2018-12-01

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A thesis submitted to the faculty of
Brigham Young University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Arts

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ABSTRACT

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This thesis focuses on how cultural connections in classroom influences students' value of learning, specifically, their value of reading. Several researchers and theorists have emphasized the importance of balancing cognitive and conative aspects of children's reading development. However, what is lacking in these studies is a focus on Pacific Islander (PI) children. The purpose of this study was to examine value of reading for diverse students who may be struggling in classrooms designed for White, middle-class students. Findings provide educators and those working with diverse students a chance to consider how connecting cultural backgrounds for all students can help in classrooms. This study was framed from a larger study on equity in teaching academic language conducted by the supervising professor, Dr. Bryant Jensen. This research study used a mixed method approach: multiple regression analysis to predict gains in PI students' reading values, and interviews with classroom teachers. Fourth through sixth grade Latino and PI students in 32 classrooms participating in the quantitative study, and three teachers were interviewed. Due to the short time frame, PI students' value of reading did not increase on average. Themes also emerged during interviews with the classroom teachers. I conclude with a discussion, implications, and recommendations for future research studies and educators working with PI and other diverse students.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to express my deepest appreciation to those who played a role in my graduate studies' accomplishments. First of all, I would like to recognize my dear husband, Quentin, who supported me with undeniable love, patience, and benevolence. Without you, I could never have reached this current stage of educational success.

Secondly, I would like to thank my family and friends who offered compassion, encouragement or reassurance these last two challenging and exciting years. Your continued confidence provided me with the reassurance I needed throughout this academic experience.

In addition, I would like to also acknowledge my committee chair, Dr. Bryant Jensen, who has provided me with patience, advice, and guidance throughout the entire research process. Without your constant positive direction and dedication, this thesis would not have been possible.

Lastly, I would like to thank my committee members, Dr. Kawika Allen and Dr. Kendra Hall-Kenyon, who have supported me with relative literatures, constructive feedbacks, and generous amounts of motivation. Thank you all for your unwavering and unconditional love and support!

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

In recent studies focusing on students and their education, closing the achievement gap

has always been a topic of interest (Pang et al., 2011). The National Education Association

(NEA) defined the achievement gap on their website as the differences between the test scores of

minority and/or low-income students and the test scores of students of different backgrounds

(National Education Association [NEA], 2008). Aspects of "different backgrounds" include

ethnicity, race, gender, disability and socioeconomic status. The achievement gap affects many

different groups and some of the student groups experiencing this include English language

learners, students with disabilities, racial and ethnic minorities and students from low-income

families. There are currently three indicators of the achievement gap: first is the performance on

tests such as statewide tests or Standardized Aptitude Tests; second is the access of key

opportunities, such as advanced placement courses in mathematics, physics, or higher educator;

and third are student attainments such as receiving a high school diploma, college degree or

acquiring employment (National Education Association [NEA], 2008). Reports from 2005 to

2008 have indicated that there are four ethnic groups affected by the achievement gap: American

Indians and Alaska Natives, Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders, African Americans and

Hispanics.

Scholars such as Kana'iaupuni (2005) argue that knowledge in schools is culturally

constructed and the culture of ethnic minorities may influence their learning and their

opportunity to participate and continue in school. Among these ethnic groups who experience

the achievement gap are Pacific Islanders (PI). My concern is with how the achievement gap is

related to teachers' knowledge of children's cultural lives, specifically, how teachers' knowledge

is related to students' motivation to learn. For example, PI are described as "self-determined people who had extensive scientific knowledge and strong family ties, although mainstream schools do not recognize these strengths" (Kana'iaupuni, 2005 p. 34). In a 2008 report conducted by NEA focusing on Asian Americans and PI, it was said that "[PI] are least likely of all students to find any significant representation of their ethnicity of hearing their spoken language (other than English) used by other students or teachers at the schools they attend" (National Education Association [NEA], 2008, p. 2). The current dominant racial discourse in US society and educational research and practice has continued to be confined within a dichotomous framework—with Whites at the center of power and people of color (the other) in the margins (Giroux, 1990; Lei, 2006). Given what we know concerning the achievement gap and educational struggles of PI students, educators need to consider how to help close the achievement gap for this group of students.

Classroom instruction is often teacher-centered with direct instructions of academic goals students must achieve (Cathie, 1981; Maehr & Meyer, 1997). Differences between PI cultural norms and norms commonly represented in schools reduce the benefit that children may get from schooling (Cathie, 1981). When someone is in a state of connecting or having a close relationship with other things or people, this is called *connectedness*. When this same concept focuses on a close relationship with culture, obtaining a great understanding of its people and not the actions of the moment, this new state is referred to *cultural connectedness* (Au & Kawakami, 1994). Research on cultural connectedness in classroom instruction offers a basis for understanding how schooling might be made more beneficial for students from diverse backgrounds. The overall hypothesis on research focusing on cultural connectedness is that

students of diverse backgrounds do poorly in school, at least in part, because of a mismatch between school and home culture (Au & Kawakami, 1994).

Brophy (2010) defines *motivation to learn* as "a student's tendency to find learning activities meaningful and worthwhile and to try to get the intended benefits from them" (p. 208). Therefore, motivating students to learn includes stimulating them to see the value of the content they are learning. In this study, I focus on cultural connectedness and the value aspects of motivation within PI students.

Brophy (1999) argues that there is less research on the value aspects than on the expectancy aspects of student achievement motivations. There is a need to focus on how students' values about specific learning activities underlie their engagement and learning. Value aspects usually focus on utility value which is "the role that engaging in the task may play in helping us to reach larger goals" (Brophy, 2010, p. 127). Value aspects also play a part in making situations that seem indifferent towards learning opportunities. Students may view learning situations as irrelevant and may avoid the chance to grow. When value is lacked from these moments, it can be seen as something we may not want to continue to experience (Brophy, 2010; Eccles, 2009; Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2006).

To be motivated, it is suggested that trustworthy reasons must be established without solely relying on the knowledge that an individual can only accomplish the task if they just try their best. Students may encounter these similar situations in which they are positive they can accomplish the task, but they are uncertain of their motivation due to the lack of reasons created beforehand. For this study, these students who are confident in their reading skills and may complete the task at hand may not experience value aspects in reading. However, students who make a distinction that reading is valuable or significant in their life will engage in reading with

a less exertion manner (Anderson et al., 1988). My essential hypothesis is that classroom teachers who incorporate cultural connectedness into their English Language Arts (ELA) lessons will enhance students' value of learning. I hypothesize that if a classroom is creating cultural connectedness, it not only gives students academic purpose beyond the care of reading, but it can become a positive drive towards life opportunities outside of the classroom. As an educator who identifies as a PI, I designed this research study to not only shine light the people of Polynesia, but to emphasize the importance of value, specifically the value of reading. As an educator, I believe that reading is the foundation of all other skills needed to function as this world is full of letters, sounds, and words. Without the fundamental knowledge of reading, one may not succeed professionally. However, I also believe in the greater power one can have in the pure enjoyment, appreciation and an internal desire of doing something one loves. This research study assists educators to in find answers in not only providing cultural awareness and connectedness in the classroom for PI children, but to also discover ways in creating value alongside academic knowledge of reading skills.

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

Motivation is an internal state that arouses, directs, and maintains behavior (Sternberg & Williams, 2001). Maehr and Meyer (1997) also define motivation as "a theoretical construct used to explain the initiation, direction, intensity, persistence, and quality of behavior, especially goal-directed behavior" (p. 342). For students to learn and achieve in school they must have reasons or a motivation to learn. School tasks include "pay[ing] attention, read[ing], writ[ing], tak[ing] exams, and in general, to apply themselves to the process of learning" (Maehr & Meyer, 1997, p. 344). Sternberg and Williams (2001) continued by expressing that "students who are motivated tend to achieve more in school; they stay in school longer, learn more, and perform better on tests" (p. 345). How or what motivates students most effectively can come in various ways; however, the two fundamental aspects of motivation are *extrinsic* and *intrinsic* (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Stenberg & Williams, 2001). Intrinsic motivation refers to internal desires for academic learning that is linked to expectancy and value aspects of motivation. The key distinction in extrinsic motivation is "the connection between the push students have in completing a task solely based on rewards or incentives" (Stenberg & Williams, 2001, p. 347).

National studies show that the academic performance of PI children is significantly lower than that of their White, non-Hispanic peers. Steadily accumulating evidence shows that there are important relationships between school learning and the social organization of classrooms, particularly for disadvantaged minority children (Au & Mason, 1981). School organization may include how classrooms are environmentally designed, behavioral management plans or the various ways of presenting a lesson. This is a phenomenon worth researching because PI children (and others of color) are often strong in social-behavioral competencies yet weak in

academic knowledge and skills (Tharp, 1989). In this research, I explored classroom connections with out-of-school cultural practices and out-of-school knowledge of PI students to influence their value of reading. Brophy (2010) expressed of which "value aspects of motivation can play a part in: self-guided exploration, discovering learning, curricular enrichment, enjoyment of being engaged, and interest-driven reading" (p. 127). The value of learning is not merely an individual understanding what they are learning but also the realization that there are good reasons for an individual to learn it (Brophy, 1999). To contextualize my research study, I explore the demographics of PI children, student achievement trends, and cultural concerns. Then I review the literature on children's motivation to learn.

Pacific Islander Children

Demographics. As of 2011, the states with the largest PI numbers are California, New York, and Hawaii (Pang et al., 2011). PI include a wide range of cultural ethnic groups that share similar yet different aspects, such as speaking their native language and observing cultural values in the home (Pang et al., 2011). PI ethnic groups originated from countries such as Guam, Fiji, Marshall Island, Native Hawaii, Samoa, Tahiti, Tonga, and other Pacific Islands (Pang et al., 2011; U.S. Census Bureau, 2011;). In 2014, there was an estimated 1.5 million U.S. residents who were PI, Native Hawaiian, or a combination of both. Of these, 1,270,272 were enrolled in school and of those students, 42.9% were elementary-age children ranging from first grade to eighth grades (U.S. Census Bureau, 2014).

The PI population in the United States has exponentially increased over the years. Most PI students who emigrated from the South Pacific region to the United States consist of the Kingdom of Tonga, Western and American Samoa, and New Zealand. This South Pacific region is also commonly known as the Polynesian triangle, stretching from New Zealand to Easter

Island and then north to Hawaii. Each island consists of a specific and different group of people, culture, language, customs, and traditions that follow most typically a collectivistic family system (Allen & Heppner, 2011; Allen et al., 2013; Allen & Smith, 2015).

Student achievement. The achievement gap describes the difference in academic performance (e.g., state test scores) based on a child's race, ethnicity, or socioeconomic status (SES). Due to the limited factors associated within the achievement gap, it is suggested that the achievement gap should include other dimensions of a child's life. Research suggests that African Americans, Hispanics, and PI children's orientation to achievement is associated with their ethnic affiliation. Doherty (2003) expressed that "immigrant children who succeed in school are reflecting parental and cultural beliefs that school is a powerful vehicle for economic and political advancement" (p. 12). School-relevant motivations change as diverse children learn different motivations in the schools themselves, such as competition and individualism (Trueba & Delgado-Gaitan, 1985). Researchers (Au, 1998; Jacob & Jordan, 1993; Strickland & Ascher, 1992) identify five plausible explanations for the achievement gap of minority students. These categories include linguistic differences, cultural differences, discrimination, inferior education, and structural rationales.

Linguistic differences suggest that students' poor academic achievement is not due to their limited English proficiency, but rather it is due to exclusion or limited used of instruction in a student's native language. Students who are of diverse background are often discouraged to use their existing language because instruction in mainstream schools are often spoken in the English language. This includes various forms of language such as writing, reading and speaking in which students are forced to use the main language of the school. This is applicable to PI students as native languages spoken at home consist of Hawaiian, Samoan, Tongan, Fijian,

Maori and other Polynesian languages. These linguistic differences could suggest the achievement gap for PI students may be due to the mainstream English language spoken in the American classroom (Au, 1998; Snow, 1990).

Cultural differences entail the conflict between mainstream school's vision of success and children's preferred social interactions, languages, and cultural behaviors. This means that the school's mainstream community cultural values, behaviors, and instructional strategies are that of the majority group. Cultural differences may be a struggle for PI students in a mainstream society because their cultural views on behavior, community and schooling are unlike those being taught in America. Most PI and other children of minority backgrounds are underrepresented in schools culturally based on the interests of the majority (Au, 1998).

Discrimination involves the systemic conditions rooted in poverty and school failure. This means that the system of schooling is structured to prevent equality of educational opportunities (Au, 1998; Strickland & Ascher, 1992). When discrimination is presented in our classrooms, teachers send the message that students who are unable to handle the math, or other learning skills, may not be important to them and those students should receive their education somewhere else. This example is applied to most PI students in schools today due to the discrimination of judging these students' intelligence based on their ethnic backgrounds. When discrimination occurs in our schools, the achievement gap widens for our PI population because we do not support them academically as we do as their White classmates (Lee, 2002; Pang et al., 2011; Shannon, 1989).

Inferior education can be received by students of diverse backgrounds causing differences in academic achievement. This occurs when particular students or schools receive educational necessities that are lower quality than those of their upper, middle class peers. Some

examples of these necessities include deteriorating buildings or outdated and depreciated textbooks. Kozol (1991) expressed his thoughts on inferior education by explaining that "material circumstances in these schools and in the conditions of students' lives and communities lead to savage inequalities in educational opportunities" (p. 82). Equality issues in relation to inferior education may interfere with students' chance of academic growth as the materials they use to learn is limited. PI and other students of diverse backgrounds who are unfortunate to attend schools where inferior education occurs limit their opportunity to learn (Allington, 1991b; Strickland & Ascher, 1992). PI students may also face inferior education through a type of segregation called ethnic minority viewpoint. This conceptual orientation posits PI as victims of social bias and may face obstacles to academic equity. This segregation towards underrepresented groups, such as PI, may face barriers to access educational opportunities and career advancements (Pang et al., 2011).

The final category, structural rationales, involves children's understanding of the significance of school performance beyond the school. This includes children's relationships to employment or other life opportunities. Students of White, middle-class backgrounds experience structural rationales that may become easier due to their family histories and connections between schooling and life opportunities. However, some children may not receive structural rationales as easily as others do. The lack of family connections and ties to opportunities beyond schooling may limit a child's structural rationale. The achievement gap is wider for PI students in this category because of the achievement differences between their mainstream counterparts (Au, 1998; D'Amato, 1987).

Culture. There are many definitions for the term *culture.* Johnson and Johnson (2002) said that "culture is viewed as a shared way of life for a group of socially interacting people"

(p. 3). This includes shared knowledge, beliefs, values and meanings, as well as norms of behaviors. Socialization is the learning process of behaving in a manner that is acceptable to society and culture is made up of many aspects of human life. It is impossible to understand a culture if the study is limited to observation only of holidays, foods or clothing. Culture involves an entire system of behavior and is learned so early in a human's life and so thoroughly that many feel it must be inherited (National Education Association [NEA], 1984). Culture is passed through the process of socialization and enculturation from one generation to the next, as long as the members are committed to continue it (Johnson & Johnson, 2002).

People seldom talk about their culture in their everyday lives. Most people find themselves thinking about culture only when they have to bring back into consciousness aspects of thought, feeling and action that get taken for granted. Students live in a cultural world inside and outside of school. PI subgroups have been described as sharing some similar cultural values and physical characteristics, including a matriarchal order to family structure, and a welcoming, generous community (Allen et al., 2013; Sobralske, 2006). Those living in the Polynesian Islands share similar cultural and family customs, values, and traditions, and their languages have similarities as well (e.g., South Pacific, Polynesian Triangle; Allen & Heppner, 2011; Allen et al., 2013; Allen & Smith, 2015). Despite having similar values and traditions, many PI students choose to identify specifically with their island of origin, cultural heritage, and racial lineage in a very proud, honorable, and respectful manner. At the same time, PI students respect other Polynesian culture has out-of-school knowledge, experiences, and identities differ (Allen et al, 2013).

In the native Hawaiian culture, collaboration, and assisted performance are commonplace. Sibling caretaking is common in Hawaiian socialization and in the routine of

childcare, siblings have many opportunities to teach their younger siblings. Older siblings often take on the role of a parent in that they educate, feed, and clean the younger kin. This is not seen unusual in the eyes of the adults within the household because having a family requires everyone's help (Boggs, 1985; Gallimore et al., 1974; Tharp, 1989; Weisner et al., 1988). Within the area of sibling caretaking, children often ask other children for assistance rather than seeking help or guidance from adults. This can be seen as *disobedient* or *cheating* in a mainstream classroom where students are taught to do your own work (Au, 2013).

What is important to understand about the Pacific Island designation is that it represents a diversity of cultural values and community. With PI being viewed as a heterogeneous group there are stigmas and associated myths: equity, achievement gap, model minority myth, relative functionalism, and the glass ceiling effect (Pang et al., 2011). These stigmas and myths help contribute in defining PI and may assist in how educators approach their PI students in an academic way. Takeuchi and Hune (2009) added to this when they reported that "[PI] ethnic communities differ in their achievement and educators may lack knowledge of the diversity of the population" (p. 43).

Differences between students' cultural repertoires and those required by the school are invoked in explaining educational under-achievement. It is suggested that combining individuals' everyday cultural practices together with their interests, educators may prepare their students for various forms of language and literacy activities. Gutiérrez and Rogoff (2003) defined linguistic and cultural-historic repertoires as "the ways of engaging in activities stemming from observing and otherwise participating in cultural practices" (p. 22). However, PI children in White, middle-class schools are among the lower achieving minorities in the United States. Enormous differences exist in the courtesies and conventions of conversation across

cultures and among many cultural groups and the classrooms in which their children are education (Tharp, 1989). For example, Native Hawaiian students prefer negative wait-time, a pattern that produces overlapping speech. This is often interpreted as rude interruption by other-culture teachers, but in Hawaiian society it demonstrates involvement and relationship (White & Tharp, 1988). These differences from White, middle-class students should be amplified to help educators understand the importance it can have towards producing motivation in the classroom.

Extrinsic Motivation

       Affordances in the classroom. Extrinsic motivation can be seen as "the push students get from pursuing external rewards or incentives" (Stenberg & Williams, 2001, p. 347). When individuals are extrinsically motivated, these individuals engage in activities for instrumental, an outside source, or other reasons, such as receiving a reward, gaining approval from others, or meeting publicly stated goals (Brophy, 2010; Stenberg & Williams, 2001; Wigfield & Eccles, 2002). These extrinsically motivated actions "would not occur impulsively and therefore must be encouraged by incentives or other external pressures" (Brophy, 2010, p. 154). Extrinsic motivation is a great theoretical tool when working with young children as "teachers of elementary age students recognize this fact as they create reward systems, such as gold stars, tokens, or points, to encourage students to get excited about learning" (Stenberg & Williams, 2001, p. 347). Typically intended to motivate or reinforce student learning, such techniques of reward-focused incentive systems have been widely advocated by educators (Deci et al., 2001). There is indeed reason for teachers to exercise great care when using reward-based incentive systems because tangible rewards do significantly and substantially undermine intrinsic motivation (Deci et al., 1999; Deci et al., 2001). There are various forms of extrinsic motivation which would cause positivity in classrooms as they are used to train students to model specific

behaviors. Extrinsic motivation strategies are the simplest, most direct, and most adaptable of the methods for addressing the value aspects of motivation. However, these particular strategies do not increase the students' value of the activity but rather it links successful completion of the valued activity (Brophy, 2010).

      Constraints of extrinsic motivation. Several studies have been completed revolving around extrinsic motivation and their effects in classrooms (e.g., Deci et al., 1999; Deci et al., 2001; Wigfield & Eccles, 2000) and a commonality between these studies are the exploration of negative effects of extrinsic rewards on students' intrinsic motivation to learn (Deci et al., 2001). If you begin to reward people for doing what they already enjoy doing for their own reasons, you decrease their intrinsic motivation to continue that activity in the future. Furthermore, if a teacher solely focuses their attention on the reward rather than the activity, the student's performance tends to deteriorate. Also, the activity becomes an instrument that students can use to obtain rewards that they do value. The overuse of external motivators undermines students' abilities to take responsibility for their own learning. For example, if a child only does his homework because he fears parental punishment for not completing it is an extrinsically motivated action. This is so because he is doing the work in order to avoid a negative outcome from his parents (Condry & Chambers, 1978; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Kohn, 1993).

      Extrinsic motivated actions are performed instrumentally to attain some separate consequences and they usually would not occur spontaneously and therefore must be prompted by incentives or other external pressures (Brophy, 2010). Rewarding people as a direct function of performance (e.g., immediate feedback) runs a very serious risk of negatively affecting that person's intrinsic motivation (Deci et al., 2001). Rewards do not undermine people's intrinsic motivation for dull tasks (e.g., uninteresting activities) because there is little or no intrinsic

motivation to be undermined nor do rewards enhance intrinsic motivation for such tasks. (Deci et al., 2001). Students can perform extrinsically motivated actions with resentment, resistance, and disinterest or, alternatively, with an attitude of willingness that reflect an inner acceptance of the value or utility of a task (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Intrinsic Motivation

When individuals are intrinsically motivated, these individuals engage in activities because they are interested in, enjoy and do the activities for their own sake. This is the internal drive to master or accomplish tasks. Those individuals who possess intrinsic motivation develop an internal desire to do something based on their own volition and personal interest. This same concept applies in the classroom when students value the activity itself as intrinsic motivational strategies apply (Brophy, 2010; Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Sternberg & Williams, 2001). The concept of intrinsic motivation began as part of the attempt to balance the notion that people are driven by internal needs and desires – that we often engage in activities because we want to versus for some external reward or obligation (Brophy, 2010). Intrinsically motivated actions are self-determined.

This natural motivational tendency is a critical element in cognitive and academic development because it is through acting on one's inherent interests that one grows in knowledge and skills (Brophy, 2010; Ryan & Deci, 2000). This can also be seen as "the push individual students give themselves" as well as "empower[ing] people to accomplish remarkable tasks (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996, p. 143). Intrinsic motivation in the classroom is developed as students grow older. They begin to expand their interest levels to specific learning targets (e.g., reading, writing, mathematics) and develop the experience or joy of learning. Rather than focusing on rewards for motivating students' learning, it is important to focus on how to facilitate intrinsic

motivation (Deci et al., 2001). Other conceptions of intrinsic motivation also emphasize out subjective experiences. For example, when discussing flow, Csikszentmihalyi (1993) emphasized the experience of becoming "absorbed in an activity that offers challenges that are well matched to our current skills" (p. 77).

Abraham Maslow (1962) spoke of self-actualization needs that we express one's own lower needs are satisfied. These include needs for creative self-expression, satisfaction of curiosity, and other exploratory or skill-enhancing activities that appear to be intrinsically motivated (as cited in Brophy, 2010, p. 153). This motivation plays a critical role in learning. It often makes the difference between learning that is superficial and shallow and learning that is deep and internalized (Gambrell, 1996).

Rules of Both Motivational Types

Most intrinsic theorists now concede that extrinsic incentives can be used in ways that complement other motivational strategies and do not undermine students' intrinsic motivation (Brophy, 2010). Education that respects diversity creates an inclusive and safe environment and also engages student motivation. This means creating learning experiences through which learners can maintain the integrity of their cultural identity as they succeed in their educational goals. According to Wlodkowski and Ginsberg (1993), teaching and learning strategies that promote such experiences are based on intrinsic motivation. However, common teaching and evaluation practices in many public schools follow extrinsic motivation patterns through the practice of competitive examinations, teach-and-test practices, and academic track placement of students based on grades and grade point averages. A few researchers make a key insight of which form of motivation is best in the long run for encouraging student learning. They point out that "extrinsic [motivation] and intrinsic motivation are not opposite points along the same

continuum… in fact, they vary independent of one another" (Covington, 2000; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996; Stenberg & Williams, 2001). Stenberg and Williams (2001) continue to support their key insight by presenting a hypothetical situation

> A student may have a high need for teacher praise and a high desire to learn for its own sake, and thus be high both in extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. Or a student might be low in both needs, or high in one and low in the other… Students can also be highly motivated in one subject or context, but poorly motivated in another (p. 348).

Performance-contingent rewards were defined by Ryan et al (1983) as "rewards given explicitly for doing well at a task or for performing up to a specified standard" (p. 738). Performance-contingent rewards can maintain or enhance intrinsic motivation if the receiver of the reward interprets it informational. However, because performance-contingent rewards are often used as a vehicle to control what the receiver does and how well the receiver does it, such rewards can easily be experienced as very controlling, thus demoralizing intrinsic motivation (Deci et al., 1999).

Our society has created many extrinsic rewards to ensure that people accomplish what is in society's best interest. Spence and Helmreich (1983) conducted a study involving thousands of college students, pilots, businesspeople, scientists, and athletes to learn about their motivation and achievement. They concluded that intrinsic motivation produces high achievement, and that extrinsic motivation often does not. For the purpose of this study, we are not focusing on *how* a student is motivated, but rather how classroom interactions support students to place *value* on a learning activity and appreciate the value of what they are learning (Brophy, 2008). Several researchers (Atkinson, 1957; Eccles et al., 1983; Wigfield, 1994; Wigfield & Eccles, 1992; Wigfield & Eccles, 2000) also supported the theories of motivation because "individuals' choice,

persistence, and performance can be explained by their beliefs about how well they will do on the activity and the extent to which they value the activity." Given that many of the educational activities prescribed in schools are not designed to be intrinsically interesting, a central question concerns how to motivate students to value and self-regulate such activities, and without external pressure, to carry them out on their own (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Expectancy-Value Theory

Atkinson (1957) postulated that achievement behaviors are "determined by achievement motives, expectancies for success, and incentive values" (as cited in Wigfield et al., 2009, p. 55). They continue

> Expectancies for success as the individual's expected probability for success on a specific task (which can range from zero to one) … incentive value as the relative attractiveness of succeeding on a given achievement task, and also stated that incentive value is inversely related to the probability for success (p. 56).

Atkinson argued that expectancies and values were more situational or task specific, and tied closely to one another. An implication of this inverse relationship is that Atkinson argued that highly valued tasks are ones that individuals think are difficult to do (Atkinson, 1957; Wigfield et al., 2009).

The development of the modern expectancy-value theories is based on Atkinson's work researched in 1957 and 1964 (Eccles, 1987; Eccles et al., 1983; Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Feather, 1982; Pekrun, 2000) in which they link achievement performance, persistence, and choice to individuals' expectancy-related and task value beliefs. The expectancy-value theory has been grounded in the motivational systems which theorize that people will attempt to pursue goals they value because they are attainable and achievable (Ford, 1992; Gambrell et al., 1996).

Although this modern theory and model has many influences from the original theorist, there are some differences which include the expectancy and value components defined in richer ways, and are linked to a broader array of psychological, social, and cultural determinants. The modern expectancy-value model has also been tested in real-world achievement situations rather than in theoretical laboratory tasks as completed by Atkinson's theory (Wigfield et al., 2009). Brophy (2010) emphasizes the importance of the expectancy x value model when he states

> Theories dealing with the value aspect of motivation apply not only to these achievement situations but also to self-guided exploration and discovery learning, curricular enrichment activities, interest-driven reading, and other activities that offer opportunities for learning but do not involve striving to accomplish a particular goal (p. 127).

This means that motivation is strongly influenced by a person's expectation of success or failure at a task as well as the value this individual places on the task. When a goal or interest is valued, individuals have high motivation, effort, and feel successful; in contrast, when a goal or interest is not valued, individuals who normally have high motivation must be harnessed by receiving recognition and/or praise (Gambrell et al., 1996; Stenberg & Williams, 2001).

Expectancy

Expectancies and values are assumed to directly influence achievement choices, performance, effort, and persistence (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000). Wigfield and Eccles (2000) continue to address expectancy and value in which they are assumed to "be influenced by task-specific beliefs such as ability beliefs, the perceived difficulty of different tasks, and individuals' goals, self-schema, and affective memories" (p. 69). Expectancy and value are separate influences and the constructs of these beliefs were initially defined by theorists such as Lewin

(1938), Tolman (1932), Atkinson (1957) and Eccles (2009) who later broadened the original definitions identified by Atkinson.

Tolman (1932) discussed how expectancies for success function in different ways. Eccles (2009) defined expectancy from the works of Atkinson (1957) as children's beliefs about how well they will do on an upcoming task. An example of expectancy is a parent asking her children "how well do you think you will do in reading this coming school year?" This question allows the child to reflect on their competence or ability in reading and thus distinguishing their expectancy for success (Wigfield et al., 2009). Bandura (1977) explained that outcome expectancy is "a person's estimate that a given behavior will lead to certain outcomes" (p. 193). Variables influencing expectancies have been found to be "performance accomplishments, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal" (Bandura, 1977 as cited in Deeter, 1990, pg. 87).

Expectancy within the expectancy-value model varies from individual to individual. The motivation in which they hold depends on the degree to which they expect their success on a particular activity if they apply themselves. The rewards that come with their expectation also varies based on their performance (Brophy, 2010). One success feature of expectancy aspects of motivation is that self-efficacy perceptions are optimized when students are concentrating on a specific task rather than focusing on evaluating their performance. Bandura (1997) defines self-efficacy perceptions as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (p. 3).

Individuals who come into a specific task or activity with self-efficacy perceptions believe they can accomplish the task at hand, whereas people who lack self-efficacy perceptions are unsure that they can become successful or even convince themselves that they cannot

(Bandura, 1997 as cited in Brophy, 2010). There are four ways in which individuals can acquire perceptions of self-efficacy: Mastery experiences in which success is credited to internal and controllable causes; vicarious learning in which individuals watch successes and failures of others; persuasion in which a trustworthy sources convinces the individual that they can accomplish a task with a reasonable amount of effort; and emotional arousal in which individuals try to not feel tense or anxious during task situations (Brophy, 2010). However, implications for practice does tend to depend on whether the context calls for learning or performance as well as the amount of value a person has for the task at hand.

Value

Eccles (2009) defined value with the "respect to the qualities of different tasks and how those qualities influence the individual's desire to do the task" (p. 57). This term is closely related to *task value* where value stresses the motivational aspects of individuals. Value is considered a subjective matter because various individuals assign different values to the same activity. For example, a child may see the value of reading achievement, whereas other students do not (Wigfield et al., 2009). Within the concept of value, there are four major components: attainment value, where tasks are important when individuals view them as the center point of their being; intrinsic value, where an individual gains enjoyment from doing the task and may become deeply engaged in it; utility value, where the individual decides how the task fits in his future plans and sees the task as an end result; and cost, where the individual figures out what she has to give up in order to do the task (Brophy, 2010; Wigfield et al., 2009).

Within the realm of value, there are five general sources of an individual's value for different activities or tasks. The first is need satisfaction, where the activity satisfies a biological need. The second is shared beliefs about what is desirable and is centered on the beliefs, culture,

and social context of the individual. The third is derived from the relation of one's current actual self to either desired or undesired end states. This focuses on how an individual sees himself or how they would like to see themselves in the future based on the value activity at hand. The fourth source is evaluative inference, where an individual judge their own actions in logical and inferential ways and activities are chosen to help individuals reflect and evaluate themselves. The fifth and final source is one's experiences whether it is of pleasure, pain or dissonance (Higgins, 2007).

Intrinsic Value of Reading

Children who spend more time reading because they want to become better readers. These same children have the desire to read and choose to read for a range of reasons such as curiosity, social interchange, and emotional satisfaction. These same students who perceive reading as something valuable, important or contain personal relevant reasons for reading will engage in reading with a more effortful manner (Anderson et al., 1988; Gambrell, 1996; Gambrel et al., 1996; Morrow, 1992; Taylor et al., 1990). Supporting and nurturing reading motivation and achievement is crucial to improving educational prospects for children who find learning to read difficult (Allington, 1986; Allington, 1991a; Gambrell, 1996; Smith-Burke, 1989).

The results of a national survey conducted by the National Reading Research Center reveals how classrooms can be created to support and nurture highly motivated readers. Out of 84 reading topics, teachers identified "creating interest in reading" as the top priority for reading research. Three other topics related to motivation appeared in the top 10: increasing the amount and breadth of children's reading; developing intrinsic desire for reading; and exploring the roles teachers, peers, and parents play in increasing children's motivation to read (Gambrell, 1996). How can an educator create classroom cultures that support and nurture children in becoming

highly motivated readers? The critical role of the teacher in creating a classroom culture that fosters reading motivation is for the teacher to expose the love of reading. The role of motivation in literacy development is grounded in the belief that teachers play a critical role in helping children develop into readers who read for both pleasure and information (Gambrell, 1996).

Culture in the Classroom

Classrooms who host PI students could be a way to connect cultural aspects of social interactions during educational learning. Educators can use this opportunity to build a relationship with their PI students beyond academics. This includes how teachers and peers communicate, collaborate, inquire, and perceive in order to motivate and socialize learning and development. The educational concern that needs to be addressed is how classroom interactions explore and value students' out-of-school lives in orders to make personal connections with the classroom content. Examples of a student's out-of-school life include routines, interests, relationships, perspectives, expertise, values, and traditions. Au and Kawakami (1994) have called this academic successfulness between school culture and home culture as cultural congruence. Students of diverse backgrounds who receive culturally compatible or culturally responsive instruction will have better learning opportunities in the classroom. This specific teaching instruction is presented as educators build on background knowledge and experiences gained in the home and community of students of diverse backgrounds (Au, 2009; Erickson, 1987).

According to researchers (Au, 2007; Fry, 2007; Kanno & Kangas, 2014) five specific learning outcomes are presented when cultural congruence or cultural connectedness is implemented in schools or classrooms. First, an increase of school succession for students of

diverse backgrounds can be acquired. Second, school succession is to be achieved by building bridges between students' experiences at home and at school. Third, an idea of fostering (or at the very least, to maintain) students' competence in their heritage, culture, and language. Fourth, promoting social justice through a focus of equality of educational outcomes and a celebration of diversity. Fifth, the goal is to not replicate the students' home and community cultures but to incorporate them into what occurs in schools and classrooms.

Providing students with cultural connections in the classroom makes learning cues more apparent which activates relevant components of a task more identifiable. Individuals whose cultural practice included in the process become more attentive and stimulated to participate and complete the assigned task (Parsons et al., 2005). When educators match instructional practice with the learning patterns of diverse students they are engaged in culturally responsive teaching which can strongly influence the attitudes, values, and behaviors that students bring to the instructional process. As cultural practices are deeply embedded into the teaching, the delivery of instruction to ethnically diverse students can become more successful (Gay, 2002). When a classroom is deeply engaged in a specific culture it influences the way children learn. Teachers who are given responsibility of students from diverse backgrounds are encouraged to celebrate the cultural, linguistic, and social characteristics of each of their students to incorporate a successful educational experience (Brown, 2007).

Purpose of Study and Hypotheses

Currently, there have been numerous studies focusing on the development of theories and research geared on motivation in teaching and learning. There is also knowledge of the many expectancy aspects of motivation (Bandura, 1977; Bandura, 1997; Brophy, 1999). However, we know less about the value aspects of motivation. There is less research focusing on how

people's attitudes and beliefs toward specific learning activities connect with their intrinsic motivation to engage in that activity. Scholars argue that children's learning is more effective if it occurs in cultural context; that is, what attention to cultural values and behaviors, learning styles, and the context of place and the physical environment. In addition to its role in the cultural survival of indigenous groups, culturally based education is also believed to increase children's resiliency by creating a strong sense of individual identity and cultural pride, which can lead to positive self-esteem and confidence (Gruenewald, 2003; Kana'iaupuni & Else, 2005; Lee, 2001).

More specifically, we need to know more about how cultural connections in teaching influence students' value of school learning. Several scholars caution that in order for students to develop into mature, effective readers, they must possess both the *skill* and the *will* to read (Anderson et al., 1985; Borkowski et al, 1990; Paris & Oka, 1986; Winograd & Greelee, 1986). These researchers and theorists have emphasized the importance of balancing both conative and cognitive aspects of reading development in children. However, what is lacking in these numerous studies is the focus on PI children. Many researchers include various races and ethnicities in their studies but little to none are focused around children who are of PI descent who are being educated in a classroom whose customs and cultures are being unrecognized.

The purpose of this research study is to gain awareness for students of diversity who may be struggling in White, middle-class classrooms. This is also a chance for educators and those working with diverse students to see results of connecting cultural backgrounds to all students in their classroom. This research study may become an opportunity to help open educators' eyes of the positive cultural influence for PI students and their value of reading. I hypothesize that if teachers connect the outside PI cultural practices to the classroom during Language Arts lessons,

PI students' value of reading will increase. By integrating students' out-of-school experiences in the classrooms, teachers may provide learning cues to motivate student learning. I hypothesize that PI students' value of reading will increase as their teachers make cultural connections in the classroom. As teachers do this, they may give students purpose beyond the intrinsic motivational aspects for reading. By providing PI students the opportunity to explore the connection between the learning activity and their engagement according to Brophy's value aspect suggestion (Brophy, 1999). This could also become a positive drive for PI students outside of the classroom as they may feel validation and purpose. I also hypothesize that teachers who make these connections with their PI students may not realize it for various factors. Some of these factors may include, but are not limited to, the unfamiliarity of PI cultural values or their personal teaching styles reflecting PI culture. Teachers may not realize that they are integrating PI cultural practices as several research arguments provide very little inferential evidence towards value of academics (Brophy, 1999). This lack of teachers' realization and acknowledgment of assimilating cultural practices may affect student' value aspect as it may be disconnected with their teacher's teaching style.   This research could also become an opportunity for educators to gain understanding of integrating PI cultural practices in ways that can enhance students' value of reading.

CHAPTER 3

Method

I used a mixed-method approach in this study to examine relationships between cultural connections in the classrooms and PI students' value of reading in upper elementary grades. I investigate the following research questions

1. To what extent do cultural connections in English Language Arts lessons in upper elementary classrooms predict gains in PI students' value of reading? (quantitative)

2. What knowledge do teachers draw on to make regular cultural connections with PI students during English Language Arts classroom lessons? (qualitative)

I used mixed methods to answer these research questions to explore teacher knowledge and to predict gains in students' reading value. To answer the first research question, I conducted a series of multiple regression analyses. To answer the second research question, I analyzed classroom videos and conducted and analyzed interviews with teachers who foster cultural connection for PI students.

Participants

PI students ranging from 4th – 6th grade was chosen for this study. Each participating classroom provided their Fall 2017 classroom roster which included students' names, ethnicity, primary language and current World-class Instructional Design and Assessment (WIDA) or English proficiency score. Of all the students participating in the study, 105 English proficient (i.e., WIDA of three or higher) PI students from 32 classrooms were randomly selected. For these participants we gathered classroom video recordings as well as learning motivation items on a student survey.

This study was framed from a larger study on equity in teaching academic language conducted by Dr. Bryant Jensen who is the supervising professor. For the purpose of this study, a purposeful sampling of schools was conducted. Before I recruited teachers into the study, I identified schools whose student population had a minimum 8% enrollment of PI students for Fall 2017 and the convenience of travelling to teachers' classrooms to collect data. I identified 11 schools that met both criteria. Then I contacted the principal or vice principal of each school to arrange a meeting to explain the study, the data collection process and the benefits the school may encounter after the project was completed. If principals were interested in the research study, I coordinated with the principal to meet their 4th – 6th grade teachers via face-to-face staff meeting or email and each school decided on their preference in what they felt was most convenient towards minimum interruption for their teachers. The IRB process was conducted and approved for adults and children to participate in the research study. Teachers from 32 classrooms volunteered to participate in the study and participants filled out and signed consent and registration forms indicating their dedication to the project. At the end of the study, three classrooms which had the most gains in learning motivation participated in an interview as I explored their teaching strategies of cultural connectedness.

Consent and assent forms were distributed at the beginning of the study for both participants: classroom teacher and students. These forms ensured the participants that the study was strictly voluntary and all surveys and video recordings were only viewed by the research team. Teachers who signed the form, consented to participate in two video recordings of their lessons. Students who signed their form, consented to participate in completing two surveys focusing on reading and how well they value it. Towards the end of the study, students were

selected at random to conduct data analysis and those families received the final consent form to give the research team permission to complete the data collection procedures.

Data Collection

During the course of this study, three Research Assistants (RA) were hired to assist in the data collection process. RAs were in charge of 11-12 classrooms where they collected consent forms, video recorded classrooms, and administered both of the assessments and surveys.

For the purpose of this study, an observation protocol of sociocultural aspects of teaching was used to explore classroom interactions. RAs video recorded two 40-minute English Language Arts lessons in each classroom. Teachers were encouraged to not change their teaching lessons, styles or management of students during recordings. Each video recording was segmented into two 20-minute intervals. One RA and I watched and scored 140 20-minute segments according to scoring rubrics. Scores reflecting the Life Applications portion of the Classroom Assessment of Sociocultural Interactions (CASI) were analyzed for this study. Dimensions of Life Applications include Language Use, Difference Appreciation, Equity, and Content Personalization.

CASI rubric. The CASI framework was developed by Jensen, Grajeda, and Haertel (2018). The purpose of this classroom observation protocol is to assess cultural aspects of social interactions within the classroom. The CASI is comprised of 10 dimensions of sociocultural interactions, organized into three domains: Life Applications, Self in Group, and Agency (see Figure 1). For the purpose of this study, I focused on Life Applications as it explores the content of classroom interactions. This domain addresses the extent to which interactions make personal connections with the academic content. Using rubrics, indicators for this domain are scored on a 5-point scale from "Disconnected" to "Well-Connected." The four dimensions within Life

Applications include: Language Use, Difference Appreciation, Equity, and Content Personalization. In a recent study, the reliability (G Coefficient) for the domain Life Application was .76. (Jensen et al., 2018).

  Language use. This dimension focuses on how classrooms gauge and incorporate the natal, non-school languages of students to enhance social relations and content understanding. Non-school language includes slang intonation, vocabulary, nonverbal cues and colloquial expressions of affection. In a recent study, the reliability (G Coefficient) was .95 (Jensen et al., 2018).

  Difference appreciation. This dimension focuses on how teachers and students address one another's out-of-school differences. Examples of out-of-school experiences include routines, interests, social relationships, perspectives, expertise, values and traditions. It concerns how the teacher and students share personal out-of-school experiences and participate in discussions about their differences. In a recent study, the reliability (G Coefficient) was .35 (Jensen et al., 2018).

  Equity. This domain focuses on how classroom interactions address societal and personal unfairness, injustice, and privilege. It concerns how teachers and students talk through injustices and explore solutions. In a recent study, the reliability (G Coefficient) was .44 (Jensen et al., 2018).

  Content personalization. This dimension focuses on how classroom interactions connect students' out-of-school experiences and knowledge with content learning objectives. It concerns how teachers make connection with their own lives as well as for her students. Some out-of-school knowledge or experiences could be hobbies, related interests, roles or responsibilities. In a recent study, the reliability (G Coefficient) was .46 (Jensen et al., 2018).

Eccles motivational scale. I used the Eccles Motivational Scale (EMS) to measure children's achievement motivation. I only included items from the EMS that address children's self-reported value of reading. The EMS consist of 12 questions with a seven-point Likert scale where participants rate their answers on usefulness, importance and interest level with regard to reading. Item-level reliabilities for these scales are moderate to strong (alpha=.73 to .81) (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). The EMS was conducted twice – at the beginning of the Fall semester and again at the end of the Winter semester. After students completed the survey, I looked through each question and discovered that the first six questions focused on reading and students' opinion of its value. Going further, these same six questions could be divided into two proposed value categories: Instrumental and Personal, as found in Table 1 and Figure 2. With the Instrumental Value factor, the questions geared towards the academic and schooling purpose of reading and how well students valued it. Students can score their feelings from "not useful" to "very useful". With the Personal Value factor, the questions geared towards the students' thoughts, feelings, and worth of reading. Students can score their feelings from "not important" to "important"; "boring" to "interesting"; and "a little" to "a lot". The six questions or items can be grouped together as a whole and is considered as Reading Value.

Teacher interviews. I used the following criteria to identify two to three teachers to interview: significant gains in PI students' value of reading and "well-connected" scores on the Life Applications domain of the CASI. Interviews with classroom teachers were conducted to explore the knowledge teachers drew on to make cultural connections in the classroom. The selected teachers watched their video recordings as I conducted a minimally-structured interview. I wanted our conversation to be an open dialogue as the teacher voiced their teaching

strategies and knowledge centered on cultural connectedness with their PI students while I was prepared with 15-20 questions as a guide.

Data Analysis

To answer the first question, I conducted a series of multiple regression analyses to explore the effects of sociocultural aspects of classroom interactions on PI students' value of reading. I analyzed the extent to which each of the four Life Applications dimensions of the CASI (Language Use, Difference Appreciation, Equity, and Content Personalization) to predict gains in PI children's value of reading. To answer the second question, I analyzed videos to identify two to three teachers who make cultural connections. I conducted a minimally-structured interview with them to explore the knowledge they drew on to make these connections.

Descriptive statistics. The index of the central tendency that I explored was the mean for all measured variables. I also conducted frequency and histogram analyses of categorical variables – including primary language, SES, gender, and parents' highest completion level of education – to explore variability. The dependent variable for this research was gains in students' self-report on value of reading. The continuous variable gain was calculated by subtracting end-of-semester scores from beginning-of-semester scores. The predictor or independent variables to test my hypotheses were all continuous variables: Language Use, Difference Appreciation, Equity, and Content Personalization.

Multiple regression. I included a series of statistical control variables as well, including student age, primary language, SES, gender, and parents' highest completion level of education. The purpose of including controls was to examine relationships between two variables (e.g., language use and value of reading) while controlling for a third (e.g., gender) to identify unique effects. The first regression model included control variables only to determine how variation in

PI student backgrounds predicted gains in their value of reading. The second model tested how Life Applications dimensions of the CASI predicted gains in PI students' value of reading above and beyond the effects of student background variables. The third model explored the effects of statistical interactions among student background variables and CASI dimensions above and beyond the effects of student background and CASI dimensions alone. The change was R-squared from the first model to the second and was interpreted as overall model effects associated with my hypotheses. In addition, standardized beta coefficients for each predictor were interpreted to explain relationships between each individual predictor and the dependent variable (i.e., value of reading gains). Beta coefficients were interpreted with their associated p values to specify statistical significance, size, and direction of each effect in the model.

Interview Analysis

To explore the second question, I viewed all the video recordings and found three teachers and four key segments per teacher that illustrated cultural connectedness. Key segments ranged from two to three minutes long. Afterwards, I held a minimally-structured, cognitive interview with the teachers while showing them the key segments I have chosen. During our interview, I asked the teachers to explain their thinking and rationale for instructional designs they made in the video segments. Examples of questions to guide these conversations are found in Appendix A. I audio recorded our conversations with two electronic devices while asking the teachers to describe what is happening in their own words as I come to understand the knowledge these teachers drew on in terms of cultural connectedness.

Coding. After the interviews were completed, I transcribed the audio recording, coded and analyzed the data. A priori codes were created beforehand as a way to label, compile, and organize the data. Potential biases may have emerged through this process as the lack of

trustworthiness during the coding process was scarce. The transcript was seen by my eyes alone and thus the codes were created through my own understanding of the interviews and positionality of cultural connections. With this knowledge, other A priori codes and themes may have emerged during this study but were not presented.

     Themes. The qualitative method I mimicked in my study was the Constant Comparative Method. This particular method focuses on comparing results from a previous study to the results on the current researcher's results. To complete this process of the method, I conducted a second round of emergent codes and analyzed patterns of similarities and differences between transcripts to make assertions about teacher knowledge underlying cultural connections in classroom interactions. I looked for existing themes that were discovered in available articles, specifically from Au and Kawakami (1994). From there, I compared the emerging themes from the teachers' interviews and the existing themes in the other articles to not only find similar themes but new themes and ideas as well. The existing themes that I used from Au and Kawakami (1994) were (a) "incorporated features of the students' home culture but do not result in activities and environments identical to those of the home" (p. 32), and (b) "culture helps to account for effective classrooms and programs in which students of diverse backgrounds and their teachers collaborate to create and maintain a community of learners" (p. 35). The emergent themes I coded from the interviews were (a) teachers who continually use cultural connectedness in their lessons experienced a form of cultural connectedness in their life before becoming a teacher, (b) compassion for students' success in school, and (c) unawareness of using cultural connectedness.

CHAPTER 4

Findings

Quantitative Question

      Table interpretations. Table 2 includes the descriptive statistics for outcome variables for subsequent regression models. The six questions (see Table 1) were organized into the two main value factors; Instrumental and Personal. The numerical average from all six items were computed to determine the overall Reading Value Score. The means and standard deviations were computed for each semester and the gains for each factor. In all cases, the scores decreased from Fall to Winter. I found that Personal had the smallest gains decrease. Students' value of reading did not gain growth, on average. The variability was highest for Instrumental values.

      Table 3 is the frequencies of categorical variables. These include students' ethnicity, gender, grade level, highest education level of their parents and immigrant generation status. I found that 127 Latino students participated in this study, and only 32 PI students. With 159 students participating in this study, 58% of the participants were female. There were also fewer 4th and 5th grade students. The most common parent education background category was high school, with some parents who had attended some college. Lastly, most students were second-immigrant-generation as they are U.S.-born citizens with a foreign-born parent. This likely means that these students are exposed to non-mainstream cultural practices at home even as the students themselves identify as Americans.

      Table 4 provides bivariate correlations among the six reading value items. It shows how the first two items were related and how the four remaining items were related to each other. I conducted an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) of the six reading value items. It yielded two factors with Eigen factors higher than one. Those two factors explain 58% of the shared

variance among the six items. The type of EFA I conducted was a Principal Component Factor Analysis. For this study, a small correlation ranged from .15 to .29 and a moderate correlation ranged from .30 to .50. Five moderate correlations were discovered which consist of Useful and Value; Import and Useful; Import and Good; Like and Good; and Like and Assign. Looking at these moderate correlations, four out of the five were purported with the proposed factors. The outside remaining correlation was Import and Useful.

Table 5 is the rotated component matrix which looks at the item loadings on the two factors. Component 1 in the Instrumental Value of reading, and Component 2 in the Personal Value of reading. Minimal evidence for crossloading was found.

Table 6 provides descriptive statistics for Fall and Winter Personal, Instrumental and Overall Reading Value factors across levels of each categorical variable. The differences that I discussed in this section were merely descriptive and I simply identified trends. I do not have the intention of making any claims about the significance of these differences. Namely, PI students gained nearly half of a standard deviation in Instrumental Value, but not for Personal or Overall Reading Value. Latino students in the same sample did not demonstrate gains in any of the three categories. Males made gains in Instrumental value and had a smaller variability in their overall Reading value gain from Fall to Winter. Females' mean decreased from Fall to Winter for all three reading value categories. Fourth graders made gains in the Instrumental value factors but decreased in means for Personal and overall Reading. Fifth graders, unfortunately, did not make any gains overall, however, 6th graders made gains in Personal and overall Reading value factors. Students whose mothers attained Jr. High or less increased in their scores for Instrumental value but decreased in scores for Personal and Reading value. As for mothers who completed high school and obtained some college had fewer increase in gains for overall value categories.

Students whose fathers attained some college experience had an overall increase in gain scores for all three value categories. As for fathers who experienced Jr. High or less had fewer increase in gains for Instrumental and Personal, but had a slight increase in score for Reading value. Lastly, fathers who completed high school had fewer increase in gains for all three value categories. First- and second-immigrant-generation students unfortunately had fewer increase in gains for all value categories but third-immigrant-generation students had a higher variability in all three value factors. This could mean that because both parents and child were born in the United States their identity as American citizens and American cultural lifestyle may be connected.

Table 7 provides means and standard deviations for CASI dimensions associated with the Life Applications domain (Language Use, Content Connections, and Equity), as well as bivarate correlations with reading value scores, in order to explore relationships between cultural connectedness and student values of reading. I also examined histograms for each dimension (see Figure 3). Means for all three CASI dimensions were in the "disconnected" range, suggesting that, on average, classroom interactions in observed classrooms did not resonate with what students knew and did outside of the classroom. Cultural connectedness was weak. For Language Use, which was the most variable of the three, it was not a surprise that the two outliers were the dual-immersion classrooms where Spanish is used as the main language of instruction. The highest rating given for Cultural Connections was 2.25 which is still considered "disconnected." The highest rating for Equity in observed classrooms was 1.60. These results demonstrated a basal effect in that the distribution for all three dimensions were skewed to the lower limit. Constrained variability could also explain no significant correlation between CASI scores, which I used to operationalize cultural connectedness, and the three reading value scores.

Regression models' interpretations. Table 8 included findings from six multiple regression models, whereby student demographic and cultural connectedness variables were used to predict variation in the three reading value gain factors. Two models were conducted for each of the three outcomes, Instrumental gains, Personal gains, and Overall Reading gains, (a) control model with Fall reading value scores and child demographics, and (b) the control variables plus the three CASI dimensions mentioned above. Odd-numbered models were the control models, and even-numbered models were the hypothesis models referenced in my research questions. Child demographics variables included gender, grade, ethnicity, maternal and paternal education levels.

For Instrumental Value Gain Model 1, the R^2 is .35 which suggested that 35% of the variation in reading value gains were explained by Fall scores and demographics. Predictors that were statistically significant ($p = >.05$) were Fall scores, ethnicity, and maternal education. The results could be interpreted as students who value reading more demonstrated weaker gains; PI students exhibited stronger gains than their fellow Latino classmates; and students whose mothers attained less education demonstrated higher gains in reading value.

Model 2 was my hypothesis model for Instrumental Value Gains, that tested the extent to which cultural connections in the classroom predicted gains in students' Instrumental Value above and beyond Fall scores and child demographics. The R^2 is .36 which means that 36% of the variation in reading value gains were explained by Fall scores and demographics. Predictors that were statistically significant ($p = >.05$) were Fall scores, ethnicity, and maternal education. The three CASI predictors were not statistically significant, though the R^2 Change (.014) suggested that 1.4% of the variation in student's Instrumental Value gains was explained

uniquely by classroom culture connectedness above and beyond Fall scores and child demographics.

For Model 3, the control model for Personal Value Gain, the R^2 is .28 which suggested that 28% of the variation in reading value gains were explained by Fall scores and student demographics. Fall scores were the only predictors found to be statistically significant ($p = >.05$), which suggested, once again, that students who value reading more demonstrated weaker gains.

Model 4, this hypothesis model for Personal Value, examined the extent to which cultural connections in the classroom predict gains in students' Personal Value above and beyond Fall scores and child demographics. The R^2 is .28 which means that 28% of the variation in reading value gains was explained by the model. Once again, only Fall scores were statistically significant ($p = >.05$). None of the CASI dimensions had a significant effect, and the R^2 Change was .007, suggesting that .7% of the variation in student's Personal Value gains was explained uniquely by classroom culture connectedness above and beyond Fall scores and child demographics.

For Model 5, the control model for Overall Reading Value Gain, the R^2 was .24, suggested that 24% of the variation in reading value gains was explained by Fall scores and demographics. Predictors that were statistically significant ($p = >.05$) were Fall scores and ethnicity. Again, students with lower reading values in the Fall gained more at Winter, and PI students gained more in reading values than did Latinos.

In Model 6, I tested the extent to which cultural connections in the classroom predicted gains in students' Overall Reading Value above and beyond Fall scores and child demographics. The R^2 is .25, indicating that 25% of the variation in reading value gains were explained by the

model. Again, the only predictors that were statistically significant (p = >.05) were Fall scores and ethnicity. The R^2 Change was .011, suggesting that 1.1% of the variation in students' Instrumental Value gains were explained uniquely by classroom culture connectedness above and beyond Fall scores and child demographics.

Qualitative Question

Along with students of specific ethnic requirements, participating teachers were also the main focal point during this study. Out of the 36 volunteered classroom teachers, three teachers from two different school districts in a western U.S. state were chosen to participate in an independent interview to gain a better perspective of how they obtained their cultural connectedness background knowledge and their reasons to include them into their Language Art lessons.

Interviewed teachers. *Teacher A* is a 6th grade teacher at a middle school ranging from 6th to 8th grade in a northern school district. This school has a total population of 800 students with 60% of the students identifying as Latino and 14% identifying as PI. For the Fall semester, 270 students enrolled in the 6th grade. Teacher A is a 51-year-old Caucasian and Latina female who received her Bachelor's Degree in Secondary Education. She also received a Master's in Education along with several endorsements. She has been teaching for 14 years and has been at her current school for 2 years.

Teacher L is a 6th grade teacher at an elementary school ranging from Kindergarten to 5th grade in a southern school district. This school has a total population of 561 students with 42% identifying as Latino and 6% identifying as PI. For the Fall semester, 8 students enrolled in the 4th grade and 83 students enrolled in the 5th grade. Teacher A is a 32-year-old White male who received his Bachelor's Degree in Elementary Education. He is currently taking courses to

obtain a Master's degree in Educational Leadership. He has been teaching for 10 years and has been at his current school for his entire teaching career.

Teacher P is a 5th grade teacher at a public charter school ranging from Kindergarten to 8th grade in a northern school district. This school has a total population of 410 students with 45% identifying as Latino and 30% identifying as PI. For the Fall semester, 43 students enrolled in the 4th grade, 40 students enrolled in the 5th grade, and 42 students enrolled in the 6th grade. Teacher P is a 32-year-old PI female who received her Bachelor's Degree in Socio-Cultural Anthropology. She has been teaching for 2 years and has been at her current school since the beginning of her teaching career.

Existing themes. Using published articles focusing on cultural connectedness and value of reading, I found themes that were presented by both the authors of the articles and the interviewed teachers. These themes stood at my position and personal bias of cultural connectedness and out-of-school knowledge. Without the proper order of transcribing and coding, more themes may have emerged without my knowledge.

Theme one. The first theme was offered by Au and Kawakami (1994) which they mentioned in their article that "incorporated features of the students' home culture but do not result in activities and environments identical to those of the home" (p. 32). This theme focused on the teacher incorporating cultural values or practices similar to the students' cultural experiences while out-of-school, but the teacher may not present it exactly the same. After observing the video segments and speaking with the selected teachers, I identified Pacific Island culture present in each lesson as the teachers incorporated a sense of belonging for the students. This sense of belonging could be described as the teachers ensuring their students to feel connected to not only the lesson but to their culture. An example of this sense of belonging was

best described by Teacher P as she commented saying, "I always think 'like how can I connect to this'? Because often time, if kids can't figure out how connects to their life, they're not going to really want to learn that." Teacher P tries to connect to her students' lives through a Polynesian inspired short story. She makes it clear to the students that the main character's name is similar to recent established Disney movie title. She makes it clear to her students that she says that she wanted to "make sure that they understood because if they… confused the two, it wouldn't help them with understanding who this Moana [character] is." During our interview, I inquired about her cultural awareness and the relationship between using the context in the book

> Interviewer: I love how you were saying like, 'you need to use the context in the book'
>
> Teacher P: Yeah
>
> Interviewer: Was there a specific reason why you said that?
>
> Teacher P: Uh, because, a lot [pauses] as we read the book and I ask them who these people are, a lot of them will try and draw on whatever they know, right? From their own culture [and] their own experiences. But if they, if they, learn how to use it in context, of the actual book, then they'll understand that it might be a little different or it might be a little piece of what they know but further.

Although Teacher P was using an educational reasoning for her students to use context in a text to help understand a book, she also used the cultural aspect of the book and the knowledge her students might have about this culture to further their learning. A similar example was displayed with Teacher L's ELA lesson focusing on the vocabulary word *care* and using the example of having pets as an example of this. In the video clip, Teacher L is asking his students to raise their hands if they have pets and several students' hand were raised. Of the students who raised their hands, he asked how they take care of their pets. A few students replied with

commonly known responses such as "feeding my dog" or "playing with my guinea pig". With this lesson being Teacher L' main focal point of the video, I was curious of how this specific lesson connected to the theme of belonging and his cultural awareness

> Interviewer: How do you think bringing in the connection of their own pets affected their learning?
>
> Teacher L: Just trying to take it from like a concept they're just reading about to something is just real to their life and kind of bridging that gap of this [...] theme in like what you can study in school, like an academic think you can study but then realizing this thing I study is also happening in my life.
>
> [Teacher L asks he if can tie his thoughts to an experience with a student in math. He then talks about the experience.]
>
> Teacher L: [...] So just finding the, um, like the real-world application of this is what we're studying at school but there is a carry over into real life. And that learning and real life can [pauses] can overlap sometimes and so kind of you try to facilitate that discovery of the connection.

Teacher L's lesson may have focused on the vocabulary word *care* and he did take advantage of the vocabulary card's example of pets to communicate with his students, but Teacher L demonstrated cultural awareness by providing his students with a sense of belonging through creating a scene in his lesson to where students are provided with the opportunity to see how their out-of-home and personal lives do overlap. Teacher A also presented out-of-school knowledge through her ELA lesson through vocabulary words. The word in which students had to define was *snooping*, and in her lesson, she provided her students with an example of acting out how a younger sibling would snoop around your things without your permission. Various

students were able to comment on their prediction of the word, as well as state some experiences they had with their younger brother or sister snooping in their room. During our interview, I inquired about her reasons for of acting out the vocabulary word and she replied with

> Why did I use the snooping and then had them go through? Oh, okay. Um, I guess, um, after years of teaching it doesn't necessarily go along with the idea that they, um, that they promote a lot of education systems. But I feel that you have to have some type of connection to build a foundation, so that they're able to build on that. You introduce the academic language but then you also try to incorporate a little bit of the social language so that they can get a better understanding and then you reinforce the academic language so that they, so that they're able to use and, and these kids are really great at recognizing that there are things you can say in school, there are things you say out on the playground, and there are things you say definitely out on, you know, in the regular.

Teacher A made an educational decision through her years of experience and made it a priority to incorporate students' background or out-of-school knowledge throughout her ELA lessons. After examining the transcripts, I saw that all three teachers made it their desire for their students to connect the ELA lesson to their personal life, whether it was through their out-of-school knowledge or cultural identity.

Theme two. The second theme which surfaced from the article presented by Au and Kawakami (1994) was "culture helps to account for effective classrooms and programs in which students of diverse backgrounds and their teachers collaborate to create and maintain a community of learners" (p. 35). After observing the video segments, I found that these high marked teachers focused their ELA lessons to create a community of learners for all students. Teacher P showed this quality when a lesson about _franking_ turned into a community lesson

involving both students and families. In this particular ELA lesson, Teacher P wanted her students to understand the vocabulary word *frank* and used a scenario of asking "what if no one came to work?" During the interview, I acquired about this lesson and the cultural awareness behind it. Teacher P responded saying

> This subject was a really tough subject. Not only for my kids, but for me as a teacher. When we talk in terms of, like, how this actually affects us, a lot of the kids had a hard time, like, oh we don't see franking outside. So, they are like, "this is not going to apply to me." Until I give them something to apply it to. Right, so a lot of them know like their parents work. I mean, I've got kids like [Michael], who actually, like, mows lawns, and he knows that in order to make some money, he's gotta work. And, so, um, I just felt like, because they already had, like, experience with work and that going to work creates an income and that income creates, like, support for family or whatever, um, that would be a lot easier to say like "uh, this decrease in productivity in franking affects families."

Teacher P made it a point to turn a difficult vocabulary word applicable to her students that not only involves the students themselves but their families. This teacher is helping to establish a community of learners by involving the aspect of parents working to assist the students in understanding vocabulary words. A similar scene is painted when Teacher L uses the opportunity of also teaching a specific vocabulary word by including his own personal experience of watching his nephew care for his younger brother. The lesson is a continuation of the vocabulary word *care*, as mentioned above, but due to a lack of responses coming from his students, he goes further in examples by saying that his nephew [Brian] had to be taught at a very young age how word *care* was not only an adjective but also a verb. Students began to speak up by mentioning similar experiences they had with their younger siblings. When interviewing

Teacher L, I was curious if involving personal experiences into the context the students' learning and he responded with

> I think it makes it more personal. Which is seems like, um, I'm not one of the people that can rattle off like the names of people, but it seems like in the conferences you go to and the books you read they always talk about how your life should be known to them and their life should be known to you. And so just kind of opening your life to them turns you from not only teacher but to like a person. And not in any way to cross any boundaries, you know, but, um, if they can see you as a real person they're more open to what you say and so realizing like, hey, like I have nephews, we have pets, we play with things.

This teacher made it a point to not only get to know the students beyond the classroom but also use that discovery to help the students connect from their own experiences to gain more understanding of academic concepts as well as building a community of learners by getting to know the students as more than students -- as sixth graders who have personalities, hobbies and a life beyond the classroom walls. This same teaching style was also found with Teacher A and her vocabulary lesson by using the background knowledge of students to help them understand vocabulary words. This teacher uses drawings, animated hand motions, and background knowledge to help the students understand the social aspect of academic vocabulary words. During her ELA lesson, the vocabulary word was *wary* and Teacher A decided to act out the word by sitting in an empty student desk and began to sleep and the students begin to shout out different possible vocabulary words. With this particular teaching activity, I wanted to get her perspective as an educator of how she's creating community of learners in her classroom

Um, giving them, you know, as much as body language, especially in a word like that if I can use a visual I always try and include a visual. They need to have something to connect [...] you must find, they, a student must connect to the, to the curriculum or they're not going to learn. They just cannot. And you have to, if, if it means that they will learn something if I stood on my head then I would stand and teach on my head all day long.

Teacher A made it her goal to do whatever it takes for her classroom to be a consistent place of learning for all types of learning styles. After examining the transcripts, I could see that all three teachers made it their desires to create a classroom of community of learners with their students.

Emergent themes. While viewing the videos, the two existing themes, *incorporating culture with non-identical activities* and *building and maintaining a community of learners* were not the only themes that emerged. As noted above, using the Constant Comparative Method allowed me to compare themes from existing articles as well as found new ones that may have not been mentioned in those same articles. There were three themes which surfaced that I did not see in the article presented by Au and Kawakami (1994)

Theme one. The first theme was "teachers who continually use cultural connectedness in their lessons experienced a form of cultural connectedness in their life before becoming a teacher." These experiences were all different and unique in their own way. These same experiences, positive or negative, contributed to these educators' teaching styles and use cultural connectedness in their classrooms. For teacher P, it was experiencing a negative relationship with her mother who "always said that [she] wasn't smart but that I just worked hard." Teacher P also included her personal feelings towards her outer appearance that others may have judged her on by saying

You just have to work twice as hard cause people will always judge you. You know?

And because like I just happened to have a brown color skin it was even more, like,

important that I worked really, really hard. And I think, like, um because of all my

experiences, like where either that did become true or I said something that others were

like "oh, wow. She knows that?" Those are some of my connections that I make that

builds my background knowledge to connect with these kids cause a lot of them come

from families where they feel like they're not smart or they're not, uh, what their parents

felt they should be.

She used this constant negative comment from her mother to help guide her into teaching full-

time as she wanted to be a positive voice for those children who may hear these similar words.

For teacher L it was the positive impact of a high school teacher who took the time to be

personal more than instructional

In high school we had, um, there were two language options, French and Spanish, and

mom and dad were like pro French. So, we all did and there was only one teacher in the

high school. So, all us, there's ten kids in my family and we all went through the one

teacher, um, Mrs. Stevenson. And I was the fourth kid, so I was like the fourth [last

name] that she had and you had to do it all four years. So, she had like, you know, she

had everyone and then she, I got, she got to me, but she would like just ask questions

about family, like what did you guys do this weekend or, oh I remembered it's your

brother's birthday? What did you do for your birthday, you know? So, she would always

made like family connections. It didn't really relate to what we were doing in class but

she had like, a family relationship building, where it was like, I knew, like, I don't know,

like you just knew she was a real person cause it wasn't just the teacher turn in your

homework, do your class work.

He used the specific experience of being more personable to guide him in his teaching style as he

wanted to connect with his students and have them experience the connection between their out-

of-school and in-school lives. For teacher A, it was the experience of the previous employment

which helped shaped their teaching style to use cultural connectedness

> Before I was a teacher I was, I worked for a very large corporation and I travelled
>
> extensively. I would go anywhere from Monroe, Louisiana to North Dakota. And um, I
>
> was well aware of how diverse the populations were. Um, what you had to learn what the
>
> slangs was. You had to understand, um, more so than in, in the business world. […] and
>
> be that I understood or connected with the people. It gave me a very good insight into
>
> what type of a person I was dealing with, what type of um, scrupulous or unscrupulous
>
> person I was dealing with."

She used her work experience with various clients to help shape her cultural awareness towards

diverse students and the culture they could bring with them into the classroom. Although these

educators had different experiences with cultural connectedness in their pasts that they each had

a similarity among them: compassion.

Theme two. As I read through the transcripts, I interpreted that each of these teachers

demonstrate compassion when it comes to their past experiences, as mentioned above, and using

those specific experiences in their lives to help shape and guide their teaching styles to use

cultural connectedness while teaching. This same similarity leads me to the second emerging

theme of "compassion for students' success in school." Yes, all teachers care for and love their

students and want to see their students succeed academically and socially in life, but the

commonality between all three teachers is their past experiences before becoming teachers, whether it was positive or negative, they all had a familiarity with cultural connectedness. With being exposed to cultural connectedness themselves, the data suggest that these three teachers were able to use that experience and the person involved with the connectedness (parent, teacher or colleague) and use it as background knowledge and experience with their students. When interviewing the teachers, I asked "did you realize that this [experience they spoke about] helped play a part in your teaching?" At the moment of answering, all three teachers did not realize that it had, but with further thinking and conversing, they each realized that it had in some shape or form as mentioned in the transcript written in the first emerging theme above.

 Theme three. This led me to the third emerging theme of *unawareness of using cultural connectedness*. When I first approached the teachers and asked them if they were willing to be included in this study due to the high marks of cultural connectedness they were all shocked and surprised that they were even teaching with this specific style. As they each watched their video segments, I found that teachers were using cultural connectedness during their lessons but the teachers themselves were unaware of using cultural connectedness. Teacher P did not realize that using out-of-school related topics in all her lessons, especially ELA, helped build cultural connections with an academic perspective as she concluded at the end of our interview

> That's why I'm trying to make connections the entire time during ELA because every time I do a check-in, like fist-to-five or thumbs up or, you know, does that make sense, every time I get a confused face I'll always make a connection. Cause it's not, I mean, doesn't help when you just say "does that make sense?" you know, the whole time. And you can ask that a million times and it still won't.

Teacher L did not realize that using questions in his lessons helped students connect to the story, text or concept. He also did not realize that this specific teaching style helped build cultural connections with different concepts. He included in the interview that, "…they can help them, like, to realize that connections that they have and to realize, oh I do relate to what we're doing or I have had experience with this before." Teacher A did not realize that becoming more engaged in her students' interests was a way she was assisting in building cultural connections with her students and specific ELA lessons. In her interview she was eager and excited about learning new songs from her students and using those in her lessons

> And, uh, so they would sing it in the halls, so then I listen. You're constantly listening to everything they're saying because that gives you a better understanding and a better appreciation of them. And so, I knew that this was a popular song, so whenever they got a right answer then I will break into Gucci Gang, Gucci Gang, you know and they say it several times. And then they know that I'm listening, they know that I'm paying attention. They know that the things that they're interested in matter to me. And, um, and then of course they get to yell at me and tell me to stop dancing.

These examples of cultural connectedness just brush the surface of what teachers are accomplishing in their classrooms. However, gaining a better understanding of how these three specific teachers are doing in their classroom to build out-of-school knowledge and cultural connectedness in their own classrooms could assist other educators, administrators, parents and researchers who may be interested in seeing the relationship between students' reading value and their teacher's background knowledge of creating connections in classrooms.

CHAPTER 5

Discussion

Important Findings

In this study, I examined the extent to which cultural connections in ELA lessons in upper elementary classrooms predict gains in PI students' value of reading. I also analyzed the background knowledge teachers draw on to make cultural connections with PI students during ELA lessons. I included Latino students in my study as another source in interpreting data of cultural connectedness and value of reading. The findings of my study focused on two ethnic groups due to number of participants, but the emphasis of my study is geared towards PI students.

Reading value factors. An important finding that was discovered was the justification of creating the Instrumental and Personal Value Factors (see Figure 2). Separating the EMS questions focusing on reading into the two factors helped guide my data into two specific routes of (a) how students felt about reading in an academic light and (b) how students felt about reading in an intimate light. These factors, along with other researchers who focused on the Value Theory (Brophy, 1999; Brophy, 2008; Covington, 2000), could be a resource in helping to explain a person's decision to not only see why one must read but to also begin to see the value in reading.

Comparing reading values. Another important finding was that more gains were made in Instrumental Value than Personal Value of reading. This could mean that students value the usefulness of reading but may not value how good or important reading really is. PI students also made more gains in Instrumental and Overall Reading Value than Latino students. If more PI students were participants in this study, I believe that PI students would have continued to

make more gains in classroom. Teachers would be able to reach out to more PI students and their understanding of culture. This could also be a good time for these same teachers to emphasize on students' out-of-school knowledge and cultural influence of family responsibility. With PI participants being in $4^{th} - 6^{th}$ grade, there is an assumption that younger siblings are presented and assisting them with their educational care, specifically reading, could be assumed. For Instrumental Reading Value, those whose mother had less education gained more than those whose mothers attained higher education. This could be assumed that these students assist their mothers with academic language in out-of-home conversations (ex: making doctor appointments). It could also be a representation of these students valuing their own education as they may want a different adult lifestyle than that of their mothers.

Lack of gains. With the short time frame between Fall and Winter semester (four months) to collect data, another important finding was that Overall Reading gains were not presented in this study. Although overall gains from the Fall to Winter semester were expected, the data shows that this was not occurring and overall reading values actually dropped. This could mean that classrooms lessons or conversations were not emphasized on the importance of reading value. Looking back at Language Use, as it presented the highest "disconnect," it could help support this interpretation. This could also mean that educational professionals were not provided with the adequate intervention or reading program that focuses on students' value of reading. Administration and teachers may not have the proper materials or training to include cultural connectedness effectively in their schools and classrooms. CASI scores for cultural connectedness were very low ("disconnected"). This could be a reflection on the research's short time frame. It could also be a consideration of not providing teachers with an intervention focusing on cultural connectedness but rather having teachers continue with their original

teaching styles. This also affected my analyses and ability to test my hypothesis as I was not provided with the necessary information I needed to see if cultural connectedness influence students' value of reading.

Limited variability of the CASI scores created the basal effect. The analytical implication of this is that the opportunity to see cultural connectedness influencing students' value of reading were missed as lessons were only recorded twice for a short period of time. The constrained variation affected the regression models by skewing the distribution to the lower limit.

Teachers. Using the CASI indicator of Language Use, it was evident that two dual-immersion teachers were using out-of-school language while teaching in the classroom as they spoke in a second language majority of the time. Another important commonality between the interviewed teachers were that they each drew on past experiences to assist them in creating culturally connected classroom environments. This could mean that specific experiences growing, whether positive or negative, could help shape a person's work ethnic as an adult. These experiences that these three teachers encountered assist in their classrooms as they became examples of including cultural connectedness with their PI students. Also, these same experiences made an impact on their specific teaching style as the teachers drew on these memories, with or without a conscious effort, to create out-of-school themed lessons within the classroom.

Limitations

As with all studies, a few limitations exemplified the results. First, as the research participants of this study were mainly focused on PI students, I encountered an overall small PI sample. Therefore, the results may not reflect the best results of the relationship between

cultural connectedness and value of reading among this specific ethnic group. Second, because teachers were asked to make no changes in their teaching tactics, plans, or styles, no intervention was in place to assist teachers in helping PI students increase their value of reading. This could reflect in the results of no overall gains from the Fall to Winter semester. Third, there was an inconsistent strategy of selecting participants for this study. A random selection of students was suggested to teachers; however, some teachers picked specific students to participate in the study. Lastly, the time frame to observe and collect data was not a reasonable length. As a result, participants were not given enough time to fully grasp the value aspect of reading. Perhaps a more random or a more purposeful sampling of teachers could have led to greater variation in CASI scores and, therefore, more variability for the inferential models that I analyzed.

Implications

Notwithstanding these limitations, the findings had resulted in several important implications. Researchers who decide to continue this specific study should keep in mind that there are many definitions of "cultural connectedness" and that using a specific representation of this word can lead their research in different directions so choosing and implementing a precise definition is highly recommended. A second thought to keep in mind is that for this study, students were categorized into PI groups based on the best of their knowledge. Due to that, there was only a small amount of PI groups participating. A suggestion that researchers should keep in mind is that there are many groups and subgroups of persons who define themselves as a PI individual. Due to the large amount of classifying oneself as a PI is to also keep in mind that a person could possess more than one PI category (e.g., Tongan and Samoan) and should be sensitive towards PI persons who do not focus on one particular PI identity.

Administrators and teachers who have PI students in their schools and classrooms should keep in mind that these particular ethnic groups hold their culture dear to them. Including their out-of-school knowledge and cultural values, along with all students of different ethnic backgrounds could help make lessons more relatable and authentic for all students as they are now able to draw on experiences and memories related to lessons. It is also suggested that educators involved with PI students should be aware of their home experiences. The more knowledge administrators and teachers can obtain about their diverse students could be helpful in providing the adequate tools these students may need to influence their value of reading.   This could be observed as providing an acceptable reading intervention within their schools.

Parents of PI children should keep in mind that children draw on their memories and experiences in everyday activities. The out-of-school knowledge these children develop stem from their home experience also influence their cultural connectedness. Helping to provide these children with positive and wholesome experiences that they can draw on while out of the home could benefit their value of learning while in the classroom. The experiences they also gain while in the classroom could easily be transferred to the home. Parents should keep in mind of the eagerness, willingness, and consistency of being involved with their education could also benefit their value for learning.

Aspirations and Recommendations

The goal for the future is for classrooms to influence PI students' value of reading through cultural connectedness. This cultural connectedness does not only imply towards their ethnicity and identity as a PI, but including all experiences and values a PI can include in the classroom. Lessons, thematic units and topics covered in schools and classrooms should reach out to students of all ethnic backgrounds. Next steps for this research study are for researchers to

continuing in exploring this content of cultural connectedness and providing more data,

understanding, and ideas of how implementing this fascinating topic. Conducting another

research study longer than four months to collect data and finding a larger sample size of

participants is also recommended.

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Table 1

Proposed Reading Value Factors

Student survey questions	Scale	Proposed value factors
How useful is what you learn in reading? (Value)	Not useful → Very useful	Instrumental
Compared to other subjects how useful is reading? (Useful)	Not Useful → Very Useful	Instrumental
For me being good at reading is? (Good)	Not important → Important	Personal
Compared to other activities how important is it to be good at reading? (Import)	Not important → Important	Personal
I find working on reading assignments? (Assign)	Boring → Interesting	Personal
How much do you like reading? (Like)	A little → A lot	Personal

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for Continuous Variables

	N	Mean	Stand. Dev.
Instrumental Fall	159	3.97	.899
Instrumental Winter	159	3.93	.886
Instrumental Gains	159	-.031	.946
Personal Fall	159	4.01	.692
Personal Winter	158	3.91	.755
Personal Gains	158	-.111	.799
Reading Value Fall	159	3.99	.632
Reading Value Winter	158	3.92	.697
Gains for Reading Value	158	-.081	.690

Table 3

Frequencies of Categorical Variables

		N	*N%*	Valid N%
Ethnicity	Latino	127	79.9	79.9
	Pacific Islander	32	20.1	20.1
Gender	Male	67	42.1	42.1
	Female	92	57.9	57.9
Grade	4th	35	22	22
	5th	59	37.1	37.1
	6th	65	40.9	40.9
Maternal Education	Jr. High or less	39	24.5	24.7
	High School	77	48.4	48.7
	At least some college	42	26.4	26.6
Paternal Education	Jr. High or less	38	23.9	24.2
	High School	79	49.7	50.3
	At least some college	40	25.2	25.5
Immigrant Generation	First	18	11.3	11.3
	Second	125	78.6	78.6
	Third (plus)	16	10.1	10.1

Table 4

Bivariate Correlations of Reading Value Items – Fall 2017

	Instrumental (Value)	Instrumental (Useful)	Personal (Good)	Personal (Import)	Personal (Assign)	Personal (Like)
Instrumental (Value)	1					
Instrumental (Useful)	.47**	1				
Personal (Good)	.20*	.30**	1			
Personal (Import)	.14	.35**	.32**	1		
Personal (Assign)	.16*	.16*	.19*	.30**	1	
Personal (Like)	.22**	.19*	.41**	.22**	.41**	1

** = Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)
* = Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Table 5

Rotated Component Matrix of Reading Value Items – Fall 2017

	Component	
	1	2
Value (Instrumental)	.079	.808
Useful (Instrumental)	.175	.844
Good (Personal)	.601	.304
Import (Personal)	.524	.339
Assign (Personal)	.753	-.018
Like (Personal)	.786	.079

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics for Categorical Variables

| | | Instrumental Value | | | | Personal Value | | | | Reading Value | | | |
| | | Fall | | Winter | | Fall | | Winter | | Fall | | Winter | |
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Ethnicity	Latino	3.97	.93	3.85	.93	3.96	.71	3.85	.78	3.96	.65	3.85	.72
	Pacific Islander	3.96	.75	4.25	.62	4.20	.57	4.16	.58	4.13	.52	4.20	.50
Gender	Male	3.88	.95	3.90	.97	3.87	.74	3.81	.83	3.87	.65	3.84	.77
	Female	4.03	.86	3.96	.83	4.11	.64	3.99	.69	4.08	.61	3.98	.64
Grade	4th	3.53	1.24	3.67	.97	4.08	.72	3.96	.90	3.90	.75	3.86	.78
	5th	4.01	.86	3.89	.87	4.11	.65	3.82	.80	4.08	.60	3.84	.75
	6th	4.16	.60	4.12	.83	3.87	.68	3.97	.62	3.97	.59	4.03	.59
Maternal Education	≥ Jr. High	3.85	.90	3.92	.71	3.92	.70	3.81	.79	3.90	.67	3.85	.70
	H.S.	4.00	.97	3.99	.90	4.04	.65	3.90	.74	4.03	.61	3.94	.69
	Some college	4.00	.78	3.82	1.02	4.00	.77	3.98	.74	4.00	.63	3.93	.72
Paternal Education	≥ Jr. High	3.91	.86	3.80	.84	3.86	.70	3.92	.74	3.87	.70	3.88	.65
	H.S.	4.06	.96	3.97	.85	4.09	.63	3.83	.73	4.08	.60	3.88	.67
	Some college	3.85	.80	3.95	1.01	3.95	.78	4.01	.80	3.92	.62	4.00	.79
Immigrant Education	First	3.92	1.10	3.83	.94	4.13	.69	3.94	.99	4.06	.68	3.91	.88
	Second	3.97	.88	3.96	.87	3.99	.70	3.94	.72	3.99	.64	3.95	.66
	Third	3.97	.85	3.81	1.01	3.95	.61	3.66	.72	3.96	.53	3.71	.75

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics for Cultural Connectedness and Bivarate Correlations with Reading Value

Scores

			Relationship with Reading Values					
			Winter 2018			Fall – Winter Gains		
	Mean	SD	Instru-mental	Personal	Reading	Instru-mental	Personal	Reading
Language Use	1.34	.56	.03 (.73)	.01 (.95)	.02 (.82)	-.05 (.57)	.04 (.60)	.01 (.87)
Content Connections	1.51	.34	-.04 (.62)	.05 (.53)	.02 (.81)	.01 (.91)	.05 (.49)	.05 (.55)
Equity	1.09	.15	-.10 (.21)	-.09 (.26)	-.10 (.21)	-.09 (.23)	-.11 (.17)	-.12 (.13)

*Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed)
**Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)

Table 8

Multiple Regression Models Prediction Reading Value Gains

		DV: Instrumental Value Gain				DV: Personal Value Gain				DV: Overall Reading Value Gain			
		M1		M2		M3		M4		M5		M6	
		β SE	P	β SE	P	β SE	P	β SE	P	β SE	P	β SE	P
Scores	Fall 2017	-.56 .07	.00	-.56 .07	.00	-.62 .08	.00	-.62 .08	.00	-.52 .08	.00	-.51 .08	.00
Demographics	Gender	-.09 .13	.50	-.10 .13	.43	.09 .12	.46	.07 .12	.54	.01 .10	.91	-.01 .10	.95
	Grade	.09 .08	.28	.07 .09	.44	.06 .07	.39	.04 .08	.58	.08 .06	.22	.06 .07	.38
	Ethnicity	.42 .16	.01	.46 .16	.01	.19 .14	.19	.22 .15	.13	.25 .13	.05	.28 .13	.03
	Maternal Education	-.22 .11	.04	-.24 .11	.03	.09 .09	.36	.08 .10	.42	-.03 .08	.75	-.04 .08	.66
	Paternal Education	.12 .11	.25	.12 .11	.28	-.05 .10	.64	-.06 .10	.57	.02 .09	.82	.10 .09	.92
Cultural Connections	Language Use			-.01 .12	.97			-.02 .11	.87			-.01 .09	.97
	Content Connect-Ions			-.09 .19	.63			.07 .17	.69			.02 .15	.91
	Equity			-.71 .41	.08			-.42 .37	.26			-.48 .33	
	R^2		.35		.36		.28		.28		.24		.25
	R^2 Change				.014				.007				.011

Figure 1. Domains and associated dimensions for the Classroom Assessment Sociocultural Interactions (CASI).
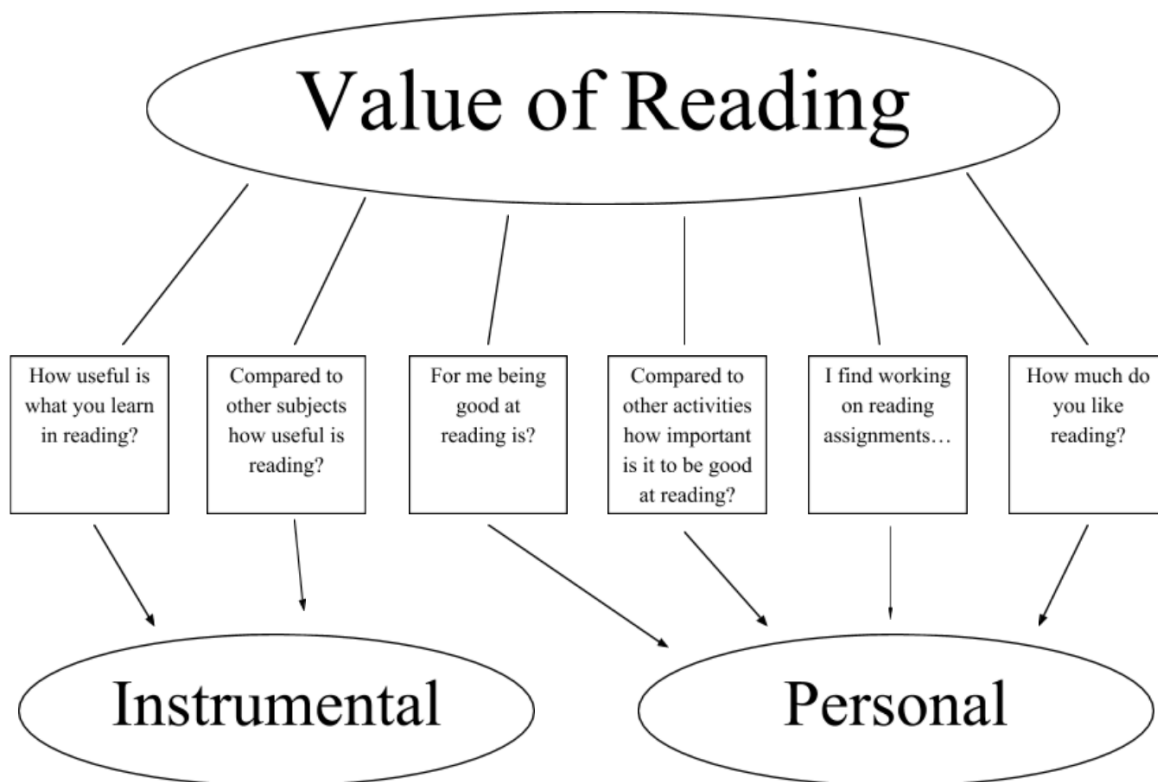
Figure 2. Reading value factor.

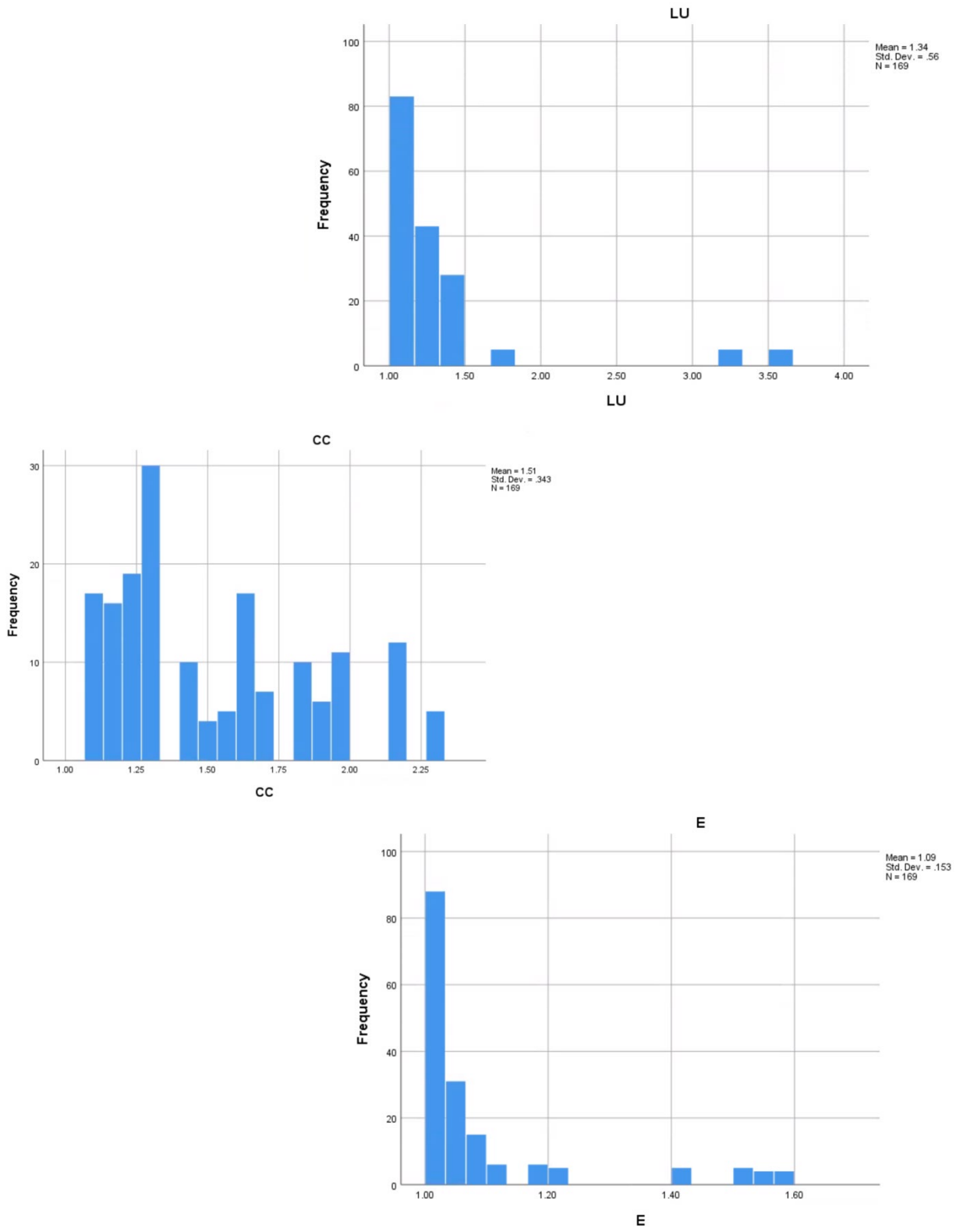*Figure 3.* Histograms of life applications.

APPENDIX A

Teacher Interview Questions

1. What is happening?
    a. How do you think this decision affected (student)'s learning or behavior?
    b. When do you think a teacher's cultural awareness is the most visible? Examples?
    c. How do you create a classroom environment to make cultural connections?
    d. When in the lesson are you the most culturally connected with your students?
2. Why did you do this?
    a. Why did you decide to make this connection for (student)?
    b. What type of questions do culturally aware teachers ask themselves?
    c. How important do you think cultural connectedness is for teachers to be successful with PI and other diverse children?
    d. What kinds of relationships do culturally aware teachers have with their diverse students?
    e. How do you feel your job as a teacher has made you more culturally aware?
3. How did you come to develop this knowledge?
    a. What did you know about (student) to make this connection?
    b. What do you teachers who make cultural connections know that others do not know?
    c. How would you evaluate cultural connectedness of a teacher? What are some examples of indicators or teacher behaviors?
    d. How does a culturally connected environment or lesson impact student learning?
4. How did you know to do this?
    a. How did you gain this knowledge about (student) to make this connection?
    b. What are some habits of culturally aware teachers?
    c. How does being culturally aware change the work that teachers do with their students?
    d. How does an awareness of the diverse culture outside of school matter to what happens inside the classroom?
    e. Have you ever experienced cultural connectedness before you became a teacher?

APPENDIX B

Teacher Consent Form

Consent to be a Research Subject

Introduction

This study is being conducted by Dr. Bryant Jensen and Lyndsai Sylva at Brigham Young University. We examine relationships between classroom interactions and the development of academic language proficiencies for 4th through 6th grade Latino and Pacific Islander children. You were invited to participate because you teach in a school where many Latino and Pacific Islander children attend.

Procedures

If you agree to participate in this study, the following will occur:
- You will provide 2017-18 student rosters to researchers
- You will help to gather consent forms from parents of students in your classroom
- You will complete in a 15-minute online survey
- You will allow researchers to video record two 40-minute sessions during classroom ELA lessons of your choice
- You will allow researchers to survey the backgrounds and assess the academic language of six randomly selected students from your classroom. The assessments are group-administered and take about 60 minutes to complete. We will assess students twice—at the beginning and toward the end of the fall semester (2 hours total). This will happen during school time, and students will be pulled from your classroom for assessment. We will assess students at the times and on the days that you choose.

Risks/Discomforts

The risks associated with participating in this study is the loss of class time for the students we assess. Also, you may feel some discomfort or disruption while we video record. Our objective is not to judge or evaluate your practice, but to explore relationships between classroom interactions (i.e., teacher-student and student-to-student interactions) and the development of Latino and Pacific Islander children.

We will minimize this risk by being quick and efficient with our assessment administration, by restricting video access to our research team, and by de-identifying the names of schools, teachers, and all participating students. The videos will not be viewed by anyone outside of the research team.

Benefits

Indirect benefits to this study include participation in a workshop at BYU. This may broaden your understanding of the nature of academic language, and help to explore ways to teach academic language more effectively to diverse learners. You will also have the opportunity, if you are interested, to participate in future studies through which we could partner to develop instructional programs, curricula, and other materials to foster students' academic language growth.

Confidentiality

The research data will be kept on a password-protected external hard drive in Dr. Jensen's office and will be destroyed after 3 years. We will use child, teacher, and school identification numbers to preserve the your and other participants' anonymity. Only researchers affiliated with this project will have access to the data. At the conclusion of the study, all identifying information will be deleted and the data will be kept in Dr. Jensen's locked office.

Compensation

Participants will receive a $100 Visa gift card for your time and inconvenience in gathering survey, observation, and

student assessment data in the Fall of 2017. Participants will also be invited to a full-day workshop at BYU with Dr. Bryant Jensen and Dr. Paola Uccelli. The workshop will include lunch.

Participation

Participation in this research study is totally voluntary. You have the right to withdraw at any time or refuse to participate entirely without jeopardy to your employment or standing with the university.

Questions about the Research

If you have questions regarding this study, you may contact Dr. Bryant Jensen by email at bryant_jensen@byu.edu.

Questions about Your Rights as Research Participants

If you have questions regarding your rights as a research participant contact IRB Administrator at (801) 422-1461; A-285 ASB, Brigham Young University, Provo, UT 84602; irb@byu.edu.

Statement of Consent

I have read, understood, and received a copy of the above consent and desire of my own free will to participate in this study.

Name (Printed): _____ Signature _____ Date:_____

APPENDIX C

Student Assent Form – English Version

Parental Permission for a Minor

Introduction

This research study is being conducted by Prof. Bryant Jensen (Brigham Young University) and Lyndsai Sylva (Graduate student, Brigham Young University) to examine relationships between classroom interactions in 4th, 5th, and 6th grade and the development of Latino and Pacific Islander children's academic language proficiencies. Your child is ideal for this study because of his/her background and enrollment in a 4th, 5th, or 6th grade classroom. We are requesting your permission to allow your child to participate in this study.

Procedures

If you agree to let your child participate in this research study, the following will occur:

- Your child will complete a brief background survey and language assessment in September and a second language assessment in December during scheduled class time. The language assessment, administered in a group with other students, provides information on your child's word, sentence, and grammar knowledge. The assessment takes about 60 minutes to complete.

- Your child will be video recorded during two 40-minute language arts lessons. A research assistant will record 2 times during the course of the first semester. If you do not provide permission to record, your child will attend class, but be excluded from the video frame.

- We will access your child's SAGE scores to compare them with their performance on the language assessment.

Risks

There is a risk of loss of privacy, which the researcher will reduce by not using any real names or other identifiers in the written report. The researcher will also keep all digital data in a password protected database on a secure server at BYU and all physical information in a locked and secure office at BYU. Only researchers will have access to this data.

Your child will miss a part of their regular classroom instruction when participating in the language assessments. Despite this missed class time, the research results overall will provide the teacher with more information on academic language development and instruction. This may help to improve learning and instructional experiences for your child.

It is possible that your child may be distracted when videographers are present in the classroom. To prevent any type of disruption, researchers will strive to be as non-intrusive as possible while capturing classroom dynamics during the lesson.

Confidentiality

The researcher will keep all digital data (including videos) on a password-protected database and all physical data will be contained in a securely locked file at Brigham Young University for 3-7 years. After that, the data will be destroyed. Only researchers will have access to the data. At the conclusion of the study, all identifying information will be removed and the data will be kept in a locked cabinet or office. Videos will be stored for at least three years in Prof. Jensen's locked office.

Benefits

There will be no direct benefits to you or to your child for participating in this study. This is research is intended to shed light on how to provide better language instruction to Latino and Pacific Islander students.

Compensation

There will be no compensation for you or your child for participating in this study.

Questions about the Research

If you have any questions about the study, please contact Prof. Bryant Jensen. Call at (801)-422-3241 or email at bryant_jensen@byu.edu.

Questions about your child's rights as a study participant or to submit comment or complaints about the study should be directed to the IRB Administrator, Brigham Young University, A-285 ASB, Provo, UT 84602. Call (801) 422-1461 or send emails to irb@byu.edu.

You have been given a copy of this consent form to keep.

Participation

Participation in this research study is voluntary. You are free to decline to have your child participate in this research study. You may withdraw your child's participation at any point without affecting your child's academic standing in school. Withdrawing participating means that your child will still be required to participate in class assignments, but is not obligated to be video recorded or to complete assessments for this project.

Statement of Consent

I have read, understood, and received a copy of the above consent and desire of my own free will to participate in this study.

Child's Name: _____

Parent Name: _____ Signature: _____ Date: _____

APPENDIX D

Student Assent Form – Spanish Version

La declaración del consentimiento de padres informados

La introducción

Esta investigación se conduce por el Prof. Bryant Jensen (de BYU) y Lyndsai Sylva (Estudiante de maestría de BYU) para examinar las relaciones entre las interacciones de clase en los grados cuarto hasta sexto y el desarrollo del dominio del idioma académico de los estudiantes latinos y nativos de Polinesia. Su hijo se cualifica para esta investigación por su sustrato étnico y por estar matriculado en una clase del cuarto, quinto, o sexto grado. Solicitamos su consentimiento para tener a usted y a su hijo en este estudio.

Los procedimientos

Si usted acepta permitir la participación de su hijo en este estudio, lo siguiente sucederá:

- Su hijo participará en una breve encuesta sobre su trasfondo personal y una evaluación de idioma en septiembre y luego una segunda evaluación de idioma en diciembre durante las horas de clase. Las evaluaciones, administradas en grupo de estudiantes, proveen información sobre la comprensión de las palabras, las oraciones y la gramática de su hijo. Las evaluaciones durarán 60 minutos.

- Su hijo será grabado durante dos sesiones de instrucción de lengua de 40 minutos de duración. El/la investigador(a) grabará la clase dos veces durante el primer semestre. Si no provea permiso para grabar, su hijo asistirá la clase pero no será incluido en el marco.

- Obtendremos acceso a las calificaciones SAGE de su hijo y las compararemos con su evaluación de idioma.

Los riesgos

Hay un riesgo de perder su privacidad, lo cual el/la investigador(a) va a reducir al no usar nombres reales u otra forma de identificación en el informe escrito. El/la investigador(a) guardará toda esta información en una base de datos protegida bajo contraseña y toda la información física en un archivo seguro de BYU. Sólo los investigadores tendrán acceso a esta información.

Su hijo perderá una parte de sus clases regulares cuando participe en las evaluaciones del idioma. A pesar de esta falta de tiempo de clase, los resultados de la investigación en general proporcionará al maestro más información sobre el desarrollo del lenguaje académico y la instrucción. Esto puede ayudar a mejorar el aprendizaje y las experiencias de instrucción para su hijo.

Es posible que su hijo se distrae por el camarógrafo que estará presente en la clase. Para prevenir cualquier tipo de interrupción, el/la investigador(a) se esforzará por ser discreto(a) mientras graba las interacciones durante las clases.

La confidencialidad

El/la investigador(a) guardará toda información digital (incluso los videos) en una base de datos bajo contraseña y toda información física en un archivo seguro de BYU por 3 a 7 años. Sólo los investigadores tendrán acceso a esta información. Después del estudio, toda información identificaria se borrará y la información será guardada en un archivo seguro. Los videos se guardarán por 3 años, como mínimo, en la oficina del Prof. Jensen que estará cerrada con llave.

Los beneficios

No hay beneficios directos para usted o su hijo por participar en esta investigación. La intención de la investigación es iluminar cómo se puede proveer mejor instrucción del idioma a los estudiantes latinos y nativos de Polinesia.

La compensación

No hará ninguna compensación para usted o su hijo por ser participantes en este estudio.

Preguntas sobre la investigación

Si usted tiene preguntas sobre el estudio, póngase en contacto con el Prof. Bryant Jensen. Llame (801)-422-3241 o escriba por correo electrónico a bryant_jensen@byu.edu.

Preguntas sobre los derechos de su hijo como participante, comentarios o quejas que tenga sobre el estudio se deben dirigir al Administrador IRB, BYU, A-285 ASB, Provo, UT 84602. Llame (801)-422-3241 o escriba por correo electrónico a irb@byu.edu.

Se le dio una copia de este consentimiento para tener.

La participación

La participación en esta investigación es voluntaria. Está libre de renunciar el consentimiento de la participación de su hijo en este estudio. Usted puede renunciar la participación de su hijo sin el riesgo de afectar el estatus académico de su hijo. El renunciar a participar en este estudio significa que su hijo tendrá que participar en las asignaciones de la clase, pero no será obligado a ser grabado en el video ni completar las evaluaciones de este proyecto.

Declaración del consentimiento

He leído, comprendido y recibido una copia del siguiente consentimiento y deseo antedichos de mi proprio libre albedrio de participar en este estudio.

Nombre del hijo: _____

Nombre del padre: _____ Firma: _____ Fecha: _____