. There were no questions from the questionnaire provided in the article. At the parents meeting, the parents learned specific information about the intent of the program and how the museum educators would implement the program with children. The parents received materials on the program as well as viewed a video about the program. The second component of the study was the family fair day. The family fair included the families and museum staff in pigeon watching activities which included bird watching with the museum ornithologist, a tour of the ornithology collection and lab and hands-on activities. The families received a bag of hands-on science materials with non-fiction books on bird biology and behavior to take home with them. Along with the grab bags, the families received guest passes to come back to the museum. A follow-up parent meeting was held after the family fair day. The goal of the meeting was to provide parents with a way to share their opinions of the project. A post questionnaire was conducted at this meeting as well as over the phone and through mail correspondence. The questionnaire measured the specific reaction that parents had to the program and asked parents if they were now more comfortable visiting the museum after participating in the program as well as if they had a better understanding of what a scientist did. A DAST derivative was used to establish the parents' understanding of what scientists do prior to and during their time at the museum. The test acknowledged stereotypical images of science and

scientists. General themes were identified and compared with individuals before and after drawings.

The questionnaires and DAST derivative test found that the program established a successful collaboration with program participants and increased their comfort level with the museum and with the work scientists do at the museum. Ways to encourage families to participate were identified to be accommodating extended family members of all ages and acknowledging non-traditional work schedules in the scheduling of activities. The questionnaire also identified having materials, videos and Spanish translators as an imperative piece in the study. Intricate vocabulary was a struggle to translate into Spanish but a mix of Spanish and English was found to be useful in those situations. The pre-questionnaire included two questions regarding comfort level with visiting the museum with children. Participation, interesting or beautiful displays were given as examples of what made participants comfortable in the museum. One question from the post-questionnaire addressed an increased comfort level with the museum. The question was “Do you feel more comfortable coming to the museum with your family after participating in this project? Why or why not?” Four of the five respondents answered yes. One answered no because she already felt comfortable with the museum. Reasons given as to why they felt more comfortable were “my family and I want to learn more”, “we know more about the birds that are in the museum”, “I have more confidence and know more”, and “ we learned together and exchanged ideas”. The modified DAST test indicated that mothers formed a richer understanding of the work of scientists in

general and specifically the work of museum scientists. By interpretation of the drawings, the researchers inferred that the changes in the drawings, from static figures of stereotypical males in white shirts or coats to active people of varied genders and varied surroundings.

This study's strength was in selection because the study was comprised of a one group pretest/post test design. The study incorporated the whole family when it received questionnaires since the researchers asked for all families input. The study allowed for flexibility in where and when to fill out questionnaires. The study had a weakness in its maturation, mortality, and history. The study had a very small number of subjects and was only done in one community one time. The questionnaires were written in English and sent to families that mainly speak Spanish. Self reports are not statistically reliable. There were no questions from the questionnaire provided in the article. Melber (2006) showed a connection between parent involvement and overall education. The inclusion of the whole family affected the learning that occurred. This connects the holistic approach of multicultural education to education to involvement of parents.

Ogbu and Simons (1994) constructed a large scale quantitative test of John Ogbu's theory on voluntary and involuntary minority students that investigated how the differences between groups' cultural models, educational orientations and strategies help explain the differences in school performance between minority groups. Ogbu and Simons (1994) found that voluntary minorities considered education to be an important route to making it in society and were less concerned with prejudice and norms in order to succeed. Mexican

American/Latino participants reported that they were willing to conform to dominant society's norms in order to succeed. Participants that completed a survey were in grades five through twelve from sixteen schools in the Oakland School District. The total number of minority students was 2245 with 507 Mexican-American/Latino students. Mexican Americans were classified as involuntary minorities because they were incorporated by conquest but some had emigrated from Mexico and other Latin American countries and could be considered voluntary. For this study, Mexican American/Latinos were classified as voluntary since 82.5% of the Mexican American/Latino participants parents were born in Mexico and 10% in another country.

Students took a survey with two different question types. Students were asked to choose one response from a series of alternatives and to check all the alternatives that applied to them. Interviews with parents, students and community leaders, observational descriptions in the classroom, family and community were collected. How the interviews were taken, questions asked and when the interviews were done was not included in the article. Analysis of the data collected was done on two areas: on how students, parents and community members viewed success or making it in life and attitudes toward school. The questions that analyzed the first area involved reasons for success and failure, treatment of minorities and the role of racial prejudice and education. The questions that analyzed attitudes looked at expected behavior, studying and use of standard English. The survey was only taken by students so questions about parents and community attitudes represent student response. Twenty-two

percent of Mexican Americans/Latinos reported that their ancestors came as immigrants and 15% were in the U.S. before Anglos arrived or were conquered. Eighty-eight percent of Mexican American/Latino students reported hearing their family/community say that the U.S. is a country with opportunities any one good in school and works hard can succeed. Sixty-three percent reported that racial prejudice and discrimination was a reason for lack of success and cited prejudice 13% of the time. Eight percent of Mexican American/Latino students saw themselves as smarter than white students. Sixty-five percent of Mexican American/Latino students said that their future was good or excellent. Mexican American/Latino students stated that their ancestors decided to keep their language and culture forty-five percent of the time. Getting a good education (35%) and hard work (31%) were cited as reasons for success. Poor education was given as a reason for not succeeding 25% of the time for Mexican American/Latino students and had less faith in the education system than hope. Forty percent of the Mexican American/Latino students reported that a language difference was the biggest issue in their education. Students reported that their parents wanted them to learn standard English because it would increase school success and job opportunities 47% of the time. Sixty percent of students reported that earning good grades made a person act white from their parents. Mexican American/Latino students reported 35% of the time that they wanted to go to a four year college while 14% reported skipping school at least once a week and had lower aspirations than any other minority group tested.

History, testing, instrumentation and regression are strengths of this type of study. Maturation is an area of the study that is of concern. The study was done in the early 1990's and may not be relevant more than ten years later. How the interviews were taken, questions asked and when the interviews were done was not included in the article. Selection and mortality are weaknesses of this kind of study design. Ogbu and Simons (1994) demonstrated that viewing education and achievement as important to success is not enough to attain that success for Hispanic/Latino/a students.

These studies showed that the attitude of the community, parents and students affect the achievement of Hispanic students. Vera (1999) illustrated the barriers to the goals of students, which included academic achievement. Close and Solberg (2007) found that social cognitive theory predicted academic achievement while self-determination theory predicted distress and retention and demonstrated that academic achievement is a significant factor in attrition and stronger connections with teacher and parents influenced achievement. Hadi-Tabassum (1999) showed that the immersion program had a positive effect on students' attitude toward science and a positive impact on education policy and practice. Delgado-Gaitan (1991) demonstrated that conventional practices for involving parents did not include Spanish speaking parents because cultural knowledge was required to participate and Delgado-Gaitan (1994) demonstrated how influential parent involvement is in students' overall education. Melber (2006) showed a connection between parent involvement and overall education. The inclusion of the whole family affected the learning that occurred. Ogbu and

Simons (1994) found for Hispanic students and parents, education is an important route to succeeding in society.

Engagement and Assessment

The seven studies in this section look into how engagement affects achievement and assessments are used. Yair (2000) examined which students take advantage of opportunities in the classroom and what social forces affect students' alienation from instruction and Garcia-Reid (2007) explored if there is an impact on school engagement among Hispanic middle school girls from perceived teacher, parent and friend support. Garcia-Reid, Reid, and Peterson (2005) examined if a path model predicts school engagement while Laird, Bridges, Morelon-Quainoo, Williams, Holmes (2007) attempted to find how Hispanic student engagement, satisfaction, and self-reported gains from college differ at different types of institutions. Brookhart, Walsh and Zientarski (2006) examined what prior characteristics a student brings to an assessment effect their motivation, effort and achievement and how the context of the environment effects motivation, effort and achievement. Ryan, Chandler and Samuels (2007) examined what the challenges are with the implementation of culturally responsive school-based evaluations and Naglieri, Rojan and Matto (2006) investigate what the performance level is of Hispanic and non-Hispanic children on PASS cognitive processes and how we assess relationships between PASS and achievement for Hispanic and non-Hispanic children.

Yair's (2000) research study strove to answer two questions. The first was, does students' engagement with or alienation from instruction determine the

extent to which students actually take advantage of classroom opportunities to learn and, as a result, their learning outcomes while the second was, what is the extent to which social forces affect students' alienation from instruction? The research was done through a qualitative ESM survey where each student was given a digital watch that was programmed to beep eight times a day from seven thirty a.m. to ten thirty p.m. for one week. What time of year the one week was in was not stated other than the fact that it was during the school year. Location of the students was also not stated. Whenever the watch beeped, the student answered short questions about what they were experiencing when the watch beeped, what they were doing and their thoughts and mood. Students self reported the questions on an ESM based questionnaire. This questionnaire was used to capture the objective parts of the students' experience along with the students' subjective assessment of the context and experiences.

The study started with 865 students adding up to 28,193 beeps from schools that are not indicated. Students were randomly selected from grades six, eight, ten and twelve and were stratified by race, ability level and race. What categories used for race and if the schools the students attended were public or private was not indicated in the research article. The researchers omitted missing cases of time response and used only experiences where the students responded to the beep in no more than 10 minutes and only school related beeps. After narrowing the responses down with the final requirement of school-related responses, the sample came to 4,058 responses. From the answers given on the questionnaire, researchers developed activity codes from the

students responses. From this, they constructed independent variables and four nominal variables. The nominal variables were students' engagement (attentive or not), school consciousness (thoughts on school but not on lesson in front of them), self-consciousness (concentration on self) and external preoccupations (thoughts focused on out-of-school issues). Three groups of independent variables were identified. The first group included background (gender, race, grade level, SES, and achievement). The second group included subject matter, instructional method and strategies. This second group's instructional strategies was given a Cronbach's alpha of .73 (reason for just this one and how is not given). The last group measured out of school influences on engagement and alienation from lessons. Four scales were used to measure the general mood variable, control mood, intrinsic motivation and sense of accomplishment. The four scales were highly correlated and a single combined measure was computed for the three contexts so that a general mood could be computed. At-risk status was given to students who's general mood was 1 standard deviation below the average, spend more than three hours a day hanging out with friends and less than half an hour on homework.

From the data collected, the researchers used a chi-squared/f-test and percentage of the population on the break down of students' engagement and types of alienation. Four linear regression models were used to estimate the contribution of the independent variables that would predict students' engagement and external preoccupation. They found the estimated coefficients for each predictor and the standard error of the estimate. They did this for the

background of the student, external factors, subject matter and the method and strategy used in the lesson. A fourth set of data was created to find who was affected by what instructional strategies according to race. Four instructional strategies (challenge, skills, academic demand and relevance) were recoded into dichotomies where low quality was defined as any measure 1 SD below the mean for the variable. The races examined were Asian, Hispanic, African American and White broken down by at risk status and quality of instruction. The p value of the chi-squared/f-test administered to the findings was either a $p < .05$ or $p < .001$. This first grouping of data estimated that 62% of sixth graders were attentive while only 49% of the twelfth graders were attentive showing a regression as well as the finding that the older students tended to be pre-occupied with themselves by their higher percent (8.4 for 12th grade and 2.9 for 6th grade). Students' engagement with the lesson varied significantly depending on the method. Labs (73.7%), group work (73%) presentations (66.7%) and discussions (63%) held the most attention while lectures (54.4%) and television or video presentations (55.9%) did not. Different subject matter affected engagement as well as type of alienation from instruction that the students felt. Three of the four instructional strategies significantly affected the students' engagement. The four logistic regression models showed no association between students' gender and community social class with engagement or external preoccupation.

Students' race was significantly associated with the likelihood of engagement and alienation. Hispanic students were engaged 50% of the time

and externally pre-occupied 44.7% of the time that they were in school ($p < .001$). Hispanic students also had the highest alienation rate of 50%. Hispanic students were less likely to be engaged in class (average standard coefficient: $-.34$) and more likely to be externally pre-occupied. Hispanic students were highly responsive to high quality instruction with a challenge for non-at-risk (70.8%) and at-risk (62.5%). Low quality instruction affected Hispanic students most having the lowest percent engaged in challenging, (21.3%), relevant (27.9%) and skill based (36.4%) work. With low quality and high quality instruction, at risk Hispanic students were more likely to engage in challenging work (32.4%) than not at-risk students (21.3%). The fourth set of data points suggested that Hispanic students are highly sensitive to instruction because of the wide variation of percentages engaged in the activity (36.8 – 70.7%). At risk students were shown to be affected more by variation in quality of instruction (low or high) than students not at risk. According to the p levels of the tests administered to the research, the probability that the research could be replicated was high which was a strength of the study. Yair (2000) demonstrated how engaging and challenging work no matter the quality of instruction increases the academic achievement of Hispanic students. These findings showed that by increasing the challenge of student work engaged at risk and non-at risk Hispanic students and allowed them to achieve academically.

Garcia-Reid (2007) created a cross sectional quantitative survey to investigate if there was an impact on school engagement among low-income Hispanic middle school girls from perceived teacher, parent and friend support.

Garcia-Reid (2007) found that perceived teacher support had the greatest positive effect on student engagement while parent and friend support also positively effected student engagement. The perceived absence from neighborhood danger was also positively correlated to student engagement. One hundred and thirty-three Hispanic female students from a Northern New Jersey middle school were the participants in this study in the fall of 2002. They were between the ages of thirteen and fourteen. Two fifths of the girls were born in the United States. Twenty three percent were form the Dominican Republic, fifteen percent were from Mexico, six percent were from Puerto Rico and eleven percent were from other Latin American countries. Eighty-seven percent of the girls were school lunch recipients.

The School Success Profile was used to gather data from the students during their gym/health class. Students chose to take the test in English or Spanish. Five scales were used that measured three types of social support; parent, teacher and peer, one measure for neighborhood dangerousness and one measure for school engagement. The school engagement variable was the outcome variable that measured the commitment to school using three items that asked if they found “school fun and exciting.” This was measured on a 1 (a lot like me) and 0 (all other responses) scale that created an index ranging from 0 to 3 where high numbers indicated greater engagement. The Cronbach’s alpha was .75. The predictor variable of the neighborhood dangerousness had eight items that measured the girls’ perception of other youth that were likely to “get in trouble with the police” or “join a gang.” This was also measured with the 1 and 0

that created an index of 0 to 8 again with high numbers that indicated more favorable behavior. The Cronbach's alpha was .85. The teacher support was measured by eleven statements such as teachers "really care about me" and "expect me to do my best all of the time." Each evaluation of the statement was summed using the 1 (true) and 0 (false) range that created an index ranging from 0 to 11 where high scores indicated high levels of support. Cronbach's alpha was .77. Supportive parental behaviors were measured with six items that asked students to indicate if adults in their home "give encouragement" and "make me feel appreciated." The assessment of each item was summed using the 1 (often) and 0 (all other answers) to make a scale that ranged from 0 to 6 with high numbers that indicated more parental support. Cronbach's alpha was .87. Peer support was measured with a summative five item scale. Students responded to statements that indicated if they can "trust my friends" and "tell my problems to friends." These responses were summed using 1 (a lot like me) and 0 (all other responses) that created an index ranging from 0 to 5 with higher numbers that indicated greater friend support. Cronbach's alpha was .76. Researchers used the computer program AMOS 4.0 to create a structural equation model. The school engagement's mean was 1.41 and standard deviation was 1.13 for the model. Teacher support received a standardized beta weight of .30 that indicated a direct relationship to school engagement. The neighborhood youth behavior had a direct effect on school engagement indicated by a standardized beta weight of .29. Friend support had the next highest standardized beta weight of .20 indicating a relationship to school engagement. Parent support had the

lowest standardized beta weight of .17 which still indicated an affect on school engagement. Social support provided by parents, friends and teachers was found to be positively associated with school engagement. Support provided by teachers was the greatest contributor to school engagement.

Researchers indicated the limitations of their study within the article. They indicated that the cross sectional design limited the ability for casual inferences to be inferred and limited control of alternate explanations of the findings.

Another limitation indicated was the heterogeneous and multifaceted population of Hispanics the subjects were from. The study was said to be improved through the limitation of subjects by nation of origin. The last limitation indicated was the inherent limitation of self report surveys with adolescents which could not be avoided. The findings are also consistent with other studies and are therefore dependable. A weakness of this study is the transferability. The findings are difficult transfer to males of the same ethnicity and to Hispanics of other regions. Garcia-Reid (2007) demonstrated that a teacher's support is very important to student academic achievement as well as the parents and friends support. Multicultural education theory purports the teacher's role and support of the student which is maintained by this study.

Garcia-Ried, Reid, and Peterson (2005) constructed a quantitative survey to test a path model to predict school engagement that included neighborhood and school environment variables and social support variables. Garcia-Ried, Reid, and Peterson (2005) found that the model showed direct effects on teacher support, friend support and parent support on school engagement. Neighborhood

youth behavior and safety influenced school engagement indirectly as well. The study was held in the fall of 2002 in a large middle school in Northern New Jersey. Two hundred and twenty-six Latino students participated. Their ages ranged between 13 and 14 years old and 59% were female. Two fifths of the group were born in the United States and of the students that were not born in the U.S. 24% were born in the Dominican Republic, 17% in Mexico, 6% in Puerto Rico and 14% from varied Latin American countries. Eighty-five percent of the participants were school lunch recipients indicated a low socioeconomic status.

Data was gathered using the school success profile package of measurement. Eight scales were used in the study with four specifically for social support, two for neighborhood violence, one for school safety and one for school engagement. The outcome variable was school engagement which referred to the students commitment to the school process and was measured using three items that asked if the youth found school fun and exciting. A dichotomized response was asked for each of the items on the survey. The predictor variables of neighborhood youth behavior and neighborhood safety referred to the participants' exposure to and perceptions of danger in the community the they live that threatens their ability to fulfill their potential. The second predictor variable, school safety, referred to exposure to and perceptions of danger in the school that threatened the participants' ability to fulfill their potential in an academic setting. Social support referred to the network of personal relationships that provided the participants with received or perceived sense of safety and stability and could assist youths in assuming new roles and responsibilities.

Neighborhood support was measured in twelve items that described the degree of cohesion, encouragement and support that participants' perceived their neighborhoods provided. Teacher support was measured in the participants' reports of their teachers' attitudes and behaviors toward them. A summative scale of five items described the level of trust and closeness that students felt toward their peers measured friend support through five items. Parental behavior was measured through a six item scale on occurrences within the past 30 days.

Garicia-Ried, Reid, and Peterson (2005) used AMOS 4.0 to perform a structural equation modeling procedure to analyze the variance-covariance matrix using maximum likelihood estimation. Neighborhood youth behavior had an indirect effect on school engagement through parental support with a standardized beta weight of .33 ($p < .05$). Parent support was directly related to school engagement by a standardized beta weight of .14 ($p < .05$). Friend support directly influenced school engagement by a standardized beta weight of .17 ($p < .05$) while teacher support was most influential through a standardized beta weight of .32 ($p < .05$). Neighborhood youth behavior directly influenced parent support (standardized beta weight: .33($p < .05$)) and neighborhood support (standardized beta weight: .36 ($p < .05$)). Neighborhood safety also influenced parent support (SBW: .26($p < .05$)) and teacher support (SBW: .11($p < .05$)). The variable that influenced school engagement most was teacher support which indicated that participants that perceived more positive attitudes and behaviors of teachers tended to have higher school engagement scores. This gave evidence to the hypothesis that social supports can buffer the negative effects of exposure

to neighborhood and school violence. The limitations of the study were presented as the self-reported instruments, the SSP was not validated with Spanish-speaking adolescents and did not investigate the potential impact of language and acculturation on school engagement among Latino youth. This type of research design has no strengths in history, maturation, testing, instrumentation, regression, selection or mortality. Garcia-Ried, Reid, and Peterson (2005) demonstrated that teacher support had the greatest influence on Latino student engagement. Continued support for students through multicultural education practices will increase student engagement.

Laird, Bridges, Morelon-Quainoo, Williams, Holmes (2007) attempted to find how Hispanic student engagement, satisfaction, and self-reported gains from college differed at Hispanic serving institutions (HSO's) and predominantly white institutions (PWI's) as well as a comparison of the results for African American students at historically black colleges/universities (HBCU's) and PWI's and Hispanic students at HSI's and PWI's reveal similar patterns. They used data from the NSSE to answer their question, what do the patterns suggest about these students' experiences at the different types of institutions. The survey was designed to find the ways and manners that undergraduate students engage with their college communities. It is grounded in the belief that the number of times students participate in particular educational activities gives a meaningful proxy for student learning and quality of the institution. The survey finds the degree that students participate in educationally effective activities like asking questions and contributing to class. The survey is said to give a way to meaningfully explore

differences in student engagement across student groups and institution types. The 2003 NSSE had 147,166 responses from undergraduate students across the nation. Two sub-samples were created for this particular study. The first group was African American seniors at PWI's and HBCU's. The second group included Hispanic seniors at PWI's and HSI's. Any institution that was not identified as an HSI, HBCU or tribal college was considered a PWI. Samples of seniors consisted of 2,149 Hispanic seniors from 321 PWI's and 2,028 Hispanic seniors from 26 HSI's. Between two and five percent of the Hispanic seniors were athletes, 8-11% were in fraternities or sororities, 64-68% were female and 10-34% lived on campus.

Hispanic serving institutions (HSI's) were identified by membership in the Hispanic Association of Colleges and Universities. This study focused on measuring students' engagement in effective educational practices, their satisfaction with college, and how much they believed they gained from their college experience personally and intellectually. The researchers used three scales from the NSSE that captured students' participation in effective educational practice (active and collaborative learning, student-faculty interaction and supportive campus environment). Active and collaborative learning was a seven-item measure of the extent that students were actively involved in their own learning process and engaged in activities that reflect their learning through real world problems. Student-faculty interaction measured the frequency and level of interaction students had with faculty at their institution in and outside of class. Supportive campus environment scale measured the perceptions students

had about the academic and non-academic support they received and the quality of their relationships with others on campus. The gains in overall development included the extent that students perceived their educational experience contributed to their knowledge, skills and personal development in areas like acquiring a broad general education, writing skills and developing personal code of ethics. The study controlled for several student and institutional characteristics that are known to influence student engagement. These were gender and mother's level of education as well as if the student lived on or off campus and if they were attending public or private schools. Two standard mean differences were calculated for students at HSI's or HBCU's. The first mean difference was calculated without control variables to give a meaningful estimate of the difference between the two groups. The second mean difference was calculated using a regression model where the dependent measure and all non-dichotomous independent measures were standardized. Hispanic seniors at Hispanic serving institutions (HSI) and PWI were similar in terms of engagement (HSI – M:3.16 SD:.69, PWI – M:3.15 SD:.67, $p < .05$), satisfaction (HSI – M:3.17 SD:.57, PWI – M: 3.21 SD:.7, $p < .05$) and gains in overall development (HSI – M:2.99 SD:.62, PSI – M:2.93 SD:.61, $p < .01$). On average, seniors at HSI's and PWI's were similar in terms of engagement, satisfaction with college and gains in overall development. The biggest difference between the two groups of Hispanic seniors was in active and collaborative learning (HSI scored 2.55 and PWI's 2.51. mean difference of .04 with SD of .07 $p < .05$ without controls and SD .11 $p < .01$ with controls), student-faculty interactions (HSI 2.3 and PWI's 2.38, mean

difference of $-.08$ with $SD: -.12$ $p < .001$ without controls and $SD: -.01$ $p < .05$ with controls) and gains in overall development (HSI scored 2.99 PWI scored 2.93, mean difference $.05$, $SD .09$ $p < .01$ without controls, $SD.13$ $p < .001$ with controls). The effect sizes were generally small but did not always favor students at HSI's.

Looking at supportive campus environment, the two groups (HSI and PWI) were nearly identical ($p < .005$). Since this was a static group comparison research designed study, the selection and mortality of the study are weaknesses of the internal validity. Another weakness that this study has is that there was no reliability score given for the NSSE survey or the analysis of the data from that survey. A point of strength for this research study was their acknowledgement of the limitations of their results to other institutions not included in study and does not pinpoint causes of the differences seen in the research. The testing strategies and use of instrumentation were strengths of this study. Laird, Bridges, Morelon-Quainoo, Williams, Holmes (2007) demonstrated that the environment in which students are educated influenced the education they received. This study demonstrated that the welcoming and holistic approach to education that multicultural education theory suggests supports academic achievement in Hispanic students.

Brookhart, Walsh and Zientarski (2006) constructed a quantitative one group pretest/post test study that investigated the effects of prior characteristics a student brings to an assessment and the context of the environment on the nature of the relation between motivation, effort and achievement. They found that the classroom environment made a difference in classroom achievement

while motivation added to the prediction of classroom achievement after controlling for prior achievement and for classroom environment. Self-efficacy was the strongest motivational predictor for achievement. Effort variables did not predict additional variances in achievement though. Two hundred and twenty-three eighth grade students from a suburban middle school in Pennsylvania were the participants for this survey. Twelve percent of the students from this middle school were classified as low income during the school year of 1999-2000. The data from this group was collected in the spring of 2001. No sex ratios were given for this group. The teachers that participated in the study were divided into two teams. Each team was responsible for one half of the eighth grade class and included one science and one social studies teacher. The science teachers were indicated as Teacher 1 and Teacher 2 while the social studies teachers were indicated as Teacher 3 and Teacher 4. Teacher 1 and Teacher 3 were the teachers for the Red Team and Teacher 2 and Teacher 4 were the teachers for the Blue Team. All four teacher were experienced, both science teachers were men and both social studies teachers were women. The ages of the teachers were not given nor were their socioeconomic status.

Prior achievement of the students was measured with the Terra Nova and Social Studies normal curve equivalent scores. Teachers were asked to select summative paper and pencil tests and summative performance assessments for the study. Prescription assignments were not given to the teachers. The tests were closed book in class tests and performance assessments differed from tests that students worked on over time to resource based assessments. The

science teachers worked collaboratively on planning and tests while the social studies teachers did not collaborate making comparisons difficult between the two. The science test had four multiple choice questions, ten true/false questions, twelve matching and seven short-answer plus two constructed response items that involved diagrams. The science assessment had students test twelve samples of ground water from forty. The social studies test for Teacher 3 was a US History test on the early 1800's with five define the terms items, ten short-answer questions and one essay question. Teacher 4's test was on social reforms and the Age of Jackson that included ten fill in the blank items, ten short-answer questions and eight map identification questions. Teacher 3's performance test had students write a three to five page report on westward expansion containing a cover, title page, three to five page report in ink, illustrations, one page summary and a bibliography with three sources and one had to be print. Teacher 4's performance test had students create a power point presentation on westward expansion where students chose a topic, researched it using in class materials and constructed a ten slide presentation with at least four graphics. Each time a student completed an assessment, a survey collected students perceptions on their motivation and effort on that assessment. Seven scales measured motivation and effort. Student responses were recorded on a five point Likert type scale. Internal consistency reliabilities were done on each scale in the survey: Perceived task characteristics (median: .83), perceived self-efficacy (median: .89), mastery goal orientations (median: .81), performance goal orientations (median: .81), amount invested in mental effort (median: .82) active

learning strategy (median: .78) and superficial learning strategy use (median: .64) The superficial learning strategy use scale was dropped because of its low reliability score and less theoretical interest. Two sets of data were constructed from the surveys: one with students that responded to a science test and performance assessment and one with the same students that responded to a social studies test and performance assessment.

Students of Teacher 1 had similar motivation and effort perceptions to Teacher 2's students for their test and performance assessments. Teacher 1 had lower classroom test scores (M: 79%) than Teacher 2 (95%) while their performance assessment scores were similar (88% for Teacher 1 and 89% for Teacher 2). Teacher 3's students had lower test scores (76%) and higher performance test scores (95%) than Teacher 4's students (84% and 85% respectively). Teacher 4's students had lower perceptions of the task and lower mastery goal orientations for the test and performance assessment than students of Teacher 3. Red team students had higher perceptions of the task (M for Science:3.12, M for SS: 3.25) and lower perceived self-efficacy for social studies (M:3.29) than for science (M:4.07) and reported higher mental effort (M for Science: 3.95, M for SS: 4.18) and use of active learning strategies for social studies (M:3.76) than for science (M: 2.90). The Blue Teams students had a lower perceived self efficacy in social studies (M:3.42) than in science (M: 4.04) and reported higher mastery goal orientations in science (M:3.17) than in social studies (M: 2.50). Both teams saw performance goal orientation higher than mastery goal orientation which may reflect the kind of classroom assessment

environment typified by routine use as helpful to maintaining high performance on assessments. Selection was the only strength for this kind of study design. No sex ratios were given for this group. History, maturation, testing, instrumentation mortality and regression are all weaknesses of this study design. Brookhart, Walsh and Zientarski (2006) showed that the environment within which students receive their education affected the academic achievement of those students. Again, the holistic teaching environment of multicultural education is supported by this study.

Ryan, Chandler and Samuels (2007) constructed a quantitative instrumental interview, mixed methods case study in which they investigated what the challenges are with implementing culturally responsive school-based evaluations. Ryan, Chandler and Samuels (2007) found that the most prominent challenge to implementing culturally responsive school-based evaluations was that schools used historically typical definitions of different cultural groups that were not accurate and examination of why the definition is used is possible. Four principals, six teachers, and twelve culture and evaluation project staff and school consultants from across the USA participated in this study. Nothing was said about how the participants were chosen. Their age, gender, race, ethnicity, socioeconomic status and geographic location were not discussed in the article.

Semi-structured interviews with Culture in Evaluation Project staff and school consultants were used to gather data for the study. The Culture in Evaluation project was a federally funded project that makes the attempt to develop an empirically based model for operationalizing culture in evaluation and

teach schools how to develop culturally oriented evaluation capacity building activities or school based evaluations. The project was for Southwestern schools only. The interviews were held on 9-18-2004 and 9-24-2005. The 9-18-2004 interviews were with two project assistants for a half an hour, one CEP school consultant for half an hour and one CEP national consultant for an hour. The 9-24-2005 interview was a semi-structured interview with one consultant for an hour. The other 9-24-2005 interview was semi-structured with five team members from CEP for a half an hour. Focus groups were constructed and made into two groups: principals and teachers. The focus groups were conducted on 3-26-2004, 9-18-2004, 9-24-2005 and 9-25-2005. The 3-26-2004 group consisted of CEP team leaders, the 9-18-2005 groups were of four principals for one hour and six teachers for one hour. The 9-24-2005 groups made up of one three member team consultants for one hour and a team of four team leaders for 75 minutes. The 9-25-2005 group was a group of CEP program personnel. Ryan, Chandler and Samuels (2007) analyzed the focus group and interview data through the lens of the extent to which the schools that participated in the project's evaluation plans reflected elements of culturally oriented evaluation. For each focus group there was a narrative summary prepared but no specific way to create a culturally oriented evaluation was discussed. Ryan, Chandler and Samuels (2007) tabulated the judgments from these narratives about presence, emergence or absence of elements of groups and interviews that gave evidence to a concrete source of information about school based evaluations.

Schools looked at historical recognition of types of diversity racially and ethnically while thinking about culture. Schools used traditional categories of race and culture. As schools started to define culture and recognize contextual factors and the importance for culturally responsive evaluations, they recognized that culture was beyond ethnic festivals and events. Teachers began using information on other cultures and ethnicities in their evaluations to address language and other cultural issues that impacted student performance. The teams started to move from a superficial recognition of culture to a more nuanced understanding once the team members discussed their own cultures. One participant in the study stated that, “teachers are starting to challenge the data. When teachers begin their grade level meetings, they start by reviewing the data...even individual student data” (Ryan, Chandler and Samuels, 2007, p.205). There was no data given in this article on the interviews done with individuals or manuscript from forum discussions. One participant stated that they began to question if the data they reviewed at the beginning of the year was observable and was it culturally relevant to the students (Ryan, Chandler and Samuels, 2007). Teachers became more interested in the use of their own evaluation with an attention to culture while addressing language and other cultural issues that impacted student performance. The propositions suggested for further research were logical next steps forward to the creation of culturally relevant evaluations. Nothing was stated about how the subjects were chosen. Their age, gender, race, ethnicity, socioeconomic status and geographic location were not discussed in the article. The data that they gathered was not reported on. There

was no indication that there was any analysis of the interviews or focus groups as stated in the article. There are no strengths for a case study of this nature. Ryan, Chandler and Samuels (2007) showed that the use of historical definitions of cultures in schools continues to hinder the use of culturally responsive education and/or evaluations of students. The use of those definitions did not allow for multicultural education to be implemented in the schools discussed.

Naglieri, Rojan and Matto (2006) designed a quantitative static comparison group study that investigated the performance level of Hispanic and non-Hispanic children on PASS cognitive processes using the CAS and how we assess the relationships between PASS and achievement for samples of Hispanic and non-Hispanic children. Naglieri et al (2006) found that the differences in score on the PASS test for Hispanic and non-Hispanic children were small and the difference between group classifications did not appear to come at the cost of the validity of the test scores. The participants in this study included 2200 children and adolescents who were tested during the standardization phase of the CAS. Two hundred and forty-four Hispanic and 1,956 non-Hispanic children and adolescents aged five through seventeen years old participated. Non-Hispanic group had 80.8 % white, 15.2% black, 3.4% Asian, .3% Native American and .4% other races within it. Forty percent of the Hispanic children and adolescents parents' had less than a high school education where 20% of non-Hispanic children and adolescents parents had less than a high school education. Two groups of matched pairs were made and they consisted of 144 Hispanic and 144 non-Hispanic participants that were chosen

from the 2200 original group. The pairs were matched according to sex, age and parental education. There were 124 male participants and 120 female participants in the Hispanic group and 976 male participants and 80 female participants in the non-Hispanic group. Participants came from all over the US but mostly from the West and a majority were from urban/suburban areas.

The researchers had individuals take the PASS and Full Scale questionnaires and analyzed the factors that accounted for differences in their scores. In order to examine the amount of variation in the scores, each PASS score was entered into a model as the independent variable in a separate regression analysis with two blocks of predictor variables. For the first block of the regression analysis, the variables gender, region, community setting, parental education, classroom placement and type of educational setting were entered and for the second block ethnicity was added into the model. The differences between matched pairs of Hispanic and non-Hispanic children were examined using linear regression analyses that were performed to examine the extent to which ethnic group classification accounted for differences in PASS subscale and Cognitive assessment system or CAS full scale scores. The internal reliability coefficient for the CAS measure were high (planning - .88, attention - .88, simultaneous - .93, successive - .93 and full scale - .96). The initial means and standard deviations were calculated and the differences between the mean standard scores earned by group classification by ethnicity were examined by computing d-ratios that described the differences between the groups in standard deviation units. The differences were described as .2 being small, .5 being

medium and .8 being a large effect. Those differences between the ethnic group classification using the entire sample of Hispanics and non-Hispanics were compared using hierarchical regression analysis. Each PASS score was entered as the dependent variable in a separate regression analysis to examine the amount of variation in the PASS and Full scale score in two blocks of predictor variables. The first block had gender, region, community setting, parental education, classroom placement and type of educational setting as variables. The second block included ethnicity. The difference between matched pairs of Hispanic and non-Hispanic participants was examined by linear regression analysis.

The d-ratios for the CAS planning (.18), attention (.19), and simultaneous (.39) were described as having a small effect while successive (.57) was described as having a medium effect. This gave evidence to subtests that used the English language had the largest d-ratios. A one way ANOVA was used for both Hispanic and non-Hispanic groups to test the relationship between parental education and a subtest score for the participants. Lower vocabulary scores were found for both groups of Hispanic (M: 89) and non-Hispanic (M: 94) students with parents without a high school diploma ($p < .001$). A moderated regression analysis that examined the potential slope differences between the CAS Full Scale and Achievement scores for both groups after controlling for English language subsets found that the interaction term ranged from .0001 to .017 ($p < .05$). This showed no evidence of slope difference. Children with parents that had less than a high school education scored lower on vocabulary in both groups. Parental

education is significantly related to CAS subtests that school education as compared to those with some college or higher, regardless of ethnicity. Results suggest that differences in parental education levels between the representative groups may help explain the between group differences in achievement test scores and those on the CAS subtests that involve the English language. Ethnic group classification itself is an important construct to examine with this set of variables because of the .1% to 2% variation in CAS scores when ethnic classification was a variable in a model. The matched pair samples had little variance in the linear regression analyses and created little statistical significance between the two groups. There was no significant interaction between CAS Full scale and achievement subscales for Hispanic and non-Hispanic children which can be seen from the non-significant change associated with the interaction effect of the analysis. The researchers recognized the study's limitations as there was no measure of both English and Spanish language skills for the Hispanic children, a direct test of the differences between groups using CAS and traditional IQ tests was not conducted and the PASS theory yields smaller differences between Hispanic and non-Hispanic samples because crystallized ability was not measured. This type of research design has strengths in history, testing, instrumentation and regression. The research design has weaknesses in selection, mortality and possibly in maturation. Naglieri et al (2006) demonstrated that culturally responsive evaluations exist and are in accordance with the goals of multicultural education theory.

These studies showed that the creation of culturally responsive assessment is possible, support for all in education is needed and the environment in which the support is given is important. Yair (2000) demonstrated how engaging and challenging work increases the academic achievement of Hispanic students while Garcia-Reid (2007) demonstrated that a teacher's support is very important to student academic achievement as well as the parents and friends support. Garcia-Ried, Reid, and Peterson (2005) found that the model showed direct effects on teacher support, friend support and parent support on school engagement and that teacher support had the greatest influence on Latino student engagement. Laird, Bridges, Morelon-Quainoo, Williams, Holmes (2007) demonstrated that the environment in which students are educated influenced the education they received and Brookhart, Walsh and Zientarski (2006) found that the classroom environment made a difference in classroom achievement while motivation added to the prediction of classroom achievement after controlling for prior achievement and for classroom environment. Ryan, Chandler and Samuels (2007) found that the most prominent challenge to implementing culturally responsive school-based evaluations was that schools used historically typical definitions of different cultural groups that were not accurate and examination of why the definition is used is possible which showed that the use of historical definitions of cultures in schools continues to hinder the use of culturally responsive education Naglieri, Rojan and Matto (2006) demonstrated that culturally responsive evaluations exist and are in

accordance with multicultural education theories goals which makes the implementation of multicultural education practices possible.

Teacher Training

These six studies in this section probe what trainings are being used for teachers and those that work with Hispanic students within the education system and if they are effective. Morelli and Spencer (2000) explored how teachers, administrators, counselors and social workers use multicultural education (MCE) and antiracist education (ARE) and Wiggins, Follo and Eberly (2007) explored what is being taught in teacher preparation programs that will help them in culturally diverse classrooms, prepare them for those classrooms and the field experiences they have. Kidd, Sanchez and Thorp (2007) examined pre-service teachers' perceptions of the program experiences that contributed to their culturally responsive dispositions and teaching practices. Canniff (2003) examined how a group of beginning teachers support their first year by creating their own cohort and Stevens, Hamman and Olivárez (2007) investigated if the ethnicity of teachers affects Hispanic students experience of a supportive school community and Hispanic students' feelings of school belonging. Hammer, Detwiler, Detwiler, Blood and Qualls (2004) examined what levels of training and confidence of speech-language pathologists that serve Spanish-English bilingual children are and investigated how much pre-service training and continuing education pathologists they have.

Morelli and Spencer (2000) created a study using qualitative interviews and a quantitative survey to explore the extent to which teachers, administrators,

counselors and social workers use multicultural education (MCE) and antiracist education (ARE). Morelli and Spencer (2000) found that a majority of the administrators, teachers, counselors and social workers reported that there is a need and value in MCE but was used to supplement regular curriculum without training or policy support. Five school districts in Idaho, Oregon, Washington and Wyoming were selected for the study. Forty-four respondents volunteered for the interviews. Thirteen principals, one management specialist, fourteen teachers, thirteen counselors and two school social workers from all levels of public school were included in the forty-four volunteers. Twenty-nine participants were women, twelve of which were teachers, fourteen were counselors and social workers and two were principals or vice principals. One hundred and seventy-two surveys were collected. Half of them were from high schools, 29% from elementary schools and 22% from middle schools. The gender, socioeconomic status and locations of the survey respondents were not provided in the article.

Two phases of research were done to answer the researchers question. The first phase took a cross-section of administrators, counselors and teachers and interviewed them. The interviews consisted of open-ended questions on school and community characteristics, the nature of the relationships between students and teachers, recent incidents of racism and bigotry on campus/in community, curriculum, resources and programs used to prevent/decrease racism or bigotry, awareness of school/state policies regarding racism and bigotry and improvements or resources needed to reduce racism and bigotry. The interviews were conducted by the researchers themselves. Notes were

taken and transcribed and organized into six areas of inquiry. A two level, etic-emic accounting scheme to examine the data was used for initial analysis. For the etic level, data was coded and categorized in general areas while the emic level codes were generated from participants responses. This was to bring the interviewee's interpretations and understandings of MCE and ARE to light. The second phase of the study consisted of teachers at the research sites participated in a voluntary, ten minute survey intended to enhance the interviews by providing another source of data and identifying possible contradictions between the two methods. The survey asked questions about the types of MCE and ARE used in the curriculum, their perceived effectiveness and specific teaching needs for reducing racism. The survey data was entered into SPSS for analysis. The results cannot be generalized beyond the schools because they were primarily descriptive.

Respondents in the first phase of the study stated that their schools had generally positive student relations with the usual number of conflicts. Incidences of name calling were high and taunting was reported in schools where 15% to 40% of the students were enrolled in ESL courses. Thirty-nine respondents reported incidences of bigotry and racism occurred. They also described their work environments as ones where racial jokes were tolerated among teachers and sexual discrimination prevented women leadership positions as principals or vice principals. Sixty-one percent stated that they were not aware of state policies directed toward reduction of racism and bigotry in schools. Nine stated that they were positive such policies existed but did not know what they were.

Thirty-six of the respondents reported using some form of MCE in their curriculum. The school district administrators generally supported MCE but the actual use of it among the teachers interviewed ranged from infrequent to somewhat frequent. Interviewees expressed a fear that ARE is confrontational and required radical changes in community attitude. Respondents recommended that schools involve the community and families in their efforts to reduce racism and bigotry, provide staff development in ARE and MCE, start ARE and MCE earlier, give positive recognition to ARE and MCE and provide more education in regards to gays and lesbians. The second phase had several themes emerge from the data. Respondents did not use ARE and tended to use NICE to develop awareness of differences in people and respect for others. They also needed more resources and policies that encouraged and support the use of MCE and believed class discussion and good materials would increase tolerance. Teachers explained that they did not use MCE or ARE because it lacked relevance to their topic areas and that MCE and ARE were not educational priorities. Seventy-six percent of the teachers stated that there is a need for MCE. A chi-square test revealed that the relationship between need for materials and utilization of materials was statistically significant (36.40 $p < .00$).

The methodology and conduct of the interviews produced findings that are believable and consistent with similar studies which indicated that the studies credibility and dependability are strengths. It was stated in the article that the interviews are not transferable to outside schools. The process and product of the data collection and analysis are available to outside parties making

confirmability a strength as well for the interviews. The survey's design does not have many strengths because it does not have strong histories, maturation, testing, instrumentation or regression. The gender, socioeconomic status and locations of the survey respondents were not provided in the article. Morelli and Spencer (2000) showed that educators find multicultural education valuable but have not received training in it and find it difficult to implement with out training. Multicultural education cannot have an affect on students' academic achievement if educators are not trained on how to implement it.

Wiggins, Follo and Eberly (2007) created a quantitative true experimental pre-test/posttest with control group study that investigated teacher preparation programs. They questioned what is being taught in teacher preparation programs that aids teachers in culturally diverse classrooms, is a change of program going to better prepare those teachers for culturally diverse classrooms, and does the nature and length of a field experience change the comfort level of pre-service teachers. Wiggins, Follo and Eberly (2007) discovered that the amount of time spent in a classroom was perceived as the most influential in preparing teachers for culturally diverse classrooms as shown by a positively correlated r number of .68 ($p < .01$) for fostering readiness for experience. The study implemented a change in the original program to better prepare pre-service teachers. Pre-service teachers' comfort level did increase positively the longer the field experience lasted but the results for this varied. Sixty-two pre-service or substitute teachers volunteered to be in the original program participated in this study. The participants were both male (three) and female (44) getting their

elementary education degree. Sixty-one participants were white, middle class students. One was African American from low income family. Twenty-four students were in their fourth year of a five year program, one was in their second year and four were second degree students. The average age of the participants was 23. Two pre-service teachers were 26 and seven were in their 30's. The substitute teachers were from the same school district and enrolled in a certification program leading to full teacher certification. Twelve female and three male teachers who were predominantly African American participated. The substitute teachers were used as a comparison group as a contrast to the predominantly White pre-service teachers. Their ages ranged from between 30 and 48. The substitute teachers all had bachelors degrees, at least three years experience in the school district and had lived and worked in an urban setting extensively.

Two groups of pre-service teachers were constructed from two consecutive years of participants in the Frost Immersion Program. Group A spent 30 hours total in an elementary school working with a teacher for the first year of the studies program, were the first to enroll in the program, had three of their courses taught at the elementary school they were working in. They observed the teacher, taught occasional lessons and were able to reflect and share ideas with classmates at the same school. Group B was the following years participants in the Frost Immersion Program who spent 60 hours in an elementary school working with a teacher with the added requirement that they attended faculty meetings, Parent Teacher Association meetings, parent teacher conferences,

and be at the school three full days a week. Group B had four courses taught to them at the school and participated in the adult tutoring program at the elementary school. All of the pre-service teachers completed a questionnaire at the beginning of the program to assess their attitudes about teaching in multicultural settings. The same questionnaire was given to the pre-service teachers as well as Group C which consisted of the substitute teachers after the teachers finished the program.

The questionnaires consisted of adapted statements to which participants responded on a one to five (strongly disagree-strongly agree) Likert scale. Participants were asked to answer thirty-four statements that reflected factors that cultivated readiness for teaching in culturally diverse settings, factors that constricted readiness and prior experience to cultural diversity. The Cronbach alphas for the pre-test and post test for each category in the questionnaire was calculated. For factors that cultivated readiness, the Cronbach alpha for the pre-test was .78 and for the post test was .81. For factors that constricted readiness, the Cronbach alpha for the pre-test was .69 and for the post test was .69. For prior experience, the Cronbach alpha for the pre-test was .82 and for the post test was .87.

Statistical analysis of questionnaires were employed to determine the stability of the responses across time, examine whether the groups participants changed their attitudes towards teaching in a multicultural setting during the program and find if the pre-service teachers' attitudes changed between the pre-test and post test administrations while looking for the effectiveness of the

program on students' attitudes. Wiggins, Follo and Eberly (2007) established a baseline measure for each group using the pre-test to find if there was a difference between the two test groups of pre-service teachers. The experience and fostering readiness were positively correlated on the pre-test designated by the r number of .53 ($p < .01$) which indicated that the more students reported having experience in diverse urban classrooms the more they saw themselves as having the skills to provide a positive classroom experience. The fostering readiness subscale was positively correlated to constraining readiness on the post test designated by the r number .42 ($p < .01$). Fostering readiness also positively correlated to experience as designated by the r number .68 ($p < .01$). These results demonstrated a consistency of student reports over time.

A one way ANOVA series was used to examine individual subscale items which found that members of Group C were more comfortable teaching and engaging parents in multicultural settings than members of Group A and B. This was shown in Group C's high mean score of 4.1 compared to a 4.0 for Group B and 3.3 for Group A ($p < .05$). Members of Group B self-reported a preference for teaching students with a same socioeconomic status and background than Group A. The more experienced teachers were more comfortable with the students and their parents.

A one way MANOVA was constructed to examine how the members of each group differed after participating in the field experiences. Group B (mean score: 4.4) and Group C (mean score: 4.3) had higher mean scores on the fostering readiness subscale for comfort with teaching multicultural classrooms

than Group A (mean score: 3.6) which indicated that spending more time in the classroom may have an impact on comfort level in this subscale ($p < .05$). Group A (mean score: 4.0) indicated that there were more problems than assets for them in multicultural classrooms than members of Group B (mean score: 3.1) and Group C (mean score: 3.2) ($p < .05$).

To find which group experienced the greatest change over time, pre-test scores were subtracted from post test scores for each subscale which found a difference score. A T-test was performed with the difference forms to find no significant difference between Group A and B on the constraining readiness subscale. The data to show this was not provided. The fostering experience subscale demonstrated a significant difference with a t score of 3.88 ($p < .001$). The experience subscale also showed a significant difference with a t score of 3.13 ($p < .01$). History, maturation, form of testing, instrumentation, regression and selection were all strengths of this type of designed study. There were not many participants from different cultures which created a weakness in this study. Two ethnicities were the only ethnicities represented. The data that showed no significant difference between Group A and B on the constraining readiness subscale was not provided in the article. Wiggins, Follo and Eberly (2007) showed that the more time spent in a classroom with students the more prepared pre-service teachers felt to teach students. The more comfortable a teacher feels in the classroom, the more support that teacher is able to give to students. Previous studies have shown that teacher support positively influences academic

achievement so therefore comfort in the teacher will lead to achievement in the students.

Kidd, Sanchez and Thorp (2007) created a qualitative analysis of pre-service teachers narratives to examine pre-service teachers' perceptions of which program experiences contributed to shifts in their culturally responsive dispositions and teaching practices. Kidd, Sanchez and Thorp (2007) found that five experiences were specifically named as catalysts that shifted their dispositions. They were readings related to issues of race, culture, poverty and social justice, internship experiences in diverse communities, interactions with diverse families, critical reflection and discussion and dialogue. The participants in this study were pre-service teachers enrolled in a full time two year master' degree program at a state university. The nineteen pre-service teachers program was designed to prepare teachers to work with culturally, linguistically, socio-economically, and ability diverse children and their families. The teachers were eligible for early childhood, early childhood special education and English for speakers of other languages licenses after completion of the program. Sixty-three percent of the participants were white, twenty-one percent were black, ten percent were Asian and five percent were Latina. All of the participants were female ranging from their mid twenties to mid forties. The socioeconomic status of the participants was not given in the article.

As a part of the masters degree program that the participants were enrolled, they were asked to complete a narrative that described their guiding principles that were written in the final semester of their program. This was a ten

page or longer written narrative that described the principles that guide and will guide their teaching. The professors encouraged the participants to reflect on their journey through the program and discuss the insights they gained, how they changed as a learner and what influenced their learning. These narratives were analyzed by the use of a modified post-then-pre retrospective approach. They first coded the narratives into three categories that consisted of beliefs and attitudes held prior to or early in the program, dispositions held and teaching practices valued at the completion of the program and specific program experiences or defining moments identified. The researchers then identified the passages or stories that specifically related to culturally responsive dispositions and teaching practices.

Each of the five types of experiences found to be most influential are described. All of the teachers cited readings from the course related to race, culture, poverty and social justice as an influence on their dispositions and practices. Diverse internships affect on participants dispositions and practices included interaction with other professionals and working with the children and families. One participant wrote that “I believe that nothing can better prepare someone for the classroom better than actually being in one” (p.321). Eighteen out of the nineteen participants shared stories of their work with the children and families citing that the observation and interaction with children, home visits and gathering families stories were all experiences that changed them. The home visits seemed to be the most powerful as one participant stated that,

“due to her gross and motor coordination, Emily would fall frequently and hurt herself. My first and natural instinct was to run to her rescue: however, Emily’s parents felt quite differently. They wanted her to be independent and strong. If she fell, she fell” (p.322)

Seventeen participants stated that critical reflection caused changes in their growth as culturally responsive practitioners as one stated “I have really begun to examine my own cultural lens, which helps me interact with my children and their families” (p.323). Thirteen discussed how activities based on dialogue and discussion influenced their dispositions and practices. Interactions with classmates, professors and professionals served as critical reflection that helped clarify or change their thinking. Transferability is a strength in this study because the results can transfer to other masters degree programs that do not include these types of readings and experiences and create more culturally relevant dispositions in their pre-service teachers. The findings are consistent with similar studies making dependability a strength for this study as well. The socioeconomic status of the participants was not given in the article. Confirmability and credibility were weaknesses for this study because the narratives may not be available to outside parties for privacy reasons and is therefore not confirmable. Kidd, Sanchez and Thorp (2007) demonstrated that experiences in multicultural environments were stated by pre-service teachers to better prepare them to become multicultural educators.

Canniff (2003) constructed a qualitative longitudinal case study that examined how a group of beginning teachers supported their induction into

teaching by transforming their pre-service cohort into a place where they confronted and validated their beliefs and practices with low income and linguistically diverse students. Canniff (2003) found that learning communities such as the cohort created in the study help new teachers to experiment with unconventional approaches and showed a need for teachers of all experience levels to understand how other cultural groups display knowledge.

Canniff (2003) used focus group interviews to gather data that began in the summer before the participants began teaching. The group met nine times over the year for an average of four hours each meeting. The meetings included a meal, a time to share and discuss student work and group interviews around questions about success, teacher beliefs and culturally responsive practice. These group interviews were audio taped and transcribed while field notes were taken during and after the interviews. Three teachers were observed in their classrooms where field and observation notes were taken. One eighty minute class was taped. The analysis of the interviews used an inductive and interpretive method. The interpretation was an analysis of what participants said, what they meant and what they did. Canniff (2003) read the transcripts five times in response to different analytic questions on cohorts, teacher beliefs, concepts of success, cultural narratives and their school experience. The data was then run through Hypersearch to develop small cases around specific themes and extract clusters of codes.

The teachers expressed that the discussions continually challenged their beliefs about the ways children learn, community norms on student engagement

or achievement and what constituted success in their classroom. The sessions fostered frank discussions on the irresistible urge to label their students as incapable of learning. One participant stated that “this revives me and makes me realize that I am doing this for a reason” (p.15). As the teachers came into contact with students that had backgrounds different from their own, their beliefs became more accommodating to different views. One participant said that “when you are teaching you need to go back to who you are. As hard as my experience was teaching, it was by being who I am that I reached some of those kids...some of the ones that other people said were not reachable.” (p.17). To listen to their students was a point made by some and to frequently ask them to evaluate an assignment or give feedback on their preferred learning style was a way to help students build skills that incorporated their multiple voices. The members of the group discussed that they faced overt opposition and criticism for their efforts to apply culturally responsive principles into their teaching. Five of them expressed anger that the system continues to perpetuate an atmosphere of fear, judgment and threat opposed to acceptance. Transferability was a strength of this study because the same settings can be used in another part of the country with any different number and school level teachers. The process and the product of the data collection and analysis are available to outside parties so the confirmability is also a strength of this study. The methodology produced believable and convincing findings that made the credibility a strength as well. Canniff (2003) showed that continued support is needed for multicultural educators to continue to be successful. Teachers of Hispanic/Latino/a students need this support as it

is essential to continue to be comfortable, supportive and challenging to those students as shown through previous studies.:

Stevens, Hamman and Olivárez (2007) constructed a quantitative study using a Likert type scale survey that investigated if Hispanic students experience a supportive school community when the teaching professionals are White and if White educators influence Hispanic students' feelings of school belonging to, in turn, affect educational outcomes. Stevens, Hamman and Olivárez (2007) found that the ethnicity of the student and that of the teacher were not significant variables in measuring the supportive school community for students or students feelings of belonging in the school community. Four hundred and thirty-four fifth grade students and 255 6th grade students from low- to moderate-income areas in a mid-sized West Texas school district participated in this study. Of all participants, 51.4% were girls and 48.6% were boys. All students that participated viewed themselves as Hispanic. Ninety-six and a half percent indicated that they were of Mexican descent while 3.5% indicated they were Hispanic but not of Mexican descent.

The study used a modified measure of school belongingness from Goodenow and three subscales from the Patterns of Adaptive Learning studies from Midgley et al. (as cited in Stevens, Hamman and Olivárez, 2007). The questionnaire was administered online in May of 2004. Eighty-seven percent of the students completed the questionnaire in their school's computer lab under the supervision of the computer teacher. Students required fewer than 15 minutes to complete the entire questionnaire. Social belonging was assessed

using seven items from the Psychological Sense of School membership scale where participants were asked to describe possible school conditions on a true not true for them scale ranging from 1 (not at all true) to 5 (completely true). Cronbach's alpha for this reached .72 indicating adequate reliability. Perceptions of teacher mastery orientation was measured by students responding to 5 items from Midgley et al. (as cited in Stevens, Hamman and Olivárez, 2007) that asked students to rate their opinion of how learning was viewed in their classroom by using the scale 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Cronbach's alpha was .72 indicating adequate reliability. Student mastery goal orientation was assessed through 5 items describing how they viewed learning where students were asked to rate the given descriptions with a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) to statements like "one of my goals in class is to learn as much as I can" and "it's important to me that I thoroughly understand my class work." The Cronbach's alpha for that measure was .68 which was lower than expected. Academic press was assessed through 6 items describing the type of pressure teachers created that asked students to rate descriptions on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly disagree). The Cronbach's alpha for that measure was .68, which was lower than expected.

School belonging was labeled as Measure 1, Perceptions of teacher mastery goal orientation was labeled Measure 2, Student mastery goal orientation was labeled Measure 3 and Academic Press was labeled Measure 4. Measure 1's mean was 26.48 with a standard deviation of 4.57. Measure 2's mean was 20.50 with a standard deviation of 3.10. Measure 3's mean was 18.83

with a standard deviation of 3.47. Measure 4's mean was 24.17 with a standard deviation of 3.48. For all measures, p was $< .01$ which indicated relatively high reliability. Formal tests of inference were not employed because of the large sample size for each measure (434). Skewness and kurtosis values for school belongingness (-.33, -.04) and student mastery goal orientation (-.20, -.35) were close to normal suggesting that students reported an average level of school belonging and mastery goal orientation. Skewness and kurtosis values for perceptions of teacher mastery goal orientation (-.73, .64) and teachers' academic press (-.53, .60) show negatively skewed distributions suggesting students see their teachers as strongly encouraging learning as well as pressuring students to understand content better. Strengths of this experimental design are its testing quality, the instrumentation used to test with, regression and the history of the design. Weaknesses of this experimental design are its selection and mortality rate in expanding the results. The small sample size creates a concern as well because only one school district in one area of the country was used it is less likely to be able to generalize the results to other areas. Stevens, Hamman and Olivárez (2007) demonstrated that the ethnicity of the teacher was not a significant indicator for students' feeling of belonging. Belonging to the school community was not shown to be an indicator of academic achievement for students and further research is needed on this to show if there is a connection or not.

Hammer et. al (2004) conducted a quantitative convenience sample study that researched what levels of training and confidence of speech-language

pathologists that serve Spanish-English bilingual children are and investigated how much pre-service training and continuing education pathologists have on multicultural and bilingual issues and found their confidence levels on those issues. Hammer et. al (2004) found that one third of the participants had no training on multicultural issues as students and had low confidence levels when they served Spanish-English bilingual children and families. American Speech – Language – Hearing Association (ASHA) members, based on geographic areas indicating rural or urban divided into diverse and non-diverse with respect for Hispanic population zip codes were chosen from the member list. Two hundred and fifty-six participants returned the surveys but forty-three of those were retired and were omitted. From rural areas, 59 worked in non-diverse areas and nine worked in diverse areas. The age of the population that the specialist worked with was not indicated. From urban areas, 24 worked in non-diverse areas and 121 worked in diverse areas. Participants were from 41 states with more than half from California, Texas, New York, New Mexico and Illinois. The average years in the profession was 21. Nearly all of the participants had a Masters degree and a certificate of clinical competence. Ninety percent of the participants were white and 6% were Hispanic. Thirty-one were bilingual. The gender and socioeconomic status of the participants was not indicated in the study.

Based on geographic areas indicating rural (less than 50% of the population lived in a densely populated area) or urban divided into diverse (20 % or more of the population is Hispanic) and non-diverse (20% or less of the population is Hispanic), subjects were chosen from a list of speech-language

pathologists at random. One thousand subjects were sent a copy of the questionnaire, two copies of the informed consent form and a pre-stamped and addressed envelope to return the consent form and questionnaire. The questions asked related to demographic information about the pathologist (years in profession, level of education, number of Hispanic children in caseload), assessment practices (who does the assessing, what approaches of data are used), training received and desired, and their confidence level when serving Hispanic children and families. Specific training questions were given choices to answer the questions: no coursework, one to two lectures in a course, several lectures in a course, lectures included in many courses, one course devoted to issues, more than one course or unable to recall. Respondents were asked to indicate topics covered in training from list of fifteen. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of confidence in: assessing bilingual children in primary language of Spanish and English, working with bilingual parents, working with parents that don't speak English and working with interpreters with options of not confident, somewhat unconfident, somewhat confident, confident and very confident. Responses were put into a data base twice on different occasions and both databases were compared for entry errors. The percentage of each group was determined along with means and standard deviations. Three groups are reported in the article because only nine responded from the diverse rural areas and are therefore excluded due to lack of information. Data analyzed on terms of topics covered were given three composites. Each respondent received a score for each composite reflecting the total number of topics that they reported

receiving training in. The mean confidence levels for the three groups was determined and comparisons were made between those respondents that were bilingual and monolingual without taking into consideration the community they were in. T-tests were used to compare the confidence levels of monolingual and bilingual pathologists when serving bilingual children and their families.

One third of the pathologists reported that they had no training on multicultural issues as students. More respondents in non-diverse urban areas took one or more courses on multicultural issues (18%) than in rural non-diverse areas (11%) and diverse urban areas (8%). The three groups differed on what topics the courses they took covered. Those from non-diverse urban and non-diverse rural areas averaged 6.5 and 5.2 topics while only 3.7 topics were, on average, covered by diverse urban area pathologists. Nearly half of the participants received no training on cultural competencies (Non-diverse rural: 47, Non-diverse urban: 50, Diverse urban: 45) while one third of the groups did not receive training on technical competencies (Non-diverse rural NDR: 28, Non-diverse urban NDU: 33, Diverse urban DU: 32). One third of the groups were interested in receiving more training on cultural competencies in communication styles of other cultures (NDR: 33, NDU: 39, DU: 30) and cultural views of disabilities/illness (NDR:33, NDU:39, DU: 33). Twenty-five percent requested training in customs/beliefs of other cultures (NDR: 26, NDU: 32, DU: 27) and cultural views of education (NDR: 35, NDU: 32, DU: 26). The groups differed greatly on the number of types of continuing education they had participated in during the last year. The most common activities were reading book chapters or

articles on issues, attending workshops in their school district and attending sessions at conferences. A small percent reported receiving information through conferences with a focus on multicultural issues. Respondents reported that they were not confident in the creation of an assessment of bilingual children with a primary language of Spanish and when working with parents who do not speak English. Their confidence rose on the creation of an assessment of bilingual children with a primary language of English and when working with bilingual parents and interpreters. Bilingual respondents reported having more confidence in all four areas over monolingual respondents. Researchers suggested that an emphasis needs to be placed on including multicultural issues in undergraduate and graduate programs. Priority should be given to continuing education on multicultural issues for working pathologists.

There were a few strengths in the design of this study. The history, testing of the data collected, instrumentation of how the data was collected and regression were all strengths of this kind of research design. An attempt was made to represent each possible group in ASHA in the group of participants. The age of the population that the specialist worked with was not indicated. The maturation of the study is an area of concern because there is no pre- or post-test comparison available. The sample size was not determined by the researchers but was a convenience sample of who responded to the mailing. Some respondents indicated that they do not have Hispanic students in their caseloads. The gender and socioeconomic status of the participants was not indicated in the survey. Hammer et. al (2004) demonstrated that specialists that

work with Hispanic students that are bilingual Spanish speakers do not feel that they are comfortable or have received enough training to properly assist those students. Training in multicultural education, as suggested by a previous study, would assist those specialists in properly helping their target population.

These six studies showed that more training is needed for educators and support for multicultural teachers need support during and after training. Morelli and Spencer (2000) found that a majority of the administrators, teachers, counselors and social workers reported a need and value in MCE but were used to supplement regular curriculum without training or policy support and Wiggins, Follo and Eberly (2007) found that the amount of time spent in a classroom was perceived as the most influential in preparing teachers for culturally diverse classrooms. Kidd, Sanchez and Thorp (2007) found that readings related to issues of race, culture, poverty and social justice, internship experiences in diverse communities, interactions with diverse families, critical reflection and discussion and dialogue were catalysts that shifted dispositions. Canniff (2003) showed that continued support for multicultural educators is essential to continue to be comfortable, supportive and challenging to students and Stevens, Hamman and Olivárez (2007) found that the ethnicity of the student and that of the teacher were not significant variables in measuring the supportive school community for students or students feelings of belonging in the school community. Hammer et. al. (2004) showed that specialists who work with Hispanic students do not feel comfortable or have not received enough training to properly assist those students.

Programs

The six studies in this section inspect how multicultural education policies are being used in programs with students of different ages in different situations. Kubal, Meyler, Stone and Mauney (2003) examined what kind of learning outcomes presenting a diversity speaker brings about for students and what students find a diversity speaker rewarding and Datnow, Borman, Stringfield, Overman and Castellano (2003) explored the adaptability of various reforms in multicultural, multilingual contexts and the student achievement outcomes associated with the reform. Abi-Nader (1990) inspected what characteristics a program for high school students needs to keep Hispanic students motivated. Fránquiz and Salazar (2004) examined the types of school programs that support the academic resiliency of Chicano high school students. Perin, Flugman and Spiegel (2006) examined youth participation in urban adult basic education programs. Kulis, Marsiglia, Elek, Dustman, Wagstaff and Hecht (2005) explored if culturally grounded drug prevention/intervention models prove more effective than typical prevention models for Latino middle school students.

Kubal, Meyler, Stone and Mauney (2003) used a combined qualitative and quantitative research method to examine what kind of learning outcomes does presenting a diversity speaker bring about for students and what groups of students are most and least likely to find a diversity speaker rewarding. Kubal et. al. (2003) found that learning outcomes varied among groups. Older students and female students found the program most rewarding while three kinds of learning outcomes were suggested: diversity, personal and resistance.

The speakers that incited the students' responses were from the Artist Diversity Residency Program (ADRP) where the school brings in artists in residence to speak to students about their experiences as an artist. All classes that participated in the ADRP program were asked to evaluate the experience. The evaluations were done in 1997, 1998 and 2000. Over half of the students that participated were freshman in college, 80% were white with an average age of 20.67 years old. Over half of the students that participated were female. Twenty percent were going for pre-professional degrees, 20% in art degrees, 24% for teaching degrees, 22% non identified degrees, 7% agricultural, 3% undecided, 1% nursing, and .8% journalism. Over 1,000 students responded in the three year period. Responses to the speakers were recorded in a questionnaire with closed and open ended questions. The data was run on the total population that reported on the questionnaires. The questionnaire included ten substantive, closed ended questions that was measured on a four point Likert scale. Three open ended questions asked students to reflect on how their perceptions changed because of their exposure to the program was included. The quantitative analysis showed which type of student most likely resisted the speaker while the qualitative analysis showed patterns in the type of resistance exhibited. No sampling technique was used in the data analysis.

Students found the guest speakers entertaining, thought provoking, worthwhile and captivating. They scored a three on the Likert four point scale. The program was reported to provoke students to awareness of the artist's culture and caused them to examine their cultural biases. The mean score for all

categories on the questionnaire was from 2.91 to 3.71. The factor analysis and regression showed a two factor structure with seven questions that loaded one factor and three questions that loaded another factor. The first factor was value and was a composite measure for the overall value of the students' experience. The questions "this presentation was entertaining" and "this experience has caused me to examine my own cultural biases" are examples of the value factor questions. The researchers then regressed "value" on age, gender, race/ethnicity and discipline. This quantitative analysis showed that age significantly influenced how valuable the student found the speaker (.04, $p < .05$). After controlling for gender, major and race/ethnicity, older students still found the speaker more valuable. Nudist, a qualitative analysis program, was run on the three open ended questions to organize transcripts to uncover trends in responses. This coding showed three outcomes that included diversity outcomes, personal outcomes and resistance. Diversity outcomes related to teaching diversity, personal outcomes were positive student responses that related to education and resistance were student responses that impeded student learning. One student expressed that "racism exists more than I had originally thought, and that my own actions have somewhat contributed to the problem" (p. 449) which indicated a diversity outcome for the student. A personal outcome response example is "it is nice to see good role models that have overcome others' prejudices and become so successful" (p. 450) because the student found a personal leader in the speaker. Younger males in pre-professional programs were most resistant to the

program. Four types of arguments were most popular. They were rejection of difference, guilt, personalizing the other and inapplicability.

Kubal et. al (2003) indicated the limitations of the study as integration of the qualitative and quantitative data, no connection to the original students responses on the Likert scale to the open ended questions, no follow up with the students and there was no systematic comparison of the learning outcomes across classes. The findings can be applied to similar settings which made transferability a strength for this study. The findings are consistent with similar studies which made dependability a strength for this study as well. Confirmability is a strength as the process and product are audible to outside parties. No sampling technique was used in the data analysis. There are no strengths for a quantitative one shot case designed study. Kubal et. al (2003) showed that a multicultural approach to educating students on diversity through lived experiences had varied outcomes from a diverse group of students. Female students, irrespective of ethnicity, found speakers most educational which affected their achievement in the diversity program.

Datnow, Borman, Stringfield, Overman and Castellano (2003) created a qualitative set of observation and quantitative study of test scores to examine the adaptability of the various reforms in multicultural, multilingual contexts and the student achievement outcomes associated with reform for schools as a whole and for language minority students. Datnow et. al. (2003) found that some schools implemented the reforms in supportive ways while others had difficulty in the adaption of the forms to suit the needs of Limited English Proficient students.

The reforms that were implemented generally helped educators meet the goals for multicultural education but beliefs about student ability, race and language were constraints to the reform. The achievement of students was generally equivalent to matched comparison schools. Thirteen elementary schools were chosen from one school district to study over a four year period of time from 1996 to 2000. These school implemented reform models from the New American Schools: Modern Red Schoolhouse and the Audrey Cohen College System of Education and Core Knowledge Sequence, the Coalition of Essentials Schools and the Comer School Development Program. Fifty-one percent of the school population was Latino, 34% were African American, 14% were white and 1% were Asian American. Seventy percent of the students were eligible for free-lunch and 22.4% were LEP status students. The quantitative piece of the study included comparison schools where the schools were similar in composition to the reform schools.

The qualitative piece of this study included semi structured interviews and focus groups with school staff. The participants were asked how the reforms were initiated, their progress towards implementation, the successes and challenges they faced in implementing the reforms with their multicultural and/or multilingual student populations; the adaptations or accommodations they made to the reform models, the support they received from the district and design teams and how their implementation efforts were affected by state policies with respect to the education of language minority student and testing and accountability. The interviews were taped and transcribed verbatim at the end of

each visit. Intensive classroom observations in the first through fourth grades lasted about 90 minutes. Researchers observed academic subjects as opposed to music, art or physical health. Observers took note of the curriculum used, instructional methods and the interactions between students and between students and teachers. Three hundred interviews were collected over the four years. The transcripts were coded through actions at the school, district and design team level that facilitated or hindered the reform models. The quantitative piece of this study included test score outcomes from all of the schools and thirteen matched comparison schools across three measures of achievement over three years. Datnow et. al. (2003) derived two measures of basic-skills outcomes for students in the spring of 2000 scores on the statewide test of math and reading achievement. The data was analyzed using analysis of covariance or an ANCOVA for three outcomes: basic-skills reading achievement, basic-skills math achievement and advanced-skills writing achievement. The achievement outcomes were adjusted for student background. Analyses were done by reform model, comparing students within schools to the students in the control school.

The results for the qualitative analysis showed that there were no clear patterns regarding reform expiration according to the characteristics of the schools. Schools that implemented the Comer School Development Program and Core Knowledge sustained moderate to high levels of implementation throughout the study. Both of the schools that implemented Modern Red Schoolhouse and Audrey Cohen College System of Education dropped their reforms during the study. These schools were shown to lack the buy-in among the majority of the

staff that was needed to keep the reforms in place. Reforms were dropped by six of the thirteen schools. Schools that adapted for multilingual or bilingual schools often made adaptations to the reforms. The most significant and successful accommodated language diversity and fostered students' native linguistic skills and cultures. One teacher stated that the SFA school of thought gave students many opportunities to communicate with each other and with the teacher. The CSR model was shown through interviews to help educators affirm their students cultural backgrounds and promote multiculturalism in their schools. One teacher stated that "we are very sensitized to the families and we are learning more about their culture and understanding more and more why the parents and the children act the way they do" (Datnow et al, 2003, p. 157). The SDP schools were able to focus on the 'whole child' and made them more aware of their students' cultural and family backgrounds. The quantitative piece of the study showed the Success for All, Core Knowledge and the Comer School Development Program models had statistically significant positive results. The Success for All schools had statistically significant main effects on reading outcomes ($F= 4.94$ $p<.05$) and LEP students ($F= 3.94$, $p<.05$). There was no main effect of reform for Core Knowledge but the ANCOVA showed a statistically significant interaction of reform by LEP students for math achievement ($F=4.13$ $p<.05$). A statistical significance was found for the Comer School Development Program for LEP students with reading achievements ($F=9.29$ $p<.01$).

The qualitative aspect of the studies credibility is a strength since the findings are believable and convincing. The confirmability is a strength as all of

the study is audible by an outside party. For the quantitative piece of the study, there were no strengths but only weaknesses in the research design. These were history, maturation, selection and mortality. The transferability of the qualitative piece of the study is a weakness because the participants may not be able to be applied to other areas. Datnow et. al. (2003) demonstrated the transferability of multicultural practices to elementary age students successfully and what is needed to keep reforms in place at schools that implement it.

Abi-Nader (1990) conducted a qualitative ethnography to investigate the characteristics that a program needs to keep Hispanic high school students motivated to succeed in school. The investigation found that an invested teacher that created a supportive environment for Hispanic students' culture and growth were the most influential characteristics that kept students motivated to succeed. Abi-Nader (1990) interviewed the primary teacher of PLAN (Programma: Latinos Adelantaran de Nuevo or Program: Latins Shall Rise Again), an existing college preparation program for Hispanic sophomores to seniors. The researcher gathered field notes and audiotapes of daily classroom sessions, collected field notes about nonverbal behavior, appearance of buildings, traffic patterns and displays and audio-taped interviews with people hostile to PLAN as well as supportive of it. Abi-Naber (1990) also attended faculty and parents' meetings, visited parents and alumni of the program, lived, shopped, and attended church in the students' neighborhoods. The researcher conducted weekly interviews with the teacher of PLAN, the ESL coordinator, and three key students. To gather data, the researcher had six months of focused observation and interview with

eight weeks of daily classroom observation. Two week long follow up visits took place as well at the end of the school year in which the researcher conducted the ethnography and in November of the next school year. The researcher examined speech events during the classroom talk for structure, content and function. Abi-Nader (1990) also looked for specific language activities like role playing and dramatizing used to enact teaching and demonstrate learning. A questionnaire was given to all 58 students in the PLAN program which asked about the program and asked for reflections and reactions to PLAN.

Participants lived in a metropolitan area in the North eastern United States. Twenty three sophomores, nineteen juniors and sixteen seniors were enrolled in PLAN during the year of observation. Don Brogan designed the PLAN program and was the main teacher for the PLAN classes. No age was given for Mr. Brogan but his non-Hispanic background was discussed. The three student informants were Carolina who was sixteen, Pedro who was seventeen and Julio who was eighteen. All three of them were Puerto Rican and had been living in the United States for less than five years. Forty-three of 58 students responded to the questionnaire.

The instructor of the PLAN program was the central figure in the study and was most important to students as stated through interviews. Students stated that his style of teaching had a compelling influence on their attitudes. One stated that “to me he’s a teacher who knows how to teach and he teaches very well. As far as I’m concerned his picture should be under the word teacher as a definition in the dictionary” (p.48). Observations in the classroom showed that he exerted

his influence through persuasive discourse expressed through instructional strategies that encouraged and supported learning. The use of language in PLAN helped students create a vision of the future, redefine their image of self and build a supportive community. The creation of a plan for the future was the most persuasive theme in PLAN created by the Mentor Program of past students, oral traditions about PLAN and future oriented classroom talk. Former students came and visited the classroom to speak to the students about their college experiences and Mr. Bogan told stories of his past graduates that went on to become nurses, teachers and MP's. Mr. Bogan also stated that "I'll never give up on you. You can always change" (p. 49). Students reciprocated that statement when one said "He wants us to learn. He wants us to go to a good college then he can talk to his other students" (p. 50). There were linguistic characteristics of the teacher talk that cast an indicative rather than conditional air in the classroom. Mr. Bogan said when you go to college instead of if you go to college and "I just want you to learn how to do the term paper. I don't want any surprises when you go to school next year" (p. 51). The classroom talk also provided a sense of pride in the Hispanic heritage by frequent use of positive reference to cultural values familiar to students, stories about how the teacher's experiences in the Peace Corps helped him appreciate Hispanic culture and the identification with students as his brothers and sisters.

The validity of the interpretations of the interviews, as stated in the article, was checked through a triangulation process that used recursive data gathering, interviews with a range of informants and explicit verification of interpretations

during the two follow-up visits to the school. The methodology with which the study was conducted produced findings that are believable and convincing which makes the article's credibility a strength. The confirmability of this study is also a strength as the data and analysis of the data is available to an outside party. The transferability of this study is a weakness because of the inability to transfer the findings to another group of Hispanic students in a high school. The study was specific to the PLAN program and without a very similar program at the high school studied, the findings are not transferable. Abi-Nader (1990) demonstrated that an invested, multicultural educationally minded teacher that created a supportive environment for Hispanic students' culture and growth was the best way to keep students motivated. This showed that inclusion of multicultural education into Hispanic students' school environment affected their academic achievement.

Fránquiz and Salazar (2004) constructed a qualitative five year ethnographic inquiry study that investigated what types of school programs support the academic resiliency of Chicano/Mexicano high school students and what pedagogical strategies are used to effectively teach Chicano/Mexicano high school students. Fránquiz and Salazar (2004) found that classes where all students are incorporated, listened to and received respect from their teachers responded with positive answers to interview questions and during in class observations. Students that participated were in classes in three distinct programs with high numbers of enrollment from one public high school in Northern Colorado. Chicana/o was defined as a person from Mexican descent or

a Mexican immigrant in the article. No number was given as to how many students from the school participated but the student body population of the high school was 1,457 with 35.7% Latino, 59.4% White, 2.3% Asian, 1.8% African American and .8% Native American. No socioeconomic status was given for the students participating or the entire school in the article.

Data was collected from observations and sample interviews of a social studies elective (Unity Class), a class from the school-within-a-school program (opportunity school) and an ESL class (HILT). The Unity class was an invitation by teacher only class that was considered to be a regular mainstream program. Interviews were conducted with students and teachers but the dates and times were not reported in the article nor were the questions asked during the interviews. The opportunity school group was analyzed through conversations between the head teacher, researcher, students and a young man named Lalo about reconsidering the linguistic permeability of characters in a novel or in real life. The opportunity school was by parental permission only for grades ten through twelve. Chicano students made up the majority if not the entire membership of the class for the duration of the study. Examples of field note observations made by a researcher and graduate students from the ESL classroom were included because of the segregation of Mexicano youth for a significant part of the day. There is no explanation as to how the questions for interviews or group discussions were formed. The researchers formed their analysis on the theory that unconditional linguistic acceptance helped students acquire English literacy better.

The Unity class interview was done on February 9, 2001 and recorded students reflections on the semester class they had participated in. The class included several Chicano and white students. One student comment was that the majority of class was making the attempt to understand where others were coming from or what their point of view was. A second student stated that “our number one rule in that class, that you would never like turn our backs on any one in that class, that we were expected to help one another” (p. 40). Themes emerged from the analysis of the interviews for the Unity class. These were use of the student’s own voice as a way to express views on social relationships and a teacher expectation of students cooperation in co-constructing a climate of resilience. An emergent theme was that of the teachers being different from other teachers at the school. The researchers looked further into the teachers’ involvement and discovered that those teaching the Unity Class took their planning time to pilot, develop and teach the program. The students indicated through the interviews that there were key experiences that they had in the Unity class that did not happen in their other classes. These were that they were seen as leaders, each person could “put ideas up” for the class to consider, they felt safe, everyone received respect, students were expected to share about themselves, they were expected to respect and help others, everyone was part of a team, arguing was an important part of discussion and unity must be spread through the school. This suggested that the way a classroom is set up, its culture, influenced academic resiliency through building self esteem, creating different roles for students to fill and impacting their lives beyond the classroom.

The students of Mexican origin in the OP school classes reported that people in the class talk to each other and that they feel like they are a part of something. The creation of a safe place to talk and a support for development of healthy bicultural orientations allowed for positive relationships to grow between students and teachers. The researchers reported that the ESL classes or HILT (High intensity language training) were not fitting with the students' prior knowledge of English and the school assumed that all incoming students of Chicana/o background were non-English speakers. This led to a misplacement of many students who were then tracked in the school because of their participation in the ESL classes. The classroom environment overwhelmingly endorsed English only in the classrooms. One teacher made poster stated, CLASS EXPECTATIONS – SPEAK ENGLISH! NO! REALLY! SPEAK ENGLISH! NO GUM, FOOD DRINKS – H2O O.k. Overall HILT teachers saw their role was to prepare students for regular classes by developing competency and fluency in English. Not all of the teachers felt that way. One teacher stated, “we focus a lot on reading in Spanish...I think it is important to get them to read, no matter what language it is” (p. 47). Other teachers utilized other sets of literature through historical periods to get students interested in reading. This teacher practiced a humanizing pedagogy and presented an opportunity for those students to strive for academic resiliency.

The study's transferability is strong to other settings in the South West. This might not be a strength for this study as it could be difficult to transfer the study to other places in the United States. The findings are consistent with other

studies and are dependable. There are no questions stated directly for interviews and no numbers of students that participated in the study. It is difficult to claim that the study is credible and gives evidence for changing the system because the methodology is difficult to replicate. The availability of the process and analysis of the interviews is unknown and may be a weakness of this research study. Fránquiz and Salazar (2004) demonstrated that when multicultural educational practices were used in majority Hispanic classrooms, students felt listened to and gave positive outlooks on their education. This affected their academic achievement positively in those classes.

Perin, Flugman and Spiegel (2006) examined youth participation in urban adult basic education programs in the attempt to find what the context in which youth were being served, why youth enroll in the programs, what the characteristics of the young adult participants are and what ways the programs adjust their services to accommodate youth. Perin, Flugman and Spiegel (2006) found that many of the participants in the programs were under eighteen but often did not finish the program even with the adjustments of including computers to their curriculum and more teachers and youth enrolled in the program to try to attain their GED an easier way. To answer these questions, the researchers looked at four Adult Basic Education (ABE) programs that were chosen in four large cities in a Northeastern State, of which the state was not indicated. Thirty-nine percent of the total enrollment was of youth participants from each program. The programs were asked for enrollment and demographic data for two time periods separated by a five year gap. Those two years were 1996 and 2001.

The programs reported data on 16-24 year old participants and 25+ participants. The research group separated these given groups into 16-20, 21-24 and 25+ groups. Another grouping was given for reading scores according to grade. One group of readers reading at a 7.9 grade level and below were noted as ABE students and those reading at an eighth grade level were noted as GED students. The Test of Adult Basic Education was used to find the reading levels of all of the age groups at the sites. Thirty-six individual and small group interviews were done with 49 people from the programs. These were mainly administrators and teaching staff. Structured interviews were held with eleven administrators, 26 teachers and three counselors who were selected because of their extensive ABE experience. Nine students were selected by the staff as typical students. All of the interviews were audio-taped, transcribed and coded.

The data for changes in youth participation was analyzed in two ways. The increase was measured in terms of the number of students in each age group. The increase was computed by statements of the number of students in each group in time two as a percentage of the number of students in the age group at time one. The second way was to state the number of students in each age group as a proportion of enrollment in all age groups for the two years. This takes into account when the numbers were increasing for more than one age group. Data tables were only available through the lead author of the research study. The type of interview, interview questions, when and where they were conducted, how the questions were formed or who the interviewer was, was not indicated. The subjects of these interviews were administrators, teachers, and counselors

of four public adult basic education programs in a Northeastern state with no gender, age, race/ethnicity, socioeconomic status indicated for any of the interviewees. The programs that the administrators, teachers and counselors worked at served largely Hispanic and Black populations. Site A served a largely Hispanic population; site B, C & D had a mostly Black population. Site D was stated to have mostly male students. Both population analyses showed that 16-20 year olds were the predominant age group in the program.

Administrators of the programs described the 16-20 year olds as requiring the most extensive and costly services than the older groups. For site A, the majority of the 16-20 year olds were ABE classes. Sixteen to eighteen year olds were taught in separate classrooms while the 18-20 year olds were in class with older students. Many 16 year old participants disliked the alternative high school program and stayed in the ABE program trying to get a GED. Youth participation increases were greater than the older age groups. The 16-20 group had a 91% to 230% increase, 21-24 group had an 18% to 123% increase with the 25+ group having a 26% to 57% increase in population. Youth enrollment in all sites was 18% to 62% and was more than 30% of the enrollment at the second data collection time. The interviewees gave numerous reasons for youth participation such as higher state standards for graduation, increased credit requirements and new more difficult state graduation exam, pregnancy, poor interaction with teachers, expulsion for behavior, attendance and substance abuse. A teacher stated that some students had a misperception of the GED and believed that it was “a quicker route to self-sufficiency” while they did not understand the

difference between the GED and a high school diploma. Interviewees viewed most of the 16-20 year olds possibility of earning a GED as remote. Discovery of the difficulty level of the GED affected participation in program in second age bracket. Compared to older students, 16-20 year olds were described as less mature, less motivated, less responsible, more involved with gangs, more likely to manifest learning and attention disabilities. Programs made adaptations for their 16-20 year old participants by including computerized, modular instruction, active learning, small class size, and adding individual instruction. Many of the participants who had dropped out of their high school dropped out of the program as well. The main reason for enrollment in the program was described by participants as the increased high school graduation requirements. The main accommodation for the growing youth population was to separate the classes by age but could not give individual tutoring that might have promoted learning in the distractible youth in the program.

The transferability of this study is low. The findings may not be able to be applied to other contexts because of the narrow subject base. The findings produced are believable and convincing raising the study's credibility. The data and analysis of the data are available to an outside party but must be requested from the lead researcher through the mail. This created a weakness in the confirmability of the study. Perin, Flugman and Spiegel (2006) demonstrated how the incorporation of multicultural education practices assisted struggling high school aged students through computerized and modular learning and smaller class sizes.

Kulis, Marsiglia, Elek, Dustman, Wagstaff and Hecht (2005) constructed a quantitative pre/post test control group designed study that researched if culturally grounded drug prevention/intervention models prove more effective than typical prevention models for Latino middle school students. Kulis et. al. (2005) found that the students in the Latino culturally grounded group and the students in the multicultural group refused drugs more often than those in the European centered prevention group and the control group as well as using drugs less often than those in the other groups. Three thousand four hundred and two students attended the thirty five public middle schools that participated in the study from 1998-1999 in the central corridor of Phoenix, Arizona. Those students reported their race or ethnicity as Mexican American, Mexican or Chicano and completed the pretest or post test questionnaires or both were included in the research. Sixty-three percent of those students were of exclusive Mexican heritage while the remaining thirty-seven percent identified with other ethnic groups as well as Mexican. There was no socioeconomic status or gender of the participants indicated in the article. Eighty-two percent of participants qualified for free lunch and seven percent qualified for reduced price lunch. The mean age was 12.52 with a standard deviation of .64 years and 48.5 percent were female.

The study began with the creation of the keepin' it REAL substance use prevention/intervention program. The program stressed the cultural norms by integrating values identified as most salient for success in communication with the youth in that group. With that in mind, the program focused on five key

elements of adolescent life which included communication competence, narrative knowledge, motivating norms, social learning and resistance skills. The program demonstrated how youth could resist offers of subsistence's without going against social structures in their culture. A curriculum was created with ten lessons with direct instruction, in-class exercises, video illustrations by students from a magnet high school in the area and homework assignments. Five of the lessons were based on videos and all of the lessons taught cognitive skills, appropriate behaviors and communication skills for use of four "REAL" resistance strategies: refuse, explain, avoid and leave. Three versions of the program were created for this study. One was a Latino version reflecting Mexican American and Mexican values, the second was a European American and African American grounded version while the third was a multicultural version incorporating half of the lessons from the Latino version and half from the non-Latino version with alterations made to the lessons for presentation. Teachers of the program used English and Spanish materials in each version of the curriculum used in the study. The last part of the program included public service announcements on television, radio and billboards along with booster activities conducted about every month at participating schools. These activities included assemblies, poster projects, murals, neighborhood nights out and essay contests. Teachers conducting the program received a day of training and two half-day follow up sessions covering implementation of booster activities and questionnaires.

In the spring of 1999 the teachers implemented the above described programs as they were assigned randomly from the four versions; Latino, Non-

Latino, Multicultural and Control. The 1999-2000 school year implemented the booster activities. Questionnaires were given before the students participated in the program in the fall of 1998 and after they participated in spring of 2000. The questionnaires included up to 82 items in a three form design. They were given by project-trained proctors in a 45 minute period during regular school hours where students were given verbal and written guarantees of confidentiality and that it was voluntary to participate in the questionnaire. Each questionnaire was written in English on one side and Spanish on the other. The questionnaires included items measuring substance use outcomes, refusal confidence, intention to accept substance offers, positive substance-use expectancies, personal, injunctive, and descriptive norms and variables used only for missing data imputation. The substance abuse outcomes piece included self reports of how much and how frequently students drank alcohol, smoked cigarettes and smoked marijuana in the past 30 days. The items were measured by a Likert type scale with one being the smallest amount to up to 10 being the largest. The internal consistency demonstrated a .86 Cronbach's alpha. Refusal confidence was measured similarly for self-efficacy in refusing alcohol, tobacco and other drugs from friends, family members and people they don't know on a Likert type scale ranging from 1 (not sure) to 5 (definitely sure). The internal consistency measured a .74. Intention to accept substance abuse assessed the intention to accept offers of alcohol, cigarettes and marijuana on a Likert type scale of 1 (definitely no) to 4 (definitely yes). The internal consistency was .81. Positive substance-use expectations measured six items looking at students' perceptions

of the positive consequence of substance abuse on a Likert scale of 1 (never) to 5 (most of the time). The internal consistency was .74. Personal, injunctive and descriptive norms used the Focus Theory of Norms to identify and measure three types of norm: what the person thinks is right or wrong, what the person believes that other think is right and wrong, and how many of the persons peers use drugs. Responses ranged from 1 (definitely okay) to 4 (definitely not okay) for personal norms with an internal consistency of .86. Responses could range from 1 (not angry) to 4 (very angry) for injunctive norms with an internal consistency of .71. Responses for descriptive norms could range from 1 (very friendly) to 4 (very unfriendly) with an internal consistency of .81. The variables used only for missing data imputation measured current grades, how far they expected to get in school, language they chose for the questionnaire and language used with parents and friends. Statistical analysis was done on the results from the questionnaires.

Of the 3,402 students only 51% of the responses were matched for pre- and post-questionnaires. This was due to drop outs and change of school. Thirty-five percent of the students only had pre-questionnaires and 14% had post-questionnaires. Ninety-one percent of participants reported having seen at least one of the videos during seventh grade and more than 30% for having viewed all five videos. Sixty-two percent of students in the intervention classes stated seeing the public service announcements while thirty-one percent of the control students reported viewing them. The mean differences for student responses from the pre-test to post-test were calculated as well. Students' substance abuse

increased over all with a mean increase of .17 (Standard Error: .04) for all three of the intervention programs and .36 (SE: .04) for the control group. Intervention program students reported an increased refusal confidence with a mean increase of .08 (SE: .05) whereas the control group's refusal confidence decreased with a mean difference of -.10 (SE: .06). Mean difference calculations also showed a decrease in the three types of antidrug norms personal, parental injunctive and friend injunctive for all of the studies groups. All of the intervention groups mean differences showed personal antidrug norm mean difference as -.08 (SE: .04), parents' injunctive difference as -.05 (SE: .03) and friends' injunctive difference as -.10 (SE: .04) while the control groups mean differences were -.20 (SE: .03) for personal antidrug, -.07 (SE: .03) for parents' injunctive and -.23 (SE: .05) for friends' injunctive norms. Overall, this showed that the control group showed a larger decrease in norms than the intervention groups did. The intervention groups also reported an increase in recent substance use, alcohol and marijuana use smaller than the control group. This is shown through a mean difference between the intervention and control group as -.17 (SE: .06, $p < .01$). Refusal confidence increased the most in the Latino version of the intervention groups compared to the control group shown through the mean difference score of .23 (SE: .09, $p < .05$). The multicultural version was the only version to demonstrate significant effects on alcohol use with a mean difference score of -.24 (SE: .09, $p < .01$). The Latino version mean difference score was equal to the multicultural versions but was found to be non-significant with a high p score. The attempt was made to use a simultaneous regression model to assess if cultural specificity

enhanced the effects of the interventions but the expectation that Mexican and Mexican American students that received the Latino or multicultural version would report more positive outcomes was not supported through the regression. There was no evidence of harmful program effects and no participants reported more undesirable substance use outcomes than in the control schools.

History, maturation, testing, instrumentation, regression, selection and mortality are all strengths for this type of research design. The researchers stated the limitations they found in the study as the possibility that groups differed in unexpected, unmeasured ways that affected the outcomes, differences may have come up while incorporating cultural content influencing the outcomes, dosage was not controlled, and is not easily transferable to communities outside the Southwest or where schools have a Mexican American student body majority. There was no evidence of researchers taking pre-existing conditions into account on the questionnaires or in the program construction. Kulis et. al. (2005) demonstrated that the inclusion of multicultural education practices were more effective on student actions than non-multicultural education practices.

These studies displayed the positive effect multicultural practices had on the programs described. Kubal et. al. (2003) showed that a multicultural approach to educating students on diversity through lived experiences had varied outcomes for diverse students while Datnow et. al. (2003) demonstrated how multicultural practices can be transferred to elementary age students successfully and how to keep reforms in place at schools that implement it. Abi-Nader (1990) showed a supportive environment for Hispanic students' culture

and growth were the most influential characteristics to keep students motivated to succeed. Fránquiz and Salazar (2004) demonstrated that when multicultural educational practices are used in majority Hispanic classrooms, students felt listened to and gave positive outlooks on their education. Students' achievement was positively affected by a positive outlook on their education. Perin, Flugman and Spiegel (2006) showed that incorporating multicultural practices helped high school students achievement. Kulis et. al.(2005) illustrated that the inclusion of multicultural education practices were more effective on student actions than non-multicultural education practices.

Summary

Chapter three was a review of the research on Hispanic students and their parents in the education system, preparedness of teachers to teach multicultural education and programs and schools that have implemented multicultural education. The findings of the studies were analyzed based on the conclusions provided in the research. The research was reviewed to investigate what research has been done on how Hispanic students can be affected or not affected by multicultural education practices. The research in the drop out rate and disappearing section showed that the drop out rates for Hispanic students are affected by the practices of schools and teachers. The research in the achievement and attitude indicated that the attitude of the community, parents and students affect the achievement of Hispanic students. The research in the engagement and assessment section showed that the creation of culturally responsive assessment is possible, support for all in education is needed and the

environment in which the support is given is important. The research in the training section indicated that more training is needed for educators and support for multicultural teachers is need during and after training. The research in the programs section showed the positive effect multicultural practices had on the programs described. Chapter four provides the summary of the findings from this chapter in respect to the sections above. Then chapter four will take classroom implications into consideration and suggest future research.

CHAPTER FOUR: CONCLUSION

Introduction

Chapter one presented the current need for a change in education practices through population statistics and the different theories behind a proposed change, multicultural education. Several different sides of multicultural education theory which included Sleeter and Grants, Nieto's, Bennett's, Golnick and Chinn's and Banks' view of multicultural education were examined as well as the counterarguments against it. Chapter one also presented the question at hand as how does multicultural education affect the academic achievement of Hispanic/Latino/a students in a classroom. The answer to this question has yet to be found. The research in this area is segregated into achievement, engagement, motivation and specific programs introduced to individual schools or school districts. This segregation leads to an unsure answer to the question of the study. Chapter two described the formation of education of schooling in the United States as establishments to maintain social order and the status quo of society. These early American schools were established to keep a stable economy and create the next generation to keep it that way. This chapter also described how education was formed for Hispanic/Latino/a students in two sections; Pre-Columbian and after the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo. For Pre-Columbian people of Latin America, education was necessary to keep the society running smoothly. This changed with the introduction of missionaries into Latin America where missionary teachings became very popular for elite native families. After the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, schools were secular, private and

religious. Much of their primary goal in the South West was to teach Hispanic students how to be American in separate schools from the white students. Schools were desegregated in the fall of 1948 after parents challenged the schools for violating the 14th amendment. Multicultural education's development was described as beginning with the Civil Rights Era and court cases and federal legislation legalizing the incorporation of multicultural education's philosophies into school systems. The second rise of feminism began to criticize and analyze the underlying assumptions that students were deficient and looked to bring equality to women in higher education. Multicultural education was criticized for failing to look at institutionalized racism in the structure of society and its narrow focus. Chapter three reviewed the research done on Hispanic students, their communities, families, programs for students and multicultural education. The studies were organized into five sections that included drop out rates and disappearing, achievement and attitude, engagement and assessment, teacher training and programs. The drop out rates and disappearing section found who, how and why Hispanic students were dropping out of school, what ethnic groups were dropping out and if attitude and self image had an affect on drop out rates. The achievement and attitude section discussed the amount of influence students' communities aspirations had on them, parent involvement in school, and the difference between minority groups' affect on school performance. The engagement and assessment section discovered how often students engage in school, what characteristics help students do well on assessments and if tests can be successfully modeled toward attaining correct assessments of students.

The teacher training section found how much training educators had and used in multicultural education, what assisted teachers during their training to work with Hispanic students and their confidence in working with Hispanic students. The programs section found and discussed some programs that worked with Hispanic students and drop outs. Each of the studies was summarized and analyzed based on the conclusions provided in the studies. Chapter four revisits the guiding question and summarizes the findings in chapter three in regards to the guiding question. Chapter four also gives the implications for practice in the classroom the research provides and suggestions for further research.

Summary of Findings

The studies in each section of chapter three attempted to find how multicultural education affects the academic achievement of Hispanic/Latino/a students. The drop out rates and disappearing section looked to answer why students were dropping out of schools or 'disappearing' from the education system to find what connection can be made to multicultural education (Cammorta, 2006; Carpenter and Ramirez, 2007; Delgado-Gaitan, 1988; Worrell, 2007). The studies of this section showed that the drop out rates of Hispanic students is affected by the practices of schools and teachers as well as students' attitude and feelings toward education (Cammorta, 2006; Carpenter and Ramirez, 2007; Delgado-Gaitan, 1988; Worrell, 2007). The students' inner world, feelings, social life, life at home and in their community are a strong influence if they will stay in school and/or achieve in school academically (Carpenter and

Ramirez, 2007; Worrell, 2007) and teacher and parent support has a positive impact on achievement and motivation (Cammorta, 2006; Delgado –Gaitan, 1988). A general small sample size for two of the studies in this section is a weakness (Cammorta, 2006; Delgado-Gaitan, 1988). It causes each study to be less generalizable to other places with different populations. The credibility of the studies was a strength which allowed for implications to be made from them (Cammorta, 2006; Carpenter and Ramirez, 2007; Delgado-Gaitan, 1988; Worrell, 2007). Cammorta (2006) and Delgado- Gaitan (1988) were qualitative where Carpenter and Ramirez (2007) and Worrell (2007) were quantitative.

The studies in the achievement and attitude section examined if the attitude of the students, parents and community affected the achievement level of the student because the previous section found that attitude had an affect on if a student stayed in school or dropped out. These studies showed that the attitude of the community, parents and students affects the achievement of Hispanic students in various ways (Close and Solberg, 2007; Delgado-Gaitan, 1991; Delgado-Gaitan, 1994; Ogbu and Simmons, 1994; Vera, 1999). A constructed environment made by teachers, administrators, school district and parents through aspirations for the students' achievement, feelings of how important education is to making it in society, self determination theory along with strong connections with parents and teachers and incorporating Spanish and English speakers in the classroom influences Hispanic students' academic achievement and motivation to achieve (Close and Solberg, 2007; Hadi-Tabassum, 1999; Ogbu and Simons, 1994; Vera, 1999). A small number of quantitative studies

are in this group of research as there were two pretest/post test and case studies (Close and Solberg, 2007; Ogbu and Simons, 1994) and five qualitative studies (Delgado-Gaitan, 1991; Delgado-Gaitan, 1994; Hadi-Tabassum, 1999; Melber, 2006; Vera, 1999). A small subject size was a weakness again for four of the studies which made the generalizability difficult (Delgado-Gaitan, 1991; Delgado-Gaitan, 1994; Hadi-Tabassum, 1999; Vera, 1999). The relevancy of Ogbu and Simmons' (1994), Delgado-Gaitan's (1991) and Delgado-Gaitan's (1994) studies is a weakness as well. The research is 14 years old or older and to determine if the findings are still relevant another study must be conducted.

The engagement and assessment section explored how often and much Hispanic students are engaged in school and how assessments are created to appropriately assess their knowledge. These studies showed that the creation of culturally responsive assessment is possible, support for all in education is needed and the environment in which the support is given is important to students achievement (Brookhart, Walsh and Zientarski, 2006; Garcia-Reid, Reid and Peterson, 2005; Garcia-Reid, 2007; Laird et al, 2000; Naglieri, Rojan and Matto, 2006; Ryan, Chandler and Samuels, 2007; Yair, 2000). Research found that High quality instruction and the more challenging the activity increased engagement in the activities presented and perceived interest in such activities (Garcia-Reid, Reid and Peterson, 2000; Yair, 2000). Several of these studies showed that a constructed environment made by teachers, administrators, school district and parents through aspirations for the students' achievement, feelings of how important education is to making it in society, self determination theory along

with strong connections with parents and teachers, incorporating Spanish and English speakers in the classroom and the use of cultural definitions influences Hispanic students' academic achievement and motivation to achieve (Brookhart, Walsh and Zientarski, 2006; Laird et al, 2007; Ogbu and Simons, 1994; Ryan, Chandler and Samuels, 2007). Yair's (2000) study had the most strengths for its research design and implications for classroom change can be taken into account because of that. Low socioeconomic status of the participants was focused on in two the studies in this section (Brookhart, Walsh and Zientarski, 2006; Garcia-Reid, 2007; Garcia-Reid, Reid and Peterson, 2005) while the other five did not mention the socioeconomic status of the participants in the study. If the participants were of a higher socioeconomic status it was not indicated in any of the research in these studies. Again, transferability to other areas and populations outside the strict limitations of the survey was a weakness for several of the studies (Garcia-Reid, 2007; Garcia-Reid, Reid and Peterson, 2005; Laird et al, 2007; Ryan, Chandler and Samuels, 2007). Naglieri, Rojan and Matto (2006), Ryan, Chandler and Samuels (2007), Brookhart, Walsh and Zientarski (2006), Garcia-Reid, Reid and Peterson (2005) and Garcia-Reid (2007) were quantitative studies which showed another trend in the research for this topic area.

The studies in the teacher training section surveyed research that uncovered what kind of multicultural education training was available to educators. The purpose in this was to find if there was training available to educators of all levels and was the training being used with students. These

studies showed that there is training available but more training is needed for educators (Canniff, 2003; Hammer et al, 2004; Kidd, Sanchez and Thorp, 2007; Morelli and Spencer, 2000; Stevens, Hamman and Olivárez, 2007; Wiggins, Follo and Eberly, 2007;). Multicultural teachers need support during and after training (Canniff, 2003; Kidd, Sanchez and Thorp, 2001). A need for multicultural education is seen by administrators, teachers, counselors, social workers and speech pathologists working with Hispanic students but little to no training was taken or done by these educators (Hammer et al, 2004; Morelli and Spencer, 2000). Reading multicultural education books, interning in multicultural schools, interacting with families in those schools, spending time in a culturally diverse classroom and community, creating a learning community for in service teachers and understanding that the ethnicity of the student and teacher are insignificant to the students feelings of being supported or belonging will help to prepare pre-service teachers work with Hispanic students (Canniff, 2003; Kidd, Sanchez and Thorp, 2007; Stevens, Hamman and Olivárez, 2007; Wiggins, Follo and Eberly, 2007). This section showed a weakness in sample size and reporting on demographics of samples (Canniff, 2003; Kidd, Sanchez and Thorp, 2007; Morelli and Spencer, 2000; Wiggins, Follo and Eberly, 2007). This is a weakness because the research is made more difficult to generalize to classrooms in different areas and populations. Wiggins, Follo and Eberly (2007), Stevens, Hamman and Olivárez (2007) and Hammer et al (2004) were quantitative surveys while Morelli and Spencer (2000), Kidd, Sanchez and Thorp (2007) and

Canniff (2003) were qualitative studies so no trend can be seen in the type of studies.

The programs section looked to find programs that incorporated multicultural education practices into their design with Hispanic students. Few programs were found and implications for how programs could be successfully implemented and run were discussed (Abi-Nader, 1990; Dathnow et al, 2003; Fránquiz and Salazar, 2004; Kubal et al, 2003; Kulis et al, 2005; Perin, Flugman and Spiegel, 2006). Some of these studies displayed the positive effect multicultural practices had on the programs described (Abi-Nader, 1990; Fránquiz and Salazar, 2004; Kubal et al, 2003; Kulis et al, 2005). Programs that were created with Hispanic students in mind that were supported by the school and administrators of the program is effective for students (Datnow et al, 2003; Kubal et al, 2003). The strength of many of these studies was that they were transferable to different situations. Many were qualitative interviews or ethnographies that found positive influences on the program and the indicated practices could be transferred to other locations (Abi-Nader, 1990; Datnow et al, 2003; Fránquiz and Salazar, 2004; Kubal et al, 2003; Perin, Flugman and Spiegel, 2006). A weakness of Perin, Flugman and Spiegel's (2006) study was that the study did not give any examples of questions asked during interviews with students. This is a weakness because the phrasing of a question will influence the answer received, when no examples are given the credibility of the study decreases.

Over all, the studies of chapter three demonstrated a few trends. There were several studies that implemented interviews, surveys and ethnographies (Abi-Nader, 1990; Cammorta, 2006; Canniff, 2003; Datnow et al, 2003; Delgado-Gaitan, 1988; Delgado-Gaitan, 1991; Delgado-Gaitan, 1994; Fránquiz and Salazar, 2004; Hadi-Tabassum, 1999; Kidd, Sanchez and Thorp, 2007; Kubal et al, 2003; Laird et al, 2007; Melber, 2006; Morelli and Spencer, 2000; Perin, Flugman and Spiegel, 2006; Vera, 1999; Yair, 2000). While these qualitative studies had strong qualities that can be used in the classroom many of the quantitative studies showed weaknesses. The weaknesses of the studies included small population sizes (Abi-Nader, 1990; Cammorta, 2006; Canniff, 2003; Datnow et al, 2003; Delgado-Gaitan, 1988; Delgado-Gaitan, 1994; Garcia-Reid, 2007; Hadi-Tabassum, 1999; Hammer et al, 2004; Kidd, Sanchez and Thorp, 2007; Kubal et al, 2003; Melber, 2006; Morelli and Spencer, 2000; Perin, Flugman and Spiegel, 2006; Ryan, Chandler and Samuels, 2007; Vera, 1999; Wiggins, Follo and Eberly, 2007). There were also few quantitative true experimental studies in the review of the research. The implications of this will be addressed in the suggestions for further research section.

Classroom Implications

Based on the findings stated above, there are some implications for the classroom. To continue to educate Hispanic students, they must first stay in school. The were varied reasons behind dropping out of school but having continued support from their teachers was one suggested way to keep students

in school (Carpenter and Ramirez, 2007; Delgado Gaitan, 1988). Parents and teachers continually supporting students in their education, creating relationships with them and pressing them to achieve was shown to help them stay in school and gain self efficacy and confidence in themselves (Close and Solberg, 2007; Garcia-Ried, Reid, and Peterson, 2005; Vera, 1999). By being a support and assistant to Latino students through spending more time after school, tutoring, or just making sure that they are alright, teachers may keep a student from dropping out of school and keep students achieving academically.

Hispanic students are engaged half of the time in classrooms but the more difficult the work the more engaged they become (Yair (2000). Teachers can use this information in the classroom by making work more interesting to students through finding what their interests are and connecting it to the work as well as increasing the difficulty level above the current level of the students. By doing so, students are challenged in an area they find interesting and will be engaged for longer periods of time and achieve in these areas. Through the incorporation of student interests and challenging material, teachers can keep students engaged, support their interests and keep them in school (Carpenter and Ramirez, 2007; Close and Solberg, 2007; Delgado Gaitan, 1988).

The programs section of chapter three gave a glimpse into what teachers can implement in their classrooms to use multicultural education practices to influence their students' academic achievement. The creation of a supportive classroom environment incorporating students where they feel listened to and

respected that was centered around Hispanic culture was most influential in keeping the students motivated to achieve academically (Abi-Nader, 1990; Fránquiz and Salazar, 2004). Educators can use this information to incorporate the cultures of the students in their classrooms through art, music, food and assignments centered in ideas from different cultures represented in the classroom. Through the use of some of the culture's practices of a group of students in their education can lead to positive outcomes for them (Kulis et al, 2005). Educators can bring the cultures of their students into their classrooms by investigating what cultures are represented in the classroom and finding innovative and interesting ways to incorporate ways of speaking, art, music, history, different forms of mathematics, views of the world, etc.

Suggestions for Further Research

Many studies in this research review had weaknesses that could be strengthened by the recreation of the study with some differences. As was noted above in the summary of findings section, many of the research studies were not recent studies. Abi-Nader (1990), Delgado-Gaitan (1988), Delgado-Gaitan (1991), Delgado-Gaitan (1994), and Ogbu and Simmons (1994) are over ten years old. These studies should be re-worked and done again to see if their findings are still true and relevant for today's students. For the ethnographic studies, going back and doing follow up interviews with those in COPLA on how the organization is progressing or what has happened to it will assist educators in using the previous data.

Low income students were the focus of many of the articles found for this paper. Cammorta (2006), Hadi-Tabassum (1999), Delgado-Gaitan (1991), Delgado-Gaitan (1994), Melber (2006), Garcia-Reid (2007), Garicia-Ried, Reid, and Peterson (2005), Stevens, Hamman and Olivárez (2007), Datnow et. al. (2003), Abi-Nader (1990), Perin, Flugman and Spiegel (2006) and Kulis et. al. (2005) all had participants of low socioeconomic status. For a more generalizable study, expanding the socioeconomic status of the student participants may give a more rounded view of the education system for Hispanic students. Only looking at these studies, one might think Hispanic students are only in the low bracket of socioeconomic status. Although students of a low socioeconomic status are the most in need, it is a statistic weakness in the sample and does not represent the whole population. Small sample sizes were also common for the studies found for this paper. Cammorta (2006), Delgado-Gaitan (1988), Vera (1999) Hadi-Tabassum (1999), Melber (2006), Ryan, Chandler and Samuels (2007), Kidd, Sanchez and Thorp (2007) and Canniff (2003) had sample sizes fewer than 50. The expansion of the sample size of the studies would give the studies better generalizability to other areas and populations around the country. This would allow for more educators to use the findings in their practices and effect change in their classrooms.

The search for research studies on multicultural education being implemented in classrooms turned up very few. There were even less on how multicultural practices affect Hispanic students let alone their achievement. The suggestion for research in this area is simple. Conduct studies on the guiding

question presented in the first chapter. I suggest that a year long pre/post test designed study be done in high Hispanic population school districts in several different areas of the country; urban, rural and suburban. Test the students' knowledge on a particular topic and implement a highly supported method of multicultural education practices in the school districts classes on that topic with a control group of students to compare with. Observe the changes in attitude, engagement and motivation in the students and at the end of the year, test the students' knowledge once again. The next step to take is to look at what the positive and negative effects are that multicultural education has for Hispanic students and what is the best practice way to implement them into schools successfully that will last.

Conclusion

Chapter one examined the current population in the United States and described the need for a way to address it in our education system. The population in the United States is growing with more migration and immigration. According to the US Census Bureau report of April 1, 2000 35,305, 818 people of the United States' 281, 421, 906 people consider themselves Hispanic (US Census, 2000). With 7.9 percent of the population considering themselves Hispanic, their culture should be included in the education taught to students. Multicultural education has been presented to address this and several different multicultural education theories were presented as well as the counterarguments. Sleeter and Grant's, Nieto's, Bennett's, Golnick and Chinn's and Banks' view of

multicultural education were extolled as well as the counterarguments against it written by Hirsch (1988) and Schlesinger (1992). These stated that cultural pluralism is dangerous to society making groups separate from one another, multicultural education has been tried and failed in the past, and American society is not based on the idea that separating ethnicities into groups and using them in education is a good thing (Hirsch, 1988; Schlesinger, 1992). The guiding question for this paper was presented as how does multicultural education affect the academic achievement of Hispanic/Latino/a students in a classroom. The answer to this question has yet to be found. The research in this area is segregated into achievement, engagement, motivation and specific programs introduced to individual schools or school districts. No research was found examining the question posed for this study. Since multicultural education has a multitude of meanings and interpretations, there is no consistent way this is being applied in schools. Thus, it is difficult to determine a definitive answer to such a question.

Chapter two illustrated how schooling in the United States formed as establishments to maintain social order and the status quo of society. These early American schools were established to keep a stable economy and create the next generation to keep it that way. The chapter also described how Hispanic/Latino/a students' education was created in two sections, Pre-Columbian and after the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo. For the Pre-Columbian people of Latin America, education was necessary to keep their stratified society running smoothly. Schools were used to educate young people about their

society and how they would fit into their society through their job. This changed with the introduction of missionaries into Latin America. Missionary teachings became very popular for elite native families and the less well off were cast off not receiving an education. After the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, schools were separated into secular, private and religious. Much of the primary goal in the South West was to teach Hispanic students how to be American citizens. These were often separate schools from the white students as the white students already knew how to be American citizens. Schools were desegregated in the fall of 1948 after parents challenged the schools for violating the 14th amendment. Beginning with the Civil Rights Era and Feminisms second rise, court cases and federal legislation legalized the incorporation of multicultural education's philosophies into school systems. The second rise of feminism began to criticize and analyze the underlying assumptions that students were deficient and looked to bring equality to women in higher education. Multicultural education was criticized for failing to look at institutionalized racism in the structure of society and its narrow focus.

Chapter three reviewed the research in Hispanic students, their communities, families and multicultural education. The studies were organized into five sections: drop out rates and disappearing, achievement and attitude, engagement and assessment, teacher training and programs. Each of the studies were summarized and analyzed based on the conclusions provided in the studies. These studies found that administrative, teacher and parent support is positive impact on achievement and motivation as well as the success of

multicultural programs in a district or school (Abi-Nader, 1990; Camorta, 2006; Dathow et al, 2003; Delgado –Gaitan, 1988; Franquiz and Salazar, 2004; Garcia-Reid, 2007; Garcia-Reid, Reid and Peterson, 2000). Constructed environments made by teachers, administrators, school district and parents through aspirations for the students' achievement, feelings of how important education is to making it in society, self determination theory along with strong connections with parents and teachers, incorporating Spanish and English speakers in the classroom and the use of cultural definitions influences Hispanic students' academic achievement and motivation to achieve (Brookhart, Walsh and Zientarski, 2006; Close and Solberg, 2007; Hadi-Tabassum, 1999; Laird et al, 2007; Ogbu and Simons, 1994; Ryan, Chandler and Samuels, 2007; Vera, 1999). The students' inner world, feelings, social life, life at home and in their community are a strong influence if they will stay in school and/or achieve in school academically (Carpenter and Ramirez, 2007; Worrell, 2007). Incorporating the community in which the student lives in, including parents, other Spanish speaking adults, Spanish interpreters, and descriptions, influenced involvement of families in educational activities (Delgado-Gaitan, 1991; Delgado-Gaitan, 1994; Kulis et al, 2005; Melber, 2006). High quality instruction and the more challenging the activity increased engagement in the activities presented and perceived interest in such activities while inclusion of technology and increased number of teachers did not help students under 18 to gain their GED out of high school (Garcia-Reid, Reid and Peterson, 2000; Perin, Flugman and Spiegel, 2006; Yair, 2000). Tests and programs specified or directed toward Hispanic students, such as the PASS

test and anti drug curriculum was effective and a correct assessment for those students (Kubal et al, 2003; Naglieri, Rohan and Matto, 2006). A need for multicultural education is seen by administrators, teachers, counselors, social workers and speech pathologists working with Hispanic students but little to no training was done by these educators (Hammer et al, 2004; Morelli and Spencer, 2000). Reading multicultural education books, interning in multicultural schools, interacting with families in those schools, spending time in a culturally diverse classroom and community, creating a learning community for in service teachers and understanding that ethnicity of the student and teacher are insignificant to the students feelings of being supported or belonging will help to prepare pre-service teachers for working with Hispanic students (Canniff, 2003; Kidd, Sanchez and Thorp, 2007; Stevens, Hamman and Olivarez, 2007; Wiggins, Follo and Eberly, 2007).

Chapter four revisited the guiding question and summarized the findings in chapter three in regard to the guiding question. The findings in chapter three indicated that there is currently no direct answer to the guiding question of this study. Providing more support for students through teachers, parents, the environment in which students work in, pictorial descriptions, Spanish speaking interpreters and assistants and community assisted students academically in several of the presented research studies (Abi-Nader, 1990; Camorta, 2006; Dathow et al, 2003; Delgado –Gaitan, 1988; Delgado-Gaitan, 1991; Delgado-Gaitan, 1994; Franquiz and Salazar, 2004; Garcia-Reid, Reid and Peterson, 2000; Garcia-Reid, 2007; Kulis et al, 2005; Melber, 2006; Yair, 2000;). Teachers

that give support to students through the incorporation of students' cultures and being available to them were given as positive impacts on students' achievement, engagement and motivation in the classroom. Research found that more training on multicultural education and use in the classroom was called for by educators of all kinds (Hammer et al, 2004; Morelli and Spencer, 2000). Increasing the number of subjects in studies and re-working old studies was suggested for research in the future. It was also suggested that a series of studies be done on how multicultural education practices affect students in schools. These studies were not found in the research done for this study and would answer a piece of the guiding question. The use of these practices and research suggestions could bring about new information and practices for teachers to use to keep Hispanic students in school, reaching their goals and achieving academically.

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