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K-12 Teacher Perceptions Regarding Hispanic Family Educational Beliefs and Language and Literacy Practices

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K-12 Teacher Perceptions regarding Hispanic Family
Educational Beliefs and Language and
Literacy Practices

Marisa Lee

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

K-12 Teacher Perceptions regarding Hispanic Family Educational Beliefs and Language and Literacy Practices

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Master of Arts

Abundant research exists examining what occurs in Hispanic homes regarding educational beliefs and literacy and language practices before and after children enter the school system. What is not known is whether or not teachers are aware of these practices and beliefs. The research questions of this study focus first on what perceptions K-12 teachers have about Hispanic educational beliefs and practices, and second, on determining if those perceptions correlate with teacher training in English as a second language (ESL).

To answer these questions, a questionnaire was written based on an extensive review of literature regarding three aspects: Hispanic educational beliefs, literacy practices, and language practices. This questionnaire was then administered to 214 K-12 public school teachers from three school districts in Utah. The results were analyzed first using descriptive statistics to learn which perceptions teachers felt strongly about, and second, with a blocked analysis of variance to find correlation between perceptions and ESL training.

The results suggest that teachers are uncertain about what is occurring in Hispanic homes. Of the 25 questions analyzed in the descriptive statistics, 68% had response means falling between 3.90 and 5.10 (a score of 4.0 indicating neither agreement nor disagreement). However, results showed that teachers had the strongest views regarding Hispanic literacy practices and the family focus on authority. The analysis of variance showed that ESL training does not correlate with teacher perception. Suggestions for further research and implications of the results of this study are discussed.

Keywords: teacher perceptions, Hispanic family, educational beliefs, literacy, language

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Background: Increased demographic diversity

Throughout the United States, schools are aiming to help every student succeed in reaching national and state standards of education. In order to achieve this goal, there is an increasing need for educators and the students' parents to communicate and work together in the pursuit of these standards. Graduation rates of the past thirty years show that the Hispanic population in the United States has historically had a lower percentage of students reaching the national standards of education, including graduation from High School, than students from other ethnicities. The following discussion will seek to understand why Hispanics struggle in the United States educational system and propose solutions to relieve this struggle.

With steadily increasing immigration and high birth-rates, Hispanics are becoming an increasingly significant element of the national population. Indeed, they constitute the largest minority group in the U.S., comprising 14% of the population as a whole (U.S. Census Bureau, 2006). This percentage is expected to rise significantly in the future. In 2008, the U.S. Census Bureau projected that by the year 2050 one in three U.S. residents would be Hispanic. The total Hispanic population is expected to rise from 46.7 million to 132.8 million. What is also notable about these statistics is that this growing population is on average very young. Based on census projections from 2008, in 2050, the nation's child population is expected to be 62 percent minority, up from 44 percent in 2008. Of the total population of children, 39 percent are expected to be Hispanic (showing an increase from 22 percent in 2008). These figures show the turning of the scales from a historically white majority population. By the year 2050, 38 percent

of children in the U.S. are projected to be single-race, non-Hispanic white, which is down from 56 percent in 2008 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2006). In summary, a great number of children attending U.S. schools today are Hispanic, and this number will continue to grow.

In Utah where this study takes place, state demographics follow this national pattern in Hispanic population growth. Here the Hispanic population increased 138% between 1990 and 2000—growing more than twice as fast as the Hispanic population nationwide (Utah Office of Ethnic Affairs, 2004). In an article titled “Utah’s Demographic Transformation,” economist Pam Perlich (2008) also describes how the single-race, white population will continue to age as immigrant families bring youth to the state. She postulated that this “increase in ethnic and racial diversity represents a generational shift, as nearly one-fourth of preschool-age persons in Utah and one-third in Salt Lake County in 2007 were estimated to be racial or ethnic minorities. In contrast, less than 10% of retirement-age Utahns were estimated to be minorities” (p. 1). These new residents have contributed to population growth not only in terms of immigration by bringing children into the area, but also because immigrant parents have fertility rates that are higher than the national average (Perlich, 2008).

Diversity in the Schools

These immigration trends bring an increased ethnic diversity to schools nationwide and in Utah. In Utah alone the total Hispanic student body in 2008 was estimated to be 79,400 students or 14.4% of the public school student body (USOE, 2008). This figure shows a 6.4 percent increase from 74,653 students in 2007 and mirrors the national Hispanic population as a whole. In effect, the Utah student body continues to become more and more diverse. Questions may be raised as to whether educators are now providing, or can be expected to provide, an adequate education for these Hispanic students.

Unfortunately, statistics show that the school system is currently failing in guiding Hispanic students through to graduation. The National Center for Education Statistics reported in 2008 that Hispanic high school completion rates had risen from the 1971 rate of 48 percent to 68 percent. However, these rates were still well below the rates of Blacks, Whites and Asian/Pacific Islanders which were, respectively, 88, 94, and 96 percent in 2008. A recent look at Utah high school graduation rates showed that 7.2 percent of Hispanic students dropped out of school between 9th grade and 12th grade in 2005. This percentage may be compared with 3.3 percent of the total student population who dropped out (NCES, 2008). While acknowledging that the majority of Hispanic students are succeeding in the public school system, it is nevertheless disconcerting to find that a prominent disparity exists when comparing Hispanics to other ethnic groups.

Over the past twenty years researchers, policy-makers, and educators have repeatedly examined this problem. Consequently, numerous programs have been implemented as remedies. Programs such as Head Start (nationally funded pre-school) and local family literacy programs are designed to help struggling children (including Hispanics) before they enter the classroom. Other federally funded programs like TRIO, Success for All, and ALAS (Achievement for Latinos through Academic Success) are meant to fill the gap later as Hispanic children reach late elementary school or secondary schools. Even with the many programs created to help them, students are still failing. They are still dropping-out.

The Home-School Connection

Perhaps the remedy can be found in mutual understanding for families and schools. And perhaps it lies in factors educators cannot control, factors that begin before the child steps into

the school building. In their book addressing failed social policies regarding Hispanics, Gándara and Contreras (2009) theorize that one reason programs designed to aid Hispanics may be failing is that they begin too late, when the students are already long directed towards failure. They state that children are or are not on the path that leads to college long before kindergarten, and “perhaps before conception.” “By kindergarten...large gaps in school readiness already exist between...white and Asian children and their black and Latino peers” (p. 250). Thus, future educational attainment begins in the home.

Fortunately, as the discussion below will show, much is known about what occurs in Hispanic homes. As a result of abundant current research, we know that literacy skills are developed first in the home and are a product of the context in which they occur (Auerbach, 1989, Gallimore & Goldenberg, 1993, Gándara & Contreras, 2009, Teale, 1986, Weinstein, 1998). Hispanic families, as other families, have specific, noticeable methods of developing reading and writing with their children. Through past studies, we also know that how parents speak to their children and what they choose to talk about influences academic success. Hispanic families speak to their children in a certain way and about certain subjects (Moreno, 1991, Tenenbaum & Callanan, 2008, Valdés, 1996). A final variable in home life that affects school achievement is the educational beliefs and values of the parents. What parents believe about education can have a great impact on the priority the children place on it. There have been a number of studies examining and explaining Hispanic beliefs and values regarding education. These three factors, namely, home literacy practices, home language practices, and educational beliefs, will be explored in detail through the review of the literature in Chapter Two.

Although researchers maintain a broad knowledge base regarding these Hispanic home practices, the education field lacks studies showing teachers’ awareness (or lack of awareness) of

these practices. The national standards for parent/family involvement programs state that children from diverse cultural backgrounds do better academically when parents and educators work together to bridge the gap between differing cultures (National PTA, 2004). Can this gap be bridged if teachers do not know that it exists? If shared understanding between parents and teachers is a precursor to shared academic success, then perhaps it is the missing link for Hispanic success. Educating teachers about what takes place in Hispanic homes to further academic development may help forge a unified approach for teachers and parents.

Purpose of the Present Study

The purpose of this study is to find out how aware teachers are of what takes place in Hispanic homes and to learn what effect, if any, ESL training has on this awareness. The following chapter will discuss the evolving definition of literacy, as well as practices used by parents to further reading and writing skills, the definition and significance of home-language and how it influences academic development, and the effects of culture on educational beliefs. This review of current literature will conclude with a look at teacher expectations for these educational behaviors in the home. Although there has been extensive research in each of these individual areas, a gap exists in understanding academic-focused practices in the home and what teachers believe those practices to be.

Definitions and Limitations

In previous research the terms “Latino” and “Hispanic” have sometimes been employed interchangeably and inconsistently. These studies often include a definition of these terms that is distinct from other studies. Many nationalities may be included under these labels. In her study on Hispanic parental beliefs, Petelo (2005) surveyed Hispanic participants who came from a variety of countries in Central and South America, with the majority from Mexico, but others

from Argentina, Chile, Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Honduras, Peru and Venezuela. Page (2006) defined Hispanic as anyone whose ancestry is from Spain or Spanish-speaking Latin America. For Worthy & Rodriguez-Galindo (2006), the term “Latino” or “Hispanic” meant simply immigrant families to the U.S. who speak Spanish natively.

In a study seeking to understand cultural beliefs and behaviors, the simple distinction of commonality of language is perhaps not enough to justify such a diverse grouping. On the other hand, Gándara and Contreras (2009) make a strong case that such a grouping is indeed appropriate. Hispanics are “bound together by a shared language, and to a more limited extent, a shared cultural heritage” (p. 7). Gándara and Contreras felt that although Mexicans, Puerto Ricans, Cubans, Dominicans, and Central and South Americans do have subgroup differences, “the great majority of Latinos in the United States encounter surprisingly similar educational challenges” (p. 7). In light of these particulars, and, as this study seeks to address common educational challenges, the term “Hispanic” will be used broadly to include individuals who speak Spanish in the home or who are of Central and South American origin. As regards language, literacy, and educational beliefs, there are more similarities than differences among Hispanic subgroups. This broad definition is also given to teachers participating in this study (see Appendix C). It should be noted that this definition is intentionally vague and inclusive. Participating teachers answered questions in this study based on who they would identify as Hispanic, whether or not others would also identify the same individuals as Hispanic.

Throughout this paper, the term “mainstream America” will also be used at various times. For the purposes of this study mainstream America will be defined as non-immigrant, non-Hispanic, middle class families and the commonly assumed similarities of their behaviors and beliefs. The researcher does not attempt to explain the many differences in behaviors and beliefs

that inevitably belong to this population. The purposes of this study do not serve to compare in detail mainstream and Hispanic families. Descriptions of mainstream American families are included only to provide a comparison for the reader to understand current Hispanic home practices.

Current research is not complete with answers about Hispanic home-life, and there are yet patterns and habits to be discovered. In fact, as will be seen in the review of literature, some of the current understanding of Hispanic home-life may yet be incomplete or misinterpreted. However, the purpose of this study is not to further explore what is happening in Hispanic homes, but rather to explore how teachers perceive what is happening. In an attempt to understand these perceptions the following questions will be answered:

- 1) What are public school teachers' perceptions of Hispanic parent educational beliefs and practices regarding literacy and home-language?
- 2) Do teacher perceptions of Hispanic parent educational beliefs and practices regarding literacy and home-language correlate positively with ESL teacher training?

The second research question was chosen because if it is important for teachers to understand what occurs in their students' homes, then there must be a way to teach them this. Chapter Two includes a brief examination of ESL training programs that participants in this study may have had. The purpose of an ESL teacher endorsement is to enable teachers to effectively teach linguistically diverse learners (Teemant et al., 2005). The present research argues that for this teaching to be effective, it must take into account the practices that parents are using at home to also educate their children. The second question of this study is a preliminary attempt to examine whether or not ESL training programs are succeeding in their

ability to train teachers to effectively incorporate home beliefs and practices into the classroom. If teachers with ESL training have accurate perceptions of what is occurring in their Hispanic students' homes, it is more likely that their classroom practices will effectively bridge the gap between the home and school culture.

This research is projected to benefit educators, researchers, families, and students by encouraging better collaboration between homes and schools. In their report on what teachers need to know about language, Fillmore and Snow (2000) explain why knowledge about home life is crucial to teachers:

Socialization [including how language is used to communicate] begins at home and continues at school. When the cultures of home and school match the process is generally continuous: Building on what they acquired at home from family members, children become socialized into ways of thinking and behaving that characterize educated individuals...But when there is a mismatch between the cultures of home and school the process can be disrupted. (p. 11)

Thus we see that it benefits students when teachers and parents recognize a need for continuity and understanding between the two cultures of home and school. It is hoped that through the present study, teacher training programs will make the necessary changes to their curriculum to build this continuity and understanding. These changes can also encourage teachers themselves to gain increased awareness of their own beliefs and an understanding of the circumstances of their students. Finally, researchers and the general public will hopefully gain an increased understanding of a historically at-risk population.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

As was discussed in the previous chapter, there is an immediate need for teachers to understand the educational backgrounds of the children who enter their classroom. This need is even more pressing as it relates to a population of students who are historically outperformed by their peers. This review of literature will establish current Hispanic home practices regarding literacy and language, as well as their beliefs about education and child-rearing. The concepts of literacy, home language, and educational beliefs will be defined first in general terms and then examined relative to Hispanic families. As research has been thorough in this area, educators and policy-makers should be aware of this research and of the home practices of the families they serve. Thus, the chapter will conclude with a look at current research on teachers' expectations and perceptions of Hispanic home-life, and how ESL teacher endorsement programs are working to change those perceptions.

Varied Definitions of Literacy

In the past twenty years, the definition of literacy has evolved from a simple definition of a person's ability to read and write to include subcategories of literacy such as a socio-cultural context for literacy and emergent literacy (Auerbach, 1989; UNESCO, 2009; Wiese, 2004). In 1989, Auerbach published a seminal article that critiqued literacy programs designed to support immigrant and refugee families' participation in their children's education. This article was based on a case study of one Hispanic parent from the Boston English Family Literacy Program at University of Massachusetts and on compiled research from several studies. Auerbach asserted that it is critical to examine how literacy is defined, saying, "If it is defined narrowly to mean performing school-like literacy activities within the family setting, the social-contextual

demands on family life become obstacles that must be overcome so that learning can take place” (p. 166). However, if educators understand that family literacy can consist of a range of activities that make up daily life, then the social context of the family becomes a rich resource for the new language learners (Auerbach, 1989). Thus, literacy began to be understood as a thing dependent on environment and needs. Consequently, in order for us to understand the literacy practices of Hispanic families we must understand the environment where these practices occur.

At the turn of the century, international standards began to reflect this change in research ideas to include context-driven literacy. In 2004, the United Nations Educational Organization (UNESCO) drafted the following definition: “‘Literacy’ is the ability to identify, understand, interpret, create, communicate, compute and use printed and written materials associated with varying Educational, Scientific and Cultural contexts” (UNESCO, 2004). As such, literacy practices can only be defined relative to the context in which they take place. The organization clarified its definition with the notion that literacy involves a continuum of activities that an individual practices with the goals of higher education and greater participation in society (UNESCO, 2004). With these two ideas comes the understanding that literacy embraces much more than reading and writing. It can include any aspect of communication that will enable individuals to function in their respective environments. The current UNESCO definition of literacy states that

“[Literacy has] moved beyond the simple notion of a set of technical skills of reading, writing and calculating to one that encompasses multiple dimensions of these competencies...[recognizing] that there are many practices of literacy embedded in different cultural processes, personal circumstances and collective structures” (UNESCO, 2009; see also Wiese, 2004).

With this in mind, it is important to understand that literacy activities in the homes of Hispanic families may differ from those in mainstream America, simply because the “cultural processes” and “personal circumstances” of those homes also differ.

A further change in the concept of literacy is the move to see reading and writing not as simply a measurement of proficiency, but also as the processes needed to gain that ability labeled emergent literacy. In a question and answer article portraying a brief history of family literacy concepts in the U.S., Weinstein (1998) showed how, prior to the 1980s, the push for family literacy programs came from this idea of emergent literacy. This encompasses the notion that success at school depends on a culture of literacy at home. In literate cultures, literacy development begins long before children enter a school system (Gallimore & Goldenberg, 1993; Teale, 1986). Thus, Hispanic children, as any other, begin the reading and writing processes long before they set foot in a school. Teachers may greatly benefit from knowing where their students are along the literacy continuum and what skills they bring in their literacy backpack as they enter the classroom.

From Literacy Theory to Practice

In the 1980s and '90s, the concept of emergent literacy evolved to seeing literacy practices as part of the social and political context as a whole—viewing all literacy habits as useful, not only those that would promote academic achievement (Weinstein, 1998). Examples from Gallimore and Goldenberg (1993) of these habits in Spanish-speaking homes include:

domestic chores (writing and reading shopping lists, paying bills, making schedules), entertainment (reading television guides, game rules), school-related (homework, playing school), work (carryovers from parents' jobs), religious

activities (Sunday school materials, Bible reading), communication (letters, notes, holiday cards), and storybook time. (p. 316)

In this way, daily life at home becomes an educationally rich environment for building child literacy. Throughout the day children participate in dozens of interactions. These interactions work to build their knowledge base. Merlove and Snipper proposed that “activities in which children engage as an ordinary part of their daily lives have a profound impact on the cognitive and communicative functions they develop” (Merlove & Snipper, 1981, p. 257). Consequently, home life affects not only a child’s literacy development, but also other cognitive areas as well.

Regarding changes in literacy theory, Weinstein-Shr (1990) also stated that literacy has changed from the idea of “a specific set of coding and decoding skills” towards “a view of literacy as a set of practices that are shaped by and given meaning through the social context in which they occur” (p. 3). Gallimore & Goldenberg (1993) also described this set of practices as a “home-curriculum” in which children do not learn with a set of “syllable cards and phonic drills,” but rather through meaningful communications whose medium is print. According to these researchers, the single most important component in emergent literacy activities is the “personnel present” (p. 323). An adult (or possibly competent sibling) must be available and capable of promoting literacy building activities, if the child is to develop literacy skills. The capable adult (the parent) believes that the activity has purpose, that it does in fact build literacy. How the parent perceives the activity has an important effect on the child who participates in it (Gallimore & Goldenberg, 1993).

Hispanic Home Literacy Practices

As this relates to the Hispanic household, family members are ever present as their children learn, but the “personnel present” often has mixed interpretations of the purpose of

literacy-based activities. For instance, parents who were asked by teachers to help their children learn the alphabet were often confused by the reason behind the task. They felt that learning to recite the alphabet was not a necessary accomplishment and instead focused on helping children recognize syllables containing a consonant and a vowel (Valdés, 1996). This confusion of expectations may be readily explained by the orthographic and phonetic differences between learning to read in Spanish and in English. Accordingly, Hispanic parents often do not understand how the school-based or teacher-assigned tasks will help their children develop reading and writing skills (see also Gallimore & Goldenberg, 1993; De Gaetano, 2007).

Debate continues about whether differences exist in literacy practices of mainstream Anglo-American families and their Hispanic immigrant counterparts. To reiterate, literacy activities are contexts of culture (Gallimore & Goldenberg, 1993; Minick, 1985) and should be examined in the setting of the given culture. In 2005, White performed a study on low-income Hispanic parents and their self-reported home literacy behaviors. Based on results of this study, White comments that “monitoring fluency, [i.e. correcting pronunciation or syllable decoding] a culturally familiar home reading practice, may be more common for these families than engaging children in middle-class home literacy practices such as the discussion of more complex texts and their meanings” (White, 2005, p. 41). Gallimore and Goldenberg (1993) report the same results: “as soon as [Mexican-American] parents construed an activity as the ‘teaching of literacy,’ their cultural perception of what it means to learn to read prevailed” (p. 329). Consequently, instead of teaching their children to read according to methods prescribed by the teacher or suggested by the researcher, the parents reverted back to teaching the way they had been taught focusing on decoding rather than comprehension. The culture determined how parents and children interacted in the activity and what language they used.

However, White apparently counters this statement with the conclusion that the practices and interactions in these Hispanic families generally do mirror those taking place in homes of mainstream Anglo-American families (White, 2005; Delgado-Gaitán, 1994). Taylor (1993) also supported this notion that there are more similarities in the way parents with differing background use print than differences. Nevertheless one may ask if these differences in usage are what correlate with the deficit in achievement.

In their work with Puerto Rican children, Volk & de Acosta (2003 & 2004) also challenge the deficit theory of Hispanic literacy. The goal of their two studies is to show researchers and practitioners how lower class Puerto Rican families use literacy resources that are often thought to only be found in mainstream middle class families. In moving away from the deficit perspective, they found that the children in their study were not limited in their literacy development by the personnel present. Rather, these children utilized a large network “of people of varying ages, language dominance, and reading ability that included parents, siblings, extended family members, friends, and community members” to practice and be explicitly taught reading skills (p. 9, Volk & de Acosta, 2003; see also Page, 2006; Taylor, 1997; Moreno, 2002; and Gallimore & Goldenberg, 1993).

The statement that literacy practices are the same across cultures is too general to be accepted without hesitation. Too many other researchers have found that Hispanic literacy practices, although similar in some ways to mainstream American practices, also differ markedly. For example, Valdés (1996) in one family found that although the parents insisted that they could read and write, “newspapers and magazines and other materials were never seen in the household, and [the father] was never observed either reading or writing” (p. 150). This father had only completed the first grade in Mexico and, similarly, other parents in her study had

not completed elementary school. Accordingly, when observing the literacy practices of the family, the literacy level of the parent must also be taken into account. Valdés also noted that unlike mainstream American families, parents did not regularly engage in ritualistic activities reading to or with their children.

Level of education may be the leading factor in determining the type and quantity of literacy practices. In White's 2005 study, better educated parents reported higher levels of literacy-related activities in the home; however, less educated parents who had greater contact with the school, particularly with their child's classroom teacher, also reported a high level of literacy-related events in the home. This research concludes that literacy practices correlate with parent involvement in the school. "Findings demonstrated that immigrant parents who have a strong connection to the school can and do contribute to their children's literacy development in meaningful ways, regardless of educational background" (p. 7). One logical reason for this could be that these involved parents reported that teachers gave them specific academic strategies for improving literacy practices at home.

Practices Specific to Writing

If literacy practices are to be examined, they must take into account any activity that utilizes reading or writing skills. In 1986, Teale asserted that it is a misconception in literacy to say that reading precedes writing or vice-versa. He states that "listening, speaking, reading, and writing abilities...develop concurrently and interrelatedly, rather than sequentially" (Teale, 1986). This idea of paired writing and reading is at the root of emergent literacy. As parents interact with their children, they often do not differentiate between skills that will build reading or skills that will develop writing.

As with reading, Hispanic parents often teach writing according to how they were taught. In her detailed ethnographic study, Valdés (1996) saw that a few of the mothers saw learning to write as a mechanic skill of rote memorization of words. One mother designed a program for her failing son based on what had previously been required of her in Mexico. “She made [her son] write each word up and down an entire page, a total of about 100 times” (p. 154). Thus it is evident that immigrant writing practices stem from how the parents themselves were taught and often involve mechanistic, rote learning.

Teachers need to understand the basic ways in which learning to read and write may be different for their Hispanic students than for their other students. From this brief review of previous research, some literacy patterns of Hispanic parents that educators should be aware of include: focusing on fluency rather than meaning during reading activities, teaching their children to read and write based on how they were taught, misunderstanding how school assignments will help their child’s literacy development, etc. For a concise list of the literacy practices that will be focused on in this study see Table 1 on page 30.

Importance of Home-Language

Several studies suggest that, like reading and writing, the type of language used at home may correlate with the academic achievement of children in school (Aukrust & Snow, 1998; Beals, 2001; Callanan & Jipson, 2001; Delgado-Gaitán, 1994; Siegel, et al., 2007; Tenenbaum & Callanan, 2008; Wertsch et al., 1984; Fillmore & Snow, 2000). Research has shown that differences exist in the speech used by different cultures for parents to interact with their children. Language is a “culturally organized feature of social-life” and the means used to help children learn societal norms (Aukrust & Snow, 1998, p. 222). Home-language which is the medium for this learning can be defined as the dialogue during any interaction between an adult

and a child in the home. It can often be differentiated into the categories of narrative talk: talk about people and events of daily life and “talk about minor deviations from social scripts,” and explanatory talk: “talk focused on explanations for physical events or for individual behaviors” (Aukrust & Snow, 1998, p. 222).

Explanatory talk is important as it aids children in the development of scientific literacy, or the ability to understand and talk about the world around oneself. Daily parent-child conversations are “rich sources of information that may help children learn about the physical, natural, and psychological world” (Tenenbaum & Callanan, 2008, p. 2; see also Beals, 2001; Callanan & Jipson, 2001; Siegel et al., 2007). As children and parents engage in such talk it may help the children develop a causal understanding about science (Tenenbaum & Callanan, 2008). If conversations about the world may lead to scientific literacy, then it would follow that variations in the extent and type of such conversations would lead to variations in a child’s understanding.

Explanatory and narrative talk are functions of a family’s culture combined with daily tasks. The speech genres used in any given situation (i.e. narrative or explanatory) are determined by the social and cultural background of the family (Aukrust & Snow, 1998; Bahktin, 1986; Fillmore & Snow, 2000). Aukrust and Snow (1998) explained that in this way “narratives and explanations serve as distinct cultural resources for...children learning to use language” (p. 223). Hence, what is talked about and the way it is talked about helps children learn language and the social norms for using language as they learn about other subjects.

Hispanic Home-Language Practices

In Hispanic families the subject of conversation is often dictated by the educational goals that the parents feel are most important. Valdés (1996) wrote that because Mexican-immigrant

parents feel as strongly about the moral education of their children as their intellectual education, the conversation in the home reflects these values. Termed as *Consejos*, mothers attached moral advice to tales beginning with children at a very young age. As the children grew older, moral principles and rules of behavior were attached to ordinary conversation wherever they would fit.

A simple example of this is found in the following conversation (Valdés, 1996)

Velma [Mother]: <i>A ver Saúl ven aquí, cómo te fue en la escuela.</i>	Saúl, come here. How were things at school?
Saul: <i>Bien.</i>	Okay.
Velma: <i>¿Cómo te portaste?</i>	How did you behave?
Saúl: <i>Bien.</i>	Okay.
Velma: <i>¿No te peleaste?</i>	You didn't fight?
Saúl: <i>No.</i>	No.
Velma: <i>Acuérdate que los niños buenos no se andan peleando. A esos niños siempre les va mejor.</i>	Remember that good boys don't go around fighting. Everything goes better for those boys. (p. 127)

This narrative and moral focus of conversation in the home is markedly different from what Aukrust & Snow (1998) found exists among Anglo-American families. In their study of mealtime conversations they found that American families focused on explanatory talk, especially talk addressing the reasoning behind behavior and explaining the physical world.

Several studies have also been carried out to examine explanatory and narrative talk in the contexts of other cultures. A few studies indicated that explanatory talk is the norm only for Anglo-American cultures and that these parents engage in such talk naturally (Aukrust & Snow, 1998; Rogoff, et al., 1993). However, other research refutes this notion, specifically with Hispanic parents, who appear to also engage their children in rich explanations. For example, Moreno (1991) reported that while teaching their children to tie shoes, Mexican-American mothers used as many conceptual questions as did Anglo-American mothers. Differences in speech genre have been ascribed to differences in the specific task and its demands, the number

of years the parent has been in the United States, the formal schooling of the parent, and even the parent's economic status. Each of these variables will be discussed briefly as they relate to Hispanic home-language.

The task that the parent and the child perform together, in many ways, dictates the language they use to interact. Parent language varies according to the task and its demands (Moreno, 1991, Tenenbaum & Callanan, 2008). Using an exercise in which Hispanic mothers put together a puzzle with their children, Wertsch (1984) and his colleagues found that what the women believed about the purpose of the activity determined the behavioral script they employed. Some perceived the goal of the task as building cognitive development and others as simply completing the puzzle successfully. Tenenbaum and Callanan (2008) also discovered that Hispanic parents who were more familiar with the prescribed task (i.e. the task of taking their children to a museum) were more willing and able to use explanatory language and questioning techniques with their children.

In examining explanatory talk among Hispanic parents, its occurrence may also depend on the parents' immigration status, or the number of years the parents have been in the United States. Delgado-Gaitán (1994) found that American-born parents of Mexican descent used more explanatory language with their children than their Mexican immigrant counterparts. They also asked more questions. Cervantes (2002) found that mother-child conversations about emotion varied with immigration status as well. Mexican-American mothers used more emotion labels, which are more characteristic of narrative talk, to describe behavior than Mexican immigrant mothers. These changes that occur in Hispanic language practices with immigration status may be explained by the degree to which the parents seek to adapt to the surrounding culture. In examining immigrant changes in educational beliefs, Petelo (2005) found a similar pattern.

Mexican immigrant parents who described themselves as being fully integrated into the new society had educational beliefs and values more similar to Anglo-Americans than those who were not integrated.

Extensive research has shown that the amount of explanatory talk also hinges on the formal schooling of the parents. Tenenbaum & Callanan's (2008) study focused on four possible types of explanatory talk among parents: "using prior knowledge, causal explanations, scientific principle explanations, and encouraging predictions" (p.4). As they coded Mexican-American parents responses into one of these four categories, they found that parents with more schooling used more explanations overall, encouraged more predictions from their children, and used more scientific principle explanations. (Tenenbaum & Callanan, 2008). Further research likewise found that more highly-schooled parents asked more questions and were more directive in their explanatory talk (Laosa, 1980; Siegel et al., 2007). Similarly, Guatemalan Mayan mothers with fewer years of formal schooling were more collaborative and less directive with their children than mothers with more years of formal schooling while completing a puzzle (Chavajay & Rogoff, 2002). Consequently, in examining parent-child interactions, parental level of schooling must be taken into account. Laosa (1978 and 1980) also found that Mexican-American parents with lower levels of education (less than 11th grade) asked fewer questions, and used more directives and nonverbal modeling cues than their more educated counterparts.

Family Contributions and Language Choice

Language choice and sibling contributions can also influence the type of talk used in parent-child interactions. In an attempt to explore the interaction of Mexican-American mothers in a natural setting of teaching their children the alphabet, Moreno (2002) carried out a case-study of four Mexican-American pre-school children and their mothers. A common thread in

these case-studies is the view that teaching emergent literacy does not happen in an isolated setting; it is often a family affair. For example, “we find a messy social interaction with multiple participants, each with their own goals or agendas” (Moreno, 2002, p. 201; see also Gallimore & Goldenberg, 1993; Page, 2006; Volk & de Acosta, 2003; Volk & de Acosta, 2004). The brothers and sisters, aunts and uncles, as well as parents may be involved in teaching one child, and each has his own methods and expectations.

Moreno’s study also found that Mexican-American mothers often face the difficult decision as to which language to support in educational interactions. The difficulty of this decision is multiplied when the parent or child is significantly more fluent in one language than the other. “The mother’s role as the expert [can come] into question” as does the child’s role as novice (Moreno, 2002 p. 202). Although parents are cognizant of the great need for their children to learn English, their own English skills are often lacking (see Valdés, 1996), and they cannot help their children. The children are often aware of this and may use English as a secret sibling dialect. Thus, teaching literacy in a new language may not only be a matter of educating a child, but changing the authoritative dynamics in the home. Delgado-Gaitán (1994) illustrated this dilemma in her case study of the socialization of four Mexican-American families, “As Spanish-speaking children moved up the academic ladder and learned more English, parents were distanced from them and the schooling process. Some parents reported that by the time a child reached junior high school they felt as if they were ‘living with a stranger’” (p. 63).

Parents who desire to have their children learn English to succeed in a new country, may be confronted with an internal struggle to keep their relationship with them. The parents’ desire for their children to achieve success through education becomes the very thing that estranges them from their children (National Coalition of Hispanic Health and Human Services

Organizations [NCHHHSO], 1996). Often there is a reversal in roles when children, who are learning English, are made interpreters for their parents in school or professional exchanges. The difficulty of this situation is compounded because traditional Hispanic culture holds great deference for elders—grandparents, parents, aunts, uncles—who are respected for their ability to lead and provide for their family. “When children are placed in positions of power over the parents, the traditional parental role is undermined, causing damage to the family system” (Orozco, 2008, p. 31). Educators who are aware of this dilemma can help ease the child’s transition to bilingualism. In spite of the necessity of interacting through an interpreter, they can look to the parents to make the decisions and reinforce their position of authority.

As teachers understand the language that their students are using and developing at home, they can capitalize on home-language that would support academic development in the classroom and fill in any existing gaps. Multiple studies suggest that immigrant families want their children to learn English (De Gaetano, 2007; Orozco, 2008; Quiócho, 2006; Valdés, 1996). They want their children to learn English while still maintaining their cultural beliefs and native language. (Ada & Zubizarreta, 2001, Peterson & Heywood, 2007). However, this desire may not be fulfilled when the children can communicate with friends and meet basic survival needs. Rather, the parents want their children to learn, “not the kind of English [teachers] teach them in class, but [their] secret English,” Bain said, referring to the academic English that would most prepare English language learners for success in America’s education system (Bain, 1979; see also Cummins, 1980, Fillmore, 1982). The starting point for learning this “secret” English in schools is where children currently are with the language they have learned at home.

Through training and experience teachers can be aware of their cultural differences that may appear in the way their students are using language. A summary of language variances in

Hispanic families can be found on Table 1 (p. 30). Aukrust & Snow (1998) propose that variance in home-language often correlates with the importance to which the culture assigns individualism, diversity, social rules and civic values. Thus it is crucial to examine not only the evidence of culture found in conversations, but also the beliefs and values that make up the foundation of the conversations.

Importance of Child-rearing and Educational Beliefs

Unfortunately, it is not enough for teachers to be acquainted with the language and literacy practices of their students; they must also understand the beliefs that are the foundation for these practices. Differences in culture lead to differences in the definitions of appropriate behavior. Research has also described how common cultural background is often associated with common priorities. “Most parents—from all social class levels, races and ethnicities—want the very best for their children” (De Gaetano, 2007, p. 149). For Hispanic immigrant families, often this means finding something better for their children than what they left behind. Orozco (2008) notes that “for this reason parents admonish their children to obey their teacher, to do their school work, not to fight...and so on. Immigrants function from a dual frame of reference, comparing their current situation with their former situation” (p. 31). Orozco further recommends that teachers and administrators look at immigrant Latino families from a strengths-based perspective, focusing on fulfilling goals that parents have for their children.

Findings on Hispanic Beliefs

Family beliefs determine what emphasis is put on education and how that education will be used. For Hispanic families, often this means that although a formal education may be seen as important, it may not be the family’s highest priority. In Valdés’ (1996) ethnographic study, she found that each of the ten Mexican immigrant families she worked with placed a high value on

education, but this education was not necessarily seen as a necessity for success. Parents wanted their children to develop the capacity to make a living and to have high moral values. However, they did not feel that education would ensure a good future for their children. Rather, they felt that “connections, good marriages, and the like would be more important” (p. 182). The parents in this study came from rural Mexico where the norm in education is to reach the third grade. For their children to graduate from high school is a great accomplishment. Perhaps teachers’ expectations of academic success do not match the students’ or even the parents’ expectations.

Additional studies have expressed slightly different views about Hispanic beliefs on education. Ada and Zubizarreta (2001) consistently found that parents wanted to support their children’s education and had high hopes for their success. In their study challenging myths about Hispanic educational beliefs, Quiocho and Daoud (2006) also found that the seventy Latino parents interviewed wanted to help their children succeed and had high expectations for their academic achievements. However, these same parents expressed the frustration that sometimes comes with education in a new culture. Many felt that their children were not receiving the same education that the other students (mainstream students) received and that their children were not being held to the same expectations. The researchers concluded that the teachers and parents at these schools did not understand one another and could not see from the others’ perspective.

In their study on Hispanic mothers whose children have specific language impairments, Rodriguez and Olswang (2003) directed speech language pathologists to learn about the culture of their patients, with the intention of reducing cultural barriers like those described above. The results of this study showed that Mexican-American mothers “held more strongly traditional, authoritarian and conforming educational and child rearing beliefs and values than Anglo-American mothers” (Rodriguez & Olswang, 2003, p.452). Based on the Rank Order of Parental

Values used, there were significant differences between the two groups in conforming values (i.e., “to be polite to adults,” “to obey parents and teachers,” etc.). Mexican-Americans rated themselves as higher on this scale, whereas, Anglo-Americans scored significantly higher on the self-directing subscale (values that would include “to think for him/herself,” and “to be curious about many things”) (p.455 & 457).

These results were predictable based on previous research suggesting that traditional Hispanic, Native American, and Asian families value hierarchical relationships instead of equity and believe that the success of the group is more important than that of the individual (Lynch & Hanson, 1998; see also Delgado-Gaitán, 1994; Fillmore & Snow, 2000; Orozco, 2008). Indeed, children hold a special place in Hispanic families, and parents see that their success will provide for the future success of the family (Orozco, 2008; Valdés, 1996). In Valdés’ study children were “expected not to be selfish, to look after their siblings, and not to draw energy away from common family goals” (p. 131). This is an important principle for teachers and administrators to understand. Parents who hold these beliefs may be hesitant to allow the academic needs of one child to interfere with the workings of the household unit.

Respect for authority is another key descriptor of Hispanic values. Nicolaus and Ramos (1990) concluded that Mexican-Americans hold the idea that home should not interfere with the school, and the parent should not interfere with the teacher’s methods. The cultural background instills this respect for teachers and authority. They compare this respect to the respect that other Americans have (or used to have) for doctors or priests (Nicolaus & Ramos, 1990). In discussing literacy, Auerbauch (1989) also mentioned the cultural issues surrounding parent-teacher relations with language-minority families: “[Parents] may defer to the authority of the teacher and the school, or assume that the teacher is always right, or feel unable to intervene on

behalf of their children” (p. 175). Educators need to be aware of these feelings so that, just as the speech-language pathologists in the Rodriguez and Olswang study, they can better fulfill the needs of those they serve.

Finally, one interesting finding of the Rodriguez and Olswang study is that the Mexican-American mothers’ degree of acculturation was related to the differences in their beliefs as compared with Anglo-American mothers. The mothers with the lowest level of acculturation were the most likely to hold traditional, authoritarian educational beliefs (Rodriguez & Olswang, 2003). In other words, the degree to which Mexican-American mothers allowed themselves to be influenced by the surrounding culture correlated highly with their educational beliefs. The researchers suggested that acknowledging these differences in acculturation among Mexican-Americans reduces the likelihood of creating stereotypical characteristics of the group. Educators can thus begin to make teaching changes based on the individual needs of Hispanics, rather than blanket policies for all minority groups.

Another study was done by Petelo in 2005 as a master’s thesis for Brigham Young University, in which she used the same Rank Order of Parental Values as Rodriguez and Olswang and had slightly different results. The research questions of the study were: “(1) Are there significant differences in terms of educational and child-rearing beliefs between Hispanics and Anglo-Americans? (2) Are there significant differences in terms of educational and child-rearing beliefs among Hispanics with varying levels of education? (3) Are there significant differences in terms of educational and child-rearing beliefs among Anglo-Americans with varying levels of education?” (p.26). Hispanics were grouped as participants from Mexico, Argentina, Chile, Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Honduras, Peru and

Venezuela. The level of education was operationalized as the average of the number of years both spouses spent in school.

A summary of the results from Petelo's study pointed out that there were statistically significant intercultural differences (Anglo-American vs. Hispanic), but no significant intracultural differences (Hispanics with varying levels of education). This is unlike the results of Rodriguez and Olswang. She also found that Hispanic participants tend to endorse the following beliefs and values regarding education, while Anglo-Americans strongly disagreed with the same notions:

- (1) the home and the school are two separate entities and parents should not question the teacher's methods,
- (2) children should be treated the same regardless of differences among them,
- (3) children are naturally bad and must therefore be trained early in life,
- (4) the most important thing to teach children is absolute obedience to adults, and
- (5) learning is a passive process where teachers fill children's head with information. (p.69)

Petelo's and Rodriguez & Olswang's studies are relevant in that teaching and administration activities in schools should take into account these great differences in beliefs and values between Hispanics and Anglo-Americans.

In contrast with Petelo's study, Worthy and Rodriguez-Galindo (2006) found a different pattern. She performed a qualitative study of 16 Hispanic immigrant parents whose children were upper-elementary students in a bilingual program in Texas. The parents were interviewed about their own and their children's experiences, as well as language use and goals for their children. In this study, parents indicated a desire to help their children in school and be involved in their education. One of the many reasons parents gave for wanting to learn English on first arriving in the United States was to "[help] their children negotiate school matters" (p. 2). This is unlike

Petelo's notion that the "home and school are two separate entities" (Petelo, 2005, p. 69). In Worthy and Rodriguez-Galindo's study, parents told the researchers that "success was ultimately a personal and family responsibility" (p. 8). In concluding this study, the researchers reported that low-income immigrant parents, most with few years of formal schooling, were "aware, observant, and involved in their children's education" (p. 18).

The contrasting results of these studies may have stemmed from the various populations that were examined. Petelo examined 100 Hispanic parents who had been in the United States for various lengths of time. On the other hand, Worthy Rodriguez-Galindo studied 16 parents who had been in the United States for no more than two years. Another difference may have been that Worthy and Rodriguez-Galindo studied a bilingual class where the parents may have felt comfortable discussing school concerns with the teacher who not only spoke Spanish, but was also a child of recent immigrants from Mexico.

These studies leave room for further investigation into the parents' child-rearing and educational beliefs. An interview of parents with a small sample size such as Rodriguez and Olswang's or Worthy and Rodriguez-Galindo's could ensure that parents understand the questions being asked and answer openly. However, such interviews may be most productive without the limitations of participants being speech-pathologist patients or bilingual students. There is another potential weakness in Petelo's study, as the assumption was made that teachers hold the same beliefs as Anglo-American parents (Petelo, 2005, p. 72). This assumption may or may not be true and may be a critical component in the current study as teacher perceptions of Hispanic beliefs may also be influenced by their own beliefs.

Summary of Hispanic Home Practices

As portrayed above, extensive research has been done and much is known about what occurs in Hispanic homes. Regarding literacy, it can be said that, in general, Hispanic parents view teaching reading and writing as rote practice. As previously mentioned, the mother or other family member often decides how to teach based on how she was taught. The materials parents employ for literacy vary according to what is available, and this is often dependent on the level of literacy of the parents. In each case, teaching children to read and write is a family affair. The children learn most often from watching older siblings and other family members (Valdés, 1996). Furthermore, reading and writing practices in many instances are influenced by the challenge to learn both English and Spanish at once.

Communication in Hispanic homes is also culturally dependent. Concepts about the physical world and its workings are often not explicitly explained. Rather, parents focus their conversation on the moral training of their children. In several cases, communication is also influenced by the children learning a language (English) that the parents cannot speak.

Finally, perhaps the most influential aspect of Hispanic life that contributes to academic success is the cultural belief system. Parents have a great desire for the success of their children, and although they see immense value in education, they may or may not see education as a necessity for success. For many of these immigrant families, success of one child means success of the family. School and home are viewed as separate entities and the education of one child should not be allowed to interfere with the routine of the family as a whole. In this family unit respect for authority is highly valued. As children go to school, parents are often concerned at how respect is shown for the teacher and how their children behave in general. In short, parents, as described in Valdés' (1996) research, "believed it was the school's duty to help them raise

well-behaved and well-disciplined children” who could then contribute to society (p. 165). See Table 1 below which summarizes Hispanic practices and beliefs.

As so much is known regarding what is taking place in the homes of Hispanic families, this study will not replicate other studies in this regard. Rather, the current study will focus on how teachers of the public school system perceive education-related beliefs and practices in Hispanic homes. An important question that will be explored is whether or not teachers are aware of these beliefs and practices.

Table 1: Summary of Hispanic Home Practices

Literacy Practices	
Parents do not always understand how teacher assignments will help their child learn to read and write.	Valdés, (1996); Gallimore & Goldenberg, (1993); De Gaetano, (2007);
Parents focus on monitoring fluency rather than discussing the meaning of texts while reading with their children.	Gallimore & Goldenberg, (1993); White, (2005); Delgado-Gaitán, (1994);
Parents teach their children to read and write based on how they were taught.	Gallimore & Goldenberg, (1993); White, (2005);
Parent level of education and amount of contact with the school determine the quantity of reading materials in Hispanic homes.	Valdés, (1996); White, (2005); Orozco, (2008); De Gaetano, (2007);
Parents often do not have ritualistic reading activities with their children.	Valdés, (1996); Delgado-Gaitán, (1994);
Many family members are often involved when a Hispanic child begins learning to read	Page, (2006); Volk & de Acosta, (2003); Volk & de Acosta, (2004); Taylor, (1997); Moreno, (2002); Gallimore & Goldenberg, (1993);
Language Practices	
Parents often give moral advice in conversations with their children.	Valdés, (1996); Cervantes, (2002); Rodriguez & Olswang, (2003);
When parents have been in the United States longer, they give richer explanations to their children.	Moreno, (1991); Delgado-Gaitán, (1994); Wertsch, Minick, & Arns, (1984);
Parents use more explanatory talk and questioning when they are familiar with a task than when they are not.	Tenenbaum & Callanan, (2008); Wertsch, Minick, & Arns, (1984);

Parents who have more schooling use more directives and more explanatory talk than parents with less schooling.	Moreno, (1991); Siegel et al.(2007); Laosa, (1980); Tenenbaum & Callanan, (2008); Delgado-Gaitán, (1994); Chavajay & Rogoff, (2002); Laosa, (1980);
Authority roles in the family often change when Hispanic children are learning another language.	Moreno, (2002); Valdés, (1996); Delgado-Gaitán, (1994); National Coalition of Hispanic Health and Human Services Organizations [NCHHHSO], (1996); Orozco, (2008);
Parents feel that it is important for their children to maintain their native language and culture while learning English.	Valdés, (1993); De Gaetano, (2007); Orozco, (2008); Quioco & Daoud, (2006); Ada & Zubizarreta, (2001); Peterson & Heywood, (2007);
Parents often have conversations with their children linked to the goals they have for them	Orozco, (2008); Valdés, (1996);
Child-Rearing and Educational Beliefs	
Parents think that education is important but not necessary for success	Auerbach, (1989); Nicolaus & Ramos, (1990); Petelo, (2005); Rodriguez & Olswang,(2003);
Parents feel that it is more important for their children to be polite and obey than to think for themselves and be curious.	Rodriguez and Olswang, (2003); Delgado-Gaitán, (1994);
Parents feel that the success of the family as a whole is more important than the success of the individual.	Delgado-Gaitán, (1994); Filmore & Snow, (2000); Lynch & Hanson, (1998); Orozco, (2008); Rodriguez & Olswang, (2003); Valdés, (1996);
Families feel that the home should not interfere with the school and the school should not interfere with the home.	Nicolaus & Ramos, (1990); Petelo, (2005); Worthy and Rodriguez-Galindo, (2006);
Parents feel that they do not know enough to question the teachers' training or methods.	Nicolaus & Ramos, (1990); Auerbach, (1989); Petelo, (2005); Rodriguez & Olswang, (2003);

Teacher Perceptions of Hispanic Family Practices

The public education system has not had general success in educating a large percentage of second language students or students of minority groups (see Chapter 1). Flores (2001) suggests that one reason for this failure may be “in part, due to teachers’ belief systems. Generalist teachers have certain perceptions and assumptions about how children learn and specifically, about how bilingual or language minority children learn” (p. 279). As early as 1989, Auerbach claimed that educators often hold false assumptions about literacy practices and

educational beliefs in minority homes (see also White, 2005). She further stated that teachers often assume that minority parents do not support their children's education in appropriate ways (Auerbach, 1989; see also Valdez, 1996 and White, 2005), appropriate meaning attending parent-teacher conferences, sending notes to excuse absences, and other school-prescribed parent involvement practices.

As teachers and parents work to achieve the same objective of success for the students, educators and families must communicate with each other and understand one another. Several studies suggest that what teachers do in school has a great impact on what parents do in the home. What teachers send home affects to differing degrees how parents interact with their children and develop their literacy practices (Gallimore & Goldenberg, 1993). If teachers are using meaningful texts and focusing on context instead of decoding and pronunciation, then parents will attempt to follow the teachers' suit. In White's (2005) study entitled "How Latino immigrant parents and school read each other," research showed that effective teachers (those whom the parents reported as being involved with and concerned for their students and those who gave the parents specific counsel for reading at home) were also the most "effective agents in transmitting the message about daily home reading" (p. 41).

Teachers deemed effective also seemed to understand what was going on in the home and how parents could best encourage and aid their children. The White study is singular in that many of the teachers in the school were also from immigrant families. Perhaps they knew what it was like to come from countries whose governments had failed them in education. It is not only the responsibility of the parents to ensure that their children succeed, but also the responsibility of the school to ensure that parents have access to the tools that will help their children succeed. "Involvement is a two-way process where parents are knowledgeable about what is taking place

with their children's education, and educators understand, embrace, and seek input from the communities from which the children come" (Orozco, 2008, p.34).

A study by Flores (2001) found that what a teacher believes influences the way he or she behaves. In this study personal experiences (ethnic upbringing, k-12 schooling, and other childhood experiences) were not found to be statistically significant contributors to the formation of teacher beliefs; however, in the qualitative data, teachers expressed that these experiences led them to their professions. What is missing is research that understands teacher expectations, regardless of teacher background, of Hispanic home practices. Understanding how these expectations relate to or differ from parent practices can help educators fill the needs of their patrons. The following study will examine these expectations by answering these questions:

- 1) What are public school teachers' perceptions of Hispanic parent educational beliefs and practices regarding literacy and home-language?
- 2) Do teacher perceptions of Hispanic parent educational beliefs and practices regarding literacy and home-language correlate positively with ESL teacher training?

ESL Teacher Training

One of the goals of an endorsement program for teaching English as a Second Language is to help teachers teach English language learners in a culturally responsive classroom. In an article describing the Brigham Young University ESL teacher endorsement program, Teemant and her colleagues stated that the purpose of such a program is to prepare ESL teachers to work with "linguistically diverse learners in their regular classrooms using pedagogy that is inclusive of and effective with all learners" (p. 1679, Teemant et al., 2005). As previously discussed,

effective teaching for Hispanic students must include lessons that draw upon their literacy and language practices already developed at home.

This study is not meant to be an in-depth analysis and evaluation of current ESL teacher endorsement programs. However, it is designed to understand whether teachers with an endorsement have different perspectives about their students than teachers without. To accomplish this, one must ask if current programs are intended to influence teacher perceptions about their students' (specifically Hispanic students') home life. The majority of the 214 teachers participating in this study received ESL endorsements from one of three programs: Brigham Young University's Teaching English Language Learners (TELL) Program, Southern Utah University's ESL Endorsement program, and Utah State University's ESL Endorsement program. All three of these programs have a second language acquisition class and a second language literacy class which include coursework on how children learn languages in diverse cultural contexts (Brigham Young University, 2010; Dever, 2010; Wilson, 2010). Southern Utah University and Brigham Young University each have one course designed to help teachers understand the parents' perspective. As part of this course, teachers in training interview English language learners' families in an effort to understand their educational practices and beliefs.

In each of the TELL classes at BYU, teachers examine their beliefs about English Language Learners at the beginning of the course and again at the end of the course. Through this, teachers can see how their beliefs or perceptions are changing throughout the course. Further research is recommended to specifically examine these pre- and post-instruction assessments to discover whether these courses in particular have direct influence on the teachers' beliefs. Accordingly, the second research question of this study may lead to further research to determine whether this training correlates teachers' perceptions of their Hispanic students' home life.

Chapter 3

Research Design

The present study is designed to explore public school teacher perceptions of Hispanic parent practices regarding literacy and language and educational beliefs. As discussed in the review of literature, these three aspects of educational development have been adequately defined by previous research. The question may now be raised as to whether teachers are aware of what is occurring in students' homes that shapes their education. This chapter begins with a statement of the research questions, followed by a brief outline of the research design, and next a description of the subjects including how demographics were obtained. A discussion of the procedure used for creating and pilot testing the questionnaire follows. The chapter concludes with a description of how data were collected and analyzed.

Research Questions

The research questions are as follows:

- (1) What are public school teachers' perceptions of Hispanic parent educational beliefs and practices regarding literacy and home-language?
- (2) Do teacher perceptions of Hispanic parent educational beliefs and practices regarding literacy and home-language correlate positively with ESL teacher training?

To answer these questions, the researcher administered a questionnaire entitled "K-12 Public School Teacher's Perceptions of Hispanic Practices and Beliefs Regarding Literacy, Language, and Education" to kindergarten through 12th grade teachers in three school districts in Utah. The demographics of the teachers as well as detailed description of the questionnaire will be given below.

Participants

A total of 214 K-12 teachers participated in the study and completed the final version of the questionnaire (267 teachers started the questionnaire, but 53 failed to answer one or more questions). These teachers are currently employed by one of three school districts in Utah County (Alpine, Provo, and Nebo). The questionnaire was administered in these districts because of their relatively high Hispanic populations (see Appendix E) or because they are participating districts in the BYU-Public School Partnership. Teachers from 18 schools identified by the district office to have high ESL and Hispanic populations in the Alpine District participated. Nebo School District designated 12 schools with high Hispanic populations to participate. Finally, because Provo School District has a much higher percentage of Hispanic students than the state average (26.4% compared with 14.5%) every school in the district was asked to participate.

The teachers who participated in this study had the following characteristics. They first categorized their ESL Endorsement status as one of six types: (1) 61 teachers were content teachers with an ESL endorsement and currently teaching ESL and mainstream students, (2) 64 teachers were content teachers with an ESL endorsement and currently teaching only ESL students, (3) 11 content teachers were endorsed in ESL, but not currently teaching ESL students, (4) 61 content teachers reported that they have had 1-20 hours of professional development in ESL, but are not currently endorsed, (5) 56 content teachers reported that they are not trained in ESL at all, and finally, (6) 22 participants classified themselves as something other than content teachers. When prompted to explain this status 12 of these responded that they were ESL endorsed but no longer in the classroom, i.e., they were administrators, counselors, or district specialists. Of those who were endorsed in ESL teaching, 58% received that endorsement

through Brigham Young University, 8% through Southern Utah University, 7% through Utah State University, and 26% through other training (mostly district programs).

A representative sample of teachers was collected from a range of grades and subjects. In order to control for the effects of any moderating variable on teacher perceptions, participants were asked to select all the grades and subjects that they had taught. In the study 92 teachers taught kindergarten thru third grade, 76 taught fourth thru sixth, 94 taught middle school or junior high, and 85 taught high school. There were 81 teachers who classified themselves as traditional elementary teachers, 16 were specialty elementary (e.g. computers, music, P.E., etc.), and 24 taught elementary special education. Of the secondary education teachers 22 were math teachers, 41 were English teachers, 28 science teachers, 31 social studies teachers, 14 world language teachers, and 39 were elective teachers.

The participants' years of teaching experience varied greatly. Fifty teachers reported that they had been teaching 0-3 years; 59 had been teaching 4-10 years; 54 had been teaching 11-20 years; 39 had been teaching 21-30 years; and 11 had been teaching more than 30 years.

The study sample also varied greatly in its foreign language and culture experience. Participants who speak another language (with varying degrees of proficiency) numbered 116, 66 of whom were Spanish speakers. Almost all (192 teachers) had traveled outside of the United States, and 121 teachers had lived at some time out of the country. Thirty-five of these had lived in a Spanish-speaking country.

Other variables that may have had an influence on teachers' perceptions include their ethnicity and gender, their experience raising children, their experience with Hispanics in their community, and whether or not they are currently teaching Hispanic students. Females outnumbered males in participation, 160 compared to 54. Thirteen of the teachers classified

themselves as Hispanic, 199 reported being white or Caucasian, with other groups being 5 Asian, 1 Native American, 2 Pacific Islander, and 0 Black. Teachers with children numbered 156. Sixty-eight percent of participants (146 teachers) reported that they have contact with Hispanic individuals in their community once a week or more. Finally, 199 teachers marked that they are currently teaching Hispanic students, with a range between 1 to 150 Hispanics on their roster.

Instrument

The bulk of previous research regarding Hispanic family practices and beliefs has been ethnographic research or case studies with small sample sizes. One exception to this was Petelo's (2005) study of Hispanic and Anglo-American parents with 199 participants. Unfortunately the two instruments (see also Rodriguez & Olswang, 2003) from this study were created to ascertain parents' beliefs, whereas, the current study is designed to understand teacher perceptions of parent beliefs and practices. Additionally, studies regarding teachers' perceptions of Hispanic parents (Lawson, 2003; Quiocho & Daoud, 2006;) have on the whole been carried out as qualitative interviews.

With the compilation of this research (see chapter two), the author drew on the most salient practices and beliefs as outlined in Table 1 (p. 30) and 2 (see Appendix A for Table 2) to create the questionnaire. Each item on the questionnaire was chosen because of its presence in two or more previous studies. The first version of the questionnaire contained 64 Likert-type items designed to answer the first research question. For each item teachers were asked to mark how strongly they agreed or disagreed with statements about Hispanic families and their beliefs about education. For example, an item regarding Hispanic parent educational beliefs is stated: *Most parents of Hispanic students at my school feel that teachers need not be concerned with what goes on in a child's home* (Item 2). Participants would then select on a scale of 1 to 7 how

strongly they agreed or disagreed with the statement (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agree/nor disagree, and 7 = strongly agree). The researcher decided to use this rating scale because it would allow teachers to express any slight differences they had in their perceptions.

This first version of the questionnaire was then pilot-tested. Eight teachers who were acquaintances of the researcher took this pilot version of the questionnaire. Based on their feedback that the questionnaire was too long and that several of the questions were redundant, confusing or did not match current research, the questionnaire was narrowed down to 38 Likert-type items. Twenty demographic questions were then added as a measure of the variables in the second research question named above.

The second version of the questionnaire was then pilot tested by 21 teachers. One teacher completed the survey as a think-aloud, describing what she thought as she read each item. Twenty teachers completed the questionnaire in a paper/pencil form. Based on this second pilot-test revisions were made to the wording of a few items. After both of these pilot tests and after a discussion with Dr. Dennis Eggett from the Brigham Young University Center for Collaborative Research and Statistical Consulting about collecting data with the instrument, 2 questions were removed from the educational beliefs section and 1 question was eliminated from the language section. These questions were confusing, and there was not enough literature to support their use. The wording of the Likert-items was also revised so that teachers would evaluate experiences with Hispanic parents of students at their school, rather than a blanket assumption about Hispanic parents in general. After meeting with representatives from the McKay School of Education and with ESL administrators in the school districts, some of the demographic questions were changed to match current district definitions of ESL endorsements and grade levels. The final version of the questionnaire (Appendix C and D) was made up of 12 items

regarding Hispanic beliefs about education, 10 items regarding Hispanic language practices, and 14 items regarding Hispanic literacy practices (Appendix C). It also contained 29 demographic questions to account for independent and moderating variables (Appendix D). Participants were asked to access the questionnaire using on-line survey software.

Data Collection Procedure

The questionnaire was administered to the three school districts as follows. Alpine School District gave the researcher a list of schools with high ESL populations (see Appendix E for statistics of district populations). The majority of these ESL students were of Hispanic ethnicity. The principals of the designated schools were contacted by phone and email. They then chose to send or not send an invitation by email to all their teachers with a letter inviting the teachers to using a link to the survey. This invitation email may be found in Appendix F.

The same procedure was followed with Nebo School District. Unfortunately, Nebo had recently participated in another study with BYU. Consequently, a couple of principals decided not to have their teachers participate.

Provo School District is considerably smaller than the two other districts (6734 students compared with 32246 students in Alpine and 13220 students in Nebo) but has a higher population of Hispanic students (26.4% of the district compared with 8% and 9%). Approval was received to participate in the study at the district level, and then an invitation email was sent to all the teachers in the district. The teachers themselves decided whether or not to participate in the study.

Data Analysis Procedure

The first research question regarding public school teachers' perceptions of Hispanic home life was answered through descriptive statistics. The questions were analyzed individually

to determine frequency of teacher responses on the scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). During this analysis some questions were deemed poorly worded or irrelevant and removed from this report. Unfortunately, this problem was not discovered with the pilot tests due to the small sample sizes. For example, the researcher removed items 6 and 7 because most teachers neither agreed/nor disagreed with these statements, and previous studies also showed mixed opinions about these items. For a list of other questions that were not included in the data analysis see Chapter 4. These responses for these questions were separated into groups of ESL-endorsed respondents and non-ESL-endorsed respondents to determine if there were correlations between the teachers' experiences and the way they perceived each item. A frequency count was then taken for each item. The researcher subsequently compared the frequency counts of the two groups of respondents (ESL-endorsed and non-ESL-endorsed) using a chi-square test to determine if differences in the responses were significant.

The second research question was to determine if teacher perceptions of Hispanic parent behaviors regarding literacy, home-language, and child-rearing correlate positively with ESL teacher training. To answer this question, an analysis of variance was performed with the independent variable being ESL endorsement. This endorsement was computed with six levels: (1) endorsed content teacher, currently teaching ESL students (CESL); (2) endorsed content teacher, currently teaching only ESL students (CESLO); (3) endorsed content teacher, not currently teaching ESL students (NCESL); (4) a content teacher with 1-20 hours professional development in ESL teaching (PD); (5) a content teacher, not trained in ESL (NT); and finally, (6) something other than the above. These variables were compared with the three categories of perception of educational beliefs, perception of literacy practices, and perception of language

practices. A Tukey-Kramer post hoc comparison of means then followed to determine, if there was a difference in the means, where that difference appeared.

One challenge with creating a questionnaire regarding perceptions is achieving reliability. To determine whether the questionnaire was reliable and whether the three categories of perceptions were valid, the researcher performed a Cronbach's alpha (or alpha coefficient) test of reliability. This determines the reliability of the items matching each category.

Conclusion

This chapter begins with a statement of the research questions which, in essence, ask what public school teachers' perceptions are regarding Hispanic home life and whether these perceptions correlate positively to teacher ESL training. The 214 study participants are then described according to their teaching experience and background as well as their cultural experiences. The *K-12 Public School Teacher's Perceptions of Hispanic Practices and Beliefs Regarding Literacy, Language, and Education* questionnaire was developed by the researcher to answer these questions. How it was developed and pilot-tested is also described in this chapter. A description of the data collection procedure in three school districts follows. The chapter concludes with details about how the data were analyzed after their collection. Each item of the questionnaire was first analyzed according to descriptive statistics of frequency. Chi-square tests were then performed on pertinent questions to discern a difference between ESL-endorsed teacher responses and non-ESL-endorsed teacher responses. The principal tests performed on these data were an analysis of variance, followed by a Tukey-Kramer post hoc test, and then, Cronbach's alpha to check reliability. The following chapter discusses the results obtained by these tests.

Chapter 4

Results

The purpose of the present study is two-fold: first, to gain a general view of all teachers' perceptions regarding Hispanic home literacy and language practices and beliefs about education; and second, to determine if there is a correlation between teachers' ESL endorsement status and these perceptions.

To address the first issue, descriptive statistics of representative items from the questionnaire are presented. Next, the results of an analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey-Kramer post-hoc tests are discussed to determine if correlation exists between ESL endorsement and teacher perceptions.

Results of Questionnaire

Descriptive Statistics

Tables 3, 4, and 5 (p. 46, 47, and 49) show the frequency of teacher responses for questions in each category grouping (educational beliefs, language, and literacy). Data from the following questions are not included in this summary: 6, 7, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20, 21, 25, 26, 29.

After looking at the results and studying the questions, the researcher concluded that questions 6 and 7 are founded on conflicting research and teachers had no strong opinion regarding these items. Question 12 is ambiguous because if teachers disagree with this it could mean that they believe parents do not want to help, or that parents do know how to help. Questions 14, 16, 18, 21, 25 and 26 were removed because the teachers did not feel strongly about these items and equivalent information can be gained from other questions. Question 29 is also ambiguous as teachers cannot determine which language the parent and child would be using to read.

Unfortunately, these questions were not eliminated with the pilot tests, most likely because of the small sample sizes.

Educational Beliefs

Table 3 on the following page shows how teachers responded to questions regarding their perceptions of Hispanic educational beliefs. On items 3, 4, 8 and 11 the majority of teachers rated their perceptions between somewhat agree and strongly agree. With question 11 (Most Hispanic parents hold more strongly traditional and authoritarian educational and child-rearing beliefs than Anglo-American counterparts), more than 58% of the teachers said that they agreed with this perception. Item 10 (Most Hispanic parents feel that a good education means graduating from high school and entering college) was coded negatively because a response agreeing with the statement would be in opposition to current research. Understandably, teachers may or may not be aware of the previous research on these items, but this is what the current study is intended to explore. A negative coding means that ratings of 7 would indicate that the teachers strongly disagreed with the statement, and ratings of 1 that they strongly agreed. The negative coding is not reflected in how teachers answer the questions, and there is no reference to this coding on the questionnaire that teachers received; rather the coding is for statistical purposes to make all items equivalent. A graph of the responses for item 10 is bimodal; however, the majority of teachers agree with the statement (mean = 4.413, st dev = 1.48).

Teachers disagreed with items 2, 5, and 9 regarding Hispanic family educational beliefs. In general, teachers strongly disagreed with item 5 (Most Hispanic parents feel that children should be allowed to disagree with a parent if they feel their own ideas are better; mean = 2.97, st dev = 1.25). These results corroborate with those from item 11 in that teachers do feel that Hispanic parents place a great importance on the obedience of their children. Item 9 (Most

Hispanic parents think that education is important but not necessary for success) responses were bimodal. Nevertheless, the majority of the teachers disagreed with this statement (mean = 3.65, st dev = 1.73).

Teachers did not hold a strong opinion with respect to item 1 (Most Hispanic parents feel that since they lack special training in education they should not question the teacher's teaching methods). The mean (4.09) shows that teachers neither agreed nor disagreed with this statement.

Table 3: Distribution of Teacher Responses on Items about Educational Beliefs

Item #	Rating*	Frequency	Percent	Descriptive Data	Item #	Rating	Frequency	Percent	
1: Parents lack training	1	13	6.10	x (mean) = 4.09	8: More important to be polite	1	7	3.29	$x = 4.20$
	2	31	14.55			2	29	13.62	
	3	20	9.39			3	35	16.43	
	4	68	31.92	s (st dev) = 1.62		4	38	17.84	$s = 1.50$
	5	43	20.19			5	58	27.23	
	6	17	7.98			6	40	18.78	
	7	21	9.86			7	6	2.82	
2: Teachers concerned w/ home	1	28	13.15	$x = 3.58$	9: Education not necessary	1	20	9.35	$x = 3.65$
	2	52	24.41			2	55	25.70	
	3	39	18.31			3	38	17.76	
	4	29	13.62	$s = 1.95$		4	11	5.14	$s = 1.73$
	5	25	11.74			5	49	22.90	
	6	8	3.76			6	38	17.76	
	7	32	15.02			7	3	1.409	
3: Children obey teacher	1	1	0.47	$x = 4.60$	10: Education means graduating	1	3	1.41	$x = 4.41$
	2	11	5.16			2	21	9.86	
	3	23	10.80			3	48	22.54	
	4	58	27.23	$s = 1.23$		4	24	11.27	$s = 1.48$
	5	81	38.03			5	55	25.82	
	6	22	10.33			6	54	25.35	
	7	17	7.98			7	8	3.76	
4: Success of family	1	2	0.93	$x = 4.74$	11: Traditional & authoritarian	1	4	1.89	$x = 4.56$
	2	17	7.94			2	20	9.43	
	3	34	15.89			3	21	9.91	
	4	49	22.90	$s = 1.65$		4	43	20.28	$s = 1.40$
	5	45	21.03			5	65	30.66	
	6	14	6.54			6	51	24.06	
	7	53	24.77			7	8	3.77	
5: Children allowed to disagree	1	12	5.66	$x = 2.97$					
	2	86	40.57						
	3	51	24.06						
	4	28	13.21	$s = 1.25$					
	5	29	13.68						
	6	6	2.83						
	7	0	0		$n = 212$				

* Rating correlates to 1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agrees/nor disagrees, 7 = strongly agrees

Language Practices

Table 4 displays descriptive statistics for teachers' responses on questions regarding Hispanic family language practices. On average teachers agreed with questions 13, 17, and 19.

The distribution of teachers' opinions for question 15 (Most Hispanic parents talk to their children often about things in the world that build and reinforce curiosity) was bimodal, with strong peaks on both sides; however, the mean was 4.92, stating that most teachers did, in fact, agree with this perception. Teachers were undecided about item 22 (Most Hispanic parents feel that when their children learn another language (English) the parents lose their role as an authority figure); the mean was 4.10 with a fairly normal distribution, but a second small peak in teachers who strongly agree.

Table 4: Distribution of Teacher Responses on Items about Language Practices

Item #	Rating*	Frequency	Percent	Descriptive Data
13: Moral advice	1	1	0.47	x (mean) = 4.91
	2	13	6.10	
	3	26	12.21	
	4	63	29.58	s (st dev) = 1.64
	5	38	17.84	
	6	5	2.35	
	7	67	31.46	
				$n = 213$
15: Often build curiosity	1	8	3.76	$x =$ 4.92
	2	19	8.92	
	3	58	27.23	
	4	42	19.72	$s = 1.96$
	5	14	6.57	
	6	0	0	
	7	72	33.80	
				$n = 213$
17: More than one language talk changes	1	2	0.93	$x = 5.21$
	2	4	1.87	
	3	10	4.67	
	4	63	29.44	$s = 1.44$
	5	55	25.70	
	6	13	6.07	
	7	67	31.31	
				$n = 214$
19: Maintain native language	1	2	0.93	$x = 4.99$
	2	3	1.40	
	3	8	3.74	
	4	41	19.16	$s = 1.02$
	5	99	46.26	
	6	51	23.83	
	7	10	4.67	
				$n = 214$

* Rating correlates to 1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agrees/nor disagrees, 7 = strongly agrees

22: Parents lose authority	1	9	4.23	$x = 4.10$
	2	34	15.96	
	3	42	19.72	
	4	56	26.29	$s = 1.78$
	5	25	11.74	
	6	7	3.29	
	7	40	18.78	
				$n = 213$

Literacy Practices

Finally, the descriptive statistics of teacher responses for items pertaining to Hispanic home literacy practices can be found on Table 5. Teachers strongly agreed with items 24 and 31. Item 27 (Most Hispanic parents teach their children to read based on information sent home from teachers and the practices of the school) had a bimodal distribution. It was a negatively coded question, as a positive response (one above 4.5) would disagree with previous research. The mean for this question was 4.47, indicating that the majority of teachers agreed with this perception.

A large majority disagreed with the following items: 28, 30, 33, 34, and 35. These items (with the exception of item 33) were coded negatively when compared with previous research. The distribution for item 28 (Most Hispanic parents regularly have ritualistic reading activities with their children) was bimodal, but with a mean score of 3.79, the majority of teachers disagreed with this perception.

The distribution for items 23, 32, and 36 were in the middle, and the majority of teachers surveyed neither agreed nor disagreed with these items. Item 23 was coded negatively, and item 36 (In my opinion, the whole family is involved when a child in a Hispanic family is learning to read) had a bimodal distribution, but the mean is 4.05.

Table 5: Distribution of Teacher Responses on Items about Literacy Practices

Item #	Rating *	Frequency	Percent	Descrip. Data	Item #	Rating *	Frequency	Percent	Descrip. Data
23: Understand HW	1	7	3.29	$x = 3.94$	32: Literacy depends on culture	1	7	3.30	$x = 3.97$
	2	25	11.74			2	32	15.09	
	3	49	23.00			3	31	14.62	
	4	62	29.11	$s = 1.41$		4	78	36.79	$s = 1.48$
	5	48	22.54			5	36	16.98	
	6	7	3.29			6	10	4.72	
	7	15	7.04			7	18	8.49	
24: Writing Memorization	1	1	0.47	$x = 5.03$	33: Difficult Eng. + Span.	1	20	9.43	$x = 3.74$
	2	21	9.86			2	47	22.17	
	3	31	14.55			3	41	19.34	
	4	42	19.72	$s = 1.85$		4	31	14.62	$s = 1.85$
	5	29	13.62			5	35	16.51	
	6	1	0.47			6	10	4.72	
	7	88	41.31			7	28	13.21	
27: Teach school info	1	5	2.35	$x = 4.47$	34: Quantity same for all	1	98	46.23	$x = 1.96$
	2	17	7.98			2	69	32.55	
	3	40	18.78			3	25	11.79	
	4	67	31.46	$s = 1.69$		4	8	3.77	$s = 1.32$
	5	30	14.08			5	5	2.36	
	6	3	1.41			6	1	0.47	
	7	51	23.94			7	6	2.83	
28: Ritualistic Reading	1	17	8.02	$x = 3.79$	35: Reading same for all	1	63	29.72	$x = 2.39$
	2	53	25.00			2	69	32.55	
	3	47	22.17			3	46	21.70	
	4	35	16.51	$s = 2.02$		4	16	7.55	$s = 1.39$
	5	10	4.72			5	11	5.19	
	6	0	0			6	1	0.47	
	7	50	23.58			7	6	2.83	
30: See parents reading	1	22	10.33	$x = 3.43$	36: Whole family helps read	1	16	7.51	$x = 4.05$
	2	57	26.76			2	34	15.96	
	3	61	28.64			3	50	23.47	
	4	25	11.74	$s = 1.89$		4	40	18.78	$s = 1.96$
	5	12	5.63			5	20	9.39	
	6	0	0			6	2	0.94	
	7	36	16.90			7	51	23.94	
31: More involved more literacy	1	0	0	$x = 5.07$	* Rating corresponds to 1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agrees/nor disagrees, 7 = strongly agrees				
	2	2	0.93						
	3	7	3.27						
	4	52	24.30	$s = 1.00$					
	5	82	38.32						
	6	56	26.17						
	7	15	7.01			$n = 214$			

Inferential Statistics

To answer the second question of this study, which is whether teacher perceptions correlate positively with ESL-endorsement training, the following tests were performed: chi-square tests on individual questionnaire items, a blocked analysis of variance on the dependent variable of ESL endorsement, Tukey-Kramer post hoc analysis for differences, and Cronbach's alpha test of reliability. The results of the chi-square tests will be presented first, followed by a summary of the analysis of variance.

Chi-square Tests

In order to understand whether differences exist in teachers' perceptions when they are trained in ESL, the researcher separated responses for each item into those respondents with ESL training and respondents without. Those who classified themselves as "other" on questionnaire item 40 were not included in this analysis. The category of ESL-trained included 135 participants, and the category of non-ESL-trained held 56. Dividing responses into these two categories yielded different percentages between the two groups in each rating. To find out if these differences were statistically significant a chi-square test was performed on each item.

Pearson's chi-square test can be used to assess whether paired observations on two variables are independent of each other, or to test whether or not an observed frequency distribution differs from an expected distribution. In this case, the responses for teachers without ESL training were counted in the expected distribution, while the responses for teachers with ESL training comprised the observed distribution. As the two groups were not equal in n size, percentages of the frequencies were used. A problem may occur in using a chi-square test when the expected frequencies are too low. Normally this can be accepted as long as no more than 20% of the responses have frequencies below five (Plackett, 1983). For the current comparisons,

less than 20% of the responses ever had frequencies below five. Furthermore, when expected percentages were below 1, the percentage was combined with the subsequent or preceding rating for both the expected and observed ratings for the chi-square test. For this study the p -value of the chi-square test was set at $p < .05$.

Table 3.1 displays the results from Chi-square tests performed on items regarding Hispanic educational beliefs. The compared percentage of the frequencies can be seen in the two columns labeled *ESL Endorsement Percent* and *No Training Percent*. The degrees of freedom for each test varied depending on whether ratings had to be combined because of a low value. In the category of educational beliefs, the differences were significant in the responses of teachers with ESL training and those without on items 1, 2, 3, 9 and 11. For items 1, 3, and 9, these differences were also significant at the $p < .01$ level (with $x^2 > 16.812$).

Table 3.1: Results of Chi-square tests in comparing educational responses of teachers with ESL training and those without

Item #	Rating *	ESL Endorsement Percent		No Training Percent	Item #	Rating *	ESL Endorsement Percent		No Training Percent
1: Parents lack training	1	5.10		1.79	8: More important to be polite	1	2.54		5.26
	2	14.07		17.86		2	12.74		17.54
	3	11.85		5.36		3	17.83		12.28
	4	29.63		41.07		4	15.29		24.56
	5	24.44		10.71		5	27.39		26.32
	6	6.67		5.36		6	21.02		12.28
	7	8.15		17.86		7	3.18		1.75
Chi-Sq	x² = 35.05	x²>12.592	df = 6	significant at p<.05	Chi-Sq	x² = 14.75	df = 6	x²>12.59	significant at p<.05
2: Teachers concern w/ home	1	15.56		7.14	9: Education not necessary	1	10.76		5.36
	2	21.48		35.71		2	28.48		17.86
	3	16.30		23.21		3	14.56		26.79
	4	14.81		12.5		4	5.70		3.57
	5	11.85		7.14		5	21.52		26.79
	6	3.70		3.57		6	18.35		16.07
	7	16.30		10.71		7	0.63		3.57
Chi-Sq	x² = 14.18	x²>12.59	df = 6	significant at p<.05	Chi-Sq	x² = 16.95	df = 6	x²>12.59	significant at p<.05
3: Children obey teacher	1	0.74†		0†	10: Education means graduating	1	1.27		1.79
	2	5.19		5.36		2	8.28		14.29
	3	11.85		7.14		3	23.57		19.64
	4	24.44		32.14		4	11.46		10.71
	5	37.04		37.50		5	24.84		28.57
	6	13.33		5.36		6	25.48		25
	7	6.67		14.29		7	5.10†		0†
Chi-Sq	x² = 20.93	x²>11.07	df = 5	significant at p<.05	Chi-Sq	x² = 5.25	df = 5	x²<11.07	significant at p<.05
4: Success of family	1	.74†		0†	11: Traditional & authoritarian	1	1.27		3.57
	2	8.09		5.36		2	10.83		5.36
	3	13.24		21.43		3	9.55		10.71
	4	25.0		21.43		4	19.11		23.21
	5	22.79		16.07		5	29.30		33.93
	6	5.88		5.36		6	25.48		19.64
	7	24.26		30.36		7	4.46		1.79
Chi-Sq	x² = 10.06	x²<11.07	df = 5	not significant at p<.05	Chi-Sq	x² = 12.78	df = 6	x²>12.59	significant at p<.05

* Rating corresponds to 1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agrees/nor disagrees, 7 = strongly agrees

† Percent combined with the subsequent or preceding rating for chi-square test

The Chi-square tests performed on questionnaire items relating to language practices are shown in Table 4.1. There was a significant difference in the way teachers with ESL training and those without responded to items 15, 17, and 22. The differences in these items were also significant at the $p < .01$ level (with $\chi^2 > 16.812$ for item 22 and $\chi^2 > 15.086$ for 15 and 17).

Table 4.1: Results of Chi-square tests in comparing language responses of teachers with ESL training and those without

Item #	Rating *	ESL Endorsement Percent		No Training Percent	Item #	Rating *	ESL Endorsement Percent		No Training Percent
13: Moral advice	1	0†		1.79†	19: Maintain native language	1	0.74†		1.79
	2	8.15		1.79		2	2.20		0†
	3	11.85		16.07		3	5.15		1.79
	4	28.89		26.79		4	21.32		16.07
	5	18.52		16.07		5	45.59		51.79
	6	2.22		1.79		6	20.59		23.21
	7	30.37		35.71		7	4.41		5.36
Chi-Sq	x² = 8.38	x²<11.07	df = 5	not significant at p<.05	Chi-Sq	x² = 9.97	x²<11.07	df = 5	not significant at p<.05
15: Often build curiosity	1	4.41		1.79	22: Parents lose authority	1	5.93		1.79
	2	9.56		3.57		2	17.04		14.29
	3	22.06		30.36		3	17.04		25.00
	4	18.38		23.21		4	23.70		28.57
	5	6.62		8.93		5	11.85		12.5
	6	0†		0†		6	4.44		1.79
	7	38.97		32.14		7	20		16.07
Chi-Sq	x² = 19.21	x²>11.07	df = 5	significant at p<.05	Chi-Sq	x² = 18.37	x²>12.59	df = 6	significant at p<.05
17: More than one language talk changes	1	0.74 †		1.79					
	2	2.94		0†					
	3	5.15		1.79					
	4	27.94		33.93					
	5	25.00		26.79					
	6	5.88		1.79					
	7	32.35		33.93					
Chi-Sq	x² = 18.90	x²>11.07	df = 5	significant at p<.05					

* Rating corresponds to 1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agrees/nor disagrees, 7 = strongly agrees

† Percent combined with the subsequent or preceding rating for chi-square test

When Chi-square tests were performed on the items relating to literacy practices (Table 5.1), a significant difference was found between ESL-endorsed respondents and non-ESL-endorsed respondents with the following items: 24, 27, 31, 33, and 35. The differences were also significant at the $p < .01$ level for each of these items, except 33 (with $x^2 > 13.277$ for items 24 and 31 and $x^2 > 15.086$ for 27, 32, and 35).

Table 5.1: Results of Chi-square tests in comparing literacy responses of teachers with ESL training and those without

Item #	Rating	ESL Endorsement Percent		No Training Percent	Item #	Rating	ESL Endorsement Percent		No Training Percent
23	1	2.94		5.36	30	1	11.11		5.36
	2	11.03		12.5		2	27.40		23.21
	3	22.79		23.21		3	27.40		33.93
	4	27.94		30.36		4	11.85		10.71
	5	24.26		17.86		5	5.19		7.14
	6	4.41		1.79		6	0†		0†
	7	6.62		8.93		7	17.04		19.64
Chi-Sq	x² = 8.19	x²<12.59	df = 6	not sig. at p<.05	Chi-Sq	x² = 9.18	x²<11.070	df = 5	not sig. at p<.05
24	1	0†		1.79†	31	1	0†		0†
	2	9.49		12.5		2	0†		1.79†
	3	13.87		19.64		3	2.94		0
	4	16.79		23.21		4	25.00		26.79
	5	17.52		7.14		5	34.56		50.00
	6	0.73†		0†		6	28.68		16.07
	7	41.61		35.71		7	8.82		5.36
Chi-Sq	x² = 21.40	x²>9.49	df = 4	significant at p<.05	Chi-Sq	x² = 17.75	x²>9.488	df = 4	significant at p<.05
27	1	0.74		5.36	32	1	4.44		1.79
	2	5.15		10.71		2	14.81		12.5
	3	19.85		17.86		3	15.56		14.29
	4	27.94		39.29		4	34.07		44.64
	5	19.85		3.57		5	16.30		17.86
	6	1.47†		0†		6	5.93		3.57
	7	25.00		23.21		7	8.89		5.36
Chi-Sq	x² = 85.07	x²>11.07	df = 5	significant at p<.05	Chi-Sq	x² = 10.99	x²<12.592	df = 6	not sig. at p<.05
28	1	8.15		8.93	33	1	11.85		5.36
	2	25.93		21.43		2	24.44		23.21
	3	21.48		21.43		3	15.56		25.00
	4	15.56		16.07		4	13.33		17.86
	5	7.41†		0†		5	17.04		10.71
	6	0†		0†		6	4.44		3.57
	7	21.48		32.14		7	13.33		14.29
Chi-Sq	x² = 1.36	x²<9.49	df = 4	not sig. at p<.05	Chi-Sq	x² = 16.65	x²>12.592	df = 6	significant at p<.05

* Rating corresponds to 1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agrees/nor disagrees, 7 = strongly agrees

† Percent combined with the subsequent or preceding rating for chi-square test

Table 5.1 Continued

Item #	Rating*	ESL Endorsement Percent		No Training Percent
34	1	48.15		48.21
	2	34.07		26.79
	3	12.59		12.5
	4	0.74		8.93
	5	1.48		1.79
	6	0.74†		0†
	7	2.22		1.79
Chi-Sq	x² = 10.31	x²<12.59	df = 6	not significant at p<.05
35	1	34.81		19.64
	2	29.63		37.5
	3	17.04		28.57
	4	8.89		7.14
	5	5.19		5.36
	6	0†		1.79
	7	4.44		0†
Chi-Sq	x² = 22.38	x²>11.07	df = 5	significant at p<.05
36	1	7.35		7.14
	2	15.44		12.50
	3	22.79		25.00
	4	19.11		17.86
	5	8.82		12.50
	6	1.47†		0†
	7	25.00		25.00
Chi-Sq	x² = 2.15	x²<11.07	df = 5	not significant at p<.05

* Rating corresponds to 1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agrees/nor disagrees, 7 = strongly agrees

† Percent combined with the subsequent or preceding rating for chi-square test

Blocked Analysis of Variance

With the help of Dr. Dennis Eggett from the Brigham Young University Center for Collaborative Research and Statistical Consulting, the best model was devised to find the correlation between ESL endorsement and teacher perception. The demographic items of the questionnaire were analyzed first to determine if any of the items would act as moderating

variables in the equation. It was determined that the following variables played a role in teachers' responses to the questionnaire: their level of education, their proficiency in Spanish, whether or not they were a secondary education elective teacher, and whether or not they were of Asian ethnicity. In other words, teachers who had any of those characteristics were found to respond differently on the questionnaire; hence, their responses were blocked for the ANOVA. After these variables were blocked an analysis of variance was performed.

When the analysis of variance was performed for a correlation between ESL endorsement status and teachers' perception of Hispanic educational beliefs, the result was $p = .5287$. This result is not significant at $p < .05$.

The ANOVA performed on the dependent variable of language perception showed a slightly different result. The result was a p -value of 0.0012. A Tukey-Kramer post-hoc test was then performed to find which results were significant. This showed that teachers who are endorsed in ESL teaching, but are not currently teaching ESL students, had the lowest mean language perception score of 39.27, whereas the overall mean of teachers with other endorsement statuses was 44.39. The difference was significant between endorsed, but not currently ESL teaching teachers, and all other teachers, as can be seen in Table 6. ESL endorsement is coded with the following numbers: 1 = ESL-endorsed teachers currently teaching ESL students; 2 = ESL-endorsed teachers currently teaching only ESL students; 3 = teachers not trained in ESL; 4 = ESL-endorsed teachers not currently teaching ESL students; 5 = teachers who classified themselves as "other" (usually administrators, counselors, or paraprofessionals); and 6 = teachers with 1-20 hours professional development in ESL training.

The results of the ANOVA for teacher literacy perceptions were much the same as the results for perceptions of educational beliefs. The former test revealed a p -value of 0.3067, thus, not significant.

Table 6: Tukey-Kramer Post-hoc Test Result Comparing Language Practices to ESL Training

Dependent Variable: Language Practices						
ESL Training*	1	2	3	4	5	6
1		0.3336	0.9997	0.0173	0.7295	0.8519
2	0.3336		0.2858	0.0084	0.7398	0.1684
3	0.9997	0.2858		0.0306	0.6001	0.9589
4	0.0173	0.0084	0.0306		0.0025	0.1033
5	0.7295	0.7398	0.6001	0.0025		0.2216
6	0.8519	0.1684	0.9589	0.1033	0.2216	

* ESL Training 1 = ESL-endorsed teachers currently teaching ESL students; 2 = ESL-endorsed teachers currently teaching only ESL students; 3 = teachers not trained in ESL; 4 = ESL-endorsed teachers not currently teaching ESL students; 5 = teachers who classified themselves as "other"; and 6 = teachers with 1-20 hours professional development in ESL training.

Cronbach's Alpha

Cronbach's Alpha is a test used to verify that each item in a category is measuring the same issue. If all the items in the category are measuring the same feature the alpha coefficient will be approaching 1.0. For the Cronbach's test of these variables, the appropriate items were placed in the three categories of perceptions. The alpha scores for educational beliefs, language practices, and literacy practices were respectively as follows: 0.486, -0.142, and 0.0048. The significance of these values will be discussed in the following section.

Chapter 5

Discussion

The results of the questionnaire show that participating teachers felt more strongly about certain items than others. The discussion of these results is divided into two sections, the first section discusses teacher perceptions in general, and the second discusses correlation between ESL teacher training and teacher perceptions. Each of these subsections discusses questionnaire items that demonstrate a pattern in teacher responses and what these responses may suggest. The section on ESL training and teacher responses concludes with an explanation of the Cronbach's alpha used to test the reliability of the questionnaire.

Research Question #1

The first purpose of the present study was to answer the question, "What are K-12 teachers' perceptions of Hispanic literacy and language practices and educational beliefs?" To answer this question, 214 teachers in three school districts responded to the questionnaire regarding these perceptions. Overall, teacher responses are shown to have a central tendency. Of the 25 questions analyzed in the descriptive statistics, 68% had response means falling between 3.90 and 5.10 (min = 1; max = 7;). Teachers do not seem to have strong opinions about what is happening in Hispanic homes, presumably either because they do not know enough or because they do not feel these items are important. Nevertheless, this section will discuss items that teachers did feel strongly about. The responses for these items will be compared to previous research findings about the same issues.

Questions 3, 5, and 8 all ask about whether teachers feel that children should be allowed to disagree with their parents, or whether or not they should obey. According to their responses, teachers feel strongly that Hispanic parents have taught their children the importance of

obedience. These perceptions agree with current research which states that this is, in fact, the case (Orozco, 2008; Petelo, 2005; Rodriguez & Olswang, 2003; Valdés, 1996;). Teachers' perceptions on these items also corroborate with their responses on item 11 which states that most Hispanic parents hold traditional and authoritarian educational and child-rearing beliefs, to which teachers agreed. This finding reinforces Petelo's earlier data comparing the beliefs of Anglo-American and Hispanic parents (2005). It appears that teachers, in this instance, are aware of the desire of Hispanic parents to instill a respect for authority in their children.

It is interesting to note that although teachers feel strongly that children are taught respect for the teachers' position, they are unsure whether parents have the same respect. The mean of responses for item 1 (most Hispanic parents feel that since they lack special training in education they should not question the teacher's teaching methods) was 4.09, indicating that teachers neither agree nor disagree with this statement. Although past research has shown that Hispanic parents have great respect for teachers and esteem them as highly as they would doctors, professors, or priests (Auerbach, 1989), teachers do not seem to feel this respect. Similarly, teachers disagree with the notion that Hispanic parents feel that teachers need not be concerned with what goes on at home (item 2). From their experience or otherwise, teachers feel that parents want teachers to be involved in the homes of their children.

Items 4, 9, and 10 all relate to how Hispanic families define success. It appears that several teachers (25%) strongly agree that Hispanic parents put the success of the family above the success of the individual child. It may be worthwhile to question these teachers further to understand what experiences or training they have had for them to come to this conclusion. Teachers in general feel that Hispanic parents think education is necessary for success (item 9) and that this education includes graduating from high school and going to college (item 10). This

merits consideration as previous research is divided on this notion. Some researchers contend that Hispanic families have other definitions of success that do not necessarily include a good education (De Gaetano, 2007; Valdés, 1996; Volk & Long, 2005); whereas, Orozco found that parents strongly desired their children to get the best education they could (2008). Current teachers may be perceiving a recent change in parents' goals for their children, or the socio-economic make-up of Hispanics in the area where the study was performed may have influenced their perception of this item.

It appears that the majority of the teachers questioned agreed with the items relating to Hispanic language practices. They felt the most strongly about items pertaining to the practices regarding speaking two languages. More than 63% of the teachers indicated that Hispanic parents notice that conversation dynamics and topics change when the family speaks more than one language (item 17). Likewise, 75% of the teachers feel that Hispanic parents want their children to maintain their native language and culture while learning English (item 19). These two items corroborate with previous study on Hispanic language practices (Moreno, 2000; Peterson & Heywood, 2007). It is important to note, however, that teachers were undecided about what happened to the parents' authority when their children learn a language that they may not know (item 22); data regarding this item will be discussed further in the following section about the second research question.

Items regarding teacher perceptions of Hispanic parents' use of explanatory and narrative talk were inconclusive. In general, teachers feel that Hispanic parents speak to their children about moral issues more than they talk about things that would build or reinforce curiosity (item 13). On the other hand, over one-third of teachers stated that they strongly agree that Hispanic parents speak often with their children about things that reinforce curiosity (item 15). This item

was bimodal and 27 % of the teachers somewhat disagreed with this statement. To clarify what teachers feel about the language that is being used in the home, item 18 can be discussed. A third of the teachers strongly agreed that Hispanic parents often explain things about science and nature to their children (regardless of how much schooling they have had); yet, 25% of the teachers also somewhat disagreed with this item. Past research states that explanatory talk in general is not emphasized in Hispanic homes; although, it does increase with the amount of schooling in parents (Laosa, 1980; Moreno, 1991). For teachers to resolve misconceptions on this issue more research would be recommended as well as further teacher training.

The discussion of Hispanic literacy practices will be divided into three categories: (1) how parents teach their children, (2) how children learn, and (3) how many reading activities children participate in. Items 27 and 36 discuss teacher perceptions of how Hispanic parents teach their children to read and write. Although the majority of teachers are in the middle on this question (27), a significant percentage (24%) of teachers strongly agree that parents teach their children to read based on information sent home from school. This finding opposes previous studies which found that Hispanic parents usually taught their children according to how they were taught, rather than according to school practices (Gallimore & Goldenberg, 1993). Yet, this finding may only portray teachers' desire to feel efficacious and their desire to feel that their students are being taught the way they have prescribed and that it is working. Item 36 is indecisive and teachers do not know whether or not the whole family is involved in helping their children read. More training could help teachers understand the role of siblings and extended family in developing literacy.

Questionnaire items 23, 24, 32, 33, and 35 all discuss practices that Hispanic families use to learn literacy skills. Teachers' opinions range in the central area for how well they think

Hispanic parents understand how homework will help their children read and write (item 23). A slightly higher percentage of teachers reported that they somewhat disagreed with the statement that parents understood the value of homework (mean = 3.94). It would likely be worth knowing whether teachers felt this way regarding the practices of all parents (not just Hispanic) whose children may not be turning in their homework. Valdés (1996) and Gallimore & Goldenberg (1993) also reported that Hispanic parents in their studies did not understand how homework would help their children read and write, and that these parents instead used methods that they had been taught to teach their children.

The majority of the teachers surveyed agreed with item 24 which states that Hispanic parents believe that writing is a skill of rote memorization of words. This may be significant if teachers feel that parents see language as utilitarian rather than creative. The question may be raised about whether teachers personally hold the opposite opinion and become frustrated when efforts to build creativity are thwarted. Greater understanding may be gained by analyzing the responses to this question according to teaching grade level—do K-6 teachers have a different perception of what parents think about writing than 7-12 teachers? The current data may yield these results; however, because this was not a focus of the two research questions of this study, the answer to this question about grade levels was disregarded.

As was discussed in Chapter 2, contemporary research supports the notion that literacy practices can only be discussed within the cultural context to which they pertain (Auerbach, 1989; UNESCO, 2004). Items 32, 33, and 35 examine whether or not teachers hold this same belief. Items 32 and 35 offer contradictory results. On item 32, teachers were asked to state whether they agree or disagree with the opinion that “how a child learns to read and write depends on their cultural background;” whereas, for item 35, they were asked whether they agree

or disagree that “learning to read and write is the same for all children regardless of cultural background.” Item 35 was coded negatively because previous research disagrees with this statement. For this item 84% of the teachers said that they disagreed with this statement; however, item 32 reported that only 30.2% of the teachers felt that learning to read and write does depend on cultural background. Many factors may contribute to this discrepancy in responses. In responding to item 32 teachers may have felt a need to present a nonjudgmental, non-biased stance to the researcher, whereas, in item 35, they may have expressed their real opinion. Yet, the opposite may also be true. Furthermore, teachers may have considered only the first part of item 35, “learning to read and write is the same for all children,” and perceived it to be a question of cognitive abilities when they responded rather than taking culture into account. This issue of teachers’ perception of cultural influence on literacy is crucial to how teachers respond to their Hispanic students. Therefore, it would be beneficial to interview teachers to find out their understanding of these items, and further training in this concept may be required.

Item 33 asked teachers if they feel that it is more difficult to learn to read English and Spanish simultaneously than it is to learn only English or only Spanish. By a slight majority teachers disagreed with this statement. Their answers may need further analyzing to understand how their own experiences of language-learning affected their answer.

Items 28, 31, 30, and 34 address what teachers perceive about the quantity of literacy experiences available to Hispanic families. Teachers feel that most Hispanic children do not often see their parents reading or writing (item 30). They also strongly disagreed with the notion that the quantity of reading material is the same in the families of all their students (item 34); admittedly, this item may need a follow-up question regarding Hispanic families in particular because teachers may have interpreted it to mean quantity differences in literacy materials due to

economic differences. In ethnographic studies, Taylor (1993) and Valdés (1996) found the opposite to be true; they found that Hispanic families did, in fact, have homes rich in different types of print media and that parents were often using writing and reading, though perhaps in unconventional ways such as writing grocery lists or reading store accounts.

Teachers additionally expressed the opinion that parents of Hispanic children do not regularly have ritualistic reading activities with their children (item 28). It would likely be worthwhile to further question teachers about this to determine the source of this perception—are teachers going into homes? Do they survey parents to find out what the reading habits are in their students' families? Is ritualistic reading assigned as homework? On the other hand, teachers felt that the more Hispanic parents were involved in school, the greater the number of literacy activities they will have at home (item 31). Teachers should, perhaps, feel strongly on this point. In this way they can feel that the time they spend encouraging and instructing parents to get involved is efficacious and makes a difference for their students. They may have experience that shows the success of involvement.

Overall, the present study identified that teachers have strong views about the following issues relating to Hispanic home literacy and language practices and educational beliefs. With regards to educational beliefs and language, they feel that Hispanic children are taught strict obedience to their parents and teachers and that conversation dynamics change when there is more than one language spoken in the home. Teachers expressed the strongest opinion on these two items. For literacy practices, teachers expressed relatively strong opinions. They feel strongly that Hispanic parents believe writing is rote memorization and that the more these parents are involved with school the more literacy activities they will participate in with their children. Lastly, teachers adamantly disagreed with the notion that the quantity of reading

materials is the same for all their students and that learning to read and write is the same for all their children.

It is disconcerting to note that for many items teacher responses were so centralized (with means between 3.9 and 5.1). Teachers felt that they could neither agree nor disagree with the majority of the statements about Hispanic families. Perhaps they simply do not know what to think. It is worth further study to understand if this lack of opinion correlates with Hispanic parents' lack of school involvement.

Research Question #2

The second question of this study was to determine if teacher perceptions of Hispanic parent educational beliefs and practices regarding literacy and home-language correlate positively with ESL teacher training. To answer this question the data were tested first with a blocked analysis of variance, followed by a Tukey-Kramer post-hoc test for significance. For these tests, questionnaire items were not analyzed individually but as one of the three categories—educational beliefs, language practices, and literacy practices. The results of these two tests showed that there was no correlation between ESL training and teachers' perceptions of educational beliefs, nor between ESL training and their perceptions of literacy practices. Overall, in these two categories training alone made no difference. This is not to say that teachers had inaccurate perceptions in these two aspects. In fact, teachers may have gained quite accurate perceptions through their own teaching experience or through literacy training. Nevertheless, it may be said that two teachers, with all things equal except ESL endorsement, may harbor the same perceptions about Hispanic parents' educational beliefs and literacy practices.

The results for teachers' perceptions of Hispanic home language practices exhibit a different finding. The p -value of the ANOVA equaled 0.0012, which is significant at $p < .05$.

The Tukey-Kramer post-hoc test showed that the difference between the levels of ESL-endorsement was in teachers who are endorsed in ESL teaching, but are not currently teaching ESL students. Their perceptions of Hispanic home language practices were significantly different than other teachers. The question may be raised as to why the endorsement only made a difference for teachers who were not currently teaching ESL students. One negative explanation for this may be that these teachers understand differences in language practices because of their training, but feel that ESL students would be difficult to teach because of these differences. They may be self-selected out of teaching ESL. It would be beneficial to interview these teachers to further understand why they are not teaching ESL and what their background is in language education.

As a correlation was not found between ESL endorsement and teacher perceptions of Hispanic educational beliefs and literacy practices, the researcher chose to analyze the individual questionnaire items (in addition to the analysis of the complete categories) to determine if a significant difference exists between responses of teachers with ESL training and those without. This was done through Chi-square tests. Significant differences were found in several items; however, with some items, teachers without ESL training had a more accurate perception (or rather, more accurate according to previous research) than those with training. Nevertheless, the items where ESL endorsement made a positive difference will be discussed first.

Of the 25 questions analyzed, it appears that ESL endorsement made a positive difference on teachers' perceptions on only six items: 2, 11, 22, 24, 31, and 35. Teachers with an ESL endorsement more strongly agreed that Hispanic parents hold more strongly traditional and authoritarian educational beliefs than Anglo-American counterparts, and also felt that these parents did not necessarily want teachers involved with their home life. Perhaps these teachers

understand Hispanic family dynamics slightly better as they also reported that this authoritarian role may change when the children learn another language.

The three literacy items (24, 31, 35) where ESL training made a difference in teacher responses offer interesting, but inconclusive, data. Teachers with ESL training feel more strongly that Hispanic parents believe writing is a skill of memorizing words. In their research Delgado-Gaitán (1994), Moreno (2000), and Valdés (1996) all found that this is true. An interesting question to raise is how teachers who thus responded knew this; was it through experience or training? These teachers also reported that learning to read and write is not the same for all children and that when Hispanic parents are involved with school they participate more in literacy activities with their children. ESL teacher training courses include instruction in second language acquisition, literacy building, and family involvement, so it is probable that these classes made a difference in teachers' perceptions about these items (Brigham Young University, 2010; Dever, 2010; Wilson, 2010). See Chapter Two for more information about how these training programs may influence teacher perceptions. ESL teachers may also see Hispanic parents more, see them get involved, and see that it makes a difference.

For the following items, teachers without ESL training reported more perceptions consistent with previous research than did teachers with training: items 1, 3, 9, 15, 17, 27 and 33. These teachers agreed that Hispanic parents notice that conversation dynamics and topics change when their children learn another language (item 17); this raises the issue of whether teachers responded to the items based on what they know or based on what they hope. Teachers may wish to believe that in teaching Hispanic students another language they are improving communication at home also. This optimistic bias may have influenced teachers' answers for questions 1 and 3 also. Similarly, for item 27, ESL-endorsed teachers may have expressed this

same bias in their perception that Hispanic children are being taught based on information sent home. Agreement with this item, though perhaps consistent with these teachers' experiences, is inconsistent with previous research.

Reasons for these discrepancies between ESL training and teacher responses are worth discussion. It may be that current training programs need revision, with more emphasis on what is happening in the home and how teachers can profit from what students are learning from their parents. On the other hand, perhaps studies upon which items for this questionnaire were based should be revisited. Conceivably teachers' current experience with Hispanic families may be more accurate than past research.

Cronbach's Alpha

Cronbach's alpha test of reliability seeks to understand how well items in a questionnaire relate to one another. If the alpha score is high, it means that when a respondent has a high score on one item the score will likely be high on another item relating to the same category. For the items in the category of educational beliefs, the alpha score was low at 0.486. For language and literacy practices, the scores were even lower at -0.142 and 0.0048 respectively. Hence, according to this test the items for each category did not relate well to each other.

The question may be asked as to why this would occur when each question in the factors literally asked about education, language, or literacy. The problem may lie in the fact that participants' responses were too widespread. Most teachers responded with a neutral answer for most of the questions; however, for the same questions there were often slight peaks of teachers at both ends of agreement and disagreement. Simply stated, no common understanding seems to exist among teacher perceptions. According to the statistics consultant for this study, this is not an uncommon occurrence in research regarding internal perceptions. Even with a large sample

size and several demographic questions to block out moderating variables, a good method may not exist to eliminate variances in teacher perceptions due to individual backgrounds and experiences. Consequently, information from results to individual questions are likely more valuable than results to the three perceptions overall.

Chapter 6

Conclusion

The goal of the present study was two-fold: first, to identify K-12 teacher perceptions of Hispanic family educational beliefs and language and literacy practices; second, to determine if teacher training in English as a second language (ESL) correlated with these perceptions. The rationale for this research was based on the following facts.

First, the number of Hispanic students enrolled in public schools, specifically in Utah where the study takes place, is on the rise (Perlich, 2008; U.S. Census Bureau, 2006). However, these students have a higher risk for dropping out of school than any other ethnic group (NCES, 2008).

Second, a large body of research has focused on the impact of the home on educational outcomes. Gándara and Contreras (2009) stated that by the time children enter the school for the first time they have already stepped on the path that either leads to graduation or does not. From an extensive review of literature, home practices that lead to success at school were divided into three categories: educational and child-rearing beliefs, language practices, and literacy practices. Extensive research, largely qualitative in nature, has emphasized understanding these three issues in the homes of Hispanic families (Aukrust & Snow, 1998; Gallimore & Goldenberg, 1993; Petelo, 2005; Rodriguez & Olswang, 2003; Tenenbaum & Callanan, 2008; Valdés, 1996). However, little is known as to whether teachers are aware of these home practices and beliefs. Teacher perceptions of Hispanic home life need to be understood with the goal of narrowing the gap between what goes on in the home and what goes on in school.

Based on the review of literature, the present study focused on two research questions:

- (1) What are public school teachers' perceptions of Hispanic parent educational beliefs and practices regarding literacy and home-language?
- (2) Do teacher perceptions of Hispanic parent educational beliefs and practices regarding literacy and home-language correlate positively with ESL teacher training?

Summary of Results

A questionnaire labeled "K-12 public school teachers' perceptions of Hispanic practices and beliefs regarding Literacy, Language and Education" was used to answer the two research questions. It was administered to 214 public school teachers in three Utah school districts. The instrument yielded scores for each item as well as scores for the three categories overall.

To answer the first question, teacher scores were analyzed for each item. Taken as a whole, teacher responses portray a central tendency. Of the 25 questions analyzed in the descriptive statistics, 68% had response means falling between 3.90 and 5.10 (with a score of 4.0 indicating that the respondent neither agrees nor disagrees). Evidently teachers do not have a strong opinion about what is occurring in Hispanic homes. On the other hand, teachers felt more strongly about issues relating to literacy practices. They feel strongly that Hispanic parents believe writing is rote memorization and that the more these parents are involved with school the more literacy activities they will participate in with their children. Lastly, teachers adamantly disagreed with the notion that the quantity of reading materials is the same for all their students and that learning to read and write is the same for all their children.

To determine if ESL teacher training was correlated with teacher perception a blocked analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by a Tukey-Kramer post-hoc test was performed on the data. The ANOVA yielded a value of $p > .05$ for educational beliefs and literacy practices,

meaning that no significant difference occurred in the responses of teachers with ESL training and without in these two categories. The p -value for language practices was statistically significant at 0.0012. The Tukey-Kramer post-hoc test showed that the significance of this test lay in the difference between teachers with an ESL endorsement, but not currently teaching ESL students and all other teachers.

The researcher concluded that overall ESL training does not make a difference in teacher perceptions of Hispanic home life, especially regarding literacy practices and educational beliefs. As training was shown only to make a difference in endorsed teachers not currently teaching ESL students, it may have a negative impact on these teachers in that because of their perception of Hispanic language practices, they choose not to teach ESL. On the other hand, it is possible that these teachers do not enjoy teaching ESL for other reasons and they later develop their beliefs or opinions that were made manifest through this questionnaire. To more fully explore this result, focus questions should be asked of the teachers.

However, ESL training did make a difference on specific items. For instance, teachers with training better understand that Hispanic families hold more strongly traditional and authoritative child-rearing beliefs than their Anglo-American counterparts (see also Rodriguez & Olswang, 2003, Petelo, 2005, Orozco, 2008, Valdés, 1996). ESL-endorsed teachers also understand that learning to read and write is not the same for all children and that when Hispanic parents are involved with school they participate more in literacy activities with their children.

Implications

This study confirms the existence of a gap between Hispanic home practices and beliefs and teachers' perceptions of those practices and beliefs. Much of the data showed that teachers' perceptions were opposite of the reality confirmed by previous research (i.e. items 9, 15, 31, 32,

and 36). Nevertheless, for most items teachers simply did not have a strong opinion. Currently, teachers may hesitate including Hispanic families in school activities if they do not understand the differences that exist in their practices and beliefs. This implies that teachers need further training in these three areas. Their perceptions need to be strengthened by a foundation in research, but also experiences. One remedy to this problem would be a greater emphasis on the González “funds of knowledge” approach to teaching (González, Moll, & Amanti, 2005). This approach takes teachers out of the classroom and into the homes where they act as ethnographers to bring home practices into the school curriculum.

Changes in ESL endorsement training would be the most effective means of changing these perceptions. When intervening variables were blocked out of the equation, ESL endorsement did not make a difference on teacher perceptions. With several programs emphasizing socio-cultural linguistics and family and school partnerships (Brigham Young University, 2010; Dever, 2010; Wilson, 2010), endorsed teachers should have a better understanding of issues related to language and beliefs. Fillmore and Snow (2000) state that many children oscillate between two worlds in home and school, not only because the language is different, but because the cultural dynamics are also different. They suggest several matters that teachers must know about language in order to reach every child, including “how different dialects of a language affect language learning and literacy development” (p. 20). Greater understanding of how language practices differ in Hispanic homes would help teachers decrease the gap between these two worlds.

Teachers further need to understand cultural differences that may exist between them and their students. This may be accomplished by adding further readings such as Valdés’s (1996) ethnographic study or De Gaetano’s (2007) meta-analysis of the role of culture in Latino school

involvement, but arguably a more effective approach would be to have teachers learn by doing, not by reading. Pre-service, in-service, or practicum training for ESL endorsements would be benefited most by the inclusion of extensive involvement in the homes or families of the ethnic population of students they will be teaching. This can be achieved through ethnographic studies, interviews, conversations and other activities. Fortunately, teacher responses indicated that they had the greatest understanding in items related to literacy, suggesting that training in Hispanic literacy practices is likely extensive and adequate.

Limitations

First, although the second research question of this study addressed whether ESL training made a difference in teacher perceptions of Hispanic home life, this was not an in-depth study about the types of training that exist and the differences in what those types of training are teaching. A broad spectrum of principles may be taught in these courses, some relating more or less to what is occurring in the homes of students. Furthermore, training for teachers in English as a second language is not designed to focus specifically on Hispanic, or Spanish-speaking students, but on students from any ethnic background. Therefore, ESL-endorsed teachers may sift perceptions regarding Hispanic families from this training and merge them with other experiences and training.

Secondly, based on the results of the Cronbach's alpha test of reliability, the items that make up the three categories of educational beliefs, language practices, and literacy practices do not mesh well together. Therefore, any generalized statement about teachers' perception of one of these categories in particular may be erroneous. This limitation may have been overcome by performing a factor analysis before performing the analysis of variance. The purpose of a factor analysis is to find communalities among questionnaire items with the goal of making a

questionnaire more reliable by removing redundant or unnecessary items. It cannot be performed until after data are collected, but, once collected, the entire set of responses can be grouped statistically into factors to determine which items hold together the best. This means that rather than the researcher determining which items relate to each other and assigning them to a category, the responses themselves determine the categories. Thus, with the use of a factor analysis, future research may be performed with the same questionnaire, with a result of greater reliability.

Finally, although the sample size of 214 was rather large, caution is needed in generalizing the results of this study to a larger population, especially a population outside of Utah with a different cultural make-up.

Suggestions for Further Research

Suggestions for further research can be divided into three categories: revising of the questionnaire, further questioning of teachers, and better understanding of ESL training. Results from the Cronbach's alpha test show that a clearer picture of teacher perceptions would be gained by removing and revising some of the questions from the questionnaire. For example, item 29 which states that Hispanic parents monitor their child's fluency when reading should be rephrased to specify whether this reading is in English or Spanish. Also, items such as 6 and 7 may be removed from the questionnaire because so few studies exist to tell us on which side of the rating scale an accurate perception would lie. After revising and removing these and other questions, the questionnaire should again be pilot-tested. If possible, a second Cronbach's alpha analysis should be performed on the revised questionnaire before replicating the study. Another suggestion to improve the accuracy and function of the questionnaire would be to invest time in

further research to find out if the underlying practices and beliefs behind the questionnaire are still valid in Hispanic families.

One suggestion for further research that could be performed immediately would be a follow-up questioning of the teachers. This should be accomplished by a focus group or individual interviews to understand why teachers answered certain questions the way they did. Additional inquiry into how teachers view Hispanic family success and teachers' feelings about cultural influences on literacy would be valuable in removing ambiguity from the current study. An imperative part of this questioning would be discovering what experiences have led teachers to form their current perceptions. The data may also be analyzed as is to determine whether teacher perceptions correlate with Hispanic parent involvement at schools, and further, to determine if there is a difference between the perceptions of K-6 teachers and 7-12 teachers.

Finally, one last, but important, suggestion for further research would be to do a meta-analysis about the types of training in existence for an endorsement in English as a second language. One significant limitation of this study is that, although perceptions do not correlate with ESL training, the author cannot give conclusive recommendations for improving this training because of lack of research into what training the teachers are receiving. Such research would greatly enhance the value of this study.

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Appendix A

Table 2: Questionnaire Reference Table

Item #	Item	Research	References
1	Most Hispanic parents feel that since they lack special training in education they should not question the teacher's teaching methods.	Agrees	Nicolaus & Ramos, 1990, Auerbach, 1989, Petelo, 2005; Rodriguez & Olswang, 2003,
2	Most Hispanic parents feel that teachers need not be concerned with what goes on at home.	Agrees	Nicolaus & Ramos, 1990, Petelo, 2005, Worthy and Rodriguez-Galindo, 2006,
3	Most Hispanic parents feel that children should always obey the teacher.	Agrees	Valdés, 1996, Rodriguez & Olswang, 2003, Petelo, 2005, Orozco, 2008
4	Most Hispanic parents feel that success of the family as a whole is more important than the success of an individual child.	Agrees	Lynch & Hanson, 1998, Orozco, 2008, Valdés, 1996, Rodriguez & Olswang, 2003, Delgado-Gaitán, 1994; Wong-Fillmore & Snow, 2000;
5	Most Hispanic parents feel that children should be allowed to disagree with a parent if they feel their own ideas are better.	Disagrees, Agrees	Petelo, 2005, Rodriguez & Olswang, 2003 (disagrees), Delgado-Gaitán, 1994 (disagrees) Delgado-Gaitán agree
6	Most Hispanic parents feel that a child's learning results mainly from being presented basic information again and again.	Agrees	Petelo, 2005, Rodriguez & Olswang, 2003
7	Most Hispanic parents feel that children can learn best by doing things themselves rather than listening to others.	Agrees	Petelo, 2005, Rodriguez & Olswang, 2003,
8	Most Hispanic parents feel that it is more important for a child to learn to be polite to adults than to think for him/herself.	Agrees	Rodriguez and Olswang, 2003, Delgado-Gaitán, 1994
9	Most Hispanic parents think that education is important but not necessary for success.	Agrees	Valdés, 1996 (agrees), Orozco, 2008, (Orozco disagrees) , De Gaetano, 2007 (agrees— "knowledge is not necessarily dependent on schooling") Volk & Long, 2005
10	Most Hispanic parents feel that a good education means graduating from high school and entering college	Disagrees	Valdés, 1996, Delgado-Gaitán, 1994 (depends on how long family has been in the U.S.)
11	Most Hispanic parents hold more strongly traditional and authoritarian educational and child-rearing beliefs than Anglo-American counterparts.	Agrees	Rodriguez & Olswang, 2003, Petelo, 2005, Orozco, 2008, Valdés, 1996
12	Most Hispanic parents generally want to	Agrees	Worthy and Rodriguez-Galindo,

	help their children in school but they don't know how.		2006, Orozco, 2008, De Gaetano, 2007, Page, 2006
13	Most Hispanic parents tend to give moral advice in conversations with their children more than they talk about things in the , world that would build or reinforce curiosity.	Agrees	Valdés, 1996, Cervantes, 2002, Rodriguez & Olswang, 2003,
14	Most Hispanic parents speak more to their children about the physical, natural or psychological world when they have been in the United States longer.	Agrees	Moreno, 1991, Delgado-Gaitán, 1994, Wertsch, 1984
15	Most Hispanic parents talk to their children often about things in the world that build and reinforce curiosity.	Disagrees	Laosa, 1978, Laosa, 1980, Tenenbaum & Callanan, 2008
16	Most Hispanic parents who have had more schooling explain things of science and nature to their children and encourage questioning more.	Agrees	Moreno, 1991, Siegel et al. 2007, Laosa, 1980, Tenenbaum & Callanan, 2008(encourage questioning more—Delgado-Gaitán, 1994 p. 67, Laosa, 1980), Chavajay & Rogoff, (2002)
17	Most Hispanic parents notice that conversation dynamics and topics change when children or parents speak more than one language.	Agrees	Moreno, 2000, Valdés, 1996, Orozco, 2008, Delgado-Gaitán, 1994
18	Most Hispanic parents often explain things about science and nature to their children regardless of how much schooling they have had.	Disagrees	Moreno, 1991, Siegel et al. 2007, Laosa, 1980,
19	Most Hispanic parents feel that it is important for their children to maintain their native language and culture while learning English.	Agrees	Valdés, 1993, De Gaetano, 2007, Orozco, 2008, Quioco, 2006, Ada & Zubizarreta, 2001; Peterson & Heywood, 2007
20	Most Hispanic parents talk about the same things in the home regardless of whether or not the family speaks more than one language.	Disagrees	Moreno, 2000, Valdés, 1996
21	Most Hispanic parents often have conversations with their children linked to the goals they have for them.	Agrees	Valdés, 1996, Orozco, 2008
22	Most Hispanic parents feel that when their children learn another language (English) the parents lose their role as an authority figure.	Agrees	Moreno, 2000, Valdés, 1996. Delgado-Gaitán, 1994
23	Most Hispanic parents understand how their child's homework will help him or her learn to read and write.	Disagrees	Valdés, 1996, Gallimore & Goldenberg, 1993,
24	Most Hispanic parents believe that writing is a skill of memorizing words (rote	Agrees	Valdés, 1996

	memorization).		
25	Most Hispanic parents teach their children to read based on how they were taught to read.	Agrees	Gallimore & Goldenberg, 1993, White, 2005, Volk & Long, 2005
26	Most Hispanic parents often do not understand how the school-based tasks will help their children develop reading and writing skills.	Agrees	Valdés, 1996, Gallimore & Goldenberg, 1993, De Gaetano, 2007 (through their study the parents learned how the school activities helped their children)
27	Most Hispanic parents teach their children to read based on information sent home from teachers and the practices of the school.	Disagrees	Valdés, 1996, Gallimore & Goldenberg, 1993, White, 2005, Volk & Long, 2005
28	Most Hispanic parents regularly have ritualistic reading activities with their children.	Disagrees	Valdés, 1996 (Delgado-Gaitán, 1994—when parents have been in the U.S. longer they do have ritualistic reading activities—difficult because study had only 19 parents, p. 68,) Volk & Long, 2005
29	Most Hispanic parents will monitor their child's fluency (correcting pronunciation and helping to decode syllables) rather than discussing the main idea and asking questions when reading with their child.	Agrees	Gallimore & Goldenberg, 1993, White, 2005 (Delgado-Gaitán, 1994—agreed for parents who are immigrants, but not 1 st generation parents)
30	Most Hispanic children often see their parents reading or writing.	Disagrees	Taylor, 1993, Valdés, 1996, (Volk & Long 2005 agrees)
31	In general, the more Hispanic parents are involved with school, the greater the number of literacy activities they will participate in with their children at home.	Agrees	White, 2005, Orozco, 2008, De Gaetano, 2007
32	In my opinion, how a child learns to read and write depends on his/her cultural background.	Agrees	Auerbach, 1989, UNESCO, 2004, 2009, Wiese, 2004, Weinstein-Shr, 1990, Gallimore & Goldenberg, 1993, Minick, 1985,
33	In my opinion, it is more difficult to learn to read English and Spanish simultaneously than it is to learn only English or only Spanish.	Agrees	Moreno, 2000, Valdés, 1996 but most studies also say that it is better for families to learn their home language while learning English—Peterson & Heywood, 2007; Cummins, 2001; Fillmore & Snow, 2000
34	In my opinion, the quantity of reading material is relatively the same in the families of all of my students.	Agrees and Disagrees (different research says different things—	Gallimore and Goldenberg, 1993, Weinstein, 1998, Valdés, 1996,

		see note)	
35	In my opinion, learning to read and write is the same for all children regardless of their ethnic background.	Disagrees and agrees	Auerbach, 1989, UNESCO, 2004, 2009, Wiese, 2004, Gallimore & Goldenberg, 1993, Minick, 1985, -- opposite view: Taylor 1993, Delgado-Gaitán, 1994,
36	In my opinion, the whole family is involved when a child in a Hispanic family is learning to read.	Agrees	Gallimore & Goldenberg, 1993, Moreno, 2002 Page (2006), Volk & de Acosta (2003), Volk & de Acosta (2004), Taylor (1997),

Items 1-12: beliefs about education

Items 13-22: language practices

Items 23-36 literacy practices

Appendix B

K-12 public school teachers' perceptions of Hispanic practices and beliefs regarding Literacy, Language and Education Consent to be a Research Subject

Purpose of Research

This study is being conducted by Marisa Lee, a graduate student at Brigham Young University, to understand public school teachers' perceptions of Hispanic practices and beliefs regarding literacy, language and education. William Eggington, Ph.D., professor and chair of the Linguistics and English Language Department, and Ray Graham, Ph.D., professor in the department of Teacher Education, both at Brigham Young University, are faculty advisors for this study. You have been invited to participate because you are currently a public school teacher in _____ School District.

Participation

You will be asked to complete a questionnaire on the Internet which will take 15 – 20 minutes. The first section of the questionnaire consists of 36 statements about Hispanic families' home-life. You will be asked to circle the answer that best describes your opinion about each statement (on a scale of 1 to 7). The second section of the questionnaire is made up of demographic questions where you will be asked questions relating to your language and teaching experience.

Risks

There are minimal risks for participation in this study. However, you may feel emotional discomfort when answering questions about personal beliefs. These risks will be mitigated by explaining the purpose of the study which is to understand teacher perceptions and by ensuring the confidentiality of your responses.

Benefits

There are no direct benefits to subjects. However, it is hoped that through your participation researchers will learn more about how teachers perceive what is happening in Hispanic students' homes.

Confidentiality

All information provided will remain confidential and will only be reported as group data with no identifying information. All data, including questionnaires, will be kept in a locked storage cabinet and only those directly involved with the research will have access to them. After the research is completed, the data will be donated to BYU's Department of Education.

Compensation

If you choose, you will be entered into a drawing for one of thirty \$25 gift cards to Tai Pan Trading Co. as a compensation for completing the questionnaire. It is expected that this study will have 500 participants, and 30 gift certificates will be awarded. You have a one in seventeen chances of winning. Compensation will not be prorated. If you are chosen as a winner in the drawing, you will receive the certificate upon completion of the questionnaire.

Voluntary Participation

Participation in this research study is voluntary. You have the right to withdraw at anytime or refuse to participate entirely without jeopardy to your employment or relationship to the university.

Questions

If you have questions regarding this study, you may contact Marisa Lee, at (801) 787-6074, marisafrancais@yahoo.com or William Eggington Ph.D., at (801) 422-3483, wegg@byu.edu.

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

I have read and understood the above consent form and desire of my own free will to participate.

Click one of the buttons below.

I choose to participate.

I choose not to participate.

Appendix C

Qualtrics Survey Software

**K-12 public school teachers' perceptions of Hispanic practices and beliefs regarding Literacy, Language
and
Education
Consent to be a Research Subject**

Purpose of Research

This study is being conducted by Marisa Lee, a graduate student at Brigham Young University, to understand public school teachers' perceptions of Hispanic practices and beliefs regarding literacy, language and education. William Eggington, Ph.D., professor and chair of the Linguistics and English Language Department, and Ray Graham, Ph.D., professor in the department of Teacher Education, both at Brigham Young University, are faculty advisors for this study. You have been invited to participate because you are currently a public school teacher in Provo School District.

Participation

You will be asked to complete a questionnaire on the Internet which will take 15 – 20 minutes. The first section of the questionnaire consists of 36 statements about Hispanic families' home-life. You will be asked to circle the answer that best describes your opinion about each statement (on a scale of 1 to 7). The second section of the questionnaire is made up of demographic questions where you will be asked questions relating to your language and teaching experience.

Risks

There are minimal risks for participation in this study. However, you may feel emotional discomfort when answering questions about personal beliefs. These risks will be mitigated by explaining the purpose of the study which is to understand teacher perceptions and by ensuring the confidentiality of your responses.

Benefits

There are no direct benefits to subjects. However, it is hoped that through your participation researchers will learn more about how teachers perceive what is happening in Hispanic students' homes.

Confidentiality

All information provided will remain confidential and will only be reported as group data with no identifying information. All data, including questionnaires, will be kept in a locked storage cabinet and only those directly involved with the research will have access to them. After the research is completed, the data will be donated to BYU's Department of Education.

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If you choose, you will be entered into a drawing for one of thirty \$25 gift cards to Tai Pan Trading Co. as a compensation for completing the questionnaire. It is expected that this study will have 500 participants, and 30 gift certificates will be awarded. You have a one in seventeen chances of winning. Compensation will not be prorated. If you are chosen as a winner in the drawing, you will receive the certificate upon completion of the questionnaire.

Voluntary Participation

Participation in this research study is voluntary. You have the right to withdraw at anytime or refuse to participate entirely without jeopardy to your employment or relationship to the university.

Questions

If you have questions regarding this study, you may contact Marisa Lee, at (801) 787-6074, marisafra@yaho.com or William Eggington Ph.D., at (801) 422-3483, wegg@byu.edu.

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

I have read and understood the above consent form and desire of my own free will to participate.

Select one of the options below.

I choose to participate.

I choose not to participate.

Appendix D

Demographics: The following questions are for statistical purposes and will help us understand your teaching background. All information will be kept strictly confidential.

37. What is your gender?

Male

Female

38. What is your ethnicity? You may mark more than one answer.

Asian

Native American

Pacific Islander

Hispanic or Latino

White or Caucasian

Black or African American

39. What is the highest degree you have received? Mark ONE ANSWER.

Bachelor's Degree

5 or more doctoral credits, but no degree.

15 or more graduate credits, but no degree.

Doctorate Degree

Master's Degree

Other, Please Specify.

40. You are _____. Mark ONE ANSWER.

40a. Through which program/ school did you receive your ESL training? Mark ONE ANSWER.

- | | | |
|--------------------------|-----------------------|-------|
| Southern Utah University | University of Utah | _____ |
| Brigham Young University | Other, Please Specify | _____ |
| Utah State University | | |

40b. Have you ever had S.I.O.P. (Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol) Training?

- Yes
- No

40c. Have you ever had any other type of ESL training? If yes, please specify.

- Yes _____
- _____
- No

41. How many years have you taught?

- | | |
|-------|--------------|
| 0-3 | 21-30 |
| 4-10 | more than 30 |
| 11-20 | |

42. Which grades have you taught? You may mark more than one answer.

- | | |
|-------------------------|----------------------------|
| Kindergarten- 3rd grade | Middle school/ Junior High |
| 4th grade-6th grade | High School |

43. What subjects have you taught? You may mark more than one answer.

- | | |
|--|---|
| Traditional Elementary | Secondary Science |
| Specialty Elementary (i.e. computers, music, P.E., etc.) | Secondary Social Studies |
| Elementary Resource/ Special Education | Secondary World Languages, Please Specify _____ |
| Secondary Math | Secondary Elective, Please Specify _____ |
| Secondary English/Language Arts | Other, Please Specify _____ |

44. Do you speak another language in addition to English?

Yes

No

Qualtrics Survey Software

44a. What language(s) do you speak? What is your proficiency level? Please answer FOR EACH LANGUAGE.

Spanish	<input type="text"/>
French	<input type="text"/>
German	<input type="text"/>
Russian	<input type="text"/>
Italian	<input type="text"/>
Portuguese	<input type="text"/>
Chinese (Mandarin or Cantonese)	<input type="text"/>
Japanese	<input type="text"/>
Korean	<input type="text"/>
Other, Please Specify	<input type="text"/>

45. Have you ever travelled outside of the United States?

- Yes
- No

45a. What areas have you travelled to?

Canada	Asia, Please Specify	<input type="text"/>
Central America, Please Specify	Middle East, Please Specify	<input type="text"/>
South America, Please Specify	Africa, Please Specify	<input type="text"/>
Europe, Please Specify	Other, Please Specify	<input type="text"/>

46. Have you ever lived outside of the United States?

- Yes
- No

46a. Where did you live? You may select more than one answer.

Canada	Asia, Please Specify	<input type="text"/>
Central America, Please Specify	Middle East, Please Specify	<input type="text"/>

South America, Please Specify

Europe, Please Specify _____

Africa, Please Specify

Other, Please Specify _____

46b. How long did you live there?

- 0-6 months
- 6 months to 1 year
- 1 -2 years
- 2-5 years
- More than 5 years.

47. Do you have children?

- Yes
- No

47a. How many children do you have? What are their ages?

48. What percent of the student body of your school is Hispanic? Please estimate.

- 0-10%
- 11-20%
- 21-30%
- 31-40%
- 41-50%
- More than 51%

49. Do you agree with the following statement? Most of the Hispanics I teach have a native-like proficiency in English.

- | | | | | | | |
|-------------------|----------|-------------------|----------------------------|----------------|-------|----------------|
| Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Somewhat Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Somewhat Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|-------------------|----------|-------------------|----------------------------|----------------|-------|----------------|

50. Do you feel responsible for teaching all students regardless of their language proficiency?

- | | | | | | | |
|-------------------|----------|-------------------|----------------------------|----------------|-------|----------------|
| Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Somewhat Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Somewhat Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|-------------------|----------|-------------------|----------------------------|----------------|-------|----------------|

Qualtrics Survey Software

51. Do you feel that your school has a strong ESL support program?

Strongly
Disagree

Disagree

Somewhat
Disagree

Neither Agree
nor Disagree

Somewhat
Agree

Agree

Strongly Agree

51a. Please explain your answer to question 51 above.

Block 1

52. Are you currently teaching any Hispanic students?

Yes

No

52a. How many Hispanic students are you currently teaching?

Block 2

53. How often do you have contact with Hispanic individuals in your community?

Never

Less than once a month

Once a Month

2-3 Times a Month

Once a Week

2-3 Times a Week

Daily

I am Hispanic.

54. What is the name of your school? This question is optional.

Block 3

55. Is there any other factor that you feel would influence your perceptions of Hispanic home life?

Yes

No

55a. If you answered yes to the previous question, please explain.

Appendix E

Ethnic Distribution of School Districts

Data extracted from Utah State Office of Education 2008-2009 AYP Testing Data

Group	Total Population Tested	Total # Hispanics Tested	Percent of Total
Alpine School District	32,246	2,813	8.7%
Subgroup of Alpine Schools with high ESL populations	7,020	1471	20.0%
Nebo School District*	13,220	1,159	8.8%
Subgroup of Nebo schools with high ESL populations	5344	659	12.3%
Provo School District	6, 734	1,779	26.4%
UTAH STATE	410,234	59,507	14.5%

Retrieved on July 28, 2010 from <http://www.schools.utah.gov/main/DATA->

[STATISTICS/Educational-Data/Accountability-School-Performance/Accountability-](http://www.schools.utah.gov/main/DATA-STATISTICS/Educational-Data/Accountability-School-Performance/Accountability-)

[Reports.aspx](http://www.schools.utah.gov/main/DATA-STATISTICS/Educational-Data/Accountability-School-Performance/Accountability-Reports.aspx)

Appendix F

Dear Teacher,

As part of a study conducted by Marisa Lee for a Master's thesis in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), you are being asked to participate by completing a questionnaire.

The study is designed to understand K-12 public school teacher perceptions of Hispanic practices and beliefs regarding language, literacy, and education. You will be asked to answer 60 questions. Items 1-36 are statements in which you will be asked to state whether they agree or disagree with statements about Hispanic home life. Items 37-60 are demographic questions designed to collect information about your teaching experience, language experience, and other variables that may affect your perceptions. The questionnaire will take between 10 and 30 minutes to complete.

Participation in this study is anonymous and voluntary. Participation may benefit you as you understand your own perception of the culture and beliefs of your students. You may gain awareness of differences or similarities that may exist in the literacy and language practices of your students. This may motivate you to seek further education and training in to learn how to better help their Hispanic students.

After completing the questionnaire you will be provided with a link through which you will be entered into a drawing to receive a \$25 gift certificate to Tai-Pan Trading Co. It is expected that this study will have 500 participants, and 30 gift certificates will be awarded. You have a one in seventeen chances of winning.

To begin the questionnaire now, click here: https://byu.qualtrics.com/SE?SID=SV_3UcU1Pw0sTRzNYg

The questionnaire will close on April 16, 2010.

Thank you for your help!

Marisa Lee

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