The overall purpose of this study was to examine, record, and describe teacher practices that were considered culturally responsive to preschoolers with disabilities who do or do not share the same racial background as the teacher. Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used to explore the relationship between the teacher’s racial background and her teaching practices when compared between two preschoolers with disabilities. First, it examined teacher practices of African American and European American teachers across specific teaching behaviors to determine whether or not similarities existed across these groups of teachers when compared between the two children. Second, it examined the same teacher practices to determine whether or not differences existed in the interactive patterns of African American (AA) and European American (EA) teachers across these same teaching behaviors and the same sample of children.

Using a mixed methods research design, two African American teachers and two European American teachers from separate Head Start programs participated in this five-week study along with two children with disabilities; one from the same racial background and one from a different racial background as the teacher. Teachers were observed using a teacher-child interaction scale and missed opportunities records to document observed practices that could be considered culturally responsive. A single audiotaped teacher interview was used to examine each teacher’s articulated practices. Teachers were asked to complete two cultural-focused surveys to help gain insight in
their self-reported practices that could be considered culturally responsive. The utilization of qualitative and quantitative measures helped to create a profile of each teacher’s practices (observed, articulated, and self-reported) as she interacted with the children under study.

Results showed several similarities among the observed and self-reported practices for both groups of teachers, African American and European American. Across both groups, (a) the level of physical involvement differed between the two children; and (b) the teachers’ communicative style showed some variation between the two children, were common themes that emerged through the comparison. Additional outcomes suggested that some differences among the two groups were more indicative of each individual teacher’s personality and disposition, rather than solely her racial background. Future studies are needed on more pro-longed time within each teacher’s classroom to further understand the role of culture on the teacher and her practices.
This dissertation is dedicated with great love and adoration to my children, James Ellis
and Logan Noell, who never let their mommy give up on her dream. To my husband,
Kelvin, for his support of my educational endeavors and to my parents, Ellis and Mary,
who taught me to always do my best.
APPROVAL PAGE

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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Overview and Rationale

This research study begins with a discussion of current child care patterns in regards to the dichotomy of early childhood professionals being from a different racial background from the children in their care. These teacher demographics, coupled with the increasing numbers of children entering child care at very young ages and staying for longer periods of time (Ehrle, Adams, & Tout, 2001; Oser & Cohen, 2003), present a particular concern. Now more than ever, the child care experiences available to young children from diverse populations need to be sensitive and responsive to their cultural, racial, linguistic and ethnic backgrounds (Wishard, Shiver, Howes & Ritchie, 2003; Darling, 2003; Burchinal & Cryer, 2003; Hildebrand, Phenice, Gray & Hines, in press). Current researchers have called for increased sensitivity and responsiveness on the part of the service provider to the family’s and child’s culture (Barrera, Corso,& MacPherson, 2003; Turnbull, Turnbull, Erwin, & Soodak, 2006) as well as the child’s disability (Turnbull, Turnbull, & Blue-Banning, 1994). In light of the growing prevalence of children with disabilities who are from the same and different racial background in today’s inclusive classroom, this study will answer this call. By examining African American and European American teachers’ practices, the level of cultural responsive will be gleaned. Therefore, the important role of culture will be highlighted especially as
the need for culturally responsive classrooms and culturally competent teachers continues to grow.

The study will further address the need to give “voice” to African American teachers so that the body of research, within the field of special education, will continue to recognize the role of culture (Walker, 2005; Arzubiaga, Artiles, King, & Harris-Murri, 2008). While studies have been conducted that examine teacher practices in culturally diverse settings, this study seeks to explore the concepts of adaptive culture (Garcia Coll, et. al., 1996) and racial socialization (Demo, & Hughes, 1990; Lesane-Brown, 2006) and their possible influence on African American teacher practices and young African American children with disabilities behaviors. Adaptive culture seeks to explain the set of values and goals transmitted transgenerationally among African American families. Racial socialization provides an expansion of these values and goals. The pairing of the covert and overt messages (adaptive culture) and the demonstration of behaviors meant to assist an African American individual in navigating such realms (i.e. minority status, mainstream existence and cultural experiences) creates this multi-dimensional construct known as racial socialization.

The interactions of an African American teacher and the children in her care, particularly an African American and a European American child with a disability, provide a naturalistic backdrop for the possible convergence of these transmitted and internalized messages from the teacher’s past with demonstrated teaching practices and behaviors. Moreover, the implications of these concepts, adaptive culture and racial
socialization, and their possible demonstration by young African American children with disabilities in inclusive classrooms of European American teachers were also considered.

Furthermore, the cultural context of teacher behaviors on student outcomes and placement in special education classes (Arzubiaga, Artiles, King, & Harris-Murri, 2008; Artiles, Trent, & Kuan, 1997) has often been devoid in the research. Knowing that general ethnic differences are found in articulated teacher practices (Howes & Smith, 1995) this exploration continued to examine how teachers viewed their practices in a context that reflect their individual culture and that of the children in their care. Cross-cultural interactions such as these helped to illustrate Rogoff’s (2003) sociocultural model.

Purpose of Study and Research Questions

The overall purpose of this study was to examine, record, and describe teacher practices that were considered culturally responsive to preschoolers with disabilities who do or do not share the same racial background as the teacher. Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used to explore the relationship between the teacher’s racial background and her teaching practices when compared between two children—one from the same racial background and one from a different racial background. Furthermore, it examined teacher practices of African American and European American teachers across specific teaching behaviors to determine the extent to which similarities and differences existed across these groups of teachers when compared between the two children.

An integrative analysis of quantitative and qualitative data in which quantitative results were used to: (a) record scores based on observed teacher practices, (b) record
frequencies of no interactions between the teacher and the children under study, (c) determine the levels of teacher’s critical self-reflection regarding culturally relevant pedagogy and practices, and (d) provide a context for the qualitative analysis.

Naturalistic observation with field notes, and teacher interviews as qualitative methods provided various themes that were relevant to each individual teacher’s practices, each group of teachers’ (AA versus EA) practices and across both groups of teachers’ (AA & EA). Results from both the qualitative and quantitative measures were analyzed in two separate manners, thus, there are two results sections, one for the quantitative analysis and one for the contingent qualitative analysis. The sets of findings are synthesized into a single discussion section. Specific details regarding each individual teacher, her classroom, and her Head Start program were gained through a lead teacher and center demographic information sheet. Trustworthiness was established by having assistant researcher number one score the teacher child interaction scale and write field notes on each teacher once during the research study. Also, assistant researcher number two audited both the qualitative and quantitative measures to ensure accuracy and validity.

Theoretical Framework

Rogoff (2003) suggests that by recognizing the cultural aspects of the teacher and the early childhood program, a sociocultural model will be created. Based on the Vygotskian perspective, interpersonal interactions can only be understood in the context of, or with reference to, these same cultural and historical forms. Social and cultural institutions, technologies, and tools, therefore drive the nature and focus of interpersonal interactions. These same interactions in turn mediate the development of children’s
higher mental functions, such as thinking, reasoning, problem-solving, memory, and language (Bodrova & Leong, 2007). This model of culture, a sociocultural view, suggests that the researcher pay attention to the social interactions of participants. In this study, attention was given to the cultural nature inherent in all individuals across the classroom environment. This study recognized that race and culture was a characteristic of both the African American and the European American teachers. Therefore, the investigations of teacher-child interactions occurred within this context.

To conclude, this study examined, recorded and described teacher practices that may be considered culturally responsive to preschoolers with disabilities who do or do not share the same racial background as their teacher. Of particular interest was determining the level in which similarities and differences were reflected in interaction patterns demonstrated by African-American and European-American teachers when interacting with these racially similar and dissimilar preschoolers in an inclusive classroom setting. Knowing that general ethnic differences are found in articulated teacher practices (Howes & Smith, 1995), this exploration examined how teachers viewed their practices in a context that reflected their individual culture and that of the children in their care. Also, the degree to which racially transmitted messages received by the African American teachers as well as the African American children with disabilities influenced the observed teacher-child interactions was also noted. Furthermore, cross-cultural interactions were examined to determine the level to which each group of teachers could critically self-reflect as evidenced in their articulated and self-reported practices.
The next chapter will provide a review of the literature for the study of teacher practices while interacting with preschoolers in inclusive settings. It will start with definition of terms and a brief description of culturally responsive practices. It will be followed by the role of culture as an influence on teacher practices. Included in this review is a synthesis of the theory of racial socialization as a possible explanation of teacher behaviors and a description of relevant teacher-child behaviors. The last section will describe nonverbal communication which is interrelated to the interactions between preschool teachers and the young children in their care.
CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

Children less than five years of age account for more than 63% of children who receive non-parental care in the United States (U.S. Census Bureau, 2002). Non-parental care settings encompass any child or family-care center, relative or non-relative adult caregiver for which the child’s social, physical, emotional, and cognitive needs are met in the parents’ absence (Cole & Cole, 1996). A number of parent and child characteristics influence both the decision to use nonparental child care and the type of care used. Parental employment patterns, family structure, the ability to afford different child care arrangements, work schedules, the amount of time parents have available to care for their children, the presence of non-parental relatives in the household, and the region of the country in which the family lives are some of the characteristics associated with the use of different forms of care (Kreader, Ferguson, & Lawrence, 2005; Capizzano & Adams, 2004).

Capizzano, Adams, and Ost (2006) used data from the National Survey of American Families (NSAF) to investigate the child care patterns of non-Hispanic white, non-Hispanic African American, and Hispanic children under five years old. They found that African American children were also the most likely of the three groups to live in
families with the least amount of parental time available to care for children, live in households where either a single parent works full-time or two parents both work full-time. They also reported that African American children younger than five are the most likely of the three groups to be in a non-parental child care arrangement. Similarly, in their Early Childhood Longitudinal Study-Birth Cohort, Kreader and his colleagues (2005) found that half of the children born in 2001 were in some type of non parental care setting at nine months of age. Of this 50 percent, African American (63 percent) children were more likely to be in non-parental child care at nine months than their European American (49 percent), Hispanic (46 percent), or Asian (47 percent) peers. Additionally, African American children were more likely to be in center based child care setting at nine months than European American (9 percent), Hispanic (46 percent) or Asian (4 percent) children.

With increasing numbers of very young children entering child care at very young ages and staying for longer periods of time (Ehrle, Adams, & Tout, 2001; Oser & Cohen, 2003), a particular concern is ensuring that the child care experiences available to young children from diverse populations are sensitive and responsive to their cultural, racial, linguistic and ethnic backgrounds (Wishard, Shiver, Howes & Ritchie, 2003; Darling, 2003; Burchinal & Cryer, 2003; Hildebrand, Phenice, Gray & Hines, in press). Researchers have called for increased sensitivity and responsiveness on the part of the service provider to the family and child’s culture (Barrera, Corso, & MacPherson, 2003; Turnbull, Turnbull, Erwin, & Soodak, 2006) as well as the child’s disability (Turnbull, Turnbull, & Blue-Banning, 1994). Although early childhood providers are
predominantly female and European American (Hains, Lynch, & Winton, 2000; Darling, 2003), the dichotomy of teachers from one background in contrast with the children and families they serve from another tends to exist across most early childhood settings.

As the number of children cared for by nonparental adults in child care centers continues to grow, an important line of inquiry concerns the nature of interactions of teachers who may or may not reflect the child’s racial, ethnic, or cultural background. Early childhood settings are a natural environment where many children spend hours and learn, with or without teacher support, how to interact with other individuals who may or may not reflect their own cultural, racial or ethnic background. Therefore, a clearer understanding of teacher practices that may be considered culturally responsive is needed to better equip all preschool teachers, especially those teachers who interact with children with disabilities who are from the same or a different racial background. Due to the fact that teachers in early childhood settings do exhibit a wide range of behaviors and practices, some that could or could not be considered culturally responsive, it is important to understand the intersection of culturally responsive practices and working with young children with disabilities.

Head Start programs, for example, provide an excellent backdrop for a study of teacher practices and interaction styles among teachers whose racial, cultural and ethnic backgrounds are similar and dissimilar from the children with and without disabilities in their care. According to the 2007 Fiscal Year Statistics, 908,412 children were enrolled in Head Start Programs in the United States (Office of Head Start, 2008). Of this number, 51% were four years old and 36 % were three years of age. European American
children represented approximately 40% of the nationwide enrollment followed by young Hispanic and African American children, representing approximately 35 percent and 30 percent, respectively. In addition, during the 2005-2006 Head Start school year, 12.2 percent of the Head Start enrollment consisted of children with disabilities, (mental retardation, health impairments, visual handicaps, hearing impairments, emotional disturbance, speech and language impairments, orthopedic handicaps and learning disabilities). During the 2004 Head Start school year, 19,666 children were enrolled in the Head Start programs within the state of North Carolina. Thus, as the statistical information might suggest, a Head Start program provided an appropriate setting for a study of teacher practices within an inclusive setting. Furthermore, it provided an opportunity to explore McCullom and Yates’ (2001) assertion that preschoolers with conditions such as a disability, illness, or prematurity pose a special challenge to their teacher and her interactive style with them. They found that these preschoolers may be less readable as social partners or less able to respond predictably or positively to initiations from others. Therefore, such a classroom setting would assist in the exploration of teacher’s demonstration of culturally responsive practices.

This review of literature will start with a definition of terms and a brief description of culturally responsive practices. It will be followed by the role of culture as an influence on teacher practices. Included in this review is a synthesis of the theory of racial socialization as a possible explanation of teacher behaviors. Furthermore, teacher-child behaviors that are related to the current research agenda will be described. The last section will describe nonverbal communication which is interrelated to the interactions
between preschool teachers and the young children in their care. For the scope of the current research, it is felt that only specific characteristics of African American culture be provided to establish a cultural frame of reference. Throughout the review of the literature of the African American culture, similarities and differences as it may pertain to European American individuals will also be described to further understand the cultural nature of this research.

Definitions

Definitions of culture and cultural competence are presented to provide a frame of reference for the research. Given the plethora of meanings offered in the current literature, it is important that these terms be described as pertinent to the present research. Hepburn (2000) defined culture as, “an integrated pattern of human behavior which includes thought, communication, languages, beliefs, values, practices, customs, courtesies, rituals, manners of interacting, role, relationships and expected behaviors of a racial, ethnic, religious or social group and the ability to transmit this pattern to succeeding generations” (p. 4). Shweder and his colleagues (1998) emphasize the importance of recognizing the basis of how people rationalize and make sense of the life they lead and how that individual’s beliefs and doctrines are involved in that process. Therefore, the definition of culture for this study is any thought, communication, language, belief, and manner of interacting held by the preschooler’s teacher.

There have been many definitions of cultural competence presented in the literature with no consensus but many similar points. Likewise, the words cross-cultural and intercultural competences are used synonymously within the professional literature.
They refer to the ability to relate and to communicate effectively when the individuals involved in the interaction do not share the same culture, language, or ethnicity (Hains, Lynch, & Winton, 2000). Culturally competent services incorporate the concepts of equal and nondiscriminatory services. For the purposes of this literature review, the terms cultural competence and culturally competent defined by Hains, Lynch, and Winton (2000) will be used.

Specifically, cultural competence refers to a set of congruent attitudes, practices, behaviors, policies, and structures that are brought together in a system to enable professionals to work collaboratively and effectively with members of culturally distinct groups (Hepburn, 2000; Hanley, 1999; Patton & Day-Vines, 2004). Barrera, Corso, and MacPherson (2003) propose that cultural competence is an individual’s ability to craft respectful, reciprocal, and responsive interactions across diverse cultural and linguistic parameters. Moreover, cultural competence has been characterized by the acceptance and respect for difference (Cross, Bazron, Dennis & Isaacs, 1989) as well as the ability of service providers to respond optimally to all children in a manner that values and respects the culture and worldviews of the children and families as well as the service provider (Barrera & Kramer, 1997). For the purpose of this research study the operating definition of cultural competence was that of Barrera, Corso and MacPherson (2003) as it describes an individual’s ability to craft respectful, reciprocal, and responsive interactions across diverse cultural and linguistic parameters.
Culturally Responsive Practices

Individualized services can help to alleviate and oftentimes diminish unhealthy and damaging educational experiences for the child (Cartledge & Kourea, 2008). Individualized services begin with responsiveness to differences in race, ethnicity, culture, language, and other characteristics that contribute to human uniqueness. The Division of Early Childhood of the Council of Exceptional Children, DEC (2002) maintains that responsiveness, “grows from interpersonal relationships that reflect a mutual respect and appreciation for individual’s culture, value and language” (p. 1). Being culturally responsive is more than being respectful, empathetic, or sensitive. The dynamic nature of the word “responsiveness” suggests the ability to acknowledge the unique needs of diverse students, take action to address those needs, and adapt approaches as student needs and demographics change over time.

Similarly, a joint position statement of the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) and the National Association of Early Childhood Specialists in State Departments of Education (NAECS/SDE) (2002) mentions the need for effective early learning standards to accommodate the variation among community and individual characteristics in order to support positive student outcomes. These groups asserted that young children’s learning is intimately connected to and dependent upon their cultures, languages, and communities. Therefore, early learning standards and ultimately programs should be flexible enough to encourage teachers and other professionals to embed culturally and individually relevant experiences in the curriculum, creating adaptations that promote success for all children.
Responsive early childhood programs and professionals honor the values and practices within the families being served as well as among people providing services (DEC, 2002). Gay (2000) describes such teachers as cultural organizers, mediators and orchestrators of social contexts. Klingner and her colleagues (2005) state that teachers with culturally responsive practices help their students bridge borders between their home and school cultures, and build on the knowledge and skills that their students bring with them to school learning. In doing so, these teachers demonstrate their care, respect and commitment to each student’s learning abilities, desires, and potentialities. Accordingly, teachers need to be aware of their own culture and recognize ethnocentrism and bias in their own beliefs, values, and practices, particularly in judging social skills and behaviors (Gay, 2002; Cartledge & Kourea, 2008). Such awareness would allow teachers to realize that their worldview is not universal nor are their cultural norms absolute.

Howard (2003) theorized that teachers need to engage in critical self reflection. Critical reflection could involve the teacher responding to a series of pertinent questions concerning their teaching practices as it pertains to racial and social justice. Culturally aware teachers can then employ culturally responsive practices that respond to and understand culturally different behaviors in ways that are proactive.

For teachers of young children, the level of recognition and integration of diverse cultural practices each child and the family bring to the classroom greatly contributes to the implementation of culturally responsive practices. In addition, several teacher characteristics have been identified as promoting culturally responsive classrooms. Characteristics such as empathy, caring, compassion and flexibility (Gay, 2000; Monroe,
2005; Cartledge & Kourea, 2008) are particularly important for teachers of culturally diverse learners. Regardless of the child’s racial background or disability, teachers must believe in the young child’s ability to grow and develop.

Noguera (2003) contends that educational experiences for many culturally diverse learners, especially those with the greatest needs, focus so much on behavior control and punitive consequences that teachers fail to realize that these disciplinary actions often are counterproductive and counter to the child’s culture. Noguera postulates that disengagement in school-age settings can be linked to negative experiences while in child care centers, Head Start programs or other early childhood programs. However, a possible counteraction to the prevalence of school-age disengagement is the emphasis of a caring community of learners (Ladson-Billings, 1994; Boykin, Tyler, Watkins-Lewis, & Kizzie, 2006). Ladson-Billings (1994) proposed that within culturally relevant classrooms, teachers should work to create positive environments where there is a community of learning, focused on helping others as well as the teacher herself.

Support for such a community of learning is evidenced in Brown’s 2003 study of African American middle and elementary school children. Findings suggested that these children desired more meaningful relationships with their teachers. Through interviews, the children expressed that they did better in school when they felt they were important to their teacher. Moreover, the teachers of these particular children reported that they cared for their students. Not only are culturally responsive teachers caring, but they are also resourceful, committed and keenly aware of how communication and other teaching practices must be relevant to the child’s culture and disability. In regards to European
American and African American preschool teachers, it is important to create such caring, learning environments to ensure that their teaching practices create optimal learning for young children who have similar or different racial backgrounds. Thus, the intersection of the teacher recognition, and utilization of students’ identities and backgrounds as meaningful sources for creating optimal learning environments is relevant and will be examined further.

Teachers must be willing to take the time to learn and reflect upon their own cultural beliefs, norms and values that create the learning environments in their individual classrooms. Coupled with this developed sense of cultural competence is the teacher’s overt and covert recognition of the various cultural beliefs, values and norms inherit in the children that they teach.

Role of Culture

Culturally responsive practices are based on the premise that educators have recognized the unique cultural and developmental needs of the child. But “what happens to the scholarship when some voices are privileged and some are silenced, or worse, ignored?” (Walker, 2005, p.35). The field of special education often has ignored these voices and neglected the role of culture within research studies (Arzubiaga, Artiles, King, & Harris-Murri, 2008). Arzubiaga, Artiles, King, and Harris-Murri contend that the ideology of culture-blindness has permeated many research agendas and thus created an inappropriate, “cultural free” body of literature. Culture-blindness is an underlying belief that equality among people can only be achieved when cultural differences are ignored (Arzubiaga, 2007). Artiles, Trent and Kuan (1997) conducted a content analysis of four
notable, peer-reviewed journals in special education. The researchers found that less than 3% of studies published in a 22-year period noted such cultural attributes as student race/ethnicity and social class. Thus, these findings suggest that culture-blindness has detrimental effects for an American society that is changing so quickly along cultural lines.

As the demographics of the United States continually change, the norms, values and beliefs that exist within each culture are changing as well (National Research Council & Institute of Medicine, 2000; Artiles, 2003). For example, there is considerable variability among childrearing environments that promote healthy development, much of which is embedded in different values and cultural practices that are passed on from one generation to the next. Cultural practices are often unequally distributed across various members, thus creating hierarchies in which possession of or access to certain practices or skills are increased or decreased based on an individual’s membership (Arzubiaga, 2007). Arzubiaga and her colleagues (2008) caution researchers against the theoretical assertion that only certain individuals in society possess culture. The dominant group in society (i.e. European American and middle class) cannot assume that their activities, values, and practices are not cultural (Sue, 1999). This assumption helps to support the ideological belief that the cultural context of a preschool classroom, whether the teacher is African American or European American, is influenced by the teacher’s own cultural experiences, beliefs and values.
Sociocultural Model

The cultural nature of a each teacher’s inclusive classroom can possibly be explained by a sociocultural model. As Rogoff (2003) suggests, by recognizing the cultural aspects of both teacher and early childhood programs, a sociocultural model will be created. Such a perspective contends that culture is not just what other people do (Arzubiaga, et al., 2008), rather how these actions are conveyed and received by those around them. A sociocultural model assumes that human development and behavior are cultural and that the nature of social institutions (e.g., child care centers, schools, families) also has a cultural aspect (Rogoff). It provides a two-way, reciprocal perspective of culture.

McDermott, Goldman, and Varenne (2006) concur that the cultural context of what people do with each other is informed by the knowledge that each person brings to a certain situation and the institutional culture in which the interactions take place. For teachers of children with disabilities in inclusive settings, the sociocultural model recognizes the important co-existence of the child, their culture, their environment, as well as their disabilities.

Ironically, such a model has often been devoid in studies regarding culturally diverse learners with disabilities of any age. Harry and Klingner (2006) conducted a three-year study of minority students in special education. Through interviews, group discussion and document analysis, they found numerous examples in which negative historical residues about minority children and families mediated how school personnel represented minorities as different (e.g., ADHD) and lacking required academic skills. In
this context, it is not surprising that children who differ from the mainstream both physically and culturally are at risk for having their actions judged unfairly (Cartledge & Kourea, 2008). In cases where the young child has misinterpreted or is not fully immersed in the culture of the classroom and teacher, the child may interact in ways that may (a) unknowingly cause the teacher to become unresponsive and (b) create a learning environment in which the child may feel or look to be disengaged (Lawrence-Lightfoot, 2003). Thus, the distinct cultural nature of African American learners must be considered in the curricula design and implementation of all educational settings.

**Adaptive Culture**

Adaptive culture helps to further describe the mechanisms in which African American children may function within their educational setting. Garcia Coll and her colleagues (1996) use the term adaptive culture to refer to goals, attitudes, behaviors and values developed by African American families and children in response to the underlying influence of racism, prejudice, discrimination, and oppression in American society. In their research, racism, prejudice, discrimination, and oppression were identified as macrosystem contexts that mediate between an African American individual’s social position and access to any of the following: (a) adequate health care, (b) quality education, and (c) significant employment. The authors postulate that the physical, verbal and nonverbal responses of African Americans based on their individual social stratification deriving from prejudice, discrimination, racism and oppression differ from European Americans, when in similar situations. It is important to note that such culturally defined coping responses have been established by African American
individuals based on demands placed by promoting and inhibiting environments. A promoting environment would include any setting in which the appropriate number and quality of resources is compatible with the needs (e.g., cultural, developmental) of the African American child (Coll et al., 1996). Conversely, an inhibiting environment creates conditions that do not facilitate, and to some degree may undermine, the development of the African American child (Coll et al., 1996). Thus, adaptive culture provides an additional perspective when teaching African American and other culturally diverse children.

The role of culture cannot be underscored as the need for quality culturally responsive classrooms and culturally competent teachers continues to grow. As the body of research grows in these areas, the model of socioculture, and the principle of adaptive culture will aid teachers in further understanding their individual culture and its interconnection with children who share the same or different racial background.

Racial Socialization

Defining Features

The implications of a child’s adaptive culture are closely linked to a complex, multidimensional construct referred to as racial or ethnic socialization (Demo & Hughes, 1990; Lesane-Brown, 2006). During the 1980s, scholars introduced the notion that communications to children about ethnicity and race are central and highly salient attributes of parenting practices of ethnic minority families (Hughes, et. al., 2006). The terms ethnic and racial socialization were used to describe the transmissions from adults to children among ethnic and racial groups (Hughes, et. al., 2006). Hughes and her
colleagues explain that the two terms overlap considerably. However, the term racial socialization is almost exclusively used in research of African Americans, reflecting the historical and dichotomous relationship of African Americans versus European Americans in the United States. The term ethnic socialization is currently applied in research on multiple ethnic groups including African Americans (Hughes et al., 2006). Given the scope of the current research, the racial socialization is the more appropriate term in that it discusses discrimination, ways to cope with discrimination, and strategies for succeeding in the dominant society.

Additionally, there is no single identifier or definition for the theory of racial socialization. However, Lesane-Brown (2006) proposed an integrated definition that will be used as the basis for the remainder of the discussion. In this definition, racial socialization was defined as specific verbal and non-verbal messages transmitted to younger generations for the development of values, attitudes, behaviors, and beliefs regarding the meaning and significance of race, intergroup and intragroup interactions and personal and group identity.

Specific verbal and non-verbal messages that create the overarching phenomena of racial socialization recognize the simultaneous negotiation of at least three realms of experience necessary for an African American person (Boykin, & Toms, 1985). These realms, often referred to as the triple quandary, include mainstream, minority, and cultural experiences. Boykin and Toms (1985) suggest that there is a range of socialization experiences across all three realms that will exist in each African American familial structure.
Mainstream experiences focus on promoting the values and beliefs of the dominant culture (i.e. European American middle class). Because all African American parents participate in some aspect of the mainstream American culture, they prepare their children to navigate this context by conveying principles and practices that transcend race. For example, African American and European American parents might share a focus on life skills and convey the importance of such personal qualities as honesty and respect. Such universal constructs transcend cultural and racial boundaries. Therefore, African American children receive messages and guidance in how to co-exist within the larger American society in a similar fashion to their European American peers (Coard & Sellers, 2005).

In a dissimilar fashion, the minority experience is inclusion of African American children only. Although all parents seek to orient their children to external environments, the content of messages conveyed by African American parents is reflective of not being part of the dominant culture. Highlighting the minority experience is two-fold. First, it involves the preparation of African American children to cope with their minority status. African American parents recognize that being African American means that their children must be prepared for the underlying influence of racism, prejudice, discrimination, and oppression in American society. Such an approach expands upon the concepts of adaptive culture in that African American parents emphasize the need for their children to understand the social, economic and political influences that encroach upon racial equality and covertly or overtly convey this information to their child. Second, it prepares their child for their minority group status by seeking to assist children
in coping with aspects of being African American in the United States (Coard & Sellers, 2005; Boykins & Toms, 1985). Regarding minority experiences, Hamm (2001) noted a variation among European American and African American parents’ promotion of the ‘color-blind’ perspective in which the child is taught that they should not notice race. This perspective was less prominent in the African American parents’ narrative. Thus, African American parents recognize, at varying degrees, the need to familiarize their children with aspects that set them apart from their European American counterparts. Lastly, cultural experiences refer to the cultural customs, values, and patterns of behavior unique to being African American. The messages of cultural experiences can be both negative and positive; for example, they can encompass pride in one’s racial and cultural history as well as shame as the result of internalized racism.

Childrearing Practices

The mainstream, minority and cultural experiences of African Americans help to conceptualize the wide-ranging existence of African Americans. Additionally, these experiences indicative of explicit racial socialization is a distinctive child-rearing activity that has been studied in African American families. Over two decades ago, researchers began to investigate the notion that communications to children about race and ethnicity were vital components of parenting in culturally diverse families (Hughes et al., 2006). Peters (1985) described how racial socialization is a childrearing practice intended to promote, “psychologically and physically healthy African American children in a society where dark skin may lead to detrimental outcomes” (p. 161). Thornton (1997) contends that African American families at all income levels believe that racial identity has an
important impact on the amount of emotional safeguarding parents can provide to their children.

Through their analysis of 47 existing studies on ethnic and racial socialization, Hughes and her colleagues (2006) identified four emergent themes within these studies: (a) cultural socialization, (b) preparation for bias, (c) promotion of mistrust, and (d) egalitarianism. It should be noted that none of the aforementioned studies were included in this analysis. Furthermore, the theme of egalitarianism and the mainstream experience mentioned above are identical in concept. Therefore, a narrative on egalitarianism will not be included in the following sections.

The importance of cultural socialization, preparation for bias, promotion of mistrust and egalitarianism helps to differentiate various messages that may be conveyed by African American parents. Cultural socialization refers to parental practices that teach children about their racial and cultural history and promote cultural pride (Hughes, Bachman, Ruble, & Fulgini, 2006; Hughes & Chen, 1999). One in six African American adults mentioned messages about cultural pride when asked to reflect on messages they received growing up in their families of origin (Sanders Thompson, 1994). In several studies, African American parents have been more likely to report culturally socializing their children than preparing them for bias (Caughey et al., 2002; Hughes & Chenn, 1999).

‘Preparation for bias’ reflects parents’ efforts to promote their child’s awareness of discrimination and how to prepare them to cope with this issue (Hughes et al., 2006; Hughes & Chen, 1999). It is interesting to note that African American parents included in these various studies did not spontaneously state that they were prepared for bias or
they prepare their children for such bias. However, by using in-depth interviews, Hamm (2001) found that parents do discuss issues related to discrimination. Moreover, ‘preparation for bias’ is more prevalent among African American parents in studies comparing them with parents from other racial and ethnic backgrounds. In the Frabutt, Walker, and MacKinnon-Lewis 2002 study, only 5% of African American parents indicated that discrimination had never been addressed in conversations with their children.

Closely related to the concept of ‘preparation of bias’ is the parental promotion of mistrust of the dominant culture by their children. In their study, Hughes et al., (2006) defined the promotion of mistrust. The term refers to practices that emphasize the need for guardedness and distrust in interracial relations (Hughes et al., 2006; Hughes, & Chenn, 1999). Hughes and colleagues argued that messages that promote mistrust differ from preparation for bias messages because messages of mistrust contain no advice for coping with discrimination. Similar to the findings regarding ‘preparation of bias,’ African American parents did not readily admit to such a practice in response to open-ended questions or in survey-based studies (Hughes & Johnson, 2001). However, through intensive in-depth interviews, (Coard et al., 2004), African American parents did retrospectively describe articulated statements and comments made to their children to convey messages that taught defensive racial codes of behavior and emphasized social distance and mistrust.

The thematic nature of the racially socialized child-rearing practices also consists of several methodologies and predictors. Coard and her colleagues (2004) provided
additional insight into the methods parents use to convey racial messages. They found that African American parents used a variety of methods to teach their children. These methods included verbal communication, exposure, and modeling. Verbal communications included using reasoning, lecturing, and storytelling about race. In particular, books and other media depicting positive images of African Americans were purchased and read to the children. Exposure to cultural experiences such as African American art museums or culturally specific events (i.e., a Kwanza celebration) was another approach used by African American parents. Lastly, parents modeled particular behaviors such as not using derogatory language and encouraged their children to imitate that behavior. Therefore, the findings of Coard and her colleagues help to reveal the intricacies of racial socialization and add additional information to the definition.

The methods used by African American parents are not static or constant throughout their child’s life. Rather, such messages are adjusted according to children’s cognitive abilities and their experiences (Hughes & Johnson, 2001). Thus, parents with young children may be less likely than parents of older children to discuss racial issues with them, especially discrimination (Hughes et al., 2006). Accordingly, the frequency of some aspects of racial socialization may increase as children get older (Lesane-Brown, 2006). In particular, cultural socialization (i.e. cultural pride) or egalitarian (i.e. minority experiences) messages may be transmitted when children are quite young, discussion of more complex social processes, such as discrimination, may not emerge until children reach middle childhood or adolescence (Hughes et al., 2006).
Although the current focus of the research has been exclusively on parent-child interactions, the interactions of an African American teacher and the children in her care would provide a naturalistic backdrop for the possible convergence of transmitted and internalized messages and demonstrated teaching practices and behaviors. Wishard and her colleagues (2003) observed the interactions of European American, Hispanic, and African American children and teachers representing the same racial/ethnic backgrounds to examine culturally specific teacher behaviors. Results indicated that when African American and Hispanic children were taught by African American teachers, these teachers strongly articulated didactic learning practices. In these learning environments, African American teachers did not emphasize helping children learn through scaffolding nor did they initiate positive interactions with children. As Hughes and her colleagues (2006) would contend perhaps these findings could be more fully understood if the racial socialization processes of the African American teacher were examined and discussed. In their research they maintain that few studies, if any, exist that examine the extent to which the adult’s (i.e., parent’s) identities shapes racial socialized practices. It must be cautioned that racial socialization unfolds over time and is a cumulative process that builds over time. Therefore, an African American teacher’s practices may reflect a variety of messages that were conveyed to her across her lifetime.

Research describing racial socialization practices has encompassed the manner in which African American children are taught to navigate the interplay of majority, minority, and cultural experiences that are central to their existence. No studies currently exist that have used African American children with disabilities as participants. Despite
this limitation, the theoretical nature of racial socialization provides a framework to further the understanding of: (a) African American preschool teachers’ interactions, (b) African American preschool children with disabilities’ behavior, and (c) European American preschool teachers’ interactions with African American preschool children with disabilities.

Teacher-Child Behaviors

The juxtaposition between a teacher’s culture, the sociocultural model, and the theory of racial socialization provides a framework in which to explore and examine teaching practices that are considered culturally responsive. Ironically, the cultural context of teacher behaviors on student outcome and performance, identification and placement in special education classes (Arzubiaga, Artiles, King, & Harris-Murri, 2008; Artiles, Trent, & Kuan, 1997) often has been devoid in the research. Research, however, has enumerated a wide range of teacher behaviors that have had a positive influence on young children’s development (Bredekamp & Copple, 1997; Sroufe, 1996; Weinfield et al., 1999). Often, teachers are seen as secondary attachment figures for many children and possibly for some they may act as the primary attachment. This relationship may have a tremendous impact on the physical and emotional health of the child. Moreover, unique characteristics associated with the racial socialization processes of the family, child and caregiver may be at work through the daily interactions between the teacher and child. Repetitive interactions and day-to-day nurturing and responsive care facilitate teachers’ and young children’s meaningful relationships. These interactions influence not only attachment but the development of emotion regulation as well.
Farran and Collins (2001) created a scale to assess teacher-child interactions within a classroom setting. The Teacher Child Interaction Scale is a “version of the Parent/Caregiver Involvement Scale (Farran, Kasari, Comfort & Jay, 1986) that adapts the original scale for use in group settings with children from 18 months to 6 years of age, such as family day care homes, preschools, primary grades and child care centers” (p. 2). The scale evaluated the amount, quality and appropriateness of a teacher’s classroom interactions based on 11 behaviors. The behaviors included: (1) physical involvement, (2) verbal involvement, (3) responsiveness, (4) play interaction, (5) teaching, (6) control over children’s activities, (7) directives, (8) relationship among activities, (9) positive statements, (10) negative statements, and (11) goal setting. For the basis of this literature review, the following behaviors included in the Farran and Collin (2001) Teacher Child Interaction Scale will be used: (1) physical involvement, and (2) verbal involvement, directive, positive statements and negative statements will be used to help conceptualize teaching behaviors of European American and African American preschool teachers in inclusive preschool settings. For clarity purposes, the categories of verbal involvement, directive, positive statements and negative statements will be collapsed into a single descriptor “teacher talk” for the purpose of the review.

Furthermore, the previously mentioned six teacher behaviors were selected because of their particular interest for the current research study.

**Physical Involvement**

Farran and Collin (2001) describe physical involvement based on a continuum ranging from passive to active support (p 3). Teacher behaviors categorized by passive
physical involvement would include assisting a child to a standing or sitting position. Conversely, active physical involvement demonstrates the more affective nature of the teacher. Teacher behaviors would include touching, hugging, and patting.

Teachers of young children often use touch to communicate concern and affection for them. Touch, according to Field (2001) implies interaction with another, providing a sense of connection, while lack of touch has been shown to result in growth retardation in animals and in human infants as well. Infants and young children from orphanages who were left in cribs for extended periods of time and who lacked touch and a consistent, responsive caregiver demonstrated developmental delays as a consequence of this type of care (Rutter, 1998). This information provides support for the importance of touch, and other forms of active physical involvement, and the need of young children to experience feelings of connectedness and attachment with caregivers.

Secure attachments as created by active physical involvement helps to encourage relationships and invite further communication (Koester, Brooks & Traci, 2000). Touch may also be used to control, such as when a teacher intervenes when a child is about to break a rule or hurt someone (Kostelnick et al., 2006). Touch is also known to be a primary form of communication for young children who are deaf (Koester, Papousek & Smith-Gray, 2000), as well as children with other sensory and cognitive challenges. As a form of nonverbal communication, touch is a primary way in which teachers and preschool children interact and relate to each other.

Nonverbal communication within the African American culture reflects touching as an acceptable and appropriate form of greeting. Often times, African Americans will
slap hands or hug when greeting others, especially those individuals for which a high emotional attachment or regard is held (Taylor, 2003). The influence of such culturally driven demonstrations of physical involvement among African Americans must be considered when viewing the interactions of European American and African American preschool teachers with young children who are the same or different racial background. Such a consideration would assist teachers in creating a more culturally responsive environment in which fewer cultural bumps (Barrera, Corso & MacPherson, 2003) would exist. However, this is not to imply that European American do not hug or shake hands upon greeting, instead, such information provides a context for behaviors that have been cited as culturally relevant to African Americans (Hale, 1982; Taylor, 1997). More importantly, it must be cautioned that touch is culturally determined (Levine & Adelmann, 1993) and that all teachers, regardless of race, must be cognizant of these cultural norms to ensure that no child feels uncomfortable.

Teacher Talk

Regardless of cultural background, a plethora of opportunities exist for early childhood teachers to talk during the course of their day. According to Genishi (1988), adults in child care classrooms are the, “main conversationalists, questioners, listeners, responders, and sustainer of language development” (p. 3) for the children in their care. Much of this verbal discourse may not, however, engage children in cognitively challenging conversations (Massey, 2004; Hestenes, Cassidy & Niemeyer, 2004). For example, a teacher may devote considerable time to facilitate children’s play, but the conversations are not filled with rich, stimulating content. Moreover, the content of
conversations may vary dependent on whether the child has or does not have a disability. Chow and Kasari (1999) found that teachers, in inclusive classrooms at the start of the school year, initiated more negative and task-oriented interactions to children with disabilities than typically developing peers. Interestingly, at the end of the school year, teacher interactions to the children with disabilities were similar to children without disabilities. Hestenes, Cassidy, and Niemeyer (2004) found similar disparities in interactions involving teachers in inclusive settings. In their in-depth examination of the specific nature of teacher verbalizations, teachers tended to use more directives in one-to-one interactions with children with disabilities than with children without disabilities. Furthermore, when comparing the social/emotional (i.e. manners, turn-taking) and cognitive (e.g. describing relationships, problem-solving) nature of verbal teacher behaviors, they found that there were no significant differences across the social/emotional category. On the other hand, teacher’s verbal interactions were more likely to be more cognitive in nature when speaking to children without disabilities than when speaking to children with disabilities. Thus, for African American and European American preschool teachers in inclusive settings self-reflection on the types and foci of interactions with children with disabilities may be warranted. Furthermore, additional research in this area may help to further improve teacher verbal interactions with children with disabilities.

Similarly, distinctive verbal interactive patterns have been documented among African Americans and European Americans from both low and middle class socio-economic status. Heath (1989) described the interactive patterns of African American
adults and children; she stated that “older adults do not simplify or mediate the world for children of the community, but they expect the young to adapt to changing contexts, speakers, and caregivers” (p. 368). In addition, she found that African American adults asked children only "real" questions—those to which the adults do not know the answers. For example, an African American adult may ask the child “where are you going?”, a response that is only known by the child. Heath indicated that African American adults issued directives to African American children as well as responded to directives from the children. An example of the above in a classroom setting might include an African American child telling his teacher to “come look at my work now!” In instances, where there is a possible cultural mismatch between the teacher and child, such a statement may appear inappropriate and disrespectful. In a similar fashion, if an African American teacher utilizes a great deal of directives and reprimands, such verbal discourse are counter to the field of early childhood education’s ascription to the use of responsive language. Responsive language conveys a positive regard for children and encourages the child to voice and act upon their individual ideas and feelings (Stone, 1993). Restrictive language, which may be said of the African American teacher described in the above example, is teacher language that involves teacher control through such methods as issuing unnecessary or disrespectful commands, threats, or criticisms (Stone).

Nonverbal Communication

Teaching behaviors such as physical involvement, play interaction, goal setting and teacher talk encompass verbal and nonverbal discourse with the child. Nonverbal communication is fundamental to the growth and development of preschool age children,
especially those with a disability. Therefore, nonverbal communication is meaningful to study. Nonverbal communication is comprised of gestures, signs, and behaviors which are used instead of words, or in combination with words from infancy to adulthood connecting children to other children, as well as to adults. Emotional content and meaning is often conveyed more truthfully with nonverbal communication noted Kostelnick et al., (2006). Siegel (2001) agrees, noting that reciprocal, nonverbal cues and signals can unify two interactive partners. As observers and interpreters of the actions of others, preschoolers learn to imitate and maintain a sequence of interactions with others. Most children engage in nonverbal communication such as pointing, nodding, touch, proximity, listening and eye contact, along with more complex sentences. Some children with sensory impairments or developmental delays may have trouble processing nonverbal and spatial information or interpreting subtle social cues like facial expressions, gestures, and tones of voice.

Teachers of young children with and without disabilities also use nonverbal communication in their efforts to communicate effectively with preschoolers such as hugging, holding, eye contact, proximity, smiling, frowning, tone of voice, gestures, etc. Additionally, differences in cultural displays of gestures and other non-verbal behavior exist. Lee Rainwater (1970) describes such behaviors in African American children as:

Children learn they can gain attention by their ability to perform in expressive adult ways, by using the special Black language, by trying seriously to learn the current dances, by imitating hip and cool aspects of adult behavior. Young black children learn from early childhood the expressive styles of their community (p.220).
As previously described, nonverbal communication is generally specific and relevant to each individual culture. The appropriateness of certain gestures, signs, and behaviors conveyed varies, and teachers in culturally responsive classrooms recognize this factor and govern their actions accordingly. The overriding premise is what is considered usual or polite behavior in one culture may be seen as unusual or impolite in another. Therefore, care and time must be taken to appropriately define a child’s form of nonverbal communication in order to prevent incongruent consequences.

Conclusion

The current research study intends to leave Walker’s (2005) question “what happens to the scholarship when some voices are privileged and some are silenced, or worse, ignored?” (p.35) left unanswered. The “voices” of African American teachers and preschoolers with disabilities will be amplified as they interconnect with and parallel the “voices” of European American teachers and preschoolers with disabilities. European American preschool teachers as well as African American preschool teachers must use a cultural lens to recognize how their own culture and beliefs influences their level of physical involvement, play interaction, goal setting and teacher talk with preschoolers with and without disabilities who are the same or different racial background as themselves. In so doing, culturally responsive classrooms will be created where children with disabilities, specifically African American children with disabilities, will be afforded educational opportunities that accentuate their unique cultural differences in a proactive and positive manner. More importantly, the consideration of the importance of each teacher’s self-awareness of their own culture and recognized ethnocentrism and bias in
their own beliefs, values, and practices, particularly in judging social skills and behaviors (Gay, 2002; Cartledge & Kourea, 2008) helps to expand the current body of available research. Furthermore, presenting evidence of teacher cultural self-awareness, or lack thereof, would allow teachers to realize that their worldview is not universal nor are their cultural norms absolute.

By examining the cultural implication of the teaching practices of African American and European American preschool teachers, the important role culture plays within the field of early childhood special education will be brought to the forefront. Also, the interplay between each teacher’s culture, the sociocultural model, and the theory of racial socialization provides a framework in which to explore and examine teaching practices that are considered culturally responsive. Such an examination would yield valuable information in how to more effectively create, design and implement early childhood education and early childhood special education curricula and practices that are devoid of biased ethnocentric teacher values. Thus, understanding the intersection of how teachers can and do interact meaningfully with young children who share or do not share the same racial background is imperative to avoid inappropriate, out-dated or intrusive classroom interventions.

In particular, for African American teachers, it is important to recognize the possible influence of the transmission of adaptive cultural practices as well as racially socialized messages received as a child. This recognition then may help to better understand the teachers’ observed, articulated, and self-reported classroom practices. By observing the naturally occurring interactions of African American teachers, any possible
cultural and racial nuances that are conveyed through her verbal or nonverbal communications will be revealed. Emergent themes of African American teacher practices as they are compared and contrasted among the children from the two different racial backgrounds will assist in expanding on available research (Whishard et al., 2003; Garcia Coll et Al., 1996; Howes & Smith, 1995; Erwin et al., 1993).

Few studies have investigated the intersection of cultural differences and the types of interactions among African American and European American preschool teachers in inclusive settings. Studies such as those conducted by Chow and Kasari (1999) have looked at teacher practices with children with disabilities. Moreover, the types of research studies being conducted have involved (a) all children enrolled in early childhood education programs, and (b) preschool-aged children with disabilities. The current research would help to add to existing literature by examining teacher practices within a cultural context. In so doing, the purpose of the study would be two-fold. It would contribute to the literature by providing a much needed perspective from African-American teachers. Furthermore, the current study would contribute to existing research examining teacher interactions with young children with disabilities. Therefore, the current research study would examine, explore and describe teacher practices that may be considered culturally responsive to preschoolers with a disability who do or do not share the same racial background as the teacher. Furthermore, specific attention would be given to any similarities or differences that are evidenced in the practices of European American and African American preschool teachers in Head Start Programs with both an
African American child with a disability and European American child with a disability in their classroom.
CHAPTER III

METHODS

Design

This research study employed a mixed methods design. Brewer and Hunter (1989) noted that a mixed methods research design is a “legitimate inquiry approach.” Creswell (2005) defined this methodology as a “procedure for collecting, analyzing and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study to understand a research problem” (p. 510). Onwuegbuzie & Leech (2004) contend that mixed methods help to bridge qualitative and quantitative research. A triangulation mixed methods design allows the researcher to simultaneously collect qualitative and quantitative data (Creswell, 2005). A mixed methods analysis entails the use of qualitative and quantitative analytical techniques that are implemented either concurrently (at the same time or in a relatively close time frame) or sequentially (one form of analysis is conducted first and it informs the other type of analysis) from which interpretations are made in a parallel or an integrative or an iterative manner (Onwuegbuzie & Teddlie 2003; Teddlie & Tashakkori 2009). For the purposes of this study, data were collected concurrently and interpretations were made in an integrative manner.

The goal of the present study was to use both quantitative and qualitative methods so that cultural implications of each teacher’s practices with preschoolers with a
disability who are from different and similar racial background would emerge. Through simultaneous gathering of qualitative and quantitative measures, a greater understanding of possible similarities and differences in interaction patterns demonstrated by African American and European American teachers when interacting with preschoolers from the same and different racial background was gained. The goal was not to make generalizations to other populations or settings, but to focus on describing the unique attributes or qualities of each case or teacher (Stake, 1995). The researcher sought to develop an in-depth understanding of each teacher by collecting multiple forms of data. A greater weight and emphasis was given to the qualitative data in order to provide rich descriptions, emergent and salient themes, as well as basic assertions (Creswell, 2005).

An integrative analysis of quantitative and qualitative data was used in which quantitative results were used to: (a) record scores based on observed teacher practices, (b) record frequencies of no and missed interactions between the teacher and the children under study, (c) determine the levels of teacher’s critical self-reflection regarding culturally relevant pedagogy and practices, and (d) provide a context for the qualitative analysis. A teacher-child interaction scale, two culturally-focused self assessments and a missed opportunities record provided numeric values that served to refute or support the observed, articulated, and self-reported practices of each teacher. A teacher-child interaction scale scored the teacher’s use of culturally responsive teaching practices, while the missed opportunities checklist was used to record the number of initiations to interact by both the teacher and the child and whether or not a verbal or nonverbal response was received from the other party.
Naturalistic observation with field notes, and teacher interviews as qualitative methods formed the foundation of this type of data collection. Natural observation and interviews as qualitative methods facilitated the examination of teacher practices and behaviors and provided various themes. Themes that were relevant to each individual teacher’s practices, each group of teachers’ (AA versus EA) practices and across both groups of teachers’ (AA & EA) practices provided the richness of detail that may be difficult to obtain with quantitative methods. Lead teacher and Head Start center demographic data sheets also provided additional information regarding specific characteristics of each teacher’s classroom as well as the entire center. Thus, as previously mentioned, more priority was given to the qualitative measures as will be evidenced throughout the remainder of this chapter as well as the two subsequent chapters.

These multiple sources of data collection allowed for an interpretive perspective and examination of the patterns of teachers practices and behaviors. This is a benefit of mixed methods because it helps to develop a better understanding of how each teacher interacts. Specifically, this study examined, recorded, and described teacher practices that were considered culturally responsive to preschoolers with disabilities who do or do not share the same racial background as the teacher. Moreover, two foci were explored: (a) whether or not similarities existed in the interactive patterns of African American and European American teachers across specific teaching behaviors when compared between the two children, and (b) whether or not differences existed in the interactive patterns of African American and European American teachers across specific teaching behaviors.
when compared between the two children. Documenting practices of two European American and two African American preschool teachers’ in inclusive classrooms provided an in depth understanding of how they might be interacting with children with disabilities who are from the same and different racial backgrounds.

Participants

The participants included two African American and two European American preschool teachers who worked for a Head Start program. Selection criteria for teachers to participate in the research study are as followed. Participating lead preschool teachers were: (a) African American or European American, with a total of two each; (b) had an Associate’s degree; (c) worked in the area of early childhood care and education and/or early childhood special education for at least one year; and (d) had been the teacher of the classroom under study for at least six weeks. Initially, each lead teacher’s racial background was reported by the facility’s director, but this information was verbally confirmed with each lead teacher by the researcher during a meeting with her and the director. At this meeting, the researcher further discussed the study, reviewed required criteria, and answered any questions. Upon conclusion of this meeting, a signed consent form from the director was received by the researcher from two of the four centers. The remaining two centers required an Administrative Director from the county’s main Head Start office to approve the study. Once this approval was received, a signed consent letter was provided to the researcher. Assistant teachers were informed of the study by the center directors. However, the researcher provided each assistant teacher with an opportunity to ask questions prior to the start of the study.
Selection of the two African American and two European American preschool lead teachers and classrooms was based upon permission and signed consent of the Head Start directors, lead teachers, and assistant teachers. Upon final approval from the University of North Carolina Greensboro Internal Review Board (IRB) committee, the Head Start directors who provided letters of support were contacted. The lead teachers and assistant teachers were asked to sign the Internal Review Board (IRB) consent for participation form, acknowledging their agreement to be involved in the study. The director, lead teacher, and assistant teachers also were given signed statements of confidentiality from the lead researcher, assistant researchers’ number one, and number two and the transcriptionist, assuring them of the anonymity of each Head Start center, staff, teachers, children, and families.

The following table illustrates the demographic data that were collected on each preschool lead teacher. This information was compiled from the demographic data sheet completed by each preschool lead teacher (Appendix A).

Table 1

**Teacher Demographic Information**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic</th>
<th>Dee</th>
<th>Tamera</th>
<th>Delma</th>
<th>Lynette</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Racial Background</td>
<td>AA</td>
<td>AA</td>
<td>EA</td>
<td>EA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age Range</td>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>60-69</td>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>50-59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of years in inclusive setting</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of years teaching preschoolers age 3 to 4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Types of educational opportunities on culturally diverse children

- On-site staff development, college course work, other Pre-service training,
- On-site staff development, state conferences, college course work
- On-site staff development, local conferences, college course work
- On-site staff development, local conferences, college course work, other agency training

Types of educational opportunities on working with at risk children or children with disabilities

- On-site staff development, college course work, other Pre-service training,
- On-site staff development, college course work
- On-site staff development, local conferences, college course work
- On-site staff development, local conferences, college course work, other agency training

Educational level

- Associate
- Associate
- Associate
- Associate

While the primary focus of the research study was on the lead teacher, the assistant teachers were participants as well. The assistant teachers were notified of their indirect participation in the study by the researcher. Whenever an assistant teacher interacted with the lead teacher or together with the lead teacher and the children, it was not recorded on the teacher-child interaction scale. However, her behaviors and interactions with the children under study (the African American and European American children with a disability) were considered supplementary. When these exchanges occurred, the teacher assistant’s interactions were recorded on the ‘contextual factors sheet’ (see Appendix D) and were used to expand upon and explain the lead teacher’s behaviors.

Two children, an African American and a European American child both with a speech language disability enrolled in the preschool classrooms of the lead teachers selected for the study, were also participants. These two children were considered the
‘children under study” and their participation was primary. However, consent forms to participate were provided to all children in the selected classrooms. Therefore, any preschoolers (aged three to five years old) together with the “children under study” and with parent permission, were observed as they interacted with the lead teacher during the five days of data collection in their classroom. There were a total of 47 children who participated in the study. Additionally, lead teachers were interviewed to examine specific teacher-child interactions to identify the different ways the lead teachers and the children with a disability interacted and what practices the teachers used.

Table 2 and 3 illustrate the demographic data collected on the children in each selected classroom. This information was compiled from the demographic data sheet completed by each preschool lead teacher. Appendix A contains the preschool lead teacher demographic sheet.

Setting

Participating Head Start centers were located in the Piedmont region of North Carolina and had a four or five-star rating. A list of Head Start programs from twenty-one counties of the Piedmont region of North Carolina were accessed from the North Carolina Office of School Readiness website. This list then was compared to a list of all four and five star licensed head starts accessed from the North Carolina Division of Child Development website. The star rating licensing system in North Carolina was established to provide parents and service providers with an indicator of overall global quality of child care centers with ratings ranging from one to five, with a five star being the highest a center can receive. Only four, and five-star licensed Head Starts were asked to
participate. By inviting participation from only four, and five-star licensed centers, this ensured a basic level of quality across the four centers participating in the study. Phone calls to identified Head Start programs were made until the required criteria were found and the directors and teachers gave permission.

All centers served income eligible children 3, 4, and 5 years old and provided a free social and educational opportunity in a federally funded setting. With the exception of one center, each was on its own campus. Two of the four Head Start centers did not have the facilities to prepare meals for the children and as a result, meals were transported daily to the center. Most of the children were transported to and from the center by Head Start staff. In addition, participating Head Start centers (a) had a four or five star rating, (b) had one classroom of children between the ages of 36-60 months with an African American or European American female teacher, and (c) the selected classroom had at least one African American child with a disability and least one European American child with a disability. The following tables illustrate the demographic data that were collected on each Head Start center as well as each individual classroom. This information was compiled from the demographic data sheet completed by each Head Start program director (see Appendix B for the center demographic sheet).

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Age of children in class (in years)</th>
<th>Age of children in center (in years)</th>
<th># of children in class</th>
<th># of children in center</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dee</td>
<td>3- 4 ½ years</td>
<td>6 weeks-6 years</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3

Center Demographics - racial background

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Race of children in class</th>
<th>Race of all children in center</th>
<th># of children with disability by category &amp; race in class</th>
<th># of children with disability by category &amp; race in center</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dee</td>
<td>AA, EA, HS</td>
<td>AA, AS, EA, HS</td>
<td>3 speech- AA, 1 speech- EA</td>
<td>3 speech- AA, 4 speech- EA, 2 multiple- AA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tamera</td>
<td>AA, EA</td>
<td>AA, EA</td>
<td>1 speech -AA, 1 speech- EA</td>
<td>1 speech -AA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delma</td>
<td>AA, EA, HS, NH</td>
<td>AA, AS, E, EA, HS</td>
<td>1 speech- AA, 1 speech- EA, 1 speech- HS, 1 multiple- AA</td>
<td>2 speech- AA, 1 speech- EA, 1 speech- HS, 1 multiple- AA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lynette</td>
<td>AA, EA</td>
<td>AA, AI, EA</td>
<td>1 speech -AA, 1 speech- EA</td>
<td>7 speech -AA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. AA is used to denote African American; AI denotes American Indian; AS denotes Asian; EA denotes European American; E denotes European; HS denotes Hispanic; NH denotes Native Hawaiian.
Measures

Measures for the study included the adapted version of the *Teacher-Child Interaction Scale*, TCIS (Farran & Collins, 2001), missed opportunities record, the adapted version of the *Crosswalks Assessment of Student Knowledge and Skills* (CASKS, 2005), the *Promoting Cultural Diversity and Linguistic Competency: Self-Assessment Checklist (PCLC)* (National Center for Cultural Competence, 2005), teacher observation with fieldnotes, teacher interview, lead teacher demographics sheet, and Head Start program director demographics sheet. Figure 1 illustrates the dynamic nature of this comparison of the multiple data sources.

**Figure 1**

*Dynamic Nature of Data Sources*

Each measure is found in the Appendixes and how it was used in the study is discussed in more detail in upcoming sections. Table 4 illustrates the sources of data as
they related to the research foci, namely culturally responsive teacher practices used to interact with preschoolers with a disability from the same and different racial background as the teachers and possible similarities and differences reflected in interactive patterns across the groups of teachers.

Table 4

Sources of Data Collection

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measures</th>
<th>Preschoolers with a disability</th>
<th>Teacher-child interactions (same background)</th>
<th>Teacher-child interactions (different backgrounds)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adapted version Teacher-Child Scale (QUAN)</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adapted version, Crosswalks Assessment of Student Knowledge and Skills (QUAN)</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promoting Cultural Diversity and Linguistic Competency: Early Intervention (QUAN)</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missed Opportunities record (QUAN)</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demographic sheet-Director (QUAL)</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demographic sheet-teacher(QUAL)</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Teacher Observation with interval recording (QUAL)  

Teacher interview (QUAL)  

(QUAL)= Qualitative measure (QUAN) = Quantitative measure  

Teacher Observations - Scales  

In an effort to capture the true essence of each teacher-child interaction, the researcher utilized an adapted version of the Teacher-Child Interaction Scale (Farran & Collins, 2001). This quantitative measure helped to provide numerical values in support of the rich and in-depth details gleaned from the notation of the same observed teacher practices. This measure was completed in an alternating fashion with the recording of fieldnotes of the teacher and children’s interactions. A description of the fieldnotes follows in subsequent paragraphs.

The TCIS was divided into 11 different types of behaviors: physical involvement, verbal involvement, responsiveness, play interaction, teaching, control over children’s activities, directives, relationship among activities, positive and negative statements, and goal setting. Each of these behaviors was subdivided into three aspects: amount, quality, and appropriateness. The first aspect, amount, provided a quantitative measure of how much the teacher demonstrates each behavior. The second aspect, quality described the degree of warmth and acceptance the teacher shows for each behavior. And the final aspect, appropriateness, related to the teacher’s use of developmentally appropriate practices.
For this particular study, several adaptations were made to the scale in order to enhance the focus on the teacher’s behavior. One adaptation was made to the checklist to permit the simultaneous rating of the teacher’s behavior with the child with a disability from the same racial background, indicated as C1 and the child with a disability from a different racial background, C2 (Appendix C). These children were considered as the “children under study” and wore stickers on the back of their shirts with C1, C2, C1a, C2a, C1b, etc. to provide an identifier for data collection and analyses. To prevent the teacher from being cued into the specific interactions being recorded, the remaining children in the classroom wore stickers on the back of their shirts. Although the scale developers recommend that at least 30 minutes of observation occur when completing the scale, for this research study, each lead teacher was observed using the TCIS at 10-minute increments for a total of 75 minutes one time a week for five weeks. The teacher was observed for a period of ten minutes and then five minutes were used to score teacher behaviors on the checklist, for a total of 50 minutes of observing and 25 minutes of recording each day. Thus, each teacher was observed for a total of 250 minutes.

One day during the week prior to the scheduled observations, the researcher observed but did not take notes or score the TCIS in the classroom throughout the entire timeframe. The purpose of this observation was multifaceted. First, it allowed the researcher to get a sense of the classroom and routines of the teachers and children. Second, it provided the researcher an opportunity to identify additional contextual cues that may warrant noting on the contextual factors sheet. It also allowed participants to get used to the presence of an ‘outsider’ and helped to establish rapport (Creswell, 2005).
Furthermore, it provided an opportunity for the researcher to address any additional questions the teacher or assistant teacher had regarding the study. Lastly, it assisted the researcher and classroom teacher in identifying the 75-minute time frame that would provide optimal opportunities for teacher-child interactions. This mutually identified 75-minute time frame was consistently used throughout each weekly observation across five weeks. Ironically, the timeframe of 9:30 am to 10:45 am was used for all four centers. For two teachers, Dee and Delma, this timeframe provided an opportunity to observe the teacher and children during group time, play-based learning centers, and the playground. For Tamera, this timeframe reflected observations of playground time, group time, and play-based learning center. In regards to Lynette, this timeframe provided an opportunity to observe the teacher and children in group time, and learning centers. It should be noted that there was some variations in the length of time spent by each teacher in the aforementioned activities throughout the five observational sessions.

A second adaptation was reflected in the indicators used to score the teacher’s behaviors during the 75-minute timeframe. Six of the 11 items were then scored on a scale of one to five with five representing the highest possible rating, as originally stated by the scale developers. However, for the remaining five behaviors of physical involvement, play interaction, teaching behaviors, positive statements, and negative statements/discipline, the indicator for a score of 1 “very little to none” was separated into two identifiers. The indicator “very little” was assigned the rating of 1, and “none” was assigned the rating of zero. This modification occurred to provide a clearer distinction of the ‘amount’ of these previously mentioned behaviors. For example, if the
teacher received a one for the “amount” of physical involvement on the original scale; it was possible that the teacher would receive a zero based on the fact that she had no physical involvement with the child. Moreover, an additional rating of six, representing “no opportunity to interaction” was included to provide an accurate explanation as to why a particular behavior was not observed during the observation interval. Such an addition of a score was necessary in order to capture the child-facilitated learning philosophy associated with play-based learning centers critical to an early childhood setting such as Head Start.

For each of the five observational sessions, a set of 11 sheets, one for each of the previously stated behaviors measured by the TCIS (2001), and a contextual factors sheet for fieldnotes (Appendix D) was stapled, placed on a Rubbermaid clipboard with storage and used to analyze and critique specific details of what the lead teacher was saying and doing, what her behaviors and practices were with the children, and the children’s responses to their teacher. The teacher was observed using this protocol for a total of one day a week over a five week period. The day of the week in which each teacher was observed was randomized to insure that a more adequate picture of her teaching behaviors was revealed.

The contextual factors sheet was used to record: (a) the teachers’ assigned identification number for the study (i.e., T1, T2); (b) date of the observation; (c) the number of the current 15-minute interval (i.e., 1st, 2nd); (d) the number of teachers, teaching assistants and other adults (i.e., parents, kitchen staff) present; (e) the number of students; (f) the activities that were taking place during the ten-minute observation
period; (g) the time observation began; (h) the time observation ended; (i) the number of interactions initiated by the child and whether or not the interaction was acknowledged or sustained by the teacher; and (j) the number of interactions initiated by the teacher and whether or not the interaction was acknowledged or sustained by the child. The ‘time observation began’ statement was only completed at the start of the 75-minute period. In the same manner, the ‘time observation ended’ was only indicated at the conclusion of the 75-minute observation period. The table displaying the “number of interactions initiated by the child” and the “number of interactions initiated by the teacher” are included in Appendix I. The codes used in recording the missed opportunities are provided in Appendix J.

The contextual factors sheet also included a two-column table where fieldnotes regarding the interactions of the teacher and the children under study were written. These notes also included any special circumstances, behaviors or occurrences in the classroom (i.e. the child was working with the speech language pathologist during the entire ten minute observation session and no data could be adequately recorded). All interactions were written in the left column and any questions regarding the observed practices were written in the right column. With the exception of the first contextual factor sheet, these sheets were completed during the five minute recording of teacher behaviors. The first contextual factors sheet was completed prior to the ‘play’ button being pressed on the tape recorder. Once each packet of checklists was completed, they were placed inside the storage compartment of the clipboard.
In addition to a clipboard with storage containing stapled sets of unused and completed checklists, the researcher had a tape recorder. Using a single earpiece, the researcher listened to a pre-recorded tape that prompted the researcher to “observe” and “record,” on ten and five minute increments, respectively. Each of the teacher observations resulted in five sets of checklist per day, for a total of 25 completed Teacher-Child Interaction Scales per teacher. Each teacher had 25 individual scores for each of the 11 behaviors on each of the aspects “amount”, “quality”, and “appropriateness” for each of the two children.

To ensure accuracy of the data, prior to grouping each teacher’s checklists by specific behavior, a pre-printed label with: (a) the teacher’s identification number; (b) center’s identification number; (c) date of observation; (d) observation session number; and (e) the observation interval number was based on each corresponding behavior checklist sheet. Upon conclusion of each teacher’s observations, the 25 completed checklists for each specific behavior (i.e. play) were grouped together in chronological order and secured with a metal book ring. This allowed for quick access to the data as they were inputted and analyzed.

Training and Reliability

The assistant researcher number one was trained to conduct the Teacher-Child Interaction Scale (TCIS) in October 2008 in an inclusive preschool classroom with the lead teacher and the children meeting the same criteria as the current study. The lead researcher and the assistant researcher number one each studied the scale individually and then met to review each of the 11 behavior sheets, the scoring indicators provided by the
scale developers as well as the contextual factors sheet. The scale was examined for possible responses and discussion about the scoring of a zero, one, two, three, or four for each item. In the same manner, they discussed the type of information that would be recorded on the sheet. The lead researcher and assistant researcher number one then went to an inclusive preschool classroom at a local Head Start center and completed the 75-minute observation session as indicated in the study. These observation sessions were held on three different days and an overall reliability of 91% was reached. After each session, the lead researcher and the assistant researcher number one met at a location outside the classroom and calculated the mean score for all three aspects (‘amount,’ ‘quality,’ and ‘appropriateness’) of each behavior (physical involvement, verbal involvement, responsiveness, play interaction, teaching, control over children’s activities, directives, relationship among activities, positive and negative statements, and goal setting) as well as an overall mean score for each behavior. After each scoring, they reviewed the scores and discussed similarities and differences and the reasons for giving each score on the scales. The final inter-observer reliability score for the teacher-child scale was set at 90%. This was calculated by the total number of opportunities for the coders to reach agreement divided by the number of actual instances of agreement (Lombard, Snyder-Duch, & Bracken, 2002). In addition, when the research assistant number one came to record data, she was provided with an additional earpiece so that the observation and recording of teacher child interactions would be at the same timed interval as the researcher.
The Crosswalks Assessment of Student Knowledge and Skills

The Crosswalks Assessment of Student Knowledge and Skills (CASKS) is a 33-item assessment that helped to assess teacher’s perceived and current levels of knowledge and skills as it pertains to interacting with families and children who are culturally and linguistically diverse. The 33-items were subdivided into two main categories: (a) current level of knowledge about children and families who are culturally and linguistically diverse and (b) current level of skill related to working with and/or teaching children and families who are culturally and linguistically diverse. The two main categories contained a total of nine core areas. The current level of knowledge sub-category addressed the concepts of: general knowledge, supporting child learning, families, assessment, and collaboration. The current level of skill sub-category analyzed the participant’s competence in the areas of child learning, families, assessment and collaboration. Each item was scored from zero to five, with five representing high knowledge, three medium knowledge, and zero no knowledge. The assessment was originally used as part of a pre/post evaluation for the Crosswalks training (CASKS, 2005). For the purpose of this study, only the current level of knowledge sub-category was completed by the teacher. The overall mean score of her responses was used to confirm or refute her observed and her articulated practices (see Appendix E).

Promoting Cultural Diversity and Linguistic Competency

The Promoting Cultural Diversity and Linguistics Competency (PCLC) (2005) is a 49-item self assessment that helped to assess the teacher’s level of awareness and sensitivity to the importance of cultural diversity, cultural competence and linguistic
competence in early childhood settings (The self assessment is included in Appendix F).

According to the scale developers (National Center for Cultural Competence), this checklist provided a concrete example of the kinds of practices that foster such a culturally responsive environment. These 49-items were divided into three sections that addressed the: (a) the cultural aspect of the physical environment, resources and materials of the early childhood setting, (b) the communication style of the teacher, and (c) the values and attitudes of the teacher regarding culturally responsive teaching practices.

Furthermore, two items, numbers 19 and 22, consisted of multiple statements in which to respond. For item 19, three responses were expected; while for item 22, there were two responses.

Teachers were to read each item and select the statement that more appropriately reflected their practices. The statements were as follows: ‘things I do frequently,’ ‘things I do occasionally’, and ‘things I do rarely or never’, with each statement identified as letters A, B and C respectively. The purpose for using the two self assessments was to provide strength to the findings of the classroom observation and teacher interview data and increase their overall validity. For the remainder of this chapter, this self-assessment will be referred to as the Promoting Cultural Diversity and Linguistic Competency: Self assessment.

Missed Opportunities Record

Interconnected to the teacher observation fieldnotes was the recording of missed communicative opportunities for both the teacher and the children under study. The information was coded on the contextual factor sheet (see Appendix L for codes) and
reflected each child- and teacher-initiated interaction. For purposes of this study, a two-part definition is used to operationally define ‘missed opportunities.’ Missed opportunities were defined to be any occurrence in which (a) C1 or C2 initiated an interaction and the interaction was not verbally or nonverbally acknowledged by the teacher, or (b) the teacher initiated an interaction with either C1 or C2 and the interaction was not verbally or nonverbally acknowledged by the child. If either the child or teacher initiated an interaction within a group context, such as circle time or the playground, the initiation was not recorded. Careful attention was given to monitoring more spontaneous teacher child communications as well as addressing the reciprocal nature of nonverbal communication (Siegel, 2001).

The missed opportunities record provided a quantitative means to determine: (a) the number of verbal and nonverbal child initiated interactions, (b) the total number of child-initiated interactions, (c) the number of verbal and nonverbal teacher initiated interactions, and (d) the total number of teacher-initiated interactions. Also, included on this record were the total number of “no opportunities to interact” (scores of 6), each teacher received on the TCIS. A score of 6 was given during an observation interval when each teacher did not have the opportunity to interact with either child under study due to the teacher’s proximity within a play based learning center that was not currently occupied by the children under study. This total is a cumulative and spans across the 25 observation intervals of the study. It gives meaning to the occasions in which any of the four teachers did not engage either child under study, not due to inattentiveness, but rather lack of physical closeness or proximity. The above statistical values were
categorized by each teacher and child dyad to allow for readily accessible visual comparison by teacher, by groups of teachers and across the groups of teachers.

**Director and Teacher Demographic Sheets**

The Head Start director and lead teacher were provided with the demographic sheets. Each director was asked to provide data on the characteristics of the center. Several of these characteristics were included in Table 2 of this text. Additional information regarding staff trainings on cultural diversity and children who are at risk or have a disability were also collected (Appendix B).

Since the lead teacher was the focus of this study, data on personal characteristics were collected. These characteristics were included in Tables 1 and 2 of this text. Gathering the above data provided background information and a better understanding of the cultural and racial context within which each teacher worked and spent her days (Appendix A contains the preschool lead teacher demographic sheet).

**Teacher Observations**

Observations are a frequently used method of qualitative data collection. Observations allow for the gathering of open-ended, first hand information by the researcher through careful listening and recording of visual details in the research site (Creswell, 2005). Furthermore, this methodology was advantageous in this situation in which participants (i.e., preschoolers or children with disabilities) may have difficulty verbalizing ideas. Information regarding the teachers’ and children’s nonverbal and verbal interactions was recorded on the contextual factors sheets in the form of fieldnotes. Therefore, the researcher relied on observing how the children interact in various
situations (Creswell, 2005). Observations occurred one time a week for five consecutive weeks. The observational time per day was 75 minutes. Thus, this method of data collection provided an authentic depiction of the interactions between each teacher and child.

Teacher Interviews

Each of the four lead preschool teachers also participated in a single, semistructured interview to gain additional information on the lead teachers’ practices. Lead teachers were asked to respond to open-ended statements reflective of their beliefs regarding cultural responsive practices as well as their observed teaching practices (see Appendix E). Additional questions or statements were included based on the researcher’s previous observations of the teacher. One goal of the teacher interviews was to provide an opportunity for teachers to identify the practices they used in their work with preschoolers. These were then compared with the actual practices that were observed as well as with the teacher’s self-reported practices. Using statements such as “Tell me about the practices you use that reflect the cultural beliefs and values of families and children who are from a similar racial background,” “Tell me about the practices you use that reflect the cultural beliefs and values of families and children who are from a different racial background,” “Tell me how you interact with a child with a disability,” and “Tell me how interacting with a child with a disability differs from interacting with a child without a disability,” elicited information to respond to the stated research purpose and focus areas of this study.
Procedures

The study of the teaching practices of African American and European American teachers of 3-5 year olds in an inclusive (children with and without disabilities) child care settings occurred in Head Start centers in North Carolina. Observations covered all areas of the classroom and all activities that the lead teachers engaged in with the children. It also included any additional space or outdoor areas that the preschoolers used when engaging in outdoor play, such as playgrounds. Each observational session focused upon specific teacher practices that were used as she interacted with the two children with disabilities who are from a different and similar racial background. These interactions were scored using the Teacher-Child Interaction Scale, TCIS (Farran & Collins, 2001), a contextual factors sheet for field notes and a missed opportunities record. In addition to these measures, several additional data sources were used: (a) Head Start director and lead teacher demographic sheets, (b) teacher observation with interval recording, (c) teacher interviews, (d) adapted version of Crosswalks Assessment of Student Knowledge and Skills (2005), and (e) Promoting Cultural Diversity and Linguistic Competency: Self-Assessment (National Center for Cultural Competence, 2005). In order to identify the practices used to interact with children with a disability who are from the same and different racial background, each of the four lead teachers were observed using the interaction scale during the morning over a period of five weeks (one day per week), as she worked with these preschoolers in her classroom. Her interactions were noted on the contextual factors sheet as fieldnotes as well as child- or teacher- initiated and missed
opportunities. These same interactions were then used to score on the TCIS. Each teacher was observed for a total of 75 minutes each day.

Additionally, each teacher participated in a single interview session. Interviews lasted approximately 30 minutes and were audio taped and later transcribed. Teachers were interviewed in a location of their choosing at their respective Head Start center where privacy could be assured. Lead teachers were interviewed on the last day of data collection at their site after all five observations were completed. The teacher was later contacted for trustworthy purposes, in a process that is called member checking (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) to confirm the accuracy of the interview data. Each teacher was contacted and sent a copy of the transcription and a letter asking them to review the transcription for accuracy of the contents. An addressed, stamped envelope allowed the return of their comments to the researcher. Through member checking teachers were given a chance to add, change, or delete information. None of the four teachers returned the addressed, stamped envelope. Therefore, a follow-up phone call was made to determine whether or not the teacher had received the envelope and if there were any additions, changes or deletion. All four teachers provided verbal confirmation regarding the receipt of the envelope; however, no teacher provided any revisions or suggestions.

These two culturally-focused self assessments were completed by each teacher upon completion of the observational sessions. Each teacher was provided with a manila envelope containing both scales. They were given the option to mail the scales back to the researcher in an addressed, stamped envelope or have the researcher come a week later to retrieve the completed self assessments. Only one teacher mailed the scales to the
researcher. The researcher returned to the remaining three Head Start centers approximately one week later to retrieve the self assessments.

The Research Team

The research team consisted of a lead researcher, assistant researchers’ number one and number two, and a transcriptionist. The lead researcher had eight years of experience working in early childhood and special education as well as one year experience as a child care director in a church-sponsored inclusive child care setting. She was currently a doctoral candidate in a North Carolina university. She had teaching licenses in Birth- Kindergarten and Special Education-Mental Retardation and Learning Disabilities. She also had Early Childhood Credentials 1 & 2 as well as Early Childhood Administration credentials. The assistant researcher number one was a doctoral student in a university in the state of North Carolina. She has worked in preschool and elementary settings as a related service provider. She also has six years of student teacher supervisory experience. Assistant researcher number two, who analyzed and attested to the reliability of each data source, was a recent graduate of a doctoral program in a university in the state of Virginia. She has previous experience using SPSS 16.0 and has experience auditing policies, procedures and manuals for the state of Virginia. Lastly, the transcriptionist is an administrative assistant at a university in the state of North Carolina.

Data Validation

Mixed methods merge: “the quantitative researcher’s notions of credibility and transferability with the qualitative researcher’s concepts of internal validity and
trustworthiness” (Sydenstricker-Neto, 2008). Data validation refers to the implementation of appropriate steps or procedures to assure legitimation (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson 2006) by establishing a process to examine ‘inference quality’ (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003). Inference quality must be evaluated in terms of the design quality and the interpretive rigor of the study’s outcomes, and, thereby leading the researcher to formulate appropriate generalizations and conclusions. Legitimation also has been defined as a recursive process in which the researcher evaluates the quality of the inferences drawn from the quantitative and qualitative measures at each phase of the study (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson 2006).

Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggested there are a number of techniques used to demonstrate if findings are credible and therefore, worthy of our confidence and reliance in them. Some of these techniques are prolonged engagement, persistent observation, triangulation, and member checking. Merriam (2002) recommended similar strategies with the addition of peer review and audit trail. Prolonged engagement and persistent observations required a researcher to spend a sufficient amount of time conducting the study to gain the trust of the participants, time to gather sufficient data for the study, and the ability of the researcher to identify characteristics that were most important and relevant to the purpose of the study.

Data validation involved the use of multiple sources and methods of data collection to confirm findings or results of a study. Data validation did not rely on one source but many to confirm and verify what had occurred. For the quantitative measures, reliability was established through the use of inter-rater reliability. For each teacher, the
The Teacher-Child Interaction Scale (TCIS) was completed one time during the five week observation period by assistant researcher number one. Assistant researcher number one was trained on how to complete the packet of checklists as described in the ‘teacher observation’ section of this chapter. Furthermore, assistant researcher number one was provided with an earpiece that was attached to the same tape cassette recorder used by the researcher. This ensured that assistant researcher number one was observing and recording the same timeframe as the researcher. More importantly assistant researcher number one’s data were used to provide a measure of trustworthiness on teacher observations. The Teacher-Child Interaction Scale provided the opportunity to objectify and quantify what the researcher was seeing, reducing researcher bias (Creswell, 2005), thus adding credibility to the study. This scale was used in support of the naturalistic observation data. By observing each lead teacher for 75 minutes a day and completing the teacher-child interaction scale at timed intervals for five days during the study provided adequate time to explore and describe the practices used with the children.

The remaining quantitative measures, the adapted versions of the Crosswalks Assessment of Student Knowledge and Skills and the Promoting Cultural and Linguistic Competency: Self assessment were: (1) used to triangulate themes revealed through the analyses of the qualitative measures, and 2) audited by a third-party. Triangulation helped to formulate the dynamic nature of each teacher’s articulated, self-reported and observed practices. Secondly, assistant researcher number two provided an audit to ensure that data from the Teacher Child Interaction Scales, missed opportunities record, the Promoting Cultural and Linguistic Competency: Self assessment and the Crosswalks
Assessment of Student Knowledge and Skills were inputted accurately. She also read and analyzed the spreadsheets of data separate from the researcher. For example, both the researcher and assistant researcher number two read through the data for each teacher. They then inputted each teacher’s data into SPSS 16.0 for (1) all three aspects (‘amount,’ ‘quality,’ and ‘appropriateness’), (2) each behavior (physical involvement, verbal involvement, responsiveness, play interaction, teaching, control over children’s activities, directives, relationship among activities, positive and negative statements, and goal setting) (n=25), (3) all behaviors by aspect, and (4) all 11 behaviors. This process was done for each child (n=2) per teacher. The lead researcher and the assistant researcher number two then met to compare and confirm or refute the findings of the lead researcher. Discussions on each quantitative measure were held on any disparate findings until an agreement or compromise was reached. Any errors on the spreadsheets for the TCIS, missed opportunities record and CASKS were corrected and when necessary, the descriptive statistics were re-entered into SPSS.

For the Promoting Cultural and Linguistic Competency: Self assessment, assistant researcher number two read all the teacher’s responses then completed the same process described in the previously described “measures” section regarding this particular self assessment. Any discrepancies were discussed and the necessary revisions were made in the electronic version of the self assessment.

An additional way of validating the data was by using the process of member checking to ensure the accuracy of the teacher interview transcriptions. Member checking allowed for the rechecking of original data by the person from whom it was
gathered, thus providing evidence that input from the source was gained. Each teacher was contacted and sent a copy of the transcription and a letter asking them to review the transcription for accuracy of the contents. An addressed, stamped envelope allowed the return of comments to the researcher.

In addition, assistant researcher two reviewed each teacher interview transcript and came up with her own themes. Again, themes from both the researcher and the assistant researcher were discussed and discrepancies reconciled to ensure that the emergent themes were congruent and appropriate. Any discrepancies were discussed and adjusted accordingly. This allowed for the emergence, examination, and resolution of differing explanations and conflicting data (Maxwell, 2005) between the assistant researcher number two and the lead researcher.

Triangulation among the adapted versions of the Crosswalks Assessment of Student Knowledge and Skills; the Promoting Cultural and Linguistic Competency: Self assessment, and the Teacher-Child Interaction Scales as well as missed records opportunities, fieldnotes, teacher interviews and teacher demographic sheets were used to confirm or refute emerging findings reflective of the teachers’ practices.

Researcher Bias

Closely linked to the establishment of data validation of the study is the recognition of researcher bias. It is important to understand that such bias is inevitable and is pre-existing within each researcher (Maxwell, 2005). More importantly, bias does not limit an ability to be reflective. Barnes and her colleagues (2005) contended that an ethical researcher thinks critically about results and reports those results after careful
reflection. Therefore, concerns over bias were leveled against any research method by the researcher being aware of any factors that may influence or contaminate the data. For this particular study, this researcher recognized that her past experiences in various early childhood educational settings and her African American background had formulated numerous attitudes and opinions regarding interactive patterns of teachers who do not share the same racial background as the children in their classrooms. However, in recognizing these factors, a great deal of rigor was established through close, proper attention to recording each teacher’s behaviors, time spent on observing each teacher, and questioning techniques to eliminate the potential infiltration of these biases. To further minimize how the researcher’s values and expectations might influence the study, the research team consisted of a European American assistant researcher number one and an African American auditor. In this manner, a cross-cultural analyses of the data occurred.

Data Analysis

The use of a triangulation data interpretation (Creswell, 2005) supported the separate analyses of quantitative data (i.e., scores from TCIS, missed opportunities record, CASKS, and the Promoting Cultural and Linguistic Competency Self-assessment) and qualitative data (i.e. text from fieldnotes, and interviews), and then comparing and integrating the results into a single discussion and summary. The triangulation design process is a method of mixed methods data analysis that allowed for the discussions of mean scores, frequencies or descriptive statistics of each quantitative measure as they are supported or refuted by emerging themes from the qualitative data.
Level One: Analysis of Each Teacher’s Practices

Concurrent triangulation data analysis at level one for each teacher involved the analysis and interpretation of the data sources in the following configurations or phases: the Teacher-Child Interaction Scale, the missed opportunities record followed by the teacher interview and fieldnotes; and the Crosswalks Assessment of Student Skills, CASKS, the Promoting Cultural Diversity and Linguistic Competency Self-assessment followed by the teacher interview and fieldnotes. Whenever appropriate, data from the center and teacher demographic scales were included in the analysis, and served to substantiate the contextual information description. This sequence was followed with each teacher for the two children under study. The following are descriptions of data analysis of each data source. Figure 2 illustrates the manner in which the data sources were analyzed. For the qualitative measures, the bold type signifies the source that was the main foci of the analysis; and the remaining source was considered supplemental in this phase.
Fig. 2

Analysis of data sequences

Teacher Observations - Scales

The data from the completed *Teacher-Child Interaction Scale* for each teacher was typed into an Excel spreadsheet. The data for each of the 11 observed teacher behaviors—physical involvement, verbal involvement, responsiveness, play interaction, teaching, control over children’s activities, directives, relationship among activities, positive and negative statements, and goal setting was placed on a separate spreadsheet. Each Excel spreadsheet included a header and seven headings. The header included the teacher’s identification with the teacher behavior (i.e. verbal involvement) typed below. The headings: date, observation interval number, child identification number, amt (code for amount), qual (code for quality), and app (code for appropriateness) were included. The responses for “date” and “interval number” were taken directly from the contextual
factor sheets. The “amount”, “quality” and “appropriateness” information were taken from each teacher’s checklist. This information was recorded based on the assigned score of zero to five, with five being the highest, and a possible score of six.

Data for both children were inputted in the same file but on different sheets. Data from the children with a disability from the same racial background identified as C1, C1a, C1b, and C1c and from the children with a disability from a different racial background identified as C2, C2a, C2b, and C2c were inputted beginning on row 2 of their respective spreadsheet. The individual spreadsheet tab was labeled with the child’s identification number to reduce confusion.

As previously mentioned, spreadsheets for each of the 11 teacher behaviors for each child (n=2) were completed separately. There were a total of 22 spreadsheets per teacher. The spreadsheet containing the results from each behavior was transferred into a dataset in SPSS version 16.0. SPSS will provide descriptive statistics and frequencies of scores (0-5) for each teacher for 1) each aspect of the behavior, 2) each behavior, 3) all behaviors by aspect (e.g. amount for all 11 behaviors), and 4) all 11 behaviors per child. This process was repeated until all the data from the teacher behavior spreadsheets (n=11) were analyzed. It should be noted that any scores of six “no opportunities to interact” were not included in the descriptive statistics because the value inflated the teacher’s actual total and mean scores. Instead, all scores of “6” were compiled into a table included in Appendix H.

To distinguish between each behavior, the number assigned by Farran and Collins to the behavior (i.e., play is number 4) was placed after each code ‘amt,’ ‘qual,’ and
‘app’. Following the assigned number of the behavior, the teacher’s identification number (i.e., T1) and the child’s identification number (i.e., C1) were typed. ‘Amt1t1c1’ is an example of a heading for the amount of behavior 1 (physical involvement), for T1 with C1.

Descriptive statistics and frequencies for both children were visually compared between the children to determine any similarities and differences in teacher interactions based on the child’s racial background. This quantified data were then used to substantiate or reject teaching practices and beliefs that were revealed from the additional sources of data.

*Missed Opportunities Record*

Each set of data: (a) child-initiated verbal or nonverbal interactions and any missed opportunities to respond verbally or nonverbally by the teacher, and (b) teacher-initiated verbal or nonverbal interactions and any missed opportunities to respond verbally or nonverbally by the child were typed into an Excel spreadsheet using the codes included in Appendix J. A frequency for each type of missed opportunity (verbal or nonverbal) was then calculated for both of the children and each teacher. A percentage was computed by dividing the total number of missed opportunities (verbal plus nonverbal) by the total number of child- or teacher-initiated interactions. Also, this record was used to list the total number of “no interactions” (score of 6’s) each teacher received on the TCIS. Similar to the TCIS, the frequencies and percentages for both children and teacher were visually compared between the children to determine any similarities and differences in teacher interactions based on the child’s racial background.
This quantified data were then used to substantiate or reject teaching practices and beliefs that were revealed from the additional sources of data.

**Teacher Observations - Fieldnotes**

Fieldnotes from each teacher were then typed into a single Word document and put into a table with four columns with the headings ‘observation notes,’ ‘personal comments,’ ‘content analysis,’ and ‘categories of practice’ by the researcher. Each document included the teacher’s identification number and “Notes” as the header. The date and time as indicated on the corresponding contextual factors sheet was typed as the footer. The constant comparative process was used to analyze the observation data. The data in the observation notes column was read and reviewed twice and personal comments were recorded. Then the data were revisited and reviewed and the content analysis column was filled in with practices that were repetitive and occurred frequently. Next, the content analysis reviewed in one-page segments with earlier data being revisited, compared to the present information, and categories of practices were identified and labeled. Categories of practices were then reviewed and common themes which emerged were identified. Content analyses of the fieldnotes were conducted to provide in-depth details of teacher practices and behaviors.

**Teacher Interview Data**

The teacher interview were transcribed and reread by the lead researcher for analysis purposes. Using the constant comparative process previously described, themes emerged. Themes identified by the teachers as indicative of practices teachers used with the children were then compared to the analysis of the observation data.
The Crosswalks Assessment of Student Knowledge and Skills

CASKS provided an opportunity to triangulate themes revealed through the observation and interview data. The 33 items are subdivided into two main categories: current level of knowledge about children and families who are culturally and linguistically diverse (21 items) and current level of skill related to working with and/or teaching children and families who are culturally and linguistically diverse (13 items). The two main categories contain a total of nine core areas. Each teacher’s responses from Part I, the current level of knowledge, were typed into an Excel spreadsheet. The data for each of the 21 items were placed on the same sheet. Each Excel spreadsheet included a header and four headings. The header included the date inputted with CASKS typed below. The column headings will be the teacher identification number (T1, T2, T3, etc). The row headings were codes assigned to each question. The coding instrument is included in Appendix I. The number provided by each teacher was recorded on the spreadsheet: zero to five, with five being the highest. Data for all four teachers were inputted in the same file.

The spreadsheet containing the results from each teacher was transferred into a dataset in SPSS version 16.0. SPSS provided descriptive statistics and frequencies of scores for each teacher.

Promoting Cultural Diversity and Linguistic Competency

This 49-item self assessment provided additional information about the teacher’s opinions and beliefs regarding cultural responsive teaching practices and their relevance to children in an inclusive setting to confirm or refute teacher observation, and teacher
interview data. For each teacher, an electronic version of the self assessment was created and labeled with the teacher identification number and center identification number. Below each topic area heading, (a) physical environment, resources and materials, (b) communication style, and (c) values and attitudes, the words ‘frequently’, ‘occasionally,’ and ‘rarely or never’ were typed below. These words reflected the possible response statements included on the self assessment. Using each completed teacher self assessment form and the corresponding electronic version, items indicated by the teacher to receive a rating of frequently were cut and pasted under the word ‘frequently,’ ‘occasionally,’ and ‘rarely or never’. Items were cut and pasted in chronological order, beginning with item 1 of the self assessment. This process continued until each teacher’s (Dee, Tamera, Delma, and Lynette) responses were appropriately sorted below each correct identifier (frequently, occasionally, and rarely or never) for all three topic areas. Teacher responses placed in each response category: frequently, occasionally, and rarely or never for each of the three topic areas, were read and reviewed repeatedly. Similarly to the analyses of the fieldnotes and interview data, these data were analyzed using a table with three columns with the headings ‘personal comments,’ ‘content analysis,’ and ‘categories of practice.’ Each document included the teacher’s identification number and “PCLC” as the header. Individual teacher themes as evidenced by the analyses of the categories of practice for each topic area were identified and typed into a single Word document by the researcher. The analyses assisted in providing an additional in-depth perspective on the teacher’s attitudes regarding culturally responsive practices as well as
the congruence of each teacher’s culturally based beliefs and how they translated into her observed and articulated teaching behaviors.

Level Two: Analysis Within Each Group of Teachers

Once each data source was analyzed and themes identified for each teacher (level one), the second level of the analysis required the integration of the different sources of data for each teacher by racial background.

Teacher-Child Interaction Scale

SPSS mean and frequency count results for the two African American teachers (Dee, Tamera) were visually inspected to determine if there was any variation among the African American teachers’ interactions based on the child’s racial background. In a similar fashion, the results from the two European American teachers (Delma, Lynette) were visually compared and analyzed to determine any variation among these teachers, when compared across the two students.

Missed Opportunities Record

The process was similar to the TCIS. With the exception being that, the frequency count results, calculated percentages and frequency count for ‘no opportunities to interact’ for the two groups of teachers were used in the visual comparison and analysis.

Teacher Interview and Fieldnotes Data

Themes identified for each African American teacher (Dee, Tamera) as indicative of practices teachers used with the children were then compared to determine similarities and differences between teacher practices as they interacted with children from the same
and different racial background. Common themes were typed into a single Word document headed for “T1/T2 Fieldnotes Themes” or “T1/T2 Interview Themes” dependent on the measure. A similar process was followed when analyzing the interview data from the two European American teachers. The exception being that the single, Word document was labeled “T3/T4 Fieldnotes Themes” or “T3/T4 Interview Themes.”

*The Crosswalks Assessment of Student Knowledge and Skills*

Descriptive statistics and frequencies for the two African American teachers (Dee, Tamera) were visually compared to determine if there are any variations among the African American teachers interactions based on the child’s racial background. In a similar fashion, the results from the two European American teachers (Delma, Lynette) were visually compared and analyzed to determine any variation among these teachers.

*Promoting Cultural Diversity and Linguistic Competency*

The documented themes were then compared between the teachers of the same racial background to determine any similarities and differences in indicated teacher practices that are regarded as being culturally responsive and sensitive.

**Level Three: Analysis Across Two Groups of Teachers**

Upon conclusion of the data analysis at levels one and two, the groups of teachers were analyzed. Descriptive statistics and frequencies from both groups of teachers were visually analyzed to determine if similarities and differences between the interaction patterns and behaviors of African American and European American preschool teachers were present. Common themes from the African American teachers and European American teachers were read and reviewed again to identify similar and different themes.
across children with a disability from the same or different racial background as well as both children. Lastly, several tables were created to present a visual comparison and contrast of similar and dissimilar themes and statistics across the two groups of teachers. Based on themes and significant discrepancies between the descriptive statistics, patterns of teacher practices became evident that may be considered culturally responsive.
CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The overall purpose of this study was to examine, record, and describe teacher practices that were considered culturally responsive to preschoolers with disabilities who do or do not share the same racial background as the teacher. Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used to explore the relationship between the teacher’s racial background and her teaching practices when compared between two preschoolers with disabilities. The study examined teacher practices of African American and European American teachers across specific teaching behaviors to determine whether or not similarities existed across these groups of teachers when compared between the two children. It also examined the same teacher practices to determine whether or not differences existed in the interactive patterns of African American (AA) and European American (EA) teachers across these same teaching behaviors and the same sample of children.

A triangulation mixed method design allowed for a separate comparison from which the results from quantitative measures were later supported or refuted by qualitative measures (see Chapter V). A greater weight and emphasis was given to the qualitative data in order to provide rich descriptions, emergent and salient themes, as well as basic assertions regarding teacher practices that could be considered culturally responsive (Creswell, 2005).
In this chapter, data analysis of each individual teacher; within the two groups of teachers, the two African American preschool lead teachers and the two European American lead teachers; and across the two groups of teachers are reported. Results will be discussed in the following phases: the Teacher-Child Interaction Scale, the missed opportunities record followed by the teacher interview and fieldnotes; and the Crosswalks Assessment of Student Skills, CASKS, the Promoting Cultural Diversity and Linguistic Competency Self-assessment (PCLC) followed by the teacher interview and fieldnotes.

Data Validation

As previously mentioned, data validation refers to the implementation of appropriate steps or procedures to assure legitimation (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006). In particular, quantitative measures rely on reliability to legitimatize recorded or obtained scores. For this study, reliability was conducted for all four teachers (Dee, and Tamera, African American; Delma, and Lynette; European American). Assistant researcher number one completed one observation session per teacher that were conducted after the researcher had been within each individual teacher’s classroom for at least two weeks. The timing of the assistant researcher number one’s observation was two-fold. First, it allowed the researcher to become familiar within the routines of the teacher’s classroom, so that any Hawthorne effects could be recognized and later discussed. Also, it provided a similar opportunity for the teacher and the student’s in her room, to become acclimated the researcher, her presence, and her equipment. Lastly, the sessions were also convenient to the schedule of assistant researcher one.
Dee’s (AA) teacher-child interactions were scored by assistant researcher one on the fifth observational session, and her overall reliability was 93 percent. Tamera’s (AA) interactions were scored during the third observation session, and her overall reliability was 87 percent. Delma’s (EA) teacher-child interactions were scored during the fourth observation session, and her overall reliability was 89 percent. Lastly, Lynette’s (EA) interactions were scored during the fifth and final observational session and her overall reliability was 95 percent.

Triangulation of the data sources provided a mechanism to determine the level to which each individual teacher’s practices could be categorized as culturally responsive.

Individual Teacher Themes

The themes for each teacher are described individually with supported measures. For clarity and readability purposes, Dee was the pseudonym used for T1; Tamera was used for T2; Delma for T3 and Lynette for T4. These pseudonyms were consistently used throughout this chapter. Furthermore, within each teacher’s individual result section, the capital letter associated with C1, C2, etc., is described. Lastly, within this first level of data analysis, contextual information for each individual teacher was provided to allow for a full understanding of the cultural context of her room, as well as other pertinent information gained from the teacher and center demographic sheets.

Dee

Contextual Information

Dee is African American and is the youngest of all the teachers in the study. She has an Associate’s degree as well as one year of college coursework. She has spent seven
years working in an inclusive setting and four years teaching preschoolers ages 3 to 4.
She has worked in this particular inclusive classroom for six months and has been with
the same group of children since the school year began in August. The assistant teacher
had only been working in the room for two weeks when the study began. Her
participation was considered supplementary and was recorded only in the field notes.

There were 17 children in this inclusive preschool classroom whose ages were
between 3- 4 ½ years, with eight boys and nine girls. Of the seventeen children, parent
permission to participate in the study was received from 13 of the children, for a total of
six boys and seven girls. The children who were included in the study were African
American, European American and Hispanic. In addition to the African American and
European children with a disability, there were two other African American children who
were identified with a disability. Their interactions with Dee were considered
supplementary and were recorded only in the field notes.

The two children under study, J/AA and K/EA, were present for all five
observational sessions. J/AA is an African American male and was 3 ½ years of age at
the time of the study. K/EA is European American male and was 4 years of age at the
time of the study. Both J/AA and K/EA had been in Dee’s class since August. Both
children had been identified as having a speech language disability. During one of the
observational sessions, the speech language pathologist entered the room and conducted
therapy with J/AA as he worked on the computer.
The Setting

The Head Start where Dee worked was a five-star licensed program, located in the northern part of the Piedmont region of North Carolina. It has six classrooms that serve 70 children, ranging in age from six weeks to six years of age. The racial background of the children included: African American, Asian, European American, and Hispanic, with the African American population having the highest enrollment (n=30) and the Asian population having the least (n=1). The program had no at risk children, but had nine children who were identified by the categories of ‘multiple disabilities’ or ‘speech language disabilities.’ Of these nine children, five were African American and four were European American. The center provided training to the ten staff members on the topics of ‘autism’, and ‘coping with problematic behaviors’, but did not provide trainings on how to work with culturally diverse children and families.

The preschool classroom included four developmentally appropriate sized tables and chairs for the children, as well as two carpeted areas. One carpeted area was included as part of the dramatic play center and the other carpeted area was used during group time as well as provided the children with space to play musical instruments and move freely to the music. In addition, the physical structure of the room was divided into various learning centers that were created through the physical placement of bookshelves that were tall enough for an adult to be able to see over while kneeling. The learning centers included the following: (a) a shelf with books, (b) a sand/water table, (c) manipulatives shelf with string beads, puzzles, etc., (d) art with an art easel, paper, markers, crayons and other supplies, (e) a dramatic play with a play kitchen set, mirror
and dress up clothes, (f) block area with various sized blocks and a play tool bench, (g) a computer with two chairs, and (h) musical instrument cabinet that contained musical instruments as well as colored scarves and glittery pants that could be worn by a child. Additional toys were kept in the cabinets above the sink and the teacher would retrieve them when requested by a child or place them on the table when necessary.

The room also contained a bathroom with one toilet and a sink, as well as a sink that had several cabinets above and below it that were used to store toys and other materials. The record player was located to the left of the sink on the countertop. This made it accessible to the teacher or assistant teacher during group time, when needed. Children stored their coats and belongings in ‘cubbies’ located to the right of all centers.

Children’s work was displayed on the wall to the left of the door and a behavior management chart hung on the bathroom door. Throughout the five observational sessions, the behavior management chart was never implemented and the children’s work on the wall never changed. Also, on the wall above one of the carpeted area, a calendar and the letters A-Z were posted. Below the corresponding letter of the alphabet was each child’s name. It should be noted that were no visual displays that included individuals from culturally diverse backgrounds and/or the children and their families.

Teacher Child Interactions

*Teacher - Child Interaction Scale*

Teacher child interactions analyses sought to record and describe Dee’s overall teaching practices. Due to the small sample size (n=4), descriptive statistics were used in the analysis. Dee’s/AA scores for both J/AA and K/EA were visually compared for two
of the four quantitative measures. Dee’s interactions with J/AA and K/EA could be assigned a score of zero to five, with five being the highest, and a possible score of six (no opportunity to interact). Dee’s total number of 6s are included on Table 5 below.

The mean scores for the teacher-child dyads of Dee/AA and J/AA and Dee and K/EA are shown in Table 5.

**Table 5**

*Dee’s mean scores, TCIS*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Verbal^</th>
<th>Physical</th>
<th>Responsiveness</th>
<th>Play^</th>
<th>Teaching^</th>
<th>Control*</th>
<th>Directives*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dee</td>
<td>J</td>
<td>K</td>
<td>J</td>
<td>K</td>
<td>J</td>
<td>K</td>
<td>J</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.7</td>
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<td>1.9</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. * denotes that a lower mean score was more desired and appropriate for this behavior. ^ denotes behaviors that a “0” was a possible score.

Dee’s demonstration of the eleven teaching behaviors did not differ across the two children under study J/AA or K/EA. The range of scores (1.3-4.3) for J, the child from the same racial background and K/EA (1.6-4.5), the child from a different racial background were very similar. However, there were some differences across the eleven behaviors. For example, Dee’s level of responsiveness (mean scores=4.3, 4.5) was the
highest of the behaviors, followed by physical involvement (mean scores = 3.1 for both). Dee’s score for the behaviors; control over children’s activities, directives, and negative statements, were congruent with the desired lower mean score. Her scores for verbal involvement (means = 1.7, 1.6) and play interactions (means = 1.9, 2.0) were among the lowest scores received. Overall, Dee’s mean scores fell within the ‘very little to occasionally/ almost always’ indicators.

Missed Opportunities Record

The missed opportunities record provided frequencies of scores for Dee’s initiated interactions with J/AA and K/EA as well as J/AA and K/EA’s initiated interactions with her. The record also provided the total number of times Dee did not have the opportunity to interact with J/AA or K/EA, due to Dee’s proximity within a play based learning center that was not currently occupied by J/AA or K/EA. This number is a cumulative total that spans across the 25 observation intervals of the study and reflects occasions in which Dee did not engage J/AA or K/EA, not due to inattentiveness, but rather lack of physical closeness or proximity. Her scores are provided in Table 6 below.

Table 6

Dee’s Missed opportunities record

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher-Child Dyad</th>
<th>Total V M (T)</th>
<th>Total N M (T)</th>
<th>Total # of (T) verbal interactions</th>
<th>Total V M (C)</th>
<th>Total N M (C)</th>
<th>Total # of (C) child-initiated interactions</th>
<th>Total # of ‘no opp’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dee &amp; J</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dee &amp; K</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. M = missed opportunities; V= verbal; N= nonverbal; (C) = child-initiated; (T) = teacher-initiated; ‘no opp’= no opportunities, scores of 6
Dee’s results indicate that she used primarily verbal interactions when interacting with both children. Dee’s level of teacher-initiated interactions also was very similar for J/AA and K/EA. She initiated each child in the same number of verbal interactions (n=30). Consequently, there was no difference in the number of nonverbal interactions between the children. However, there was a slight difference in the number of times the children failed to respond or acknowledge Dee’s verbal interactions. J/AA, the child from the same racial background, had the higher missed opportunities total (n=9) when compared to K/EA (n = 4).

Similar results were found for the frequencies of child initiated scores. There were no differences in the number of verbal or nonverbal initiations made by either J/AA or K/EA. For both children, there was more verbal communication initiated (means = 20, 17) and consequently, missed by Dee. Frequencies for nonverbal communication, initiated and missed, were significantly lower than the verbal category. There was a difference in the amount of times in which Dee was not within the same learning center as J/AA or K/EA. Dee’s number of ‘no opportunities to interact’ with K/EA (n=94) were higher than J/AA’s (n = 74).

Fieldnotes and Interviews

Following data analysis of the Teacher-Child Interaction Scales, and the missed opportunities record, qualitative measures were analyzed. Three themes emerged that were indicative of Dee’s practices with the two children under study. They were: (a) Dee’s level of teacher talk and responsiveness varied slightly in her interactions with J/AA and K/EA; (b) Dee held K/EA more accountable for K/EA’s action when K/EA
presented inappropriate behaviors; and (c) Dee’s level of physical involvement differed between J/AA and K/EA.

Themes will be discussed in the sequence provided above and supported with evidence from both the qualitative measures. Dee, an African American lead preschool teacher, is referred to as Dee throughout the data sources and the children are noted by a single capitalized letter. J/AA is the child from the same racial background (J/AA); and K/EA is the child from a different racial background (K/EA).

*Dee’s level of teacher talk and responsiveness varied slightly in her interactions with J/AA and K/EA.* As described in Chapter II, *teacher talk* describes verbal involvement, directives, and positive and negative statements. Dee demonstrated a similar level of teacher talk and responsiveness throughout her daily interactions with J/AA and K/EA. Dee responded to both J/AA and K/EA in a gentle and sensitive manner when they sought her attention or assistance with a task. Dee frequently smiled and spoke in a calm, pleasant tone when interacting with J/AA and K/EA.

There was a tendency for Dee to be engaged in verbal exchanges with K/EA, as she was transitioning the group to the playground. This example occurred within that transitional period and illustrates how Dee responded to K/EA’s attempt to acquire information.

K walks towards Dee. Dee turns to look at K. Dee “yes?” K “I’m ready. I cleaned up.” Dee “good, almost time to go.” K follows Dee to block area. Dee to K “what is it?” K looks at Dee makes no response and walks back to table. K “Dee, Dee” Dee made no response- “C13 get in line”. K elevates voice “Dee, why you doing a fire drill?” Dee turns to look at K who is seated at table. Dee “K, we’re not doing a fire drill. We’re just going outside.”
Dee responded to K/EA in a calm, pleasant tone. She maintained eye contact with him throughout the entire dialogue. However, as the above example indicates, there were also times throughout the study in which Dee would miss a verbal or nonverbal initiation from J/AA and K/EA. Most of these missed opportunities reflected each child’s attempt to verbally request information or engage Dee in some type of conversation. Interestingly, Dee was quick to respond to J/AA’s and K/EA’s nonverbal initiations of standing behind or beside her.

There were notable variations in the need of each child to have Dee respond or talk with them. With J/AA, Dee responded more in regards to requests to assist him with play-based center tasks such as getting the computer to restart, or obtaining a toy. Whereas, with K/EA, Dee would respond more frequently to his attempts to initiate and sustain a conversation, seek her approval, or acquire information. Examples of this variation in teacher talk and responsiveness are as follow.

It is the first observation session, and all children present are engaged in play-based learning centers. J/AA is seated at the computer center and K/EA is in the dramatic play area.

J is sitting at the computer and begins to move the mouse back and forth across the table. Dee is interacting with another child in the science center area which is to the right of the computer. J begins to look in the direction of Dee. Within a few seconds, J calls Dee by name. Dee looks and begins walking towards J. Dee asks ‘what is wrong?’ Dee walks from science area to computer. C7 follows Dee to computer. Dee squats down and discusses game on computer with J. J points to monitor. The game is not working, nothing happens when mouse is clicked by J. J crosses arms across chest. Dee “that’s how I feel when the computer crashes.” Dee to C7 “you okay C7.” C7 nods and returns to science area. Dee
begins to slide mouse back and forth on table. Dee “yeah, Bailey’s” Dee claps hands. Dee turns and looks at J and asks “do you like Bailey’s?” J “yes”.

Another example is from the second observation session and J/AA is standing on the carpet area listening to a record and K/EA is in the housekeeping area.

J to Dee “I want to do popcorn [a song]” Dee “okay” J leaves table and walks to carpet area near record player. Dee walks to record and moves needle to the song and then returns back to the table with C9. J begins to hop and clap with 2 other children.”

This dialogue took place on the fifth observation day. K/EA and the rest of the class were preparing to depart the classroom to go to the playground. K/EA was putting on his coat near Dee, and K/EA began to engage her in conversation.

K to Dee “and me and Haley got something” Dee to K “what did you get?” as Dee stands up from having leaned forward to pick something up from the carpet. K “food”. Dee to K “what did Haley get?” K “she got fries” Dee “and what kind of food did you get?” K “I got nuggets”, Dee “where you at McDonald’s?” K “Yeah, Daddy took us there after S’s [K’s sibling] game last night.” Dee “sounds like that was fun. Did S’s team win?” K “no.” K then turns and walks to stand near chair.

Dee used a limited amount of directives and negative statements with both J/AA and K/EA. The magnitude of her directives and negative statements did vary between J/AA and K/EA. With J/AA, Dee would provide short concise corrections, whereas, with K/EA they were a lot more detailed and required K/EA to be more accountable for K/EA’s actions. The following presents as an example of each of these varied exchanges.

It is the third observation session and the group is transitioning from centers to the playground. J/AA is leaning back in chair so that the front 2 legs of the chair are in mid-
air. K/EA is seated correctly at K/EA’s assigned table. Dee is standing in the area between the computer and the door to the hallway. Dee “J/AA Chair! Sit on your bottom so you don’t get hurt.”

In the next example, K/EA is in a similar situation, and it occurred during the fourth observation session.

Dee “K, why are you leaning back in your chair like that?” K- no response, but does place chair on all four legs. Dee “K, Sit on your bottom so you don’t get hurt. K shakes head “okay, Dee, I will.”

Dee, not only articulated varying degrees of behavioral expectations, she also helped to illustrate Heath’s (1989) assertion that African American adults ask “real” questions—those to which the adults do not know the answers. In the above example, Dee’s posing of the question “why are you leaning back in your chair like that?” suggests that she did in fact want to know the purpose of his behavior. Thus, Dee’s verbal interactions varied slightly in her interactions with J/AA and K/EA. Although she used a similar level of teacher talk and responsiveness throughout her daily interactions with both children, there were slight nuances in the quality of her interactions. It would appear as though she interacted with K/EA, the child from a different racial background, in a more spontaneous and general manner. Dee’s interactions with J, the child from the same racial background were more task-oriented and resulted in some type of physical action, on the part of either Dee or J/AA being performed.

_Deep held K/EA more accountable for K/EA’s action when K/EA presented inappropriate behaviors._ Dee’s interactions with J/AA and K/EA during times in which
inappropriate behaviors occurred demonstrated a great deal of variation. In some respects, her interactions with K/EA, the child from a different racial background, were often more negative and punitive. Two examples follow to demonstrate the variability of Dee’s interventions.

It is the first observation session, and J/AA is at the sand table and K/EA walking from the bathroom back to the housekeeping area. Dee is seated, with her back turned to J, on the floor between the computer and sand table working with another child on identifying shapes and colors.

J slips on sand spilled on floor. Dee turns to look at the sand table. J throws sand at C10. C10 rubs eyes, but continues to play in sand. Dee makes siren sound as she stands from seated position at table. Dee “J I have to put the siren sound on you.” J stops throwing sand.

Such an exchange, would suggest that the ‘siren sound’ is a technique in redirecting J/AA that Dee commonly uses. However, this technique was not observed when she redirected any other children nor did it occur anymore throughout the observation sessions.

K/EA is involved in a similar situation with the water table. This occurred during the fourth observation session. J/AA is playing with the toy kitchen set. K/EA, wearing a blue smock, is standing at the water play table. Dee is seated, with two other children, at a table diagonal from the water table.

Dee begins to replace crayons in box. K splashes water in C14’s face. Dee calls K by name “K” K walks from water play table to the table where Dee is standing and has stopped replacing crayons into the storage container. Dee to K “do we play like that in the water play area?” K stands beside Dee and shakes head ‘no’ Dee “okay because we need to play nicely. Go tell C14 you’re sorry.” K nods “yes” and walks with head down to water play table. K does not verbally
apologize to C14. Dee follows K to table. Dee removes some paper towels that
are stacked on the countertop directly behind the water play table. Dee to K and
C14 “here are some paper towels for all this water on the table.” K and C14 take
the paper towel and begin wiping the table. Dee extends her hand, and K and C14
place the used paper towels in it. Dee turns from the table and walks to the
trashcan to dispose of the soiled paper towels.

Dee’s variability in responses to J/AA’s and K/EA’s inappropriate behaviors was not
limited to one on one interaction with each individual child. In fact, in a situation
involving both J/AA and K/EA, this differentiated level of interaction was apparent.
During the second observation session, Dee made an exception to the class rule and
allowed five children within the housekeeping area. J/AA, K/EA and three other children
were playing with the dress-up clothes and toy kitchen set within this center. Dee was
seated in the adjacent block area. She was not visible to the children in the housekeeping
area.

J and C13 simultaneously reach for a hat that is lying on the play kitchen table. J
shoves C13 and C13 bumps into K. Dee, who is in the adjacent center, stands,
just as K regains his balance and C13 shoves J back. Dee responds promptly and
asks all three to come to the carpet. Dee sits down and J, C13, and K sit down in
a semi-circle facing her. Dee asks them to apologize. Dee to J “you need to
apologize to C13.” J “sorry.” “K, you need to tell sorry to J and C13 for what
you did.” K “I’m sorry.” C13, “you need to apologize to J.” C13 “sorry”. Dee
admits that she was to blame for allowing more than the regular amount of people
into the center. Dee then tells J, K and C13 that they must find somewhere else to
play. J, K, and C13 stand without saying anything, and walk to another center in
the room. C13 goes to the book area, while J and K go to the same shelf and
select a toy and turn and sit at two different tables.

Dee held K/EA to a higher level of accountability that was unfounded in this situation.
Not only was K/EA the innocent by-stander, K/EA was also the child who had to
apologize to both of the perpetrators. Thus, Dee demonstrated a seemingly lower
tolerance for the inappropriate behaviors demonstrated by K/EA, the child from a
different racial background. However, in her interview, a counter-position was revealed.
Dee stated that:

J and K have been the same class since they were three. When I got them, they
fought like cats and dogs. K was generally the aggressor, but I have to admit, J
would do a lot of the pickin’ and get K all riled up. In fact, both of their parents
were like you have ‘J and K in your class, you better watch out. But honestly, I
really don’t have a problem with them really. And when I do, I try to talk with
them about the situation so hopefully it won’t happen again (Interview transcript,
lines 246-251)

In light of this information, it still would appear that K/EA’s past behavioral history may
have some influence into the disparity in which Dee responded to behavioral episodes
involving J/AA, K/EA and both J/AA and K/EA. Thus, Dee’s interactions with K/EA,
the child from a different racial background, were often more negative and punitive on
occasions in which K/EA’s inappropriate behaviors were in questions.

Dee’s level of physical involvement differed between J/AA and K/EA. As
described by Farran and Collin (2001) physical involvement was based on a continuum
from active to passive support. In her interactions with J/AA and K/EA, Dee’s physical
involvement fell within the passive support range. Dee provided passive support to J/AA
and K/EA on a minimal level. When she would physically touch J/AA, it was often
paired with a verbalization. More importantly, Dee used touch to assist J/AA with
completing tasks. The following example illustrates Dee’s use of touch with J/AA. This
occurred during the first observation session. J/AA was at the sand table and K/EA was
in the dramatic play area. Dee was standing near the computer watching C9 on the computer.

J and C8 were playing at the sand table and within several minutes both children were covered with sand. Dee observes this occurrence and walks very quickly to the sand table area. Once at the table, she looks at both J and C8 and states “you all like you work in a bakery. C8 [calls child by name] go in the bathroom and get the sand off.” C8 complies, and the sand is no longer evident. J remains standing looking at Dee. C8 exits the bathroom and stands near table. Dee to J “you need to get that sand off. Go in the bathroom, and wet a paper towel and go like this [Dee takes right hand and places hand slightly above top of head and begins moving it left to right] Make sure you close your eyes.” J turns and walks to the bathroom. A few seconds elapse, and Dee walks to the doorway and inquires to see if J is doing okay. J emerges from bathroom with the majority of the sand off J’s body.

As the example depicts, the nature of Dee’s touch was not affective in nature. In fact, there were no observed instances in which she hugged, or affectively touched either J/AA or K/EA. Similarly, Dee never used touch as a means to control either child (Kostelnick et al., 2006). As Chapter II suggested, touch is thought to be a cultural construct of African Americans (Taylor, 2003). Dee’s practice seemed to be counter to this construct. When asked about her use of touch, she indicated that “I generally give and receive hugs as the children arrive and leave each day. I don’t force the issue and actually K/EA more than J/AA will give me a hug” (interview transcript, lines 117-118). Also, in her interview, Dee provides the rationale for the level of support given to J, the child from the same racial background.

J’s self help skills were not very well developed. So I’m kinda like, well, we’re getting ready to go outside I might work with J a little bit more on a little technique of putting your arms in flipping it over your head. We might work a little more with buttoning your pants, or zipping your pants up. Not necessarily I
pull J out of the group and do it, I just go ahead and help J with it (interview transcript, lines 102-105).

Thus, within her classroom, Dee ascribed to a child-initiated form of affective touch and utilizes more passive means of touch in helping J/AA complete self-help skills. Touch was an observable and articulated part of her practice; however, it was more apparent in her interactions with J, the child from the same racial background.

Culturally Responsive Practices

The Crosswalks Assessment of Student Knowledge and Skills

The analyses of Dee’s culturally responsive practices sought to highlight the cultural nature and context of Dee’s teacher practices in general as well as they pertained to J/AA and K/EA. Dee’s (AA) scores for both J/AA and K/EA were visually compared for both quantitative measures. The results of such a comparison are provided in the following sections.

Dee completed CASKS) as a quantitative measure to determine her level of self-reported practices as it pertained to interacting with children and families who are culturally and linguistically diverse. Each item was scored from zero to five, with five representing high knowledge, three- medium knowledge, and zero no knowledge. The mean score results for are provided in Table 7 below.

Table 7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Dee</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

97
In her self-report of culturally responsive practices, Dee’s overall mean scores for three of the five categories (supporting children’s learning, collaboration, and assessment) was a five, the highest possible rating. The two remaining categories, general knowledge and families had calculated mean scores of 4.8 and 4.6 respectively. Dee’s responses would suggest that she feels her current level of knowledge is high (overall mean score = 4.9) in regards to working with children and families who are culturally and linguistically diverse.

Promoting Cultural Diversity and Linguistic Competency

Dee responded to all 52 items on this self-assessment. Two items, numbers 19 and 22, consisted of multiple statements in which to respond. For item 19, three responses were expected; while for item 22, there were two responses. The indicators, ‘things I do frequently’, ‘things I do occasionally’, and ‘things I do rarely or never’, were identified as letters A, B and C respectively. Using these indicators, Dee responded to the following topical areas: (a) physical environment, materials and resources, (b) communication styles and, (c) values and attitudes. These areas helped to emphasize
characteristics of Dee’s practices that could be considered culturally responsive. Table 8 provides the frequency of Dee’s responses by indicator.

Table 8

Dee’s PCLC frequency scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Dee</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PHYS</td>
<td>F=9 O=5 N=1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMM</td>
<td>F=11 O=4 N=0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VALUE</td>
<td>F=22 O=0 N=0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. PHYS= Physical environment, materials and resources; COMM= communication styles; VALUE= values and attitudes; F= ‘frequently’; O= ‘occasionally’; N= ‘rarely or never’; and *= response not provided for all items in topical area

Physical Environment, Materials, and Resources

The majority of Dee’s responses (n=9) suggested that she frequently engaged in such behaviors as selecting props and other materials for learning centers that were culturally diverse; reading books and having parents read books to the children with culturally diverse individuals; playing music and celebrating holidays from a variety of cultures.

Dee’s responses for five questions in this section were indicated as behaviors in which she felt she engaged in occasionally. These items reflected the display of pictures that reflected the cultures of the children in her room; providing parents and children the opportunity to create books; and planning activities such as meal preparation and community outings that reflect the cultural diversity within her classroom. As
previously mentioned, Dee’s classroom throughout the five observations did not have any displays of individuals or the children that represented culturally diverse individuals. Furthermore, in talking with Dee, she indicated that the director does much of the planning and organizing of field trips. Lastly, Dee provided only one response that indicated that this was a behavior that she engaged in rarely or never. The item provided a hypothetical situation in which the teacher was asked to respond to the following:

If my early childhood program or setting consists entirely of children and families from the same cultural or ethnic group, I feel it is important to plan an environment and implement activities that reflect the cultural diversity within the society at large (PCLC, item 14).

Communication Style

The demographics of Dee’s classroom reflected several students who were culturally and linguistically diverse. In responding to questions on this topic, Dee’s communicative style indicated that she frequently attempted to learn key words in their language; used a variety of modalities to convey meaning to these children and their families; and used individuals proficient in the language to assist in meetings and other communications with the family. Interestingly, throughout the study, Dee was never observed talking to the Hispanic children in her room in their home language. More aligned with the focus of this study, Dee noted that she frequently uses alternative formats to communicate with a child and/or a family member with a disability.

Dee, however, acknowledged that she occasionally ensured that notices were written in the family’s home language or that she recognized and implemented the families’ preferred mode of communication such as over the phone. Dee also self
reported that she *occasionally* applied or advocated for the practices of linguistic competency in her classroom. Dee’s overall responses indicated that she *frequently* (n=11) and *occasionally* (n=4) engaged in communications, verbal and nonverbal, that were culturally responsive to the children in her classroom.

*Values and Attitudes*

All of Dee’s responses in this area were scored as *frequently* (n= 22). Dee’s responses reflected an acceptance of all cultures, including her own, African American. This level of acceptance was permeated by the recognition of the cultural nature of childrearing practices and their influence on the family’s educational decision-making for the child.

Dee’ overall responses imply that she is an individual who *frequently* (n=42) utilizes strategies and practices that promote cultural and linguistic competency in her classroom. Such findings might indicate that Dee has developed an understanding of her individual culture and the interconnectedness of it to her students and her practices.

*Interview and Fieldnotes*

Following data analysis of *CASKS* and the *PCLC*, the qualitative measures were analyzed again. However, during this phase of analyses, specific attention was given to the possible creation of additional themes that might be more reflective of the cultural implementations of Dee’s teaching practices. In the following section, one previously identified theme (Dee’s level of teacher talk and responsiveness varied slightly in her interactions with J/AA and K/EA) will be expanded and two additional themes will be described. The themes are: Dee engaged sporadically with both children during play-
based centers time, and Dee’s practices reflected a sense of critical self-reflection, coupled with a respect for other cultures.

*Dee’s level of teacher talk and responsiveness varied slightly in her interactions with J/AA and K/EA.* Dee self-reported that she used a variety of modalities to convey meaning to culturally diverse children. This was apparent in her observed interactions with J/AA; Dee used a combination of nonverbal and verbal cues, coupled with physical prompting in their exchanges. Such an observation further verified Dee’s assertions that she frequently used alternative formats to communicate with a child with a disability. However, these alternative formats to communicate were more apparent with J, the child from the same racial background, rather than K/EA.

*Dee engaged sporadically with both children during play-based centers time.* Dee interacted with all children, including J/AA and K/EA, throughout play-based center time. However, the amount of individualized time and attention spent with J/AA and K/EA on a daily basis was very limited. Also, the child-guided philosophy associated with play-based learning centers may have contributed to this limited time. Furthermore, during the study, J/AA tended to play within the dramatic play, sand table, music, manipulatives and computer areas. The majority of Dee’s slight number of interactions occurred when J/AA was on the computer. On several occasions, she was observed kneeling for about 30 seconds beside the computer or adjusting the volume prior to turning and walking to another center. The following is an example of an occasion in which Dee adjusted the volume on the computer for J/AA without being requested, but did not remain to observe J/AA or perhaps even interact with J.
This occurred during the third observation and center time had just begun. When asked by Dee during group time, J/AA selected the computer. K/EA was within the dramatic play area, and Dee was walking from the water play table towards J/AA at the computer.

Dee walks around room from water center to J at computer. Dee to J “J, can you hear that?” [referring to volume of game.] J looks up at Dee. Dee “click on something to see if it’s loud enough” J clicks on a rocket ship. Dee adjusts volume and walks to block area.

Dee was, however, consistent about allowing J/AA to select J/AA’s own center. With the exception of the previous example in which J/AA and K/EA were involved in a physical conflict in the dramatic play area, and they were both asked to find an alternate center, Dee afforded J/AA this decision-making opportunity. Additionally, K/EA was provided with complete autonomy in center selection. K/EA often selected the dramatic play, water table, music, and manipulatives areas.

When Dee interacted with J/AA and K/EA, she did provide a mixture of behavior monitoring, assessment conducting, and sporadic play. Again, there were variations in the degree, quality, and length of these interactions. It should also be noted that as was previously mentioned, Dee’s interactions with J/AA were regulated to assisting J/AA in accessing materials during play-based center time. She would often provide J/AA with the toys, but would not interact with J/AA and the toys. The following provides an example of Dee’s willingness to help J/AA access toys, but failure to engage J/AA in meaningful play with the item. It is the second observation and the children have been in play-based centers for approximately 25 minutes. J/AA had been playing in the dramatic
play area with K/EA, but departs center and walks to Dee who is positioned near the manipulatives shelf.

J goes to carpet area near record player. J then goes to Dee who is standing near manipulatives shelf. J “can I have animals?” Dee “okay, hold on a minute.” Dee walks to cabinet and gets toy zoo set and hands it to J who has followed her to cabinet. J walks with the zoo set back to table and places it on table. Dee walks past J at the table and sits on floor between block and dramatic play areas with C12 and C4.

This was a common practice; Dee would often walk past or fail to engage J/AA in the activity of J/AA’s choosing. It should be noted that Dee joined C12 and C4 and began to engage in building blocks with them and having general conversation. The following example provides an additional support of this practice.

Dee walks from housekeeping area to record player. Dee starts the record and turns on music to a moderately low volume. K is in dramatic play area, wearing a red Power Rangers costume. Dee walks from record player to computer. Dee walks past table where J is seated playing. Dee stands behind C7 who is seated at computer. K “Dee,” Dee turns “oooh, I see” walks to K. Dee to K “What are you going to find?” K “I don’t know.” K turns and begins looking through dress up clothes trunk. Dee leaves dramatic play area and walks with C5 to table in manipulative area. Dee sits down at table. J is at the head of the same table playing with the castle toys. Dee begins to ask C9, seated to the left of J what C9 is building.

Although J/AA was engaged in building a castle structure as well, Dee never acknowledged that behavior, nor did she attempt to engage J/AA in play. The aforementioned example also brings to light the manner in which Dee interacted with K/EA during centers. Dee would often comment on a task K/EA had completed within the center, but she did not often engage K/EA in play. For example, K/EA would often
dress up in various articles of clothing available in the dramatic play area. On another occasion,

Dee leaves dramatic play area where K and 3 other children were cleaning up. K stands behind Dee who is seated at table. K begins talking about farm animals on table. Dee turns “you can play with them. How would you like to play with them?” Dee stands and K sits in Dee’s empty chair. Dee leaves to go to computer with C7.

This occurred during the first observation session and K/EA had been within the dramatic play throughout the entire 25 minute timeframe. As the above example illustrates, Dee had abrupt departures from possible play interactions with K/EA. It should be noted that Dee typically monitored the area of the classroom that consisted of the computer, tables, and block area. The teaching assistant generally facilitated play and learning with children in the dramatic play area. In her interview, Dee mentioned that she and her teaching assistant explicitly discussed how play-based center times were to be monitored and facilitated. The following is an excerpt from the single interview with Dee. The interview occurred during the final observation day after the children had gone home for the day.

I told her [referring to the teacher assistant], we don’t go in the same center at the same time, we gotta keep floating around, moving around the room. If you see me over here at the table with some kids, you can go to home center. I said, Just keep moving, cause as long as we keep moving, it will cut down on accidents, cut down on confusion, we just don’t need to be together. I don’t know, kids see two adults together, they getting into something over here cause you’re not looking at them. So as long as we move around, that’s what I try to do is move around and keep peace. And sometimes I got flashcards and we might review what we did at group time, two or three at a time. And then sometimes I just leave them alone and let the kids have their day (interview transcripts, lines 197-205).
Therefore, K/EA’s presence at the table was within an area in which Dee would generally spot and monitor the children. Interestingly though, Dee only actively engaged with K/EA while K/EA was playing at the table two out of the five time. The following illustrates these two occurrences. Each of the examples occurred within the fifth and final observation. During the first example, K/EA had been participating in centers for about 15 minutes prior to Dee joining K/EA at the table.

Dee at table with K & C9. K & C9 are drumming on blocks. Dee to C9 “what song are you playing?” C9 “daddy’s song” J is playing cars on carpet area near blocks and sand table. Dee shows K a fence Dee has built with the manipulatives. Dee “look at my fence” K smiles. J slides train across floor near Dee at the manipulatives table. K stands, walks away from table and plays the guitar created with circular manipulatives.

The second example occurred after approximately 25 minutes of elapsed time.

K to Dee “Dee, I can’t build it” Dee “yes you can” K “I can’t build it” K tries to stack Legos on top of each other. K continues to stack red, blue and green legos until the structure is about 10 legos high. Dee to K “I wonder how tall you get this” Tower begins to tilt to the left. Dee grabs it. Dee “I’ll hold it, so it doesn’t fall” Dee remains with K until the structure is taller than K and is approximately 15 legos high. Dee lets go and stands looking at the structure. Dee smiles at K and K returns the smile. K then begins to remove several of the legos and replaces them in the container. Dee turns and walks toward the book area.

Dee’s interactions, with both J/AA and K/EA throughout play-based centers, appeared to be more managerial in nature. Dee’s limited devotion of time to facilitate J/AA’s and K/EA’s play did not provide conversations that were filled with rich and stimulating content. In this manner, her behaviors were reflective of the findings of Massey (2004) and Hestenes, Cassidy, & Niemeyer (2004), in which teachers in inclusive
settings did not engage children with disabilities in cognitively challenging conversations.

As previously mentioned in the example from the interview with Dee, she did incorporate assessments into the play-based centers. Whether it was Dee or a college intern, two of the observational sessions involved the children, including J/AA and K/EA, being asked to identify shapes, colors, and numbers. She was observed once carrying around a 3-inch white binder under her arm. When asked about the contents of her notebook, she responded that “it had all the items that were supposed to be assessed, based on the LAP-D.” The following example occurred during the second observation.

J/AA and K/EA had been in the dramatic play area for approximately 15 minutes.

J & K in dramatic play area. Dee walks from area near classroom door towards the dramatic play area. Dee sits on floor of dramatic play area. Dee holds up flashcards so that J can see them. J begins to identify colors and is joined by C4, C6, & C8. Once all 10 color cards have been identified, Dee picks up flashcards and walks to block area.

During times in which concepts were being assessed, Dee would remain with J/AA and K/EA for a longer timeframe than normal. Thus, suggesting that Dee’s play interaction were closely relegated by a particular skill or concept to be assessed. This was consistent with each of the children, and the child’s race did not see to mitigate the level of play interactions.

*Dee’s practices reflected a sense of critical self-reflection, coupled with a respect for other cultures.* Dee’s articulated and observed practices reflected a strong balance
between her ability to critically self-reflect on her cultural beliefs and values and how these beliefs were then transformed into practice. In regards to how she felt her cultural beliefs were reflected in her practices, she indicated that:

I try not to, I have books in the room, we’ll, let’s see, February was black history month, so we brought up some things there. But I don’t want to over, do too much of that information. I try to bring some of everybody’s culture in, not just basically mine, because I have one child from Pakistan and I’ll ask her mom, if you have CDs or magazines, please bring them in, cause we can show the pictures, you know, to help her even get more relaxed. As far as myself, we might like I have some pictures in there with (?) and we’ll talk about who they are, their background as far as their race, but I try not to just throw it out. I want them to get an understanding of everybody’s background. I think that’s important. (interview transcript, lines 20-28).

In this manner, Dee did not readily ascribe to the ‘promotion of the color blind’ perspective (Hamm, 2001), nor did she feel her cultural beliefs should be central in the structuring of the class. She felt it was important for the race of all children to be recognized. However, she did recognize that there was also a need for the African American children to feel a sense of belonging and connectedness to her and the classroom.

Dee also felt it was important to make all children feel relaxed and comfortable within the classroom environment. She created an environment in which materials and resources were reflective of the children in her class. For J/AA and the other African American children in her classroom, Dee sought to provide items for the various learning centers that were reflective of their culture and their race. She stated that:

as far as me personally, I bring things in from my home, from the community, and
they go, “Oh, my mama has that!” and it helps them relax a little bit. It helps them to relax, they feel like, oh, okay, she’s like us (interview transcript, lines 45-47).

In addition to the previously indicated items, Dee uses a variety of strategies to ensure that all children’s learning is supported in her classroom. For example, she mentioned that:

I have one parent, she’ll laugh at me for telling you this, she’ll help me with some Spanish words. She’s Spanish and she’ll write things down, and I’ll say, well, can you write out the pronunciation to the side, so when I’m saying it to them, they understand. And it’s funny cause some of my English speaking children, they’re saying some of the Spanish words now, too. So I hope I’m saying it right. I have one, like she’ll help me with speaking Spanish, the little girl from Pakistan, her mom helped me with a few words, um and some of the kids were trying to say some, I don’t even know if I was saying them right. But I was trying (Interview transcript, lines 55-62).

Dee also recognized the extent to which her racial background would be recognized and possibly commented on by the children in her room.

Because my kids don’t necessarily point out differences when they’re playing, and you know, and one little girl she had some stamps, a Caucasian girl, she had some stamps and she said, “I’m gonna stamp your hand today Ms. Dee” I said, okay. And she went to stamp it, and I said I don’t think your stamp is working, cause I don’t see nothing, so she stamped it again. I said I think your ink is drying out, she said, No, you’re just black. And then she stamped her hand, she goes, See! And her mom turned so red and I said, No, it’s funny. She’s not being rude, she’s a child, I’m glad to know she was able to see the difference, she picked that up, that’s very good. Her mom was like, I am so embarrassed, I said why are you embarrassed? It’s okay. It was good that she was able, I mean, she was aware that, No, you’re just black. And I couldn’t, it caught me off guard, I wasn’t expecting that (Interview, lines 128-136).

She also acknowledged the influence of her childhood on who she was as a teacher.

I feel a lot of my practice have to do with my upbringing. After my parents split
up, my mom had to move to the projects here in town. And I can remember going to public schools and people saying ‘oh, she’s well-mannered and behaved’ and when they found out where I lived all that would change. They [European American teachers] would sort of treat me different. So that’s why I tell some of my parents. I have to make home visits and some of them that live in the projects don’t want me to see their houses. I am like I used to live over there. And they are like “what Dee you used to live in the projects? And so I don’t try to judge anyone, I put myself in the place of the parent and treat people how I would want to be treated, because I know what is like to be treated because you don’t live where everyone else lives or don’t look like everyone else (interview transcripts, lines 262-273).

As evidenced above, Dee created an environment that sought to create a promoting environment for not only J/AA and the rest of the African American preschoolers, but for K/EA and the remainder of the class.

Summary

Dee’s scores reflected above are very similar in nature in regards to J/AA and K/EA. These scores were supportive of the five identified themes. Her apparent strength was responsiveness for both children. Dee’s self-reported responses on the CASKS help to further support the qualitative measures. Her knowledge in regards to supporting children’s learning, collaboration and assessment had the highest possible mean score of five. As mentioned in previous sections, in varying levels, Dee did provide J/AA and K/EA with materials that were supportive of their individual growth and development. Furthermore, through her integration of assessment and play, Dee demonstrated a working knowledge of assessment techniques and strategies that were not only developmentally appropriate, but culturally appropriate as well. (Table 7 provides Dee’s mean scores for the CASKS).
Also, Dee’s differing of physical closeness to J/AA and K/EA provides an explanation for the three identified themes. Dee’s number of “no opportunities to interact” scores were higher with K/EA (n=94) than with J/AA (n=74). Such quantitative data spoke to the variability that existed among Dee’s verbal and play behaviors with J/AA and K/EA.

In addition, Dee’s overall responses on the PCLC imply that she is an individual who frequently (n=42) utilizes strategies and practices that promote cultural and linguistic competency in her classroom. Such findings might indicate that Dee has developed an understanding of her individual culture and the interconnectedness of it to her students and her practices.

Lastly, Dee’s self-reported claims were supported by her articulated practices. For example, in her interview, Dee indicated that she often brought in items from home as well as asked a student’s mother from another cultural to provide items to use in her learning centers. Dee felt this was an important component of helping the children become relaxed and comfortable in her classroom.

Tamera

Contextual Information

Tamera is African American and was the oldest teacher in the study. She has an Associate’s degree. She has 18 years of experience in an inclusive setting and 16 years teaching preschoolers aged 3 to 4. She had been working with the class of children since August, and had had the same assistant teacher for three years. The assistant teacher would often facilitate group time as Tamera prepared the tables and children for lunch.
The assistant teacher’s participation was considered supplementary and was recorded only in the field notes when it was pertinent to L/AA, the child who is from the same racial background, and N/EA, the child is from the different racial background.

There were 16 children in the inclusive preschool classroom, six boys and ten girls who ranged in ages from three to four. Of the sixteen, parental permission to participate in the study was received from eight of the children, for a total of five boys and three girls. The children who were included in the study were either African American, or European American. Their interactions with Tamera were considered supplementary and were recorded only in the field notes.

The two children under study, L/AA and N/EA, were present for all five observation sessions. Both L/AA and N/EA had been in Tamera’s class since August. Both children had been identified as having a speech language disability. During one of the observational sessions, the speech language pathologist walked out to the playground and departed with both L/AA and N/EA. The children received therapy in the classroom while the class remained on the playground. L/AA is an African American female who was 4 years of age at the time of the study. N/EA is a European American male who was 4 years of age at the time of the study.

The Setting

The Head Start center where Tamera worked was a five-star licensed program, located in the western part of the Piedmont region of North Carolina. It has four classrooms that serve 64 children, ranging in age from three years to six years of age. The racial background of the children included: African American, and European
American, with the African American population having the highest enrollment (n=63) and the European American population having the least (n=1). The program had two children who were identified by the category of ‘speech language disabilities.’ These two children were L/AA and N/EA who were included as part of the study. The center provided training to the 8 staff members on the topics of ‘possible signs of a disability,’ but did not provide trainings on how to work with culturally diverse children and families.

The preschool classroom included three developmentally appropriate sized tables and chairs for the children, as well as one carpeted area. The carpeted area was used during group time and included individual carpet pieces labeled with each child’s name as well as a foam square cushion used by Tamera. A record player on a shelf with records stored below, was situated to the right of the carpet and helped to create an enclosure for the adjacent book area. In addition, the physical structure of the room was divided into various learning centers that were created through the physical placement of bookshelves that were tall enough for an adult to be able to see over while kneeling. The learning centers included the following: (a) a shelf with books, puppets and soft cushions, (b) a sand/water table, (c) manipulatives shelf with puzzles, etc., (d) art with an art easel and a shelf of paper, paint, playdough, markers, crayons and other supplies, (e) a dramatic play with a play kitchen set and table with four chairs, mirror and dress up clothes, (f) block area with various sized blocks and toy cars, (g) a computer with one chair, (h) a science area with a globe, magnifying glass and several seedlings in styrofoam cups along the windowsill, and (i) a listening center with headsets and a tape
cassette player. Tables within the manipulative, science and art centers were also used for lunch. It should be noted that no children were ever observed using the computer or listening center. Furthermore, wooden musical sticks were often used during group time to identify numbers or letters displayed on the wall.

Two bathrooms were located in the hallway to the left of the carpeted area. A single sink was located on the wall between the two bathrooms. Children stored their coats and belongings in square areas called ‘lockers’ located to the right of the main classroom entrance. There was also a sink located near the art area that was utilized as the children re-entered the room from the playground.

On the chalkboard behind the carpeted area, the day’s theme and several pictures representing the topic were displayed. Also on the chalkboard were a weather chart and a calendar that was filled in daily by a student with the appropriate date. Along the walls near the art center, pictures of 6 people representing various races, ethnicities and ages were displayed. Each visual was approximately 11 inches x 14 inches and hung within view of the children.

Teacher Child Interactions

Teacher - Child Interaction Scale

The analyses of Tamera’s (AA) interactions with L/AA and N/EA are provided in the following sections. Descriptive statistics were used to visually compare the mean scores of L/AA and N/EA on two of the quantitative measures. The mean scores for Tamera are shown below in Table 9.
Table 9

Tamera’s mean scores, TCIS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Verbal^</th>
<th>Physical</th>
<th>Responsiveness</th>
<th>Play^</th>
<th>Teaching^</th>
<th>Control*</th>
<th>Directives*</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tamera</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>L</td>
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<td>2.1</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>1.2</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Positive^</th>
<th>Negative*^</th>
<th>Goal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tamera</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. * denotes that a lower mean score was more desired and appropriate for this behavior. ^ denotes behaviors that a “0” was a possible score

Tamera’s demonstration of the above teaching behaviors did not differ across the two children under study L/AA and N/EA. The range of scores (1.1-3.7) for L/AA, the child from the same racial background and N/EA (1.0 – 4.3), the child from a different racial background were very similar. However, there were some noted differences across the eleven behaviors. For example, N/EA’s scores were consistently higher, and when appropriate, lower than L/AA. There was only one behavior, negative statements, in which L/AA’s scores were lower than N/EA’s. Overall, Tamera’s mean scores fell within the ‘very little to occasionally/ almost always’ indicators.

Missed Opportunities Record

The missed opportunities record provided frequencies of scores for Tamera’s initiated interactions with L/AA and N/EA as well as L/AA’s and N/EA’s initiated
interactions with her. The record also provided the total number of times Tamera did not have the opportunity to interact with L/AA or N/EA, due to Tamera’s proximity within a play based learning center that was not currently occupied by L/AA or N/EA. This number is a cumulative total that spans across the 25 observation intervals of the study and reflects occasions in which Tamera did not engage L/AA or N/EA, not due to inattentiveness, but rather lack of physical closeness or proximity. Her scores are provided in Table 10 below.

Table 10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher-Child Dyad</th>
<th>Total V M (T)</th>
<th>Total N M (T)</th>
<th>Total # of (T) Interactions</th>
<th>Total V M (C)</th>
<th>Total N M (C)</th>
<th>Total # of (C) Interactions</th>
<th>Total # of ‘no opp’</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tamera &amp; L</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>110</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tamera &amp; N</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. M = missed opportunities; V= verbal; N= nonverbal; (C) = child-initiated; (T) = teacher-initiated; ‘no opp’= no opportunities, scores of 6

Tamera’s results indicate that she used primarily verbal interactions when communicating with both children. There was no difference in the frequency in which she verbally interacted with L/AA (n=25) versus N/EA (n=19). There was a notable difference in the number of nonverbal interactions Tamera engaged N/EA, the child from a different racial background. There was no difference in the number of missed opportunities by L/AA or N/EA.

There was a notable difference in the results from the child initiated interactions. Both L/AA and N/EA used a great deal of nonverbal communication. L/AA initiated
more nonverbal interactions (n=11) than N/EA (n=2) with Tamera. Tamera failed to acknowledge both attempts by N/EA to nonverbally communicate with her. Tamera’s total number of ‘no opportunities to interact’ were similar for L/AA (n= 107) and N/EA (n = 110).

Fieldnotes and Interviews

Following data analysis of the Teacher-Child Interaction Scales, and the missed opportunities record, qualitative measures were analyzed. Three themes emerged that were indicative of Tamera’s practices with the two children under study. They were: (a) Tamera’s verbalizations were similar, the intent of her communications differed between L/AA and N/EA, and (b) Tamera used a great deal of touch when interacting with N/EA.

Themes will be discussed in the sequence provided above. Tamera, an African American lead preschool teacher, is referred to as Tamera throughout the data sources and the children are noted by a single capitalized letter. L/AA is the child from the same racial background; and N/EA is the child from a different racial background.

Tamera’s verbalizations were similar but the intent of her communications differed between L/AA and N/EA. Tamera demonstrated a similar level of verbalizations and responsiveness in her interactions with L/AA and N/EA. She often spoke in a hurried rate of speech especially when redirecting N/EA’s behavior. As Tamera talked to both L/AA and N/EA, she would often bend forward in order to maintain eye contact. At times, N/EA was observed looking down at the ground, standing with shoulders sagging in a manner that appeared to display discomfort. Also, Tamera’s verbalizations were quite varied in the intent and delivery of messages to L/AA and N/EA. In her exchanges
with L/AA, her exchanges were more within the context of assisting or participating in center-related tasks or questioning during group circle time. With N/EA, Tamera was often very matter of fact, and often times, managerial in her purpose. Additionally, Tamera would allow and accept N/EA’s nonverbal communication; while she encouraged L/AA to verbally respond.

The following examples occurred during the first observational session and the third timed interval. L/AA, N/EA, and the rest of the class are seated on their specified area of the carpet. Tamera is seated facing the group of children who are positioned in the shape of the letter ‘u.’ Tamera is discussing the elements of the calendar with the children.

L is sitting with legs crossed. L joins in the “days of the week” song but stops after Tuesday. N is redirected to sit up by TA2. Tamera “what is the month?” Children respond correctly. Tamera “today is?” Tamera looks at L. Tamera: “L, Today is” L: repeats “Today is” Tamera: “Thursday” L: “Thursday”. Tamera nods yes.

Interestingly, N/EA was never called on to repeat or to state any information pertaining to the calendar. Of the 14 children present on this day, N/EA and C8 were the only children who were not specifically called upon to respond to a question or repeat a statement or word.

Also, within the same observation session and the fourth timed interval, Tamera begins calling individual children to select a center. The following illustrates Tamera’s seemingly acceptance of N/EA’s selected use of verbal communication.

Tamera calls children individually and child responds with desired centers.
Tamera “N,” N does not provide a center choice. N stands, points at the puzzle storage container in the manipulatives center and then runs to manipulative center. Tamera “I know you like puzzles, N” Tamera calls C3, C9, the L. L “art.” L stands, walks to the art table and sits quietly with the pointer finger of right hand in mouth. (Interview 4, interval 4)

Conversely, during a similar situation in which L/AA was unable to articulate center choice, Tamera required that L/AA state the center choice. The following illustrates this occurrence during the fifth observation session and fourth timed interval. Tamera and the class are seated in the position described above. N/EA is in the bathroom being monitored by the teacher assistant.

Tamera discusses current weather as she waits for N and C12 to return from bathroom. Tamera begins to call each child individually to select a center. L is selected 6th. L stands. Tamera to L “you have all these centers to choose from” L continues to stand for 2 more seconds. Tamera “L, tell me where you want to go.” L: “blocks.” Tamera: “okay.” Tamera departs from the block area.

Tamera’s interactive style with N/EA was very similar to the findings of Chow and Kasari (1999), regarding the use of more negative and task-oriented interactions with children with disabilities.

It should be noted that there was a situation in which Tamera did require that N/EA, the child from a different racial background, to verbally respond. During the fourth observation session, the fifth timed interval, Tamera is assessing the skills of selected children. L/AA is playing with playdough at the art table, and N/EA is seated at a table putting a puzzle together.

Tamera has picked up her white three-ring binder, opens it and begins to conduct an assessment on C10. When finished, Tamera walks to N and places binder on
Tamera did a great job of praising N/EA’s effort, although, such encouragement was often devoid from other verbal exchanges between them. When questioned regarding the level of attention Tamera felt must be given to monitoring and engaging N/EA in verbal and nonverbal communication, she stated that: “when I have a child like the one I have, I have to make sure that he understands, I have to do gestures and things like that and make sure he understands what I’m saying” (interview lines 72 -73).

Tamera appeared to feel that N/EA’s disability required her to provide a higher level of communicative support.

Well I have a child that has a speech problem, he doesn’t speak, but he hears. And I talk to him just like I do to the other children, but I know that he can’t answer me back, so what I do, I try to use sign language with him (Interview, lines 64-66).

Perhaps Tamera’s conceptualization of N/EA as a being a child who “did not talk” provides a possible rationale for why she did not often encourage or promote N/EA’s use of verbal communication. Also, Tamera’s self-reported practices infer that she used various modalities when communicating with children with a disability.

Interestingly, N/EA was observed verbally interacting with classmates during group time and on the playground. Also, N/EA, on several occasions, verbally communicated the need to use the bathroom to the teaching assistant in the room. Furthermore, Tamera
used more nonverbal communication such as standing beside N/EA to initiate conversations regarding N/EA’s actions.

Also, the setting in which Tamera initiated interactions varied by child. For L/AA, Tamera initiated more communication while inside the classroom, specifically during play based learning centers; whereas, for N/EA, more communication occurred while outside on the playground, where learning is not readily emphasized. It was also in these settings where Tamera would spontaneously play with both L/AA and N/EA, although the length of time spent in these one-to-one interactions was not long (average 1-2 minutes).

Tamera used a great deal of touch when interacting with N/EA. As mentioned in Chapter II, touch is a primary way in which teachers and preschool children interact and relate to each other. Touch is used to convey a variety of messages; ranging from affection and concern, or as a means to control or communicate. Tamera used touch as a primary means to control as well as communicate with N/EA; while she seldom touched L/AA in a similar fashion. She was often observed placing her hand on N/EA’s wrist, arm or head in an attempt to get N/EA to comply with her request. In contrast, Tamera was never observed using touch with L/AA other than within the context of helping L/AA use scissors in a hand over hand manner, or handing or receiving items from L/AA. Examples of Tamera’s use of touch with N/EA are as follows.

It is the first observation session, second timed interval. Tamera has asked L/AA and N/EA with the rest of their classmates to begin lining up to return to the classroom.
Five of the fourteen children present have begun to walk towards the fence to begin lining up.

Tamera “N? Let’s go N. N, now!” Tamera walks over to where N stands on the grass area near the sidewalk leading to fence. Tamera takes N by the wrist and leads N to the line. N begins to twist wrist back in forth in Tamera’s fingers as well as scowl. Tamera “okay, I'll let go.” C8 and N push each other as they wait in line. Tamera “C8. N you are suppose to be the line leader.” N walks to front of line near TA as the remainder of the class line up.

This second example also occurred transitioning from the playground to the classroom. It is the fifth observation session, the second timed interval.

Tamera tells class to line up. L complies. N turns from slide and begins to walk near sidewalk. N begins to hop on grass to the left of it. Tamera physically places N on sidewalk by placing her arms under each of N’s underarms and lifting N onto the sidewalk. Tamera then places hand on N’s head. N turns head from left to right two times, but then just stands with Tamera’s hand on head. Tamera “get behind L, L is the line leader.” L walks in front of C11. Tamera stands with hand on N’s head for another 5 seconds and then drops hand and walks to the front of the line with L.

Within the classroom, Tamera also used touch as a means to control N/EA’s behavior. In the following example, Tamera is standing near the light switch located near the science center. L/AA is seated in the art center playing with playdough, and N/EA is standing in the science center with C9.

Tamera: “five minutes to clean up.” N and C9 clap their individual hands excitedly and yell in science center. Tamera walks from light switch to science area and places hand on N’s head and says “shh.” N looks at Tamera as she turns to walk towards the book area. C9 claps hands and jumps up and down one more time.
As the above examples indicate, Tamera’s use of touch seemed specific to N/EA and were not incorporated into her overall teaching behaviors. In the above example, N/EA and C9 (who was African American) engaged in the same behavior, however, N/EA was the only one who was reprimanded. In the examples on the playground, similar behaviors were demonstrated by N/EA’s classmates; however, Tamera seemed to only use touch to redirect N/EA’s behavior. There were times where it appeared as though a combination of N/EA’s disability and racial background contributed to these observed practices of Tamera. Furthermore, Tamera’s observed practices seem converse to some of her articulated practices.

Well, I was brought up to be fair to all people and it doesn’t bother me when I have children you know, regardless of who they are, I just want to treat everybody equal or fair. And so in my teaching I try to do that you know, regardless who the child is I try to treat them fair  (Interview lines, 109-112).

Thus, Tamera demonstrated a differentiated approach to how she incorporated touch in her communications with N/EA.

Culturally Responsive Practices

*The Crosswalks Assessment of Student Knowledge and Skills*

The analyses of Tamera’s culturally responsive practices sought to highlight the cultural nature and context of Tamera’s teacher practices in general as well as they pertained to L/AA and N/EA. Tamera’s (AA) scores for both L/AA and N/EA were visually compared for both quantitative measures. The results of such a comparison are provided in the following sections.
Tamera completed CASKS as a quantitative measure to determine her level of self-reported practices as it pertained to interacting with children and families who are culturally and linguistically diverse. Each item was scored from zero to five, with five representing high knowledge, three- medium knowledge, and zero no knowledge. The mean score results for are provided in Table 11 below.

**Table 11**  
*Tamera, CASKS mean scores*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Tamera</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General Knowledge</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supporting Children’s Learning</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Families</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessments</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Mean Score</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The scores reflected above and in the appendixes suggest that many of Tamera’s scores were very similar in nature in regards to L/AA and N/EA which are supportive of the two identified themes. Her apparent strength was behavior 3, responsiveness for both children. Tamera’s self-reported responses on the CASKS help to further support the qualitative measures. Her knowledge in regards to supporting children’s learning, collaboration and assessment had overall mean scores that were reflective of a “medium/high” level of knowledge. As mentioned in previous sections, in varying
levels, Tamera did interact with L/AA and N/EA that encouraged some degree of
dividual growth and development. Furthermore, through her integration of assessment
and play, Tamera demonstrated a working knowledge of assessment techniques and
strategies that were not only developmentally appropriate, but culturally appropriate as
well. Also, Tamera’s frequency of “no opportunity to interact” total was quite similar
with L/AA (n=107) and N/EA (n=110).

Promoting Cultural Diversity and Linguistic Competency

Tamera responded to 44 of the 52 items on this self-assessment. Two items,
numbers 19 and 22, consisted of multiple statements in which to respond. For item 19,
three responses were expected; while for item 22, there were two responses. Tamera
failed to respond to these two items, as well as items 15, 21, and 27. The indicators,
‘things I do frequently’, ‘things I do occasionally’, and ‘things I do rarely or never’, were
identified as letters A, B and C respectively. Using these indicators, Tamera responded
to the following topical areas: (a) physical environment, materials and resources, (b)
communication styles and, (c) values and attitudes. These areas helped to emphasize
characteristics of Tamera’s practices that could be considered culturally responsive.
Table 12 provides the frequency of Tamera’s responses by indicator.

Table 12

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tamera’s PCLC frequency scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tamera</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PHYS</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F=5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O=5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Physical Environment, Materials, and Resources

The majority of Tamera’s responses were equally represented by behaviors she engaged in frequently or occasionally (n=5). Tamera indicated that she frequently displays pictures and other materials that are reflective of the culturally diverse children in her room; plays a variety of music; and selects props for learning centers and reads books during group time that are culturally diverse and reflect culturally diverse experiences. She also felt that it would be important to expose children from the same culture to a variety of other cultures. As was mentioned in the contextual information, Tamera’s classroom did have pictures of culturally diverse individuals who varied by age and race.

Tamera occasionally ensured that books had pictures or toy people figurines reflected the cultures of all the children in her class. This was apparent in the ‘Book area’ center. Most books included in this area had animals or sea life as the main characters and had very little people characters, regardless of the race or culture. Additionally, Tamera mentioned that she occasionally provides (a) parents with the opportunity to volunteer to share storytelling experience; (b) children with culturally relevant field trips; and (c) opportunities to celebrate holidays other than traditional ones. In conversing
with Tamera she mentioned that she has little input on where the Head Start goes on field trips. She explained that she can make suggestions but it is determined by the director and budget. As a result, Tamera provided a total of responses (n=5) that reflected behaviors she engaged in occasionally.

Tamera provided a response of rarely or never to three questions in this section. These items included: providing opportunities for families to create books and the children to cook culturally diverse foods as well as adapting approaches in the child’s home setting. Given that this facility does not prepare the children’s lunches on-site, it seems appropriate that Tamera would not have the facilities to engage the children in a cooking activity.

Communication Style

Within this topic area, the highest number of no responses (n=6) were presented. It should be noted that Tamera’s current group of students all spoke English as their home language, thus providing a possible explanation as to why such questions as “I use an interpreter” or “I attempt to learn words to communicate with children who speak a language other than English” had no response.

Of the remaining nine questions to which Tamera did respond, the indicator of frequently was more often provided (n=8). Tamera admitted to using visual aids and prompts in her interactions with children who are linguistically diverse, ensuring that notices were written in the family’s home language and that she recognized and implemented the families’ preferred mode of communication such as over the phone. Tamera indicated that she used various modalities when communicating with children
and/or their family members with a disability. Consequently, Tamera recognized that she rarely or never accepts the differences between language that may only be used in her classroom and not in the children’s home.

Values and Attitudes

Tamera scored 21 of these items as frequently. Her responses reflected an acceptance of all cultures, including her own, African American, in an unbiased and positive manner. This level of acceptance was permeated by the recognition of the cultural nature of childrearing practices, family structure, and their influence on the family’s educational decision-making for the child.

The majority of Tamera’s responses reflect that she is an individual who frequently (n=35) utilizes strategies and practices that promote cultural and linguistic competency in her classroom. Such findings might indicate that Tamera has developed an understanding of her individual culture and the interconnectedness of it to her students and her practices.

Interview and Fieldnotes

Following data analysis of Crosswalks Assessment of Student Knowledge and Skills and the Promoting Cultural Diversity and Linguistic Competency: Self assessment, the qualitative measures were analyzed again. However, during this phase of analyses, specific attention was given to the possible creation of additional themes that might be more reflective of the cultural implementations of Tamera’s teaching practices. In the following section, one additional theme will be described: Tamera’s level of critical self-reflection was paired with limited recognition of other cultures.
Tamera’s level of critical self-reflection was paired with limited recognition of other cultures. The classroom environment in which Tamera, L/AA and N/EA spent their time did not reflect a varied amount of children by race. In fact, N/EA was the only European American child within the classroom; the remaining children were African American like Tamera. Tamera stated that “I don’t have to really worry about anyone talking any language other than English” (interview transcripts, line 42). As noted above, Tamera did not respond to all the questions within the ‘communications’ area of the PCLC. When questioned about her lack of responses, Tamera replied “I have English speakers, and I only have to make adjustments for those in my class who may not be able to talk clearly, but still, it’s in English” (personal communication, 2008).

Tamera did feel it was important to recognize all races, in particular African American, due to the higher number of children in her classroom from this racial group.

Pictures. The pictures around are of African Americans. The music. Books….I think that’s about all the ways, just talking, you know, for all I know. Cause I try, I have African American children and I’ve had Asian children, and I try to be you know, multicultural, I try not to just do one thing, you know, I try to have something with all the cultures, you know, mix up with all the cultures (interview transcripts, lines 30-34).

The above illustration does reflect a few observed practices of Tamera; pictures of African Americans were visually displayed in her room. However, no music or books of a culturally diverse nature were ever utilized during the 5-week study. Furthermore, Tamera relied on a variety of ways to incorporate culturally diverse materials into her curricula: “Well, like I said, we have books, we have activities, so I have invited some of the parents to come in and read a book to the class, the children get to see their parents,
and activities, that’s about all” (interview transcripts, lines 45-47). Although the modes varied, they were not representative of a wide girth of strategies and practices. Thus, Tamera’s culturally responsive practices were reflective of having been a classroom environment that did not lend itself to having to address diversity of racial and cultural groups on a large scale.

Summary

The scores reflected above suggest that many of Tamera’s scores were very similar in nature in regards to L/AA and N/EA which are supportive of the identified themes. Her apparent strength was behavior 3, responsiveness for both children. Tamera’s self-reported responses on the CASKS help to further support the qualitative measures. Her knowledge in regards to supporting children’s learning, collaboration and assessment had overall mean scores that were reflective of a “medium/high” level of knowledge. As mentioned in previous sections, in varying levels, Tamera did interact with L/AA and N/EA in ways that encouraged some degree of individual growth and development. Furthermore, through her integration of assessment and play, Tamera demonstrated a working knowledge of assessment techniques and strategies that were not only developmentally appropriate, but culturally appropriate as well.

Also, Tamera’s frequency of “no opportunity to interact” total was quite similar with L/AA (n=107) and N/EA (n=110). Such statistical data helped to support the similarities evidenced by the emergent themes. In addition, Tamera’s overall responses on the PCLC imply that she is an individual who says that she frequently (n=35) utilizes strategies and practices that promote cultural and linguistic competency in her classroom.
Such findings might indicate that Tamera has developed an understanding of her individual culture and the interconnectedness of it to her students and her practices.

Lastly, Tamera’s self-reported claims were not always supported by her articulated practices. As cited above, Tamera indicated that she treated everyone equal, however, there were times in which N/EA was reprimanded and a child engaged in the same behavior would not.

Delma

Contextual Information

Delma is European American. She has an Associate’s degree and recently enrolled in a North Carolina university to earn a B.S. in Birth-Kindergarten. She has spent fifteen years working in an inclusive setting teaching preschoolers ages 3 to 4. Delma has worked in this particular inclusive class for seven months and has been with the same group of children since the school year began in August. The assistant teacher was African American and had only been working in the room for one year and was present for only three of the five observational sessions. Her participation was considered supplementary and was recorded only in the field notes when pertinent interactions occurred with the two children under study.

There were 18 children in this inclusive preschool classroom whose ages were between 4-5 years, with nine boys and nine girls. Of the eighteen, parent permission to participate in the study was received from 16 of the children, for a total of nine boys and seven girls. The children who were included in the study were African American, Native Hawaiian, European American, or Hispanic. In addition to the African American and
European children with a disability, there were two African American children and one Hispanic child who were identified with a disability. Their interactions with Delma were considered supplementary and were recorded only in the field notes.

The two children under study, H and E, were present for all five observation sessions. Both H and E had been in Delma’s class since August. Both children had been identified as having a speech language disability. During one of the observational sessions, the speech language pathologist entered the room and departed with H. H is a European American (H/EA) male who was 4 ½ at the time of the study. E was an African American (E/AA) male who was 4 ½ years of age at the time of the study.

The Setting

The Head Start center where Delma worked was a four-star licensed program, located in the southeastern part of the Piedmont region of North Carolina. It has two classrooms that serve 28 children, ranging in age from three years to five years of age. The racial background of the children in the center included: African American, Asian, European American, Native Hawaiian, European and Hispanic, with the African American population having the highest enrollment (n=25) and the Asian, Hispanic, and Native Hawaiian populations having the least (n=1) for each. Given the diversity of the student population within the Head Start center and surrounding community, Delma was required to incorporate some type of multicultural activity (i.e. book, art activity) into her lesson planning weekly. Interestingly, she was never observed engaging in this mandated multicultural curriculum.
The program had five children who were identified by the categories of ‘multiple disabilities’ or ‘speech language disabilities.’ Of these five children, three were African American, one was Hispanic and one was European American. The center provided training to the four staff members on the topics of ‘developmental screening,’ and ‘implementing and selecting culturally diverse literature and materials for weekly lesson plans.’

The preschool classroom included three developmentally appropriate sized tables and chairs for the children, as well as one carpeted area. The carpeted area was used during group time as well as provided the children with space to play with blocks and other toys during center time. A chair used by Delma sat at the front of the carpeted area and a shelf with a CD player on top sat to the right of the chair. In addition, the physical structure of the room was divided into various learning centers that were created through the physical placement of bookshelves that were tall enough for an adult to be able to see over while kneeling. The learning centers included the following: (a) a shelf with books and puppets with soft cushions and pillows, (b) a sand/water table, (c) manipulatives shelf with string beads, puzzles, play money, calculators, etc., (d) art with an art easel, paper, markers, crayons and other supplies, (e) a dramatic play with a play kitchen set, mirror and dress up clothes, (f) block area with various sized blocks, (g) a computer with one chair, and (h) a science center with magnifying glasses.

The room also contained a bathroom with one toilet and a sink, as well as a sink that had several cabinets above and below it that were used to store cleaning supplies. Children stored their coats and belongings in ‘cubbies’ located to the right and
immediately in front of the main classroom entrances. Children’s work was displayed on the wall between the dramatic play and sand/water play areas. Throughout the five observational sessions, the work varied and reflected the theme or topic of the week. On the wall behind the carpeted area, the pictures representing the topic of the week were displayed as well as a copy of the class rules. On the walls to the right of the art center, picture collages of the children with their families were displayed.

Teacher Child Interactions

*Teacher - Child Interaction Scale*

The analyses of Delma’s (EA) interactions with H/EA and E/AA are provided in the following sections. Descriptive statistics were used to visually compare the mean scores of H/EA and E/AA on two of the quantitative measures. The mean scores for Delma are shown below in Table 13.

**Table 13**

*Delma’s mean scores, TCIS*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Verbal^</th>
<th>Physical</th>
<th>Responsiveness</th>
<th>Play^</th>
<th>Teaching^</th>
<th>Control*</th>
<th>Directives*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Delma</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Positive^</th>
<th>Negative*</th>
<th>Goal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Delma</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Note. * denotes that a lower mean score was more desired and appropriate for this behavior.  ^ denotes behaviors that a “0” was a possible score

Delma’s demonstration of the eleven teaching behaviors showed notable differences between the mean scores for H/EA and E/AA. The range of scores (0.0-4.5) for H/EA, the child from the same racial background, and E/AA (0.0-3.7), the child from a different background shared similar characteristics. There were differences across the eleven behaviors. For example, Delma’s level of responsiveness with E/AA (mean = 4.5) was the highest score received; in contrast to H/EA’s (mean = 1.0), which was one of the lowest. H/EA’s scores were consistently lower than E/AA’s, including the behaviors in which a lower mean score was desired. The only exception being that Delma used more positive statements in her interactions with H/EA (mean = 2.4). Delma’s use of directives and negative statements were higher in her interactions with E/AA in contrast to H/EA. Also, there was a notable difference in the amount of verbal involvement given to E/AA (mean =2.1) in contrast to H/EA (0.3). Delma’s scores for play interactions (mean = 0.0) and goal setting (3.7) were the same for H/EA and E/AA. In addition, her play interaction score reflected the lowest mean score received. Overall, Delma’s mean scores spanned the continuum of indicators and ranged from ‘none to moderate/almost always.’

Missed Opportunities Record

The missed opportunities record provided frequencies of scores for Delma’s initiated interactions with H/EA and E/AA as well as H/EA and E/AA’s initiated interactions with her. The record also provided the total number of times Delma did not
have the opportunity to interact with H/EA or E/AA, due to Delma’s proximity within a play based learning center that was not currently occupied by H/EA or E/AA. This number is a cumulative total that spans across the 25 observation intervals of the study and reflects occasions in which Delma did not engage H/EA or E/AA, not due to inattentiveness, but rather lack of physical closeness or proximity. Her scores are provided in Table 14 below.

**Table 14**

*Delma Missed opportunities record*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher-Child Dyad</th>
<th>Total # of (T) Interactions</th>
<th>Total # of (C) Interactions</th>
<th>Total &quot;no opp&quot;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Delma &amp; H</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delma &amp; E</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. M = missed opportunities; V = verbal; N = nonverbal; (C) = child-initiated; (T) = teacher-initiated; ‘no opp’ = no opportunities, scores of 6.

Delma’s results indicate that she used primarily verbal interactions when communicating with both children. There was a difference in the frequency in which she verbally interacted with E/AA (n=27) versus H/EA (n=10). The number of times H/EA and E/AA failed to respond or acknowledge Delma’s verbal interactions were identical (n=4).

There was a notable difference in the results from the child initiated interactions. E/AA, the child from a different racial background, initiated more verbal interactions (n=7) with Delma than did H/EA (n=0). H/EA did not initiate Delma in any verbal or nonverbal communication. Delma’s total number of ‘no opportunities to interact’ were slightly higher for H/EA (n= 194) than and E/AA (n = 119).
Fieldnotes and Interviews

Following data analysis of the Teacher-Child Interaction Scales, and the missed opportunities record, qualitative measures were analyzed. Three themes emerged that were indicative of Delma’s practices with the two children under study. They were: (a) Delma’s interactions with H/EA and E/AA varied greatly, (b) Delma’s predominant use of touch to control E/AA’s behavior, and (c) Delma never spontaneously engaged either E/AA or H/EA in play activities.

Themes will be discussed in the sequence provided above and supported with evidence from both the qualitative and quantitative measures. Delma, a European American lead preschool teacher, is referred to as Delma throughout the data sources and the children are noted by a single capitalized letter. H/EA is the child from the same racial background; and E/AA is the child from a different racial background.

Delma’s interactions with H/(EA) and E/(AA) varied greatly. Delma’s level of interaction with H/EA and E/AA was marked with great variations. The most striking feature is that Delma rarely communicated with H/EA, unless H/EA was directly involved with her at a learning center or during circle time. Outside of these classroom routines, Delma was not observed engaging H/EA in any type of conversation, dialogue or verbal exchange. The following is an example of her verbal exchange with H/EA during a teacher-guided center.

It is the first observation session, the third timed interval. H/EA is playing on the carpet with C6 and C9. E/AA is playing with playdough.

Delma sits down at one of the three tables in room and begins calling children to
come and identify letters with her one on one. Delma selects H. H slowly places golf club on carpet. Delma to H: “H you can leave your nametag there” H makes no response and walks to the table. H sits in a chair to the left of the teacher. Delma “I want you to tell the letters as I point to them” Delma begins to point to the first letter on the page. H: “A” Delma: “good” H: “B” Delma: “good” H: “C” Delma: “good” Delma points, H makes no response. Delma moves finger, no response. After 4 more times of the above, Delma “are there any other letters you see that you know?” H sits and shakes head yes. H: “s, t, h, j, l, o, d, m, f” Delma to H: “you know a lot of letters. You did a fantastic job! Thank you” H smiles, stands and walks to carpet area.

Sadly, this was one of only ten teacher-initiated verbal interactions in which Delma and H/EA engaged. It should also be noted that H/EA did not initiate any type of communication, verbal or nonverbal, with Delma throughout the entire study.

On the other hand, two-way communication was observed between Delma and E/AA as well as a great deal of teacher-initiated communication. Their exchanges often occurred during play based learning center time, regardless if E/AA was at a center Delma was facilitating or not. Delma’s interactions with E/AA often reflected more restrictive language and negative consequences than what was given to E/AA’s peers. In fact, there were several times in which E/AA was part of a duo or a trio of children who were engaged in the same behavior and Delma seemed to single E/AA out. The following illustrates the seeming disparity that existed among Delma’s interactions with E/AA, in contrast to the rest of the class. This occurred during the first observation session, fourth timed interval. E/AA is playing on the carpet with C9, C4, and C7. H/EA is in science center.

Delma is seated at table working on assessment with C9. Once, C9 is done, C4 and then C7 are called. E and C6 begin laughing and talking loudly about who hit the ball the farthest. E “oh, man, I missed it.” Once finished, Delma stands and
walks to carpet area and begins to sing “use quiet voices” She sings it and looks directly at E.

The following example occurred during the third observation session, third timed interval. H/EA is out of the room with the speech language pathologist and E/AA is playing in the housekeeping area. Delma is at the art table working with C15.

E walks around stove set and picks up a pair of sunglasses. E places sunglasses on and puts on suit jacket. E takes toy wallet and walks around table in housekeeping area. Delma stands and walks to housekeeping. Delma “you are a little loud” E and C11 continue to talk in a loud volume. Delma turns her head to the right to look at E. C11 is standing directly in front of her. Delma “E, do you hear my words? I don’t know how you ended up in here because you were not chosen for housekeeping. I’ll take your namecard down and you will need to find somewhere else.” Delma removes name card from wall and extends it out towards E. E takes card and walks to computer.

Delma selected children to participate in the housekeeping area on a daily basis. She felt it was important to ensure that all children were granted access to this particular area. However, as the example might suggest, this arrangement may have been misunderstood by E/AA, especially considering there were not the maximum number of children present in the center.

Although there were a number of occasions in which Delma’s interactions with E/AA were more negative in nature, there were times in which she and E/AA interacted in a positive manner. For example, during the second observation session, the second timed interval, the dialogue between Delma and E/AA was very relaxed and uninhibited. H/EA is seated at table with C9 playing with Legos. E/AA is standing near water table. Delma is seated at a table with her back to water table.
Delma walks to sink and assists a child with washing their hands. E to Delma “Delma.” Delma turns around. E holds up a cup with a yellow and blue object. Delma walks to water table from sink and stands beside the outstretched cup. Delma: “yellow and blue.” Delma points to object as she states the color. E smiles. Delma smiles and then walks back to table.

This example occurred during the fifth observation session, third timed interval. It illustrates an exchange in which E/AA’s positive behavior was recognized and praised, rather than a negative one. E/AA is seated completing a 12-piece interlocked puzzle. H/EA is on carpet playing with blocks. Delma is seated at the table with C6, which is to the left of E/AA’s table.

E completes puzzle, stands and tilts puzzle in direction of Delma. Delma “you finished it?” E “yes” Delma “was it hard?” E walks toward puzzle storage area, turns, smiles and says “no” as E puts puzzle back on shelf.

Sadly, this quality of interaction was an infrequent part of Delma’s and E/AA’s encounters.

*Delma’s predominant use of touch to control E/AA’s behavior.* Touch is commonly incorporated into the interactive patterns of early childhood professionals. For Delma, E/AA, the child from a different racial background, was the primary recipient of her hands being placed on E/AA’s arms or wrists. Delma seemed to use touch as a primary means to control E/AA’s behavior, while she never touched H/EA at all. Examples of Delma’s differentiated use of touch are provided below.

This occurred during the first observation session, second timed interval. H/EA and E/AA have been selected by the teacher assistant to depart carpeted area, in order to
select a center. H/EA remains on carpet and begins playing with the toy trucks. E/AA walks from carpeted area to the art table where playdough is available. Delma is at sink washing hands.

Delma turns from the sink and observes E standing. Delma to E “E, please sit in the chair and slide up to the table.” E complies- sits, and slides chair up and slides only one foot/leg under the table. Delma to E “both of them” E places left leg under table. Delma walks and sits at manipulatives table with C4 and C5. Delma sits looking at E for about 5 seconds. Delma leaves table to physically slide E’s chair under the table. Delma walks to water table. E slides chair back and stands. E begins to roll the playdough on table to create a flatten circle. Delma turns and walks back to the table where E is and E sits down in chair prior to Delma’s arrival. Delma walks behind E and physically slides chair under table. Delma reaches over E’s head and moves the placemat so that it is even with the edge of table. Delma explains that is important to keep playdough off clothes and the floor. E slides back in chair “See I don’t have any on the floor” Delma smiles, holds her right thumb up and says “good job” Delma walks away from table to rejoin C4 and C5.

Delma seemed overly concerned with E/AA’s behavior, to the extent, that it monopolized three minutes of her time. The example also illustrates Cartledge, and Kourea (2008)’s assertion that children who differ from the mainstream both physically and culturally are at risk for having their actions judged unfairly. The following two examples highlight how E/AA may have interpreted the culture of the classroom and Delma, and proceeded in ways that created an unproductive learning environment (Lawrence-Lightfoot, 2003).

Example one occurred during the first observation session, fourth timed interval. H/EA is at science center and E/AA is on carpet with C6 and C8. Delma walks to carpet area.
Delma talks to E, C6 and C9 about the rules. “If you all are going to remain on the carpet than you will need to lower your voices. We are inside the classroom so your voices do not need to be heard all around the room.” Delma place hand on E’s upper left arm. Delma slides hand down E’s arm until her hand is resting around E’s wrist. E looks up at Delma. Delma to E “are you going to follow the rules?” E nods yes. Delma releases E’s wrist, turns and walks from housekeeping, to water play, to playdough, to library areas.

A similar example occurred during the fourth observation session, second timed interval. H/EA is at the art table with Delma. E/AA has been selected to play in the housekeeping area.

C8 and E are playing loudly and chasing each other in housekeeping. Delma walks from table with H to housekeeping. Delma stands in front of E “I don’t like your behavior” Leans forward so that she is about 6 inches from E’s nose “I don’t like pushing so I am going to say [Delma stands upright] neither of you can go into housekeeping” Delma puts hand on E’s right forearm and leans forward again “I am going to say to you, you need to get something and sit down at the table with it.” Delma releases E’s arm. E’s eyes being to fill with tears, but no tears drop from eyes. C8, a European American, remains with center, despite Delma’s statement to leave. E walks away and sits down on carpet with blocks.

As this example would suggest, Delma often used touch as a means to assert control over E/AA. It was interesting that the other child involved in the same inappropriate behavior was not reprimanded to the extent of E/AA. Again, the previously described assertions of Cartledge, and Kourea (2008) and Lawrence-Lightfoot (2003) are relevant to these examples as well. On the contrary, Delma’s articulated practices spoke to the need to treat children in a similar fashion; which as previously described, was not always the case. In her interview, Delma stated:

I have a multicultural classroom, we’re living the experience in the classroom…
think it was up to us as teachers to instigate that, to try to bring our parents together and the children, because as I’ve said before, the similarities far outweigh the differences, I mean there are some differences, and you have to meet the needs of those differences, but I see far more similarities than differences (Interview transcript, lines 103-110).

*Delma never spontaneously engaged either E/AA or H/EA in play activities.*

Teaching behaviors can be incorporated into play activities or presented as an activity to develop a particular skill of a child (Farran, & Collins, 2001). However, for Delma, her teaching behaviors were often in isolation from play activities. Delma facilitated learning centers in a well executed manner. However, she often addressed concepts from the cognitive domain in a manner that was separate from the remaining centers (i.e. block or housekeeping areas). For example, she assisted E/AA and four other classmates in the creation of a paper airplane, but did not permit the children to manipulate them in the air. Instead, they were instructed to put them within their storage areas. Furthermore, she was never observed engaging H/EA or E/AA in a spontaneous manner as they interacted with a toy item. In the event that she did walk to a center where H/EA or E/AA was engaged with a play item, Delma would often redirect an inappropriate behavior or casually ask “what are you doing?” and listen for the child’s reply. She would remain within that center for no longer than a minute, and walk towards another center.

Delma’s previously mentioned observed practices were very counter to her articulated practices. In her interview she projected a different philosophy regarding play with H/EA and E/AA, the children with a disability. She stated:

“It would depend on what the disability was, and if it were speech problem, you could still approach that child the same way you could a normal, typically
developing child. Invite them to come to the table where you’re sitting, playing with (?) toy, or at the art table, invite them to come and sit with you and participate in something you’re doing” (interview transcripts, lines 59-62).

Culturally Responsive Practices

The Crosswalks Assessment of Student Knowledge and Skills

The analyses of Delma’s culturally responsive practices sought to highlight the cultural nature and context of Delma’s teacher practices in general as well as they pertained to H/EA and E/AA. Delma’s (EA) scores for both H/EA and E/AA were visually compared for both quantitative measures. The results of such a comparison are provided in the following sections.

Delma completed the CASKS as a quantitative measure to determine her level of self-reported practices as it pertained to interacting with children and families who are culturally and linguistically diverse. Each item was scored from zero to five, with five representing high knowledge, three medium knowledge, and zero no knowledge. The mean score results for Delma are provided in Table 15 below.

Table 15

Delma, CASKS mean scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Delma</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General Knowledge</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supporting Children’s Learning</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Families</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessments</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In her self-report of culturally responsive practices, Delma’s overall mean scores were very similar for all five categories. Although none of her scores reflected the highest possible rating of 5, her general knowledge (4.8); supporting children’s learning (4.5); families (4.7); assessments (4.8); and collaboration (4.7) were relatively high. Delma’s responses would suggest that she feels her current level of knowledge is high (overall mean score = 4.7) in regards to working with children and families who are culturally and linguistically diverse.

*Promoting Cultural Diversity and Linguistic Competency*

Delma responded to all 52 items on this self-assessment. Two items, numbers 19 and 22, consisted of multiple statements in which to respond. For item 19, three responses were expected; while for item 22, there were two responses. The indicators, ‘things I do frequently’, ‘things I do occasionally’, and ‘things I do rarely or never’, were identified as letters A, B and C respectively. Using these indicators, Delma responded to the following topical areas: (a) physical environment, materials and resources, (b) communication styles and, (c) values and attitudes. These areas helped to emphasize characteristics of Delma’s practices that could be considered culturally responsive. Table 16 provides the frequency of Delma’s responses by indicator.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Collaboration</th>
<th>4.7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall Mean Score</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16 provides the frequency of Delma’s responses by indicator.
Table 16

**Delma’s PCLC frequency scores**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Delma</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PHYS</td>
<td>F=10  O=5  N=0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMM</td>
<td>F=15  O=0  N=0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VALUE</td>
<td>F=22  O=0  N=0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. PHYS= Physical environment, materials and resources; COMM= communication styles; VALUE= values and attitudes; F= ‘frequently’; O= ‘occasionally’; N= ‘rarely or never’; and *= response not provided for all items in topical area

**Physical Environment, Materials, and Resources**

The majority of Delma’s responses (n=10) suggested that she *frequently* engaged in such behaviors as selecting props and other materials for learning centers that were culturally diverse; reading books and having parents read books to the children with culturally diverse individuals; playing music and celebrating holidays from a variety of cultures.

Delma’s responses for five questions in this section were indicated as behaviors in which she felt she engaged in *occasionally*. These items reflected the display of pictures that reflected the cultures of the children in her room; providing parents and children the opportunity to create books; and planning activities such as meal preparation and community outings that reflect the cultural diversity within her classroom.

**Communication Style**

The demographics of Delma’s classroom reflected several students who were culturally and linguistically diverse. In responding to questions on this topic, Delma’s
communicative style indicated that she frequently engaged in all the items provided. For example, Delma indicated that she frequently attempted to learn key words in their language; used a variety of modalities to convey meaning to these children and their families; and used individuals proficient in the language to assist in meetings and other communications with the family. More aligned with the focus of this study, Delma noted that she frequently uses alternative formats to communicate with a child and/or a family member with a disability.

Values and Attitudes

All of Delma’s responses in this area were scored as frequently (n=22). Delma’s responses reflected an acceptance of all cultures, including her own, European American. This level of acceptance was permeated by the recognition of the cultural nature of childrearing practices and their influence on the family’s educational decision-making for the child.

Delma’s overall responses imply that she is an individual who frequently (n=47) utilizes strategies and practices that promote cultural and linguistic competency in her classroom. Such findings might indicate that Delma has developed a firm understanding of her individual culture and the interconnectedness of it to her students and her practices.

Interview and Fieldnotes

Following data analysis of Crosswalks Assessment of Student Knowledge and Skills and the Promoting Cultural Diversity and Linguistic Competency: Self assessment, the qualitative measures were analyzed again. However, during this phase of analyses, specific attention was given to the possible creation of additional themes that might be
more reflective of the cultural implementations of Delma’s teaching practices. In the following section, one previously identified theme (Delma’s interactions with H/EA and E/AA varied greatly) will be expanded and one additional theme will be described. The second theme is Delma’s apparent disconnect between her articulated culturally responsive practices and her observed practices.

*Delma’s interactions with H/EA and E/AA varied greatly.* As previously mentioned, Delma’s interactions with H/EA and E/AA varied greatly. Delma rarely interacted with H/EA unless they were engaged within the same learning center. Although Delma did interact with E/AA, her tone and use of restrictive language was more apparent in these verbal exchanges. Her communication style did not seem to respond to the diverse needs of E/AA as an African American child or a child with a disability. She asserted that:

> I try to always include them, like E you can’t, he’s very difficult to understand, but I don’t let that be a hindrance to him being included in group discussions because he has something to say and so we listen to him. When he communicates, I let him talk, because I know it’s hard for him (interview transcripts, lines 54-56).

Such a statement seems in contrast to the types of verbal interactions that Delma supported and encouraged E/AA to use. There were times in which Delma would seemingly stifle E/AA’s self-expression by asking him to refrain from speaking, or to lower his voice. Thus, Delma’s self-reported practices did not always appear to be aligned with E/AA’s diverse communication needs.
Delma’s apparent disconnect between her articulated & self-reported culturally responsive practices and her observed practices. Delma’s self-reported practices were indicative of an individual who has a high level of knowledge regarding working with children and families from cultural diverse backgrounds. Furthermore, Delma’s articulated outlook was not to overlook a child’s race or culture, but instead to embrace these unique qualities and use strategies to maximize that child’s growth. However, within her classroom environment, the demonstration of such behaviors was, at times, non-existent. She stated in her interview:

I just, one year, a couple of years ago I had such a culturally diverse classroom, I was talking with L, I said, I don’t need to do a multicultural activity every week, I have a multicultural classroom, we’re living the experience in the classroom… I think it was up to us as teachers to instigate that, to try to bring our parents together and the children, because as I’ve said before, the similarities far outweigh the differences, I mean there are some differences, and you have to meet the needs of those differences, but I see far more similarities than differences (Interview transcript, lines 103-110).

However, as described previously, Delma’s observed practices seemed to accentuate the differences. Thus, the dichotomy of what a teacher says and what a teacher does appeared to be a part of Delma’s teaching behaviors.

Summary

The scores reflected above suggest that many of Delma’s scores were different in nature in regards to H/EA and E/AA. Delma’s self-reported responses on CASKS, help to further support the qualitative measures. Her knowledge in regards to culturally responsive practices that reflect general knowledge of cultural diverse learners, support of
children’s learning, collaboration with families and culturally relevant assessment was rated as high, an overall mean score of 4.7.

Also, Delma’s frequency of “no opportunity to interact” total was notably different between H/EA (n=194) and E/AA (n=119). Such statistical data helped to support the differences evidenced by the emergent themes. In addition, Delma’s overall responses on the PCLC imply that she is an individual who frequently (n=44) utilizes strategies and practices that promote cultural and linguistic competency in her classroom. Such findings might indicate that Delma incorporates materials and resources that reflect the cultures of the children in her class. Lastly, Delma’s self-reported claims were not always supported by her articulated practices. There were times in which she felt she had a philosophy of equality that was not evident in her interactions with E/AA.

Lynette

Contextual Information

Lynette is European American and was in the same age range as Tamera. She has an Associate’s degree and has spent two years working in an inclusive setting, teaching preschoolers ages 3 to 4. She has worked in this particular inclusive classroom for eight months and has been with the same group of children since the school year began in August. The assistant teacher had been working in the room for one year when the study began. She was present for two of the five observational sessions. The assistant teacher’s participation was considered supplementary and was recorded only in the field notes, when it was pertinent to interactions with the two children under study.
There were 17 children in this inclusive preschool classroom whose ages were between 3-4 years, with seven boys and ten girls. Of the seventeen, parent permission to participate in the study was received from 10 of the children, for a total of four boys and six girls. The children who were included in the study were African American, or European American. The two children under study, R/EA and T/AA, were present for all five observation sessions. R/EA had been in Lynette’s class since August and T/AA joined the class in September. Both children had been identified as having a speech language disability. R/EA is a European American male who was 3 ½ years of age at the time of the study. T/AA is an African American male who was 3 ½ years of age at the time of the study.

The Setting

The Head Start where Lynette worked was a five-star licensed program, located in the southeastern part of the Piedmont region of North Carolina. It has two classrooms that serve 34 children, ranging in age from three years to six years of age. The racial background of the children included: African American, European American, and American Indian, with the African American population having the highest enrollment (n=17) and the American Indian population having the least (n=6). The program had seven at risk children, and eight children who were identified by the category of ‘speech language disabilities.’ Of these eight children, seven were African American and one was European American. The center provided training to the four staff members on the topics of ‘disabilities,’ and indicated such topics as ‘child abuse and neglect,’
‘communicable diseases,’ and ‘health, nutrition, and mental health’ for addressing culturally diverse children and their families.

The preschool classroom included three developmentally appropriate sized tables and chairs for the children, as well as two carpeted areas. One carpeted area was included as part of the dramatic play center and the other carpeted area was used during group time as well as provided the children with space to play with blocks and other toys during center time. A chair was placed in the middle of the carpeted area and was used by Lynette during group time. A CD player sat on a shelf that was adjacent to the science center. In addition, the physical structure of the room was divided into various learning centers that were created through the physical placement of bookshelves that were tall enough for an adult to be able to see over while kneeling. The learning centers included the following: (a) a shelf with books, (b) manipulatives shelf with string beads, puzzles, etc., (c) art with an art easel, paper, markers, crayons and other supplies, (d) a dramatic play with a play kitchen set, mirror, wooden doll bed and dress up clothes, (e) block area with various sized blocks and toy animals, (f) three computers with one chair each, (g) a science center with magnets, magnifying glasses, etc., and (h) musical instrument shelf that contained various musical instruments such as drums, and tambourines. It should be noted that the shelf of manipulatives was not easily accessed by children. A child had to lie on a table that was placed directly next to the shelf in order to select and retrieve an item.

The room also contained two bathrooms for the children, one near the entrance to the playground area and the other was near the main classroom entrance. Each facility
contained one toilet and a sink. The classroom also had a water fountain and an adjacent kitchen area. Children stored their belongings in ‘cubbies’ located to the left of the main classroom entrance.

Children’s work was not displayed on any wall. It should be noted that no visual displays that included individuals from culturally diverse backgrounds and/or the children and their families were noted. However, it may be possible that the lack of wall hangings could be attributed to the recent painting of Lynette’s room. Perhaps, she had not had time to replace such visuals in her classroom.

Teacher Child Interactions

*Teacher - Child Interaction Scale*

The analyses of Lynette’s (EA) interactions with R/EA and T/AA are provided in the following sections. Descriptive statistics were used to visually compare the mean scores of R/EA and T/AA on two of the quantitative measures. The mean scores for Lynette are shown below in Table 17.

**Table 17**

*Lynette’s mean scores, TCIS*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Verbal</th>
<th>Physical</th>
<th>Responsiveness</th>
<th>Play</th>
<th>Teaching</th>
<th>Control</th>
<th>Directives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lynette</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Teacher Activities**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>Goal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lynette</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Lynette’s mean scores varied across the eleven behaviors as well as across the two children, R/EA and T/AA. The range of scores (0.8-4.8) for R/EA, the child from the same racial background, and T/AA (1.2-3.4), the child from a different racial background reflect these differences across the eleven behaviors for the two children under study. R/EA’s scores were higher or lower, when appropriate, than T/AA’s for 8 out of the 11 behaviors. Of these eight behaviors, there was a one point difference or higher between Lynette’s mean scores with R/EA versus her scores with T/AA) on five of these behaviors (responsiveness, teaching, positive statements, directives, and negative statements). Lynette’s use of directives and negative statements were higher in her interactions with T/AA in contrast to R/EA. Lynette’s level of responsiveness provided the highest mean score for both R/EA and T/AA (mean scores = 4.8, 3.4), and the highest mean difference between R/EA’s and T/AA’s scores (difference = 1.4). There was only one behavior (verbal involvement) in which T/AA’s scores (mean = 1.7) was significantly higher than R/EA’s (mean = 0.8). There was no significant difference in Lynette’s mean scores for her play interactions with R/EA or T/AA, or her control over R/EA’s or T/AA’s activities. Overall, Lynette’s mean scores spanned the continuum of indicators and ranged from ‘very little to moderate/almost always.’
Missed Opportunities Record

The missed opportunities record provided frequencies of scores for Lynette’s initiated interactions with R/EA and T/AA as well as R/EA and T/AA’s initiated interactions with her. The record also provided the total number of times Lynette did not have the opportunity to interact with R/EA or T/AA, due to Lynette’s proximity within a play based learning center that was not currently occupied by R/EA or T/AA. This number is a cumulative total that spans across the 25 observation intervals of the study and reflects occasions in which Lynette did not engage R/EA or T/AA, not due to inattentiveness, but rather lack of physical closeness or proximity. Her scores are provided in Table 18 below.

Table 18

Lynette - Missed opportunities record

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher-Child Dyad</th>
<th>Total V M (T)</th>
<th>Total N M (T)</th>
<th>Total # of (T)</th>
<th>Total V M (C)</th>
<th>Total N M (C)</th>
<th>Total # of (C)</th>
<th>Total # of ‘no opp’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lynette &amp; R</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lynette &amp; T</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. M = missed opportunities; V= verbal; N= nonverbal; (C) = child-initiated; (T) = teacher-initiated; ; ‘no opp’= no opportunities, scores of 6

Lynette’s results indicate that she used primarily verbal interactions when communicating with both children. There was a slight difference in the frequency in which she verbally interacted with T/AA (n=15) versus R/EA (n=7). There was no difference in the number of times the children failed to respond or acknowledge Lynette’s verbal interactions.
There was a notable difference in the results from the child initiated interactions. T/AA, the child from a different racial background, initiated more verbal interactions (n=28) than nonverbal (n=10) with Lynette. In addition, T/AA’s overall number of interactions were higher than R/EA’s (n=5). Lynette also responded to all five of R/EA’s verbal interactions, whereas, there were times in which she failed to acknowledge T/AA’s (AA) communicative attempts. She missed more of T/AA’s nonverbal attempts (n=7) to gain her attention (i.e. standing beside her, placing his hand in her lap). Lynette’s total number of ‘no opportunities to interact’ was higher for R/EA (n= 229) and T/AA (n = 110).

Fieldnotes and Interviews

Following data analysis of the Teacher-Child Interaction Scales, and the missed opportunities record, qualitative measures were analyzed. Three themes emerged that were indicative of Lynette’s practices with the two children under study. They were: Lynette demonstrated a higher quality of communication with T/AA, Lynette’s words and deeds were more warm and affective in nature with R/EA, and Lynette sustained unsolicited play interactions longer with R/EA than with T/AA.

Themes will be discussed in the sequence provided above and supported with evidence from both the qualitative measures. Lynette, a European American lead preschool teacher, is referred to as Lynette throughout the data sources and the children are noted by a single capitalized letter. R/EA is the child from the same racial background; and T/AA is the child from a different racial background.
Lynette demonstrated a higher quality of communication with T/AA. Lynette’s interactions with both R/EA and T/AA were marked by notable variations in the intent of the communications, the duration of the interactions, and the initiator of the interactions. Lynette and R/EA’s communications were brief and often were within the context of learning centers in which they both were involved. The following example illustrates the typical setting where dialogue between Lynette and R/EA occurred.

It is the second observation session, the second observation interval. R/EA, the child from the same racial background, is seated at the table with Lynette. T/AA, the child from a different racial background is playing in the housekeeping area.

R points to a color. Lynette “you want black?” R continues to point and nods yes. Lynette pours glitter in plate, folds plate in ½. Lynette “now we need to get the glitter all over the glue. Can you help me?” R looks at Lynette “yes”. Lynette places right hand on right hand of R and begins to help pour glitter over glue on paper. Lynette “looks good.” R smiles “am I done?” Lynette “yes, that’s it, thank you.” R stands and departs table to return to block area.

Similar to the above, Lynette and R/EA’s exchanges generally consisted of Lynette asking R/EA about a particular picture drawn or a block structure built. In most cases, Lynette was the initiator of these interactions and would actively seek R/EA out to talk with R/EA. During times in which R/EA was in a different learning center than Lynette, Lynette was observed walking across the room to engage R/EA in these types of conversations. Furthermore, R/EA’s responses were generally one to two words in length, or R/EA would simply nod head in agreement of Lynette’s statements. Thus, Lynette would engage R/EA in succinct dialogues that pertained to R/EA’s involvement with specific materials or tasks.
On the other hand, Lynette and T/AA spent more time engaged in conversation that was more specific to T/AA’s currently displayed behaviors and actions. Their exchanges were more reciprocal than Lynette’s and R/EA’s, and involved more interactive turns being taken between Lynette and T/AA. There was an equal balance among the conversations T/AA initiated and those initiated by Lynette. The following is an example of an interaction between Lynette and T/AA.

This example occurred during the first observation session, first timed interval. Lynette has just held up each child’s namecard, a method used to facilitate selection of centers by the child. R/EA remained on carpeted area playing with blocks. T/AA walks to sand table, placing hand in sand and then turns and begins walking toward another center. Lynette walks from carpeted area to a table near the science center.

Lynette to T: “where are you going T?” T stops and turns to look at Lynette who is at the table working with a student. Lynette: “to the science center?” T nods and continues walking to the science center, places namecard on shelf and gets binoculars. T begins to walks back to the sand table with binoculars. T walks past sand table to the table where Lynette is sitting. T stands with binoculars on T’s eyes facing Lynette. Lynette leans forward and looks into the binoculars from the outer lens part. T lowers binoculars and Lynette, and T exchange smiles. T walks away with binoculars in hand.

This exchange was approximately 3 minutes in length. It was interesting that most of T/AA’s communication was nonverbal in nature, yet Lynette was very attentive to T/AA’s request to play.

There were also times in which Lynette was not very responsive for T/AA’s attempt to communicate. This example occurred during the fourth observation session,
the first interval. All children, with the exception of T/AA, are seated on the carpet facing Lynette. T/AA is seated to Lynette’s left.

T: “Jeremy went to jail.” Lynette makes no response. C9 is talking about a time when C9’s mom ran a stop sign. C9 stops talking and Lynette leans to pick up a piece of paper lying on the floor to her right. T removes hands from Lynette’s lap, “Jeremy went to jail” Lynette looks down at T and says “we’ll talk to you later!”

Lynette’s tone seemed to indicate that she was becoming frustrated with T/AA’s seemingly unrelated topic of conversation.

Lynette’s physical involvement and responsiveness was higher with T/AA than with R/EA. Throughout group and center time, it appeared that T/AA was closer in proximity to Lynette. R/EA often remained with the housekeeping area; a location of the room that was not frequented by Lynette. Even within circle time, R/EA was observed sitting on the outer perimeters of the carpet, a distance that was not in arm’s reach of Lynette. T/AA, on the other hand, was always seated near Lynette’s feet or by her left side.

*Lynette’s words and deeds were more warm and affective in nature with R/EA*

Closely related to aforementioned variations is the warmth and affective nature that was projected in Lynette’s interactions. There were some notable differences in the warmth and affective nature that was demonstrated in her verbalizations and actions with R/EA and T/AA. With R/EA, the child from the same racial background, Lynette often paired verbalizations with gentle touches on R/EA’s head or arms. Also, Lynette was heard using such terms as “baby”, and “sweetheart” in her statements to R/EA. More
importantly, the specified terms of endearment appeared to be reserved for R/EA, since they were not heard used with T/AA or any other child in the class. Several examples follow that illustrate Lynette’s seemingly isolated use of this affective mode of communication. Interestingly, she emphasized more than one time throughout her interview that she did not treat the children in her class differently, especially those that were of another cultural or racial background. In her interview, she stated: “I just treat them like I treat everybody, I love them all” (interview, line 50). She furthers: “I mean, there’s no black and white issue to me” (interview, line 52).

This example occurred during the first observation session, the fourth timed interval. Lynette is seated a table near the science center. R/EA is in block area, and T/AA is walking from art center.

R walks from block area to art table. R sits down and reaches for crayons. T places 4 more magnets on fingers of right hand. T walks to Lynette and holds up finger. Lynette “can I take some of these off?” T nods yes, smiles as she begins removing the 6 different colored magnets to reveal T’s finger. R stands, picks up paper, and walks to Lynette. Lynette rubs R’s head and asks “what are you doing?” R states “coloring”. R turns and walks back to art table. T remains standing near Lynette at the table.

As the above example demonstrates, Lynette’s interactions with R/EA appeared more warm and affectionate in nature.

The following examples both occurred during the fifth observation session, the first timed interval. R/EA, T/AA, and the rest of the class were required to complete the same activity with Lynette; however, R/EA and T/AA worked with her at two different times. In example one, Lynette has just finished filling up glue bottles, as T/AA sits
watching her transfer glue from a large bottle to a smaller one. Once this task is completed, Lynette begins to provide T/AA and three of T/AA’s classmates with the necessary materials. T/AA is positioned as the head of the table, and Lynette sits two chairs down from T/AA on T/AA’s left. C3 and C8 are seated to T/AA’s immediate left and right, respectively, and C6 is seated directly across from Lynette.

T was given a glue stick, three circles, and a black piece of paper. Lynette slides the materials to T in a back-handed motion that causes the three circles to fly into the air. The red circle lands on the table to the right of T. Lynette offers no apology as T bends over to retrieve the lost circle. C3, C8, and C6 are handed a bottle of glue, and the remaining materials. T tries to turn the glue stick up to top. Approximately ½ inch of glue stick is visible. As T is screwing glue to the top, C3, C8, and C6 depart the art table with Lynette. T places glue on the back of a green, yellow and red circle. T places the red circle on black paper. Lynette: “You don’t want a funny looking stoplight.” Lynette holds up her model of the stoplight. T looks at Lynette and continues to place glue on the remaining two circles. Lynette sits watching as T puts the circles in the correct order to create a stoplight. T turns around and walks with paper in hand to show Lynette. Lynette takes paper and R turns and walks to carpet. Lynette writes R’s name on paper.

This example depicts R/EA involved in the same activity. It occurred approximately five minutes after T/AA had departed this particular center.

R sits down in chair left empty by T. R is joined by C9 and C10 who sit to R’s immediate left and right, respectively. Lynette gets materials together, red, green and yellow circles and reaches across C10 to hand materials to R “here baby.” R takes paper and circles. Lynette “here baby” and hands R glue stick. R places circles overlapping and yellow, red then green on piece of paper. R stands and walks to give to Lynette. Lynette writes R’s name on paper.
The interesting feature of these examples is that Lynette’s mannerisms with T/AA were more hurried, rough, and directive, whereas with R/EA she appeared to be more calm, and relaxed in her exchanges. Furthermore, the product that was accepted from both children differed as well. Lynette demanded a higher level of accuracy from T/AA than from R/EA. Also, she seemed to convey more of a sense of satisfaction with R/EA’s work rather than T/AA’s. It would appear that the appreciation for and promotion of child-guided work was only afforded to R/EA, the child from the same racial background. In addition, the example also serves to provide insight into the nature of Lynette’s differential facilitation of R/EA’s and T/AA’s learning.

Ironically, R/EA was never observed physically touching or initiating such behaviors with Lynette. In this manner, they almost appeared one-sided in nature. There were times in which T/AA would seek ‘affective’ attention from Lynette and it seemed to go unnoticed. T/AA would often place hands across Lynette’s lap or head on her shoulder and she failed to even acknowledge, physically or verbally, T/AA’s actions. To the extent that seven of these ten interactions were indeed missed by Lynette.

The following illustrates one of T/AA’s failed attempts to gain affective input from Lynette. This example occurred during the fourth observation session, first timed interval. R/EA, T/AA, and the rest of the class are seated on the carpet during group time. R/EA is seated towards the back of the carpet which is not in arm’s length distance from Lynette. T/AA is seated directly to the right of Lynette’s foot; T/AA is facing the group of children. Lynette is seated facing the group of children as she shows individual children flashcards with numbers one to ten.
T places hands across Lynette’s lap. Lynette places flashcards on floor to the left of chair. Lynette begins to discuss how to alert a parent when there is a stop sign. Various children state responses. Neither R nor T participated in the discussion. This discussion continued for approximately 30 seconds. T then moves hands further across Lynette’s lap so that T’s head is now resting on the outside part of Lynette’s thigh. C9 begins to discuss a time when C9’s mom ran a stop sign. Approximately one minute elapses, T sits upright, slides hands back across Lynette’s lap and turns to face her.

Sadly, throughout this example, Lynette made no response to meet T/AA’s apparent need for touch. In fact, she never even acknowledged, physically or verbally, T/AA’s hands or head on her body. Thus, R/EA, the child from the same racial background, was the recipient of Lynette’s warm and nurturing words and touches.

*Lynette sustained (unsolicited) play interactions longer with R/EA than with T/AA.* Despite the limited amount of times in which Lynette engaged R/EA and T/AA in a play activity, there were times in which Lynette would readily seek out R/EA to play with her. In addition, she would sustain this play interaction by making comments or asking questions regarding the ‘objective’ of the activity. Furthermore, Lynette and R/EA were engaged in more collaborative demonstrations of play behaviors in that Lynette and R/EA would construct a block structure together. In contrast, she would invite T/AA to play with her, but then Lynette failed to engage T/AA in an additional commentary regarding either of their actions. Their style of play was more parallel in nature, and at times, T/AA would turn so that T/AA’s back was to Lynette. When this would occur, Lynette would not try to re-engage T/AA in the play interaction. In fact, she would begin to engage another child in conversation. The following are examples of Lynette’s two varied approaches to play. This first example occurs during the fourth
observation session, the fifth timed interval and involves R/EA. R/EA is standing in the
housekeeping area, and Lynette is standing in the area behind the computers. T/AA is
pushing a wooden cart on the floor near the art table.

R plays with stuffed stethoscope. R places end on R’s own left forearm. Lynette
walks toward R “I don’t feel good” R grabs Lynette’s left forearm and begins to
place the stethoscope on her arm. Lynette “how am I doctor?” R smiles and
shrugs shoulders. Lynette “you don’t know. Well, either you are pitiful or I’m
croakin’”

Lynette and R/EA continue to play in this manner for approximately four minutes. R/EA
would smile often as Lynette would describe some type of “medical condition” that R/EA
needed to diagnose. In contrast, there was one occasion in which T/AA is pushing a toy
car on carpet area. This example occurred during the second observation session, third
timed interval.

Lynette is seated diagonally from T, and R is in the housekeeping area. Lynette
stands and walks towards T. Lynette “can I play with you?” T nods. Lynette sits
down on carpeted area near the block shelf and begins pushing her toy car around
in a circle. T slides car in direction of Lynette’s. Lynette continues to push toy
car around in a circle, but does not acknowledge that T has moved closer to her.
T pushes car in the direction of Lynette, and then T begins to crawl in front of
Lynette. Lynette stops pushing her toy car, and begins removing blocks from the
shelf behind her. T stops pushing car and sits on heels watching Lynette. C9 has
joined Lynette in removing the blocks. Lynette looks up and smiles at T. T sits
watching for approximately five seconds, and then he begins to push toy car in the
direction opposite Lynette. C9 sits in the area left unoccupied by T. Lynette
turns and begins to question C9 as to what C9 might create with the blocks, and
offers C9 a turn to push her toy care on the carpet.

As the above example illustrates, Lynette’s behaviors may imply that she did not fully
sustain or maintain her play interactions with T/AA. Other than asking T/AA to play
with her, Lynette did very little to facilitate communication and collaboration with T/AA. Thus, Lynette created a more collaborative play environment in her initiations with R/EA, the child from the same background. Although she did invite T/AA, the child from a different racial background, to join her in a play activity, she did very little to encourage T/AA to remain.

Culturally Responsive Practices

*The Crosswalks Assessment of Student Knowledge and Skills*

The analyses of Lynette’s culturally responsive practices sought to highlight the cultural nature and context of Lynette’s teacher practices in general as well as they pertained to R/EA and T/AA. Lynette’s (EA) scores for both R/EA and T/AA were visually compared for both quantitative measures. The results of such a comparison are provided in the following sections.

Lynette completed *CASKS* as a quantitative measure to determine her level of self-reported practices as it pertained to interacting with children and families who are culturally and linguistically diverse. Each item was scored from zero to five, with five representing high knowledge, three- medium knowledge, and zero no knowledge. The mean score results for are provided in Table 19 below.

**Table 19**

* Lynette, *CASKS* mean scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Lynette</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General Knowledge</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Lynette’s overall mean scores for two of the five categories (general knowledge, and families) received a rating of approximately three, represented by the indicator ‘medium knowledge.’ These scores represent the highest scores Lynette received based on her self report of culturally responsive practices. However, it should be noted that her mean score for supporting children’s learning (mean = 2.8) was quite similar to these scores. The calculated mean score for the assessment category revealed the lowest mean score (1.2). Lynette’s responses would suggest that she feels her current level of knowledge is ‘low/medium’ (overall mean score = 2.5) in regards to working with children and families who are culturally and linguistically diverse.

Promoting Cultural Diversity and Linguistic Competency

Lynette responded to all 52 items on this self-assessment. Two items, numbers 19 and 22, consisted of multiple statements in which to respond. For item 19, three responses were expected; while for item 22, there were two responses. The indicators, ‘things I do frequently’, ‘things I do occasionally’, and ‘things I do rarely or never’, were identified as letters A, B and C respectively. Using these indicators, Lynette responded to the following topical areas: (a) physical environment, materials and resources, (b)
communication styles and, (c) values and attitudes. These areas helped to emphasize characteristics of Lynette’s practices that could be considered culturally responsive. Table 20 provides the frequency of Lynette’s responses by indicator.

### Table 20

**Lynette’s PCLC frequency scores**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lynette</th>
<th>PHYS</th>
<th>COMM</th>
<th>VALUE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F= 0</td>
<td>F= 1</td>
<td>F= 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>O= 4</td>
<td>O= 2</td>
<td>O= 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N=11</td>
<td>N= 12</td>
<td>N= 6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. PHYS= Physical environment, materials and resources; COMM= communication styles; VALUE= values and attitudes; F= ‘frequently’; O= ‘occasionally’; N= ‘rarely or never’; and * = response not provided for all items in topical area

**Physical Environment, Materials, and Resources**

The majority of Lynette’s responses (n=11) suggested that she *rarely or never* engaged in such behaviors as displaying pictures that reflect the cultures of children and families in her room; selecting table toys that were culturally diverse; and reading books and having parents read books to the children with culturally diverse individuals.

Lynette’s responses for four questions in this section were indicated as behaviors in which she felt she engaged in *occasionally*. These items reflected the selection of props for learning centers that were culturally diverse; celebrating a variety of holidays; playing a variety of music from many cultures; and ensuring books contain culturally
diverse characters. As previously mentioned, Lynette’s classroom throughout the five observations did not have any displays of individuals or the children that represented culturally diverse individuals. Lastly, Lynette did not identify any of the items as being behaviors that she engaged in frequently.

Communication Style

The demographics of Lynette’s classroom reflected no students who were linguistically diverse. Thus, responding to questions on this topic, Lynette’s communicative style indicated that she rarely attempted such behaviors as learning key words in the child’s home language; using a variety of modalities to convey meaning to these children and their families; ensuring that notices home are written in the families’ home language and using individuals proficient in the language to assist in meetings and other communications with the family.

Lynette, however, acknowledged that she occasionally ensured alternate formats to communicate with children who have a disability; and accepted the difference in language used in the child’s home versus school. Lynette’s overall responses indicated that she rarely (n=12), engaged in communications, verbal and nonverbal, that were culturally responsive to the children in her classroom.

Values and Attitudes

Most of Lynette’s responses in this area were scored as occasionally (n= 16). Lynette’s responses reflected an occasional or varied acceptance of all cultures, including her own, European American. Her scores also reflected an occasional recognition of and appreciation for the religions, customs, and beliefs that are unique to culturally diverse
families. She occasionally acknowledged that the value of early childhood education or early intervention may vary among cultures. Furthermore, Lynette indicated that she rarely incorporated activities to children to help them learn about the differences and similarities in all people, or accepted that individuals from culturally diverse backgrounds may vary in their desired level to acculturate into the dominant culture.

Lynette’s overall responses imply that she is an individual who states she (n=29) rarely utilizes strategies and practices that promote cultural and linguistic competency in the children in her classroom. Such findings might indicate that Lynette has yet to develop an understanding of her individual culture and the interconnectedness of it to her students, particularly T/AA.

Interview and Fieldnotes

Following data analysis of Crosswalks Assessment of Student Knowledge and Skills and the Promoting Cultural Diversity and Linguistic Competency: Self assessment, the qualitative measures were analyzed again. However, during this phase of analyses, specific attention was given to the possible creation of additional themes that might be more reflective of the cultural implementations of Lynette’s teaching practices. Two themes emerged that were reflective of Lynette’s culturally responsive practices: (a) Lynette’s ascription to the ‘color-blind’ perspective, and (b) Lynette’s failure to recognize the influence of her past cultural experiences on her teaching practices.

Lynette ascribed to the ‘color-blind’ perspective. Lynette’s articulated practices suggested that she felt a ‘color-blind’ perspective (Hamm, 2001) was more representative of her interactions with culturally diverse children. She stated on repeated occasions that
“there was no black or white issue to her” (Interview transcript, line 51). Lynette felt it was inappropriate to utilize practices that reflect children who are a different racial background. She stated:

I’m not here per say to cast what I believe on anybody. I try not to do that, my belief might be totally different from yours. But I treat you as an individual. And that’s what I do with my kids, they’re all individuals (Interview transcript, lines 33-35).

Another example of such a practice follows.

And I don’t try to, you know, cause you never know, you might say one thing and they go home and say another thing. And by the time it’s all turned around and upside down and what have you, you got mom, dad or somebody on top of your head because you told my child blah, blah, blah. Un-un. I didn’t say nothing, So leave it alone. I try not to, don’t bring all that in, you just treat everybody as an individual (Interview transcript, lines 43-47).

Her articulated practices were very much aligned with her self-reported practices. On CASKS the mean score for Lynette was the lowest of all four teachers. Thus, suggesting that Lynette possessed limited knowledge on how to appropriately and effectively interact with children from a culture or race other than her own.

Furthermore, Lynette’s classroom environment did not consist of any observable toys, books, visuals or props that reflected culturally diverse backgrounds. Despite her classroom demographics consisting of eight European American and nine African American children, Lynette did not feel she had any cultural diversity within her classroom. She stated: “I don’t have any [culturally diverse students]. Per se, as far as them being a different culture such as Puerto Rican or Mexican or whatever, we don’t
have that this year. Not in here” (interview transcript, lines 90-91). By failing to recognize the cultural aspects of both, her role as the teacher, and her classroom environment, Lynette has not adequately recognized nor supported the distinct cultural nature of African American learners, such as T/AA.

Lynette’s failure to recognize how her past cultural experiences have shaped her current teaching practices. Closely related to the seeming lack of a sociocultural model within her classroom is Lynette’s failure to recognize how her past cultural experiences have shaped her current teaching practices. Lynette felt that she had outgrown how she was brought up in regards to individuals who are from a different race or culture. She stated:

“The way I came up and then going to school myself, from kindergarten to high school, I grew out of it. Like I said, I don’t see these children as a black and white issue. We’re all one. And unity is what gets you through life” (Interview transcript, lines 94-96).

She elaborated by saying that: “I was brought up in an all-European American community and did not interact with an African American individual until I was in about the 6th or 7th grade” (interview transcripts, lines 106-115). This assertion, coupled with the scores on the CASKS and PCLC help to create a cultural blueprint of Lynette’s possible past experiences that possibly shaped her present classroom. Given the quality, amount, and types of interactions that were observed between her and T/AA, it is difficult to discount the influence of the negatively transmitted messages that Lynette received as a child regarding African American individuals.
Summary

Lynette’s scores reflected above were not in full support of observed or self-reported practices that could be considered culturally responsive and relevant to the learning of T/AA. However, they did help to support the following identified themes for Lynette. Her low level of self-reported practices was also reflected in her articulated practices regarding her beliefs and culturally responsive practices within her classroom. In addition, Lynette’s overall responses on the PCLC imply that she is an individual who rarely (n=29) utilizes strategies and practices that promote cultural and linguistic competency in her classroom. Such findings might indicate that Lynette fails to incorporate materials and resources that reflect the cultures of the children in her class. Also, it would help explain the disparities that existed in her interactions with T/AA, who was from a different background. Lastly, Lynette’s self-reported claims were not always supported by her articulated or observed practices. There were times in which she felt she had a philosophy of equality that was not evident in her interactions with R/EA and T/AA.

Level Two: Analysis of Each Teacher Group

The next level of data analysis was to compare the data from the African American teachers (Dee and Tamera), and then complete a separate analysis of the European American teachers (Delma and Lynette). Scores and themes are described below that were similar and different between each pair of teachers. Also, within this level, the themes were collapsed from the teacher child interactions category, and
culturally responsive practices category into a single, comprehensive category referred to as teaching behaviors.

*Dee and Tamera*

Dee and Tamera represented the youngest and oldest teachers in the study. Although they each had been in the current classroom for at least six months at the time of the study, Tamera had spent a great deal more time in classrooms with preschoolers aged three and four than Dee. Tamera had sixteen years experience compared to Dee’s four. However, their educational levels were similar in that the each had an Associate’s degree, although Dee indicated she had recently taken some college courses. It should be noted that the European American child under study in Tamera’s class, N/EA, was the only European American child in the entire classroom as well as the entire center of 64 children. Also, the racial composition of Tamera’s room was limited to only African American and European American children. Another notable contrast between the two classrooms is that the teacher assistant in Dee’s room was European American, while the teacher assistant in Tamera’s room was African American. Lastly, Dee self-reported more ways in which she created a culturally responsive classroom environment than did Tamera.

Data analyses for Dee and Tamera’s teacher behaviors and culturally responsive practices revealed two similar themes among the African American teachers, Dee and Tamera: teacher’s level of physical involvement differed between the two children under study, and teacher’s communicative style showed some variance between the two children. There was a difference in a theme that emerged through the qualitative and
quantitative analyses. Dee held child from a different racial background more accountable for the child’s behavior. The following table provides an illustration of similarities and a difference in themes (see Table 21).

**Table 21**

*Themes from African American Teachers*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes Utilized</th>
<th>Dee</th>
<th>Tamera</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher held child from a different racial background more accountable for behavior</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher’s level of physical involvement differed between the two children</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher’s communicative style showed some variation between the two children</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Teacher’s level of physical involvement differed between the two children.* This theme was shared between Dee and Tamera. They both demonstrated a level of physical involvement that differed between the two children under study in their classroom. Dee used touch as a way to facilitate and support J/AA’s growth, whereas Tamera used touch as a means to regulate N/EA’s behavior. In this manner, the use of touch varied by the race of the child in terms of the African American teacher’s behaviors. Furthermore, the use of touch appeared to be specific to one child when compared to other children in the class. Dee used touch primarily with J/AA; she was never observed assisting any other child with this level of physical prompting. Similarly, Tamera’s placement of her hands on N/EA’s wrist or arms seemed unique to her interactions with N/EA. There was only
one occasion in which Tamera was observed placing her hands on a child other than N/EA.

While both teachers used touch paired with verbalizations to primarily assist one of the children in completing a necessary or requested task, there were differences in the purpose and message conveyed by the touch as well as the recipient of the touch. Dee used touch as a way to assist J/AA in understanding directions or in completing a task. Tamera, on the other hand, used touch to control N/EA’s behavior, especially in situations where N/EA failed to comply with Tamera’s request. Dee’s execution of the touch was more gentle and relaxed; whereas Tamera’s was more forceful and deliberate. As noted previously, Dee used touch more predominantly with J/AA, the child from the same racial background; whereas, Tamera used touch with N/EA, the child from a different racial background. However, each teacher’s overall mean scores on the TCIS were similar for the behaviors physical involvement and control over the child’s activities.

Teacher’s communicative style showed some variance between the two children. This theme was demonstrated by both Dee and Tamera in their interactions with the two children under study. Each teacher demonstrated a range of communicative practices that were more evident in her interactions with one child versus the other. For both Dee and Tamera, their interactions with the child from the same racial background (J/AA and L/AA), were more reflective of topics that related to the child’s desire to access specific learning centers or materials during center time. On the other hand, Dee’s approach with K/EA, was more personalized and encompassed a broader range of topics. This was not
the case with Tamera, as she engaged N/EA in conversations that were more reflective of N/EA’s actions or the expected behaviors.

Dee and Tamera shared a similar number of times in which they verbally engaged both children under study (see Tables 7 and 12). Dee tended to interact more frequently with the children than did Tamera as evidenced in the frequency of ‘no-opportunity to interact’ scores. Dee and Tamera’s overall means scores only demonstrated subtle differences. The only behavior that resulted in a slightly higher overall mean score was in ‘verbal involvement’; Dee’s verbal involvement mean score for both children was 3.1 compared to Tamera’s 2.3.

Delma and Lynette

As indicated in Chapter III, Delma and Lynette were within the same age range, 50-59. Although they shared similar ages, the length of time within the profession was very different. Delma had been teaching preschoolers within an inclusive setting for fifteen years. Lynette had newly entered the field with two years of experience. Delma’s student population was only two larger than Lynette’s and represented children aged four and five, rather than three and four years old. Delma reported only having four children who were five years of age at the time of the study. Delma and Lynette shared educational levels in that each had an Associate’s degree.

It should be noted that the European American child under study in Delma’s class, H/EA, was the only European American child in the entire classroom. The racial composition of Lynette’s room was limited to only African American and European American children. Another notable similarity between the two classrooms is that the
teacher assistants in both rooms were only present during two of the observation sessions. Lastly, Delma self-reported more practices that were culturally responsive than did Lynette.

Analyses of the quantitative and qualitative themes revealed one similar theme among the European American teachers, Delma and Lynette: teacher’s interactions varied by child. There were differences among two themes that emerged through data analysis: Delma used touch to control the child from a different racial background’s behavior, and Lynette’s words and deeds were more warm and affective in nature with the child from a similar racial background. The following table provides an illustration of a similarity and differences in themes revealed through data analysis (see Table 22).

**Table 22**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes from European American teachers</th>
<th>Delma</th>
<th>Lynette</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher’s interactions varied by child.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher used touch to control child from a different racial background’s behavior</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher’s words and deeds were more warm and affective in nature with child for a similar racial background</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Teacher’s interactions varied by child.* This theme was common between Delma and Lynette. Delma and Lynette demonstrated variability in their interactions with the two children under study in their classrooms. Both teachers had limited interactions with
the European American child under study in their class. For Delma, she often interacted
with H/EA, the European American child, only within the context of a teacher-facilitated
learning center. She never engaged H/EA in any spontaneous or general conversation.
Whereas, with E, the African American child, Delma spent a great deal of time
redirecting and reprimanding E/AA’s behavior. However, she did engage E in positive
conversations regarding E/AA’s work and abilities. Lynette demonstrated similar
patterns as her interactions with R/EA were often limited to centers in which she was
directly involved. She, too, spent a great deal of time redirecting T/AA’s behavior as
well as engaging in discussions about T/AA’s actions and behaviors, positive and
negative. Lynette did initiate interactions with R/EA that were more affective in nature
than with T/AA. Overall, the number of teacher-initiations for Delma and Lynette were
much lower for the children from the same racial background, although as described
within each individual teacher’s themes, there were marked variations in the quality,
amount, and types of interactions.

Overall mean scores for Delma and Lynette on the Teacher Child Interaction
Scale, TCIS, were similar for the behaviors of physical involvement, and negative
statements. Overall mean scores for behaviors such as verbal involvement,
responsiveness, directives, and positive statements provided noticeable differences
between Delma and Lynette (see Tables 16 and 21). As Lynette’s scores and her
observed practices indicated, she demonstrated a slightly higher level of verbal
involvement and responsiveness and use of positive statements than Delma. She also
used fewer directives in her communications with the African American child than her counterpart, Delma.

Summary

Within the second level of comparison, two common themes emerged that were reflective of practices used by the African American teachers, Dee and Tamera, as they interacted with children from the same and a different racial backgrounds. There was also one difference in themes that emerged during data analysis: teachers held the child from a different racial background more accountable for behavior.

One common theme emerged that was reflective of practices used by the European American teachers, Delma and Lynette: teacher’s interactions varied by child. There was a difference among two themes that emerged through data analysis. These themes were then compared across the two groups of teachers African American (Dee and Tamera) and European American (Delma and Lynette) in the next level of comparison.

Level Three: Across the Two Groups of Teachers

The final level of data analysis was to compare the data from the African American teachers (Dee and Tamera), with the data of the European American teachers (Delma and Lynette). This was necessary to address the specific foci central to the research questions. The following reflects salient themes that emerged across the two groups of teachers.
**Themes**

A similar theme evolved among the two groups of teachers, Dee and Tamera (African American) and Delma and Lynette (European American): teacher’s level of physical involvement differed between the two children.

*Teachers’ level of physical involvement differed between the two children.* As indicated throughout the previous sections of this chapter, there were notable variations in the types, quality, and amount of interactions shared with each group of teachers and the children under study. Again, across the two groups, overall interactions with the African American children under study seemed to fall into one of two categories to assisting the child with center tasks, or correcting the child’s inappropriate behavior. Also, the quality of these interactions ranged from positive to negative, but reflected a more passive approach in terms of the African American children. Lastly, across both groups, the proximity of the teacher to the European American child resulted in fewer opportunities for the teacher to physically engage the child.

**Summary**

The results from the three levels of analyses suggest that many similarities and differences were evidenced by the observed, articulated, and self-reported practices of each teacher, each group of teachers and across the two groups. Dee’s (AA) scores and themes revealed some variation among her interactions with the children under study. However, in examining her teacher child interactions and culturally responsive practices, five themes were revealed: a) Dee’s level of teacher talk and responsiveness varied slightly in her interactions with J/AA and K/EA, (b) Dee held K/EA more accountable
for K/EA’s actions when K/EA presented inappropriate behaviors, (c) Dee’s level of physical involvement differed between J/AA and K/EA, (d) Dee engaged sporadically with both children during play-based centers times, and (e) Dee’s practices reflected a sense of critical self-reflection, coupled with a respect for other cultures.

Likewise, Tamera’s, the other African American teacher, teaching behaviors revealed three themes. They were: (a) Tamera’s verbalizations were similar but the intent of her communications differed between L/AA and N/EA, (b) she used a great deal of touch when interacting with N/EA, and (c) Tamera’s level of critical self-reflection was paired with limited recognition of other cultures.

The within group analyses of data from the two African American teachers gleaned two similar themes and one different theme. The two teachers shared the following: (a) the teacher’s level of physical involvement differed between the two children, and (b) the teacher’s communicative style showed some variation between the two children. They differed in regards to how the teacher held the child from a different racial background more accountable for behavior.

Delma’s (EA), teaching behaviors were demonstrative of the following four emergent themes: (a) Delma’s interactions with H/EA and E/AA, (b) Delma’s predominant use of touch to control E/AA’s behavior, (c) Delma never spontaneously engaged either E/AA or H/EA in play activities, and (d) Delma’s apparent disconnect between her articulated and self-reported culturally responsive practices and her observed practices. An examination of her European American counterpart Lynette’s teacher child interactions and culturally responsive practices revealed five salient themes: Lynette
demonstrated a higher quality of communication with T/AA, Lynette’s words and deeds were more warm and affective in nature with R/EA, Lynette sustained unsolicited play interactions longer with R/EA than with T/AA, Lynette’s ascription to the ‘color-blind’ perspective, and Lynette’s failure to recognize the influence of her past cultural experiences on her teaching practices. The within group analyses of data from the two European American teachers highlighted one similar theme and two different themes. Delma and Lynette’s practices were similar in that their interactions varied by child. Conversely, these teachers differed in that one teacher used touch to control the behavior of a child from a different racial background, and one teacher’s words and deed were more warm and affectionate in nature with a child from a similar racial background.

Lastly, the across group comparison of Dee/Tamera’s and Delma/Lynette’s practices revealed one common theme: teacher’s level of physical involvement differed between the two children. The aforementioned themes will be discussed within Chapter V as they pertain to the research foci as well as the concepts of adaptive culture and racial socialization.
CHAPTER V
DISCUSSION

The overall purpose of this study was to examine, record, and describe teacher practices that were considered culturally responsive to preschoolers with disabilities who do or do not share the same racial background as the teacher. Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used to explore the relationship between the teacher’s racial background and her teaching practices when compared between two preschoolers with disabilities. First, it examined teacher practices of African American and European American teachers across specific teaching behaviors to determine whether or not similarities existed across these groups of teachers when compared between the two children. Second, it examined the same teacher practices to determine whether or not differences existed in the interactive patterns of African American (AA) and European American (EA) teachers across these same teaching behaviors and the same sample of children.

This chapter will first discuss the teaching behavior of physical involvement and its connection to the two foci. Second, the works of Klingner and her colleagues (2005) and Howard (2003) and their relationship to the two foci of the research study will be discussed. A discussion of adaptive culture and racial socialization and their relationship to the two foci of the research study will be provided. Furthermore, the influence of race in relationship to the researcher and assistant researcher one and observed teacher
practices will occur. Finally, limitations of this study and areas for future research will be delineated

**Teacher Behaviors**

*Physical Involvement*

As described in Chapter II, physical involvement is based on a continuum ranging from passive to active support (Farran, & Collins, 2001, p 3). Koester, Papousek, and Smith-Gray’s (2000) statement that touch is used as a primary form of communication with children with disabilities was affirmed in the current study. However, there were noted differences in the use of touch and the affective meaning behind it, as it pertained to the children under study. It was noted that more passive forms of touch (i.e. assisting a child with a coat) were utilized in interactions with the African American child (J, L, E and T) across both groups of teachers. Nevertheless, touch was a relevant teaching behavior that was employed by both groups of teachers, and the variations between and among the groups speaks to each teacher’s personal characteristics. The finding was consistent with previous research (Fields, 2001; Koester, Brooks, & Traci, 2000) who found a global approach to touch that was unique to all teachers.

**Culturally Responsive Practices**

Chapter II describes the works of Klingner and her colleagues (2005) and their two identified characteristics of a culturally responsive teacher. The characteristics include: (a) the teacher helps their students’ bridge borders between their home and school cultures, and (b) teachers build on the knowledge and skills that their students bring with them to school. Also, Howard (2003) theorized that teachers need to engage
in critical self reflection. All three combined characteristics mentioned above will be used to support and possibly refute the research foci stated above.

*Home-School Connection*

Collectively, the African American teachers, Dee and Tamera, appeared to assist the African American children under study (J and L) in connecting their home and school cultures in a similar fashion as their European American colleagues, Delma and Lynette. Based on the comparison of the overall mean scores on the *CASKS*, the African American teachers’ score reflected a medium to high level (4.4), while the European American teachers’ score reflected a medium level of knowledge (3.6). Again, such a variation is not as significant as is the types of materials, resources and learning opportunities that were used by the groups of teachers (observed practices).

For both groups of teachers, visuals depicting African American individuals as well as individuals from other cultures were not always used by both teachers in the pair. Moreover, among the European American teachers, the use of such visuals was less than the African American teachers. As evidenced by their self-assessment scores as well as their articulated practices provided in Chapter IV, Dee and Tamera, both sought to provide materials, resources, and learning opportunities that connected the African American child under study’s (J and L) home experiences to the daily activities of their classrooms. Dee used more tangible items such as products from home (i.e. hair care products) to be placed in the dramatic play area, books for the reading area, and toys representative of various racial and cultural groups, while Tamera displayed pictures of African American individuals constantly throughout the school year as well as provided
books and props that reflected the races and cultures of the children in her room.

Correspondingly, Delma and Lynette did not share similar techniques in linking the experiences of E and T, respectively, to their individual classrooms. Delma self-reported using more materials and other resources that were sensitive to and reflective of the unique characteristics of diverse learners. However, at the time of the study, picture collages of the children in her classroom and their families placed on the side wall of the classroom and the books in the reading area were the only displays visible. In Lynette’s classroom, no materials or items were visible that represented the individuals from diverse backgrounds. Despite not having the items readily available, Lynette articulated that she did make these items available although such a claim was not supported by her self-reported responses on the PCLC. In fact, Lynette’s responses in regards to the topic of ‘physical environment, materials, and resources’ most often reflected the indicator ‘things I do rarely or never.’ Thus, when considering the observed, articulated and self-reported practices of each group of teachers and the influence of such practices on this first tenet of culturally responsive practices, it would appear that there were both similarities and differences in their practices with the African American children under study.

The above variations in teacher practices speak to the critical need for early childhood professionals to do more than merely articulate culturally responsive practices. It is important that all professionals, African American and European American, consistently display visuals, and provide props and materials that are relevant to all races, particularly when African American children are represented in the classroom. In so
doing, the teachers will help to create an environment in which all African American students will have an enhanced sense of belonging. Racial identity in young children begins to develop within these preschool years, thus, it is also important for African American children to ‘see’ people, or items that look like them in more than just their home and community environments. As teachers structure their learning environments, culturally responsive practices should be a naturally infused part of their curricula and décor.

Teacher’s Self Reflection

Each group’s completion of the self assessments, the CASKS, and the PCLC provided an opportunity for each individual teacher to reflect on her values and beliefs. In so doing, this allowed teachers to realize that their worldview is not universal nor are their cultural norms absolute (Gay, 2002; Cartledge, & Kourea, 2008). As mentioned in Chapter IV, and previously within this chapter, the African American teachers’ and the European American teachers’ overall mean scores on the CASK were quite similar and the results from the PCLC hallmarked a difference among the two groups.

Dee and Tamera’s articulated, self-reported, and observed practices were more aligned with recognizing and accepting the diversity in others. Delma and Lynette seemed to articulate and self-report practices that were; at times, seemingly counter to their observed practices. For Lynette, her low self-reflection appeared to be the result of a limited amount of time within a culturally diverse teaching environment coupled with a limited amount of experience in co-existing within a culturally diverse community. Of the four teachers, Lynette (a) had been teaching the least amount of time (two years), (b)
had a classroom that consisted of only two racial groups, European American and African American, and (c) had indicated childhood experiences that reflected limited exposure to various racial or cultural groups. Thus, there was some implications that critical self-reflection can occur without a deeply rooted respect for others, as was the case for Lynette.

The study suggests that a need remains for all teachers, but European American teachers in particular, to reflect upon their cultural beliefs, and values in terms of how they can be appropriately conveyed and adequately observed within the classroom. It would suggest the infusion of culture into pre-service and in-service pedagogy is still a needed component. On the pre-service level, teacher education programs would continue to provide courses, and course activities that would enable and encourage teacher candidates to critically scrutinize their own cultural experiences, beliefs, and values. After the pre-service teacher has created her cultural/racial self profile, then a discussion about the possible benefits and limitations to having such ideologies could occur. Moreover, emphasis could be placed on (a) the recognition of cultural and racial biases, and (b) the development of strategies to counteract such biases within the classroom setting. In addition, internships and practicum experiences could be varied to ensure that the pre-service teachers have been exposed to classroom demographics that may vary from those seen in their past. In the event that culturally and linguistically diverse classroom settings are not readily available to the student, perhaps, incorporating technology-based practices such as podcasts or live video streaming from such classrooms could be implemented. For current teachers within the field, professional
development programs, training and workshops, could address similar objectives as the teacher education programs. In addition, pairing teacher observations with cultural focus checklists or scales could assist the in-service teacher in refining her culturally responsive teaching practices, if needed.

Adaptive Culture

Chapter II described the term adaptive culture, used by Garcia Coll and her colleagues (1996). It refers to goals, attitudes, behaviors and values developed by African American families and children in response to the underlying influence of racism, prejudice, discrimination, and oppression in American society. Such culturally defined coping responses have been established by African American individuals based on demands placed by promoting and inhibiting environments. A promoting environment would include any setting in which the appropriate number and quality of resources is compatible with the needs (e.g., cultural, developmental) of the African American child (Coll et al., 1996). Conversely, an inhibiting environment creates conditions that do not facilitate, and to some degree may undermine, the development of the African American child (Coll et al., 1996), thus, creating a continuum in which environments could range from promoting to inhibiting, and somewhere in between.

The two research foci, as it pertained to the African American children (J and L) under study, helped to categorize each of the four classrooms as being along this continuum. In regards to the African American teachers (Dee and Tamera), they seemed to create an environment that seemed to do more promoting than inhibiting. There were instances in which both African American teachers provided the African American child
with a disability the verbal and physical interactions necessary to complete a task in manner that were compatible with the needs of J and L. On the other hand, the interactions of the European American teachers (Delma and Lynette) suggested a more growth inhibiting rather than growth promoting environment for E and T. Based on the quality of touch and the number of teacher initiations, it appeared as though E and T’s development may be undermined periodically throughout the day. Therefore, the environments described in the context of adaptive culture did vary in regards to the racial backgrounds of the teacher.

There appeared to be subtle environmental cues and interactions that appeared to create a more inhibiting environment for the African American children of the European American teachers’ classrooms. For example, during situations in which the African American child was reprimanded by the European American teacher, it was sometimes done in such a manner that the child (E) was treated in a manner noticeably different from the European American peers involved in the same infraction. Therefore, there is the potential for such on-going, seemingly child-specific reprimands to have two possible effects. First, for the African American child, the internalization of such routine behavioral corrections can possibly lead to a lowering of the child’s self-esteem, thereby, creating a negative self concept. Secondly, for this child’s classmates who observe these behavioral corrections, these peers may begin to construct, or possibly reconstruct a generalization that pairs inappropriate behaviors with being African American.

Also, an inhibiting environment was created in which the verbal or nonverbal communications of the African American child, T, was neither valued nor respected. By
failing to encourage a conversation of a personal nature or acknowledge a gesture of affection, it may inadvertently portray to the African American child that such an exchange is not important. Thus, leading to the possibility that such communications may begin to decrease between the child and teacher. Not only is this detrimental to the communications of an African American child in general, but it is also counter to the creation of a language-rich environment for African American children with speech and language delays.

Overall, it appeared as though more discriminatory practices, such as notable variations in the use of touch and communicative exchanges, were demonstrated by the European American teachers when interacting with the African American children. The African American teachers, as evidenced by scores and themes, were more similar in their treatment and interactions with the two children under study.

Racial Socialization

As described in Chapter II, racial socialization is a phenomenon that seeks to examine how specific verbal and nonverbal messages about values, attitudes and beliefs regarding an African American individual’s race and the meaning and significance are passed down through generations (Lesane-Brown, 2006). Specifically, racial socialization helps to explain how African American children are taught to navigate through mainstream, minority and cultural experiences (Boykins, & Toms, 1985). For African American teachers, how they were taught and what they were told in terms of navigating across these three realms — the mainstream, minority and cultural experiences — has a direct influence on their practices within their classroom. Not surprisingly, there
was some variability in regards to the articulation of Dee’s and Tamera’s racially socialized messages transmitted to them across their lifetimes. However, the age of the two women must also be considered when looking at this variability. As mentioned in Chapter IV, Dee represented the youngest teacher, while Tamera represented the oldest teacher in the study. Thus, suggesting that the meanings of being an African American person within the dominant European American culture during each teacher’s childhood may have been very different. Tamera grew up in an era that pre-dated integration. Her experiences reflected a community of personal, professional, and educational experiences that were limited to just African Americans. Considerations such as age, and the community of origin, may be helpful in assisting African American teachers further develop a critical self-reflection, as well as create a classroom environment that is culturally relevant for the children of today.

Furthermore, Dee and Tamera’s admittance of conveyed childhood messages promoting the mistrust of the dominant culture are consistent with the findings of Hughes and her colleagues (2006) and Frabutt, Walker, and Mackinnon-Lewis (2002). Again, the incorporation of the role of racial socialization and the teaching practices of African American teachers warrants on-going investigation as well as incorporation into pre-service and in-service teacher programs. For European American teachers, they are in the position of interacting with an African American child who is the in process of being, to some degree, racially socialized by his or her parent as well as the classroom environment. Thus, the construct of racial socialization could better assist European American teachers as they strive to create a culturally responsive classroom for African
American children. Moreover, information on this construct could be provided through the various workshops and trainings that contribute to the teacher’s quest for lifelong learning.

Race and the Researcher

Chapter III provides the racial background of the members of the research team. The researcher was African American and the assistant researcher number one was European American. A discussion on the influence of the racial background of the researcher and the assistant researcher is warranted as it appeared to have had an influence on the observed teacher practices of several of the teachers. Such an influence is often referred to as the Hawthorne effect. Vogt (1993) defines the term as being “a tendency for subjects of research to change their behavior simply because they are being studied” (p. 104). Although a high degree of rigor and objectivity was maintained throughout the study on the part of the researcher, it appeared as though the presence of the European American assistant researcher number one caused all the teachers to exhibit subtle changes in their teaching behaviors and practices. It should be noted that the assistant researcher number one helped to establish trustworthiness after the researcher had been in each teacher’s classroom at least two times. The timing of her arrival was to ensure that the researcher had become acquainted with classroom routines and teacher’s behaviors and conversely, so the teacher and children were comfortable around the researcher.

Despite these measures, the arrival of the European American assistant researcher in the classrooms of the African American teachers appeared to cause Dee and Tamera to
talk more quickly to both the children under study as well as all children in their classroom. For example, Tamera’s rate of speech quickened and at times, she was very abrupt with the children, especially in instances where the children were acting inappropriately. Also there were several times in which she was observed looking in the direction of the researcher and assistant researcher number one. During one such gaze, she became distracted and almost dropped the assessment binder she was holding.

While the presence of the European American assistant researcher number one seemingly caused the African American teachers to talk in a manner not previously observed by the researcher, the European American teachers appeared to adjust their teaching behaviors to a level not previously scored. For example, Delma spent a longer amount of time verbally instructing the children at the art center. In fact, she remained seated and accessible to all children throughout the duration of the entire activity. Delma left the group only twice, in order to redirect a group of children in another center. Prior to this joint observation session, Delma spent more time away from the table than with the children.

Lynette also adjusted the level and quality of her teaching behaviors while in the presence of the assistant researcher number one. Of all four teachers, her adjustment was the most noticeable as well as overtly discussed. At the designated time, Lynette sat within a learning center and had various students complete an activity. The lesson was well organized and she had her materials readily available. Given this was the fifth time she had been observed, these teaching behaviors were counter to previous noted and scored behaviors. It was also during this observational session in which a significant
level of variation in her use of touch and verbal involvement was noted in her interactions with R and T. Upon departure of the assistant researcher number one from Lynette’s classroom, she asked the researcher if she [referring to the assistant researcher number one] had enjoyed her lesson! It appeared that the teachers were willing to assist the researcher in the study, but they were more concerned with “impressing” the assistant researcher number one. Such a premise will be referred to in the following sections: limitations and implications for future research.

Limitations

While the mixed methods design provided useful information regarding teaching practices, there are several limitations and challenges that need to be addressed. First, the need to collect and analyze qualitative data may force researchers to reduce sample size, which can limit the kinds of statistical procedures that may be more commonly used to demonstrate rigor, such as t-tests and analyses of variance (Driscoll, Appiah-Yeboah, Salib, & Rupert, 2007). Furthermore, the analyses of qualitative and quantitative data require a great deal of time and effort to ensure that each source of data is effective in addressing the research agenda. The study addressed these by ensuring that the quantitative and qualitative measures were analyzed in a complementary and appropriate fashion.

Also, given the incorporation of the qualitative research design in this particular study, the issue of researcher bias needs to be addressed (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The lead researcher as well as the assistant researcher number one wrote down every teacher practice they saw objectivity as possible and with minimal judgment. The lead researcher
utilized this strategy for each teacher’s observational sessions. Then, the researcher read through the compiled data and allowed themes to emerge from the data. This way she was as objective as possible in the process of conducting the study. Additionally, having an assistant researcher number two independently analyze the data to come up with her own themes brought a sense of trustworthiness and credibility to the study and helped to recognize researcher bias that is inherent in qualitative research.

Second, the settings of the Head Start programs provided demographic variances and environmental nuances that may not be present within settings in other regions of this particular state or nationwide. Furthermore, particular county specific policies and mandates created situations that were beyond the control of the researcher (i.e. one center being required to incorporate one multicultural type activity into her lesson plans each week). However, the findings of this study do present preliminary results that would prove useful in enhancing higher education, teacher preparation programs and developing professional development for in-service teachers.

Also, the gender of the children under study may have impacted the results. In one classroom, (Tamera’s) the children under study were one female and one male. This African American female represented the only female preschool participant. Similarly, the extent in which each of the eight children under study’s speech and language delays may have positively or negatively influenced their communicative attempts must also be noted. However, such variability was represented in the missed opportunities records as well as fieldnotes.
As previously mentioned, the presence of the assistant researcher number one created a situation in which the observed teacher’s practice demonstrated slight variation. However, individual teacher scores, from observation sessions prior to assistant researcher number one’s arrival, helped to provide a baseline and points of possible comparison that were useful in justifying these behavioral changes.

In addition, the lack of protocols to adequately capture self-reported culturally focused teacher practices also created a slight barrier. The utilization of the C4SKS did provide a general overview of the teacher’s beliefs, values and practices regarding culturally and linguistically diverse children and families. However, the items were not as in-depth as would be needed for future studies.

Lastly, conclusions are often made about people of certain races, and these conclusions are often generalized to all members of that race (Hanson, & Lynch, 1992). Although the racial and cultural context of teachers, their students and their classrooms must be acknowledged and respected by professionals in the field, it should never be assumed that other African American and European American preschool teachers have the same beliefs. Therefore, continued research of this nature will help to expand information in the areas of adaptive culture, racial socialization, as well as the critical self-reflection of all teachers, regardless of race.

Implications for Future Research

This research study examined and described culturally responsive practices of African American and European American preschool teachers in inclusive settings. Specifically those practices used with children with disabilities from the same or a
different racial background were explored. Through the process of this dissertation study, several topics for future research emerged. They include: (a) creating and piloting a teacher-child interaction scale; (b) conducting a similar study throughout the entire school year; (c) utilizing an African American researcher and a European American researcher simultaneously within similar classrooms, and (d) conducting a similar study among various teacher educational levels.

Hanline (1999) contends that an inclusive service delivery model is essential to the successful implementation of a play-based curriculum. At the time of implementing the current dissertation study, there were limited teacher-child interaction scales that could appropriately capture the play based nature of the Head Start program and other inclusive early childhood settings. Also, few teacher-child interaction scales were available to record teacher interactions with young children with disabilities from similar and dissimilar racial backgrounds. Thus, the results and experiences gained from this study would be useful in the creation of a teacher-child interaction scale that would fully address and record the variability of teacher verbal discourse of children with disabilities as examined by Massey (2004) and Hestenes, Cassidy, and Niemeyer (2004). In particular such a scale would provide indicators that would evaluate and analyze the teacher’s utilization of culturally relevant practices.

Secondly, the timeframe of the current study was within the last two months of the school year. A future research agenda would be to implement a similar study within the first two months of school and continue it across the entire school year. Such a prolonged time within the classroom would provide a more in-depth and comprehensive
exploration of teacher-child interactions. Furthermore, it would enable the researcher to determine the degree to which the African American child may or may not be racially socialized within the classroom environment.

The current research study was conducted by an African American researcher. Due to the prevalence of early childhood providers being predominantly female and European American (Hains, Lynch, & Winton, 2000; Darling, 2003), it would seem appropriate to conduct a similar study with an African American and European American research pair. The measures used would provide each researcher equal time and attention in observing, recording, and interviewing African American and European American teachers. Of particular motivation is to conduct a study to create an additional mechanism in which to explore Newsom, Ridenour, and Kinnucan-Welsh’s (2001) assertion that African American participants (in their study- African American teachers), provide more spontaneous and informal discussions of race and racism when the researcher is also African American. Thus, a research team of two different races would help to provide a new dimension to the current phenomena explored.

Also, teacher participants in the current study all had an Associate’s degree. Future studies could be conducted to explore similar practices among African American and European American teachers who have a Bachelor’s degree in the fields of Early Childhood Education or Early Childhood Special Education as well as a study in which the two educational levels were combined into a single study.

Lastly, closely linked to all of the aforementioned future research agendas, is a continuing exploration and discussion of racial socialization especially with pre-service
and in-service teachers matriculating in two- and four year teacher education programs. Through presentations and conferences, the importance of critical self-reflection in regards to cultural values, beliefs and bias will be an on-going and continual by-product of this research study.

Conclusion

The exploration of the teaching practices of African American and European American preschool teachers provided an opportunity to explore the intersect of teacher-child interactions and culturally responsive practices. Using both qualitative and quantitative methods to describe the relationship between the teacher’s racial background and her teaching practices when compared between two children—one from the same racial background and one from a different racial background—provided a way to create a richer profile of each teacher. Furthermore, it allowed for an examination of teacher practices of African American and European American teachers across specific teaching behaviors to determine the extent to which similarities and differences existed across these groups of teachers when compared between the two children.

One of the greatest outcomes of this study is the recognition of the importance of critical self reflection that enables all teachers to be cognizant of how their own cultural beliefs and practices, and childhood experiences get conveyed through various teaching behaviors. By recognizing the influence of racially socialized messages, African American, as well as European American teachers, are able to continually refine and adjust their lessons to meet the unique needs of African American children. This study
also provided additional information regarding socio-cultural models and their application to inclusive classroom setting.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX A
Demographic Data Sheet for Lead Preschool Teachers

Please answer the following questions:

Experience with Children:

1. The number of years or months experience teaching young children in an inclusive classroom __________.
2. The number of years or months experience teaching preschooler’s age three to four years old ____________________.
3. The number of years or months working in this particular classroom of preschoolers who are at risk for disabilities ________________.

Classroom Teachers:

4. The number of teachers who are employed full time in this particular preschool classroom are ______________. The number who are part time ________________.
5. What is the ratio of teachers to children in this classroom ________________?
6. How long have you and the other teacher(s) worked together in this preschool classroom? ________________

Children:

7. The number of children enrolled in this classroom is __________.
8. How many of the children in this classroom are:
   36- 42 months (3 -3 ½ years) __________
   43- 48 months __________
   49- 54 months __________
9. Number of children who are enrolled full time in this classroom __________.
10. Number of children who are enrolled part time in this classroom __________.

11. Please provide the number of children enrolled who are:
   American Indian or Alaska Native ________ Black or African American ________
   Asian ________ Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander ________
   White ________ Hispanic or Latino ________

12. The total number of children at risk (prematurity, low birth weight) enrolled in this classroom __________.
12a. Please provide the number of children at risk (prematurity, low birth weight) who are:
   American Indian or Alaska Native ________ Black or African American ________
   Asian ________ Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander ________
   White ________ Hispanic or Latino ________
13. Are there any children new to this classroom as of last week or this week?
   Yes_________    No__________ If yes, how many ________________?

14. Please indicate all of the following that you have participated in that has provided you with strategies and/or information for using culturally responsive practices
   On-site staff development
   District-wide staff development
   Local conferences
   State conferences
   National conferences
   College course work
   Other: please specify_______________________________________
   None of these

15. Please indicate all of the following that you have participated in that has provided you with strategies and/or information for working with young children who are at risk for a disability
   On-site staff development
   District-wide staff development
   Local conferences
   State conferences
   National conferences
   College course work
   Other: please specify_______________________________________
   None of these

16. Highest educational level completed: (Please check the most appropriate response)
   High school diploma/GED
   Associate’s degree
   Doctoral degree
   Bachelor’s degree
   Master’s degree
   Some college, _____ years
   Some graduate coursework, _____ years
   EC Credential

17. Major or Area of Specialty: __________________________________

Please indicate your race/ethnic background:
   American Indian or Alaska Native_______ Black or African American__________
   Asian_________ Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander _______
   White_______   Hispanic or Latino ______

Please indicate your age: ___________
APPENDIX B
Head Start Center Director Demographic Data Sheet

Please answer the following questions.

1. How many children does this Head Start center serve? ______________

2. Please provide the number of children enrolled who are:
   American Indian or Alaska Native_______ Black or African American_________
   Asian ________ Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander _________
   White ________ Hispanic or Latino ______

3. How many classrooms do you have at this center? ______________

4. How many teachers work at this center? ______________________

5. Please provide the number of teachers who are:
   American Indian or Alaska Native_______ Black or African American_________
   Asian ________ Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander _________
   White ________ Hispanic or Latino ______

6. What ages does this child care center serve? Check all that apply.
   B-12 months_____ 4-5 years__________
   1-2 years ________ 5-6 years__________
   2-3 years ________ After School________
   3-4 years ________

7. Do you offer a full day program, such as 8am-5pm ____________?

8. Do you offer a part day program, such as 9am-12 noon___________?

9. Do you offer a part time program, such as 2 days a week or 3 days a week_________?

10. Hours of operation of this child care center are ____________________.

11. Is this child care center located in an urban or rural area ________________.

12. The star rating of this child care center is _______________ stars.

13. Please provide the number of children enrolled who are at-risk (prematurity, low birth weight): ________________ (in the center)

14. Please provide the number of children enrolled who are at-risk (prematurity, low birth weight): ________________ (in the preschool room)
15. Please provide the number of children who are at risk (prematurity, low birth weight) who are:

- American Indian or Alaska Native
- Black or African American
- Asian
- Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
- White
- Hispanic or Latino

16. Within the last year, have you offered your teachers any trainings on how to work with children and their families who are culturally diverse?

___ yes    ___ no

If yes, please indicate the trainings

17. Within the last year, have you offered your teachers any trainings on how to work with children who are at risk for a disability?

___ yes    ___ no

If yes, please indicate the trainings
Appendix C

TEACHER-CHILD INTERACTION SCALES

1. PHYSICAL INVOLVEMENT

A. Amount of bodily contact *(includes support, touching, holding)*

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<td>C1</td>
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<tr>
<td>C2</td>
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</table>

Very little to none; **A** and **C** hardly ever touch each other. *(If Amount = 1, rate NA for Quality.)*

Moderate; **A** and **C** are in physical contact mostly in the service of other activities or only passive support.

Very much; constant. Must include active touching, not just passive support.

B. Quality of teacher contact with children *(includes changing children's posture, guiding movements, carrying, patting, removing from an area physically)*

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<td>C2</td>
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</table>

Never sensitive, well-executed contact. Contact almost always rough, abrupt, ineffective.

Sometimes sensitive contact; about half the time. (If only passive support occurred, do not rate above a 3.)

Almost always sensitive well-executed contact; never rough, abrupt.

C. Appropriateness of teacher positioning with children: Placement of **A** and **C** for the purpose of play, supervision or interaction *(e.g., sitting, standing, lying)*

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<td>C2</td>
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</table>

Always positioned without adequate and easy access to children, inappropriate for type of interaction with children.

Sometimes positioned with adequate access; about half the time.

Almost always positioned adequately for best access to children and activities.

** ** A = Adult  
C = Children
### 2. VERBAL INVOLVEMENT

#### A. Amount of verbal involvement *(includes initiating and/or responding to C's verbal or nonverbal behavior)*

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>None; A seldom talks to C</td>
<td>Moderate; A occasionally talks to C</td>
<td>Very much; A talks to C throughout visit with practically no pauses for C to talk.</td>
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<tr>
<td>C2</td>
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**COMMENTS:**
- Amount = 1, Rate Not Observed on Quality and Appropriateness.

#### B. Quality of verbal interaction *(adjustment for comprehension)*

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>A rarely adjusts speech to C's level--either too high or too low.</td>
<td>Moderate adjustment for comprehension; sometimes language directed at child too babyish or too complicated.</td>
<td>A almost always assures C's comprehension of talk directed to C. A alters tone of voice to gain C's attention.</td>
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<tr>
<td>C2</td>
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#### C. Appropriateness of verbal interaction *(How much does teacher provide a verbal link between the children and the world? Includes information talk -- describing events, descriptions before and after of adult behavior, comments on children's behavior.)*

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>A hardly ever describes events, comments on C's activities or comments on A's own activities; most talk is managerial or prohibitory</td>
<td>A occasionally directs t to C about C's activities, relates A's activities to C or describes events (at least 2 of these).</td>
<td>A's talk almost always provides verbal link to the world. All 3 categories listed above must be observed.</td>
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<tr>
<td>C2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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</table>

**A = Adult**  
**C = Children**
### 3. RESPONSIVENESS OF TEACHER TO CHILDREN

**A. Amount of responsiveness to C** *(to their initiations, verbalizations, demands, distress)*

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>A never responds (if Amount = 1, Rate Not Observed on Quality and Observed on Quality and)</td>
<td>A occasionally responds; responds about half the time.</td>
<td>A almost always responds.</td>
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<tr>
<td>C2</td>
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**B. Quality of teacher responsiveness: Intensity**

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>A responds abruptly, forcefully, very intensely, harshly.</td>
<td>Mixed responses or neutral; response not intense at all.</td>
<td>A responds in a gentle, sensitive, positive manner. A may respond enthusiastically with delight. Spontaneity is also observed.</td>
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<td>C2</td>
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**C. Appropriateness of teacher responsiveness: Timing**

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>Seldom good synchrony of Responses to C’s activities A overwhelms C with quickness response-</td>
<td>Moderate synchrony of response to C’s needs about half the time. About half the time, A’s response appropriate and well-timed to C’s needs. A sometimes manages competing demands well; about half the time.</td>
<td>Response almost always Appropriate to C’s Good synchrony of response- neither too quick or almost always</td>
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<tr>
<td>C2</td>
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</table>

** A = Adult  
C = Children**
4. PLAY INTERACTION

A. Amount of play interaction: Attention/interaction of both teacher and children to toy/activity  
(May include teaching done in a play format but excludes routine child care; e.g., cleaning up, naptime, snacks, diapering feeding as well as directive teaching.)

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<tr>
<th>C1</th>
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<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very little to none. children. May watch children and ask occasional but few sustained interactions.</td>
<td>Moderate; plays with children about half the time.</td>
<td>Almost always plays with children.</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

B. Quality of play between teacher and children  
(How much warmth, interest, and enthusiasm does the adult show to the children during interactions counted as play above?)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C1</th>
<th>1</th>
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<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A shows no warmth, interest or enthusiasm during play. A may seem impatient, neutral or routinized in play</td>
<td>A shows warmth, interest shows or enthusiasm some of the time; at other times seems routinized or detached</td>
<td>A consistently shows warmth and interest; moments of peak enthusiasm and genuine emotional connection with children</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

C. Appropriateness of play interaction  
(Adaptation of toys to children's developmental level and interest during interactions counted as Play above)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C1</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A never adapts to C's level C's level of ability and interest; A or persistently uses toys activities conventionally although inappropriately for C.</td>
<td>A sometimes adapts toys/activities to C's level of ability and interest; about half the time.</td>
<td>A adapts toys/activities to C's level of interest; conventional use of toys and activities fits mental needs and interests of children.</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

** A = Adult  
C = Children
5. TEACHING BEHAVIOR

A. Amount of teaching behavior: For the purpose of teaching a particular skill
   (Focus on the total time A spends teaching C, not frequency alone.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Amount Rating</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very little to none (If Amount = 1, Rate Not Observed on Quality and Appropriateness.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate; A occasionally teaches. A may introduce teaching activities but spends little time on each.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almost always; A uses most of interactive time teaching C</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Quality of teaching behavior (Rate based on the instances of Teaching counted in Amount rating above.) COMMENTS:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quality Rating</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A subjects C to vigorous teaching; almost all is routinized. Non-flexible demands for learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some teaching is spontaneous, off-the-cuff, creative; some is routinized, drill-oriented, non-flexible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching is almost always spontaneous, originating from and creatively incorporates teaching into other activities.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C. Appropriateness of teaching behavior (Related to developmental capabilities and interests. Rate based on the instances of Teaching counted in Amount rating above.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Appropriateness Rating</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching tasks do not match C’s learning needs. A unmindful of C’s developmental capabilities A takes into account C’s capabilities in choosing what to teach and how.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A sometimes teaches C to appropriate level of his/her developmental capabilities. About half the teaching takes into account C’s capabilities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A encourages C appropriate level given his/her developmental capabilities.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** A = Adult
C = Children
# 6. CONTROL OVER CHILDREN’S ACTIVITIES

## A. Amount of control over children’s activities exerted by teacher-- Rate with reference to the entire group during free play time.

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<th><strong>C1</strong></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A never organizes C’s activities; “laissez-faire” - Cs on their own. A gives children complete freedom, never structures activities. (If Amount =1, rate Not Observed on Quality and Appropriateness.)</td>
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<tr>
<td>A sometimes organizes C’s activities; about half the time. A sometimes chooses play areas for children or structures within play areas.</td>
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<tr>
<td>A almost always organizes C’s activities. A almost always tells or shows C what activities to stop and start. A almost always chooses play areas for C.</td>
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## B. Quality of control: Intensity/flexibility

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A insistent upon structure of child’s activities; rigid and very firm about what C is to do and when.</td>
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<tr>
<td>A sometimes insistent, demanding in organizing activities, but also somewhat flexible and will relent when C is not interested.</td>
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<tr>
<td>A very flexible in organizing activities; suggests, but not overly insistent; adapts demands according to reactions of C.</td>
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## C. Appropriateness of control (Fit with children's developmental levels)

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A does much more controlling than is warranted for C’s developmental level, or A should do a great deal more controlling mental level of C. Rules about free choice not appropriate.</td>
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<tr>
<td>A does somewhat more controlling of C’s activities than is warranted; occasionally over-controls OR A should do somewhat more structuring Rules about free choice are somewhat appropriate.</td>
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<tr>
<td>A almost always structures C’s activities appropriately for C’s developmental level. A anticipates needs and acts ahead amount of structure needed are appropriate to C’s skills. Rules about free choice are appropriate.</td>
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**A = Adult**  
C = Children
7. **DIRECTIVES: NUMBER OF DEMANDS/COMMANDS MADE OF CHILDREN VERBALLY AND PHYSICALLY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A. Amount of directives issued by teacher: Commands for specific behavior</th>
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<td>C1</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>A never directs C’s specific behaviors. (If Amount = 1, Rate Not Observed on Quality and Appropriateness.)</td>
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<tr>
<td>C2</td>
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<tr>
<td>A issues a moderate number of directives to C. No more than half A’s verbal behavior</td>
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<tr>
<td>Much of A’s verbal behavior consists of commands.</td>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>B. Quality of directives: Intensity</th>
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<tr>
<td>Very rough; A’s directing statements are almost always very forceful and compelling.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Moderate; A’s directives are neutral or of mixed intensities, some forceful and some low-key.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Very low; A’s directives are almost always low-key and gentle, often phrased in the form of suggestions.</td>
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<th>C. Appropriateness of directives: Reasonableness of demands/commands</th>
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<td>C1</td>
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<tr>
<td>A’s demands are almost never reasonable for C’s abilities and interest level. For redirecting, ignore interest level.</td>
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<tr>
<td>A’s demands occasionally are reasonable; about half the time.</td>
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<tr>
<td>A’s demands are almost always reasonable and appropriate to C’s For appropriate redirecting statements, ignore interest level of C</td>
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<td>C2</td>
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** A = Adult  
C = Children
8. RELATIONSHIP AMONG ACTIVITIES IN WHICH TEACHER IS INVOLVED WITH CHILDREN

### A. Amount of activities in which teacher was involved

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</table>

- **C1**: Almost no activities observed in which **A** was involved or which **A** helped initiate. Almost none of **A**’s time in activities with children. *(If Amount =1, Rate Not Observed on Quality and Appropriateness.)*
- **C2**: Equal balance between activities in which **A** was involved and was not involved with **C**. About half of **A**’s time spent in activities with children.
- **C**: Most activities involved **A**; a large number of activities occurred whether with one toy or many. Almost all **A**’s time spent in activities with children.

### B. Quality of relationship among activities

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- **C1**: **A**’s sequencing of activities and tasks within activities lacks smoothness and fluidity; activities seem to begin and end rather than flow. **A** and **C** seldom ready to end activity at same time. **A** often leaves activities or shifts attention abruptly.
- **C2**: Moderate fluidity and smoothness of sequencing between activities and tasks; about half the activities. **A** and **C** sometimes are synchronous on beginning and ending activities. **A** sometimes leaves activities or shifts attention abruptly.
- **C**: **A** almost always sequences activities and tasks so there is smooth continuity among related activities. **A** elaborates on **C**’s activities in natural order. **A** almost never leaves activities or shift attention abruptly.

### C. Appropriateness of relationship among activities

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<th>C1</th>
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</tbody>
</table>

- **C1**: **A** never sequences activities from simple to complex; or introduces change to maintain **C**’s interest; or verbally links activities. Activities seem unrelated and confusing.
- **C2**: Sometimes **A** appropriately sequences activities from simple to complex, introduces change, or verbally links activities; about half the time.
- **C**: **A** almost always appropriately sequences activities, - verbally links activities or introduces change to maintain **C**’s interest.

**A** = Adult  
**C** = Children
### 9. POSITIVE STATEMENTS

#### A. Amount of expressed positive verbal statements, and non-verbal signs of positive regard

*Praise, hugs, smiles*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>Very little to none; A almost never expresses positive regard. <em>(If Amount = 1, Rate Not Observed on Quality and Appropriateness.)</em></td>
<td>Moderate; A expresses positive regard in moderate amounts <em>(about 10% of A’s verbal behavior and non-verbal initiations and responses).</em></td>
<td>Very much; A expresses positive regard very frequently <em>(more than 25% of A’s verbal behavior and non-verbal initiations and responses).</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

#### B. Quality of expressed positive statements: Intensity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>Withdrawn, detached. Positive statements made with negative voice, or extremely overwhelming.</td>
<td>Variable intensity; sometimes detached or too intense; sometimes high quality</td>
<td>Loving, warm. Variations in quality dependent on children’s behaviors; always high quality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### C. Appropriateness of positive statements: Timing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>A expresses positive regard at inappropriate times, non-contingently, or intrusively.</td>
<td>Sometimes inappropriate, sometimes appropriate reactions to C’s activities; not consistently well-timed</td>
<td>Positive regard almost always appropriately</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**A = Adult  
C = Children**
### 10. NEGATIVE STATEMENTS/DISCIPLINE

#### A. Amount of expressed negative statements and non-verbal behavior

(includes discipline, redirecting statements, criticism, threats, hits, impatience)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C1</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very little to none; A almost never makes negative statements. (If Amount = 1, Rate Not Observed on Quality and Appropriateness.)</td>
<td>A sometimes expresses negative statements (no more than 10% of the verbal behaviors and non-verbal 25% of her/his verbal initiations and responses).</td>
<td>Very much; A expresses negative statements very frequently (more than behaviors and non-verbal)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### B. Quality of expressed negative statements: Intensity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C1</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intensely negative. A uses physical punishment too intensely; severely harsh tone of voice.</td>
<td>Moderate intensity. A occasionally uses harsh tone of voice; sometimes A seems impatient, sharp.</td>
<td>A uses negative emotion with appropriate intensity; may frequently use reasoning to control behaviors. Redirects C's attention calmly.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### C. Appropriateness of negative statements: Timing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C1</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A expresses negative emotion not related to C's activities or developmental capability or the situation in the classroom; inappropriate excessive negative statements.</td>
<td>Sometimes inappropriate, sometimes appropriate timing or expectations. A relies on verbal control of C's behavior after the fact; seldom redirects in advance.</td>
<td>Negative almost always appropriately timed to C's behavior. Must show evidence of redirecting in advance. Expectations almost</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**= Adult
C = Children
### 11. GOAL SETTING

#### A. Amount of teacher goal setting behavior: 
Degree to which adult verbally or non-verbally communicates expectations for C’s behavior

*Goal setting implies follow through, indicating A expected certain behavior of C.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>C1</strong></td>
<td>None; A never communicates goals for C. <em>(If Amount = 1, Rate Not Observed on Quality and Appropriateness.)</em></td>
<td>Moderate; A occasionally communicates goals for C</td>
<td>Very frequently; A almost continually communicates through specific goals for C’s behavior; sometimes follows through.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### B. Quality of goal setting: Flexibility

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>C1</strong></td>
<td>A never adjusts demands, environment, toys to aid C’s success at attaining goals A has communicated.</td>
<td>A sometimes is flexible, occasionally adjusts environment so C can be successful at achieving goals.</td>
<td>A always adjusts to aid C’s success.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>C2</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### C. Appropriateness of goal setting: 
Reasonableness of adult’s expectations for C’s behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>C1</strong></td>
<td>A never sets attainable, reasonable challenges for C; A unmindful of C’s ability level; or expectations too low for C’s needs.</td>
<td>Sometimes A’s challenges are attainable; about half the time.</td>
<td>A’s challenges are almost always moderate, attainable, and appropriate to C’s capabilities.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>C2</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**A = Adult  
C = Children**
APPENDIX D

Contextual Factors Sheet

Teacher ID: ___________ Date: _______________ Observation Interval #: ________

Number of Teachers: _______ Number of Teaching Assistants: _______
Number of Other Adults: _______ Number of Students Present: _______

Activities Observed:

Time Started: _______ Time Ended: _______

FIELD NOTES (can be continued on back if necessary)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

APPENDIX E

Teacher Interview Protocol
Project: A Study of Teacher-Child Interaction

Time of Interview:
Date:
Place:
Interviewer:
Interviewee:
Position of Interviewee:

The purpose of this study is to examine teacher-child interaction and identify the different ways teachers and children interact and what practices teachers use. Data from interviews is being collected to assess the kinds of interactions teachers have with children, particularly those that support a preschooler’s growth and development. A statement of confidentiality will be given to teachers to ensure their responses, their names and the names of the children are kept anonymous. Additionally, the taped interview data will be kept in a locked file cabinet for 5 years in the researcher’s office and then destroyed by cutting the tapes and shredding the written copy.

Interviews should take approximately 60 minutes.

Lead Questions:
1. Tell me about the practices you use to encourage or support children’s learning. (Probe: Can you think of any additional things you may say or do that encourages and supports children’s learning?) how do you expand on something the child already knows?
2. Tell me about the practices you use that reflect the cultural beliefs and values of families and children who are from a similar racial/ethnic background. (Probe: When you are interacting with a child who is <state the ethnicity of the teacher>, what things do you say or do that reflect that child’s cultural beliefs and values and those of their families?)
3. Tell me about the practices you use that reflect the cultural beliefs and values of families and children who are from a different racial/ethnic background. (Probe: When you are interacting with a child who is <state the Caucasian or African American, depending on the ethnicity of the teacher>, what things do you say or do that reflect that child’s cultural beliefs and values and those of their families?)
4. Tell me how you interact with children in situations where they are upset or crying. (Probe: Can you think of anything else that you may say or do that assists a child who is crying?). Describe how it is adapted for individual children.
5. Tell me how you interact with a child at-risk for a disability.
6. (Probe: can you give me an example of how you interact with the child with a disability when they are on the carpet during free play.). Tell me how interacting
with a child at-risk for a disability differs from interacting with a child without a disability,
(Probes: Have you had to change how you go about routine activities because of the child with a disability? If so, how? Have you had to change how you talk or say things? If so, how?)
7. Tell me about the cultural differences present within your classroom.
8. Tell me how you address (or would address) conflicts arising from cultural differences with families.
APPENDIX F
Crosswalks Assessment of Student Knowledge and Skills
Adapted Version of Crosswalks Assessment of Student Knowledge and Skills (2005)

I. Your Current Level of Knowledge about Children and Families who are Culturally and Linguistically Diverse

Please read the following statements. Indicate your current level of knowledge in that area by circling one number to the right of the statement. Use the following 6-point scale when making your ratings: 0 = no knowledge, 1 = low knowledge, 2 = low/medium knowledge, 3 = medium knowledge, 4 = medium/high knowledge, or 5 = high knowledge.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. General Knowledge</th>
<th>None</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Medium</th>
<th>High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.1 Knowledge of my own cultural traditions, attitudes, interaction styles and use of language.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2 Knowledge of how my own cultural traditions, attitudes, etc., differ from or are similar to the cultures of others.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3 Knowledge of the important role language and culture hold for children and families.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4 Knowledge of the impact of the dominant or mainstream culture on shaping research and practice in early childhood education and early intervention.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5 Knowledge of specific legal issues and precedents related to cultural and linguistic diversity.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2. Supporting Child Learning</th>
<th>None</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Medium</th>
<th>High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.1 Knowledge of how culture impacts the development and learning of each child.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 Knowledge of effective approaches (curricula, strategies, and resources) for supporting the learning of culturally and linguistically diverse young children.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3 Knowledge of how to design relationships and experiences with the environment, activities, and other children/families so that children learn or are exposed to multiple cultures and languages.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4 Knowledge of how to adapt teaching and intervention methods to meet the needs of culturally and linguistically diverse children and families.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5 Knowledge of effective approaches for supporting the transitions of culturally and linguistically diverse young children between early childhood programs (e.g., transition to kindergarten).</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please turn to the next page 1
Please read the following statements. Indicate your current level of knowledge in that area by circling one number to the right of the statement. Use the following 6-point scale when making your ratings: 0 = no knowledge, 1 = low knowledge, 2 = low/medium knowledge, 3 = medium knowledge, 4 = medium/high knowledge, or 5 = high knowledge.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3. Families</th>
<th>None</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Medium</th>
<th>High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.1 Knowledge of the different preferences, priorities and child-rearing practices of families who are culturally and linguistically diverse.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2 Knowledge about practices, supports and resources that are responsive to the cultural and linguistic characteristics and preferences of families and their communities.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3 Knowledge of the importance of helping children to honor, preserve and celebrate their home language and culture.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4. Assessment</th>
<th>None</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Medium</th>
<th>High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.1 Knowledge about culturally responsive approaches to gathering information from diverse families.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2 Knowledge of non-discriminatory assessment practices and tools.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3 Knowledge of second language acquisition processes and application to the assessment process.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.4 Knowledge of how to conduct assessments with careful consideration of the current situation, previous interventions, and the learners' cultural and linguistic background.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5 Knowledge of ways to provide verbal and written feedback to families that focuses on the strengths of the child and family, including parent observations and qualitative descriptions and examples of the child's abilities.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>5. Collaboration</th>
<th>None</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Medium</th>
<th>High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.1 Knowledge about how to collaborate effectively with team members who have expertise in second language acquisition and/or culturally and linguistically diverse children and families.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2 Knowledge about how to access available campus/community resources and supports related to cultural and linguistic diversity.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.3 Knowledge of how to engage and support the participation of interpreters, cultural mediators and/or translators.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
## APPENDIX G

### PROMOTING CULTURAL & LINGUISTIC COMPETENCY

Self-Assessment Checklist for Personnel Providing Services and Supports In Early Intervention and Early Childhood Settings

Directions: Please select A, B, or C for each item listed below.

- **A** = Things I do frequently
- **B** = Things I do occasionally
- **C** = Things I do rarely or never

### PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT, MATERIALS & RESOURCES

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I display pictures, posters and other materials that reflect the cultures and ethnic backgrounds of children and families served in my early childhood program or setting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I select props for the dramatic play/housekeeping area that are culturally diverse (e.g. dolls, clothing, cooking utensils, household articles, furniture).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I ensure that the book/literacy area has pictures and storybooks that reflect the different cultures of children and families served in my early childhood program or setting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I ensure that table-top toys and other play accessories (that depict people) are representative of the various cultural and ethnic groups both within my community and the society in general.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I read a variety of books exposing children in my early childhood program or setting to various life experiences of cultures and ethnic groups other than their own.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>When such books are not available, I provide opportunities for children and their families to create their own books and include them among the resources and materials in my early childhood program or setting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I adapt the above referenced approaches when providing services, supports and other interventions in the home setting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I encourage and provide opportunities for children and their families to share experiences through storytelling, puppets, marionettes, or other props to support the &quot;oral tradition&quot; common among many cultures.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. I plan trips and community outings to places where children and their families can learn about their own cultural or ethnic history as well as the history of others.

10. I select videos, films or other media resources reflective of diverse cultures to share with children and families served in my early childhood program or setting.

11. I play a variety of music and introduce musical instruments from many cultures.

12. I ensure that meals provided include foods that are unique to the cultural and ethnic backgrounds of children and families served in my early childhood program or setting.

13. I provide opportunities for children to cook or sample a variety of foods typically served by different cultural and ethnic groups other than their own.

14. If my early childhood program or setting consists entirely of children and families from the same cultural or ethnic group, I feel it is important to plan an environment and implement activities that reflect the cultural diversity within the society at large.

15. I am cognizant of and ensure that curricula I use include traditional holidays celebrated by the majority culture, as well as those holidays that are unique to the culturally diverse children and families served in my early childhood program or setting.

16. For children who speak languages or dialects other than English, I attempt to learn and use key words in their language so that I am better able to communicate with them.

17. I attempt to determine any familial colloquialisms used by children and families that will assist and/or enhance the delivery of services and supports.

18. I use visual aids, gestures, and physical prompts in my interactions with children who have limited English proficiency.

19. When interacting with parents and other family members who have limited English proficiency I always keep in mind that:
   
   (a) limitation in English proficiency is in no way a reflection of their level of intellectual functioning.
   
   (b) their limited ability to speak the language of the dominant culture has no bearing on their ability to communicate effectively in their language of origin.
   
   (c) they may neither be literate in their language of origin nor English.

20. I ensure that all notices and communiqués to parents are written in their language of origin.

21. I understand that it may be necessary to use alternatives to written communications for some families, as word of mouth may be a preferred method of receiving information.

22. I understand the principles and practices of linguistic competency and:
   
   (a) apply them within my early childhood program or setting.
   
   (b) advocate for them within my program or agency.

23. I use bilingual or multilingual staff and/or trained/certified foreign language interpreters for meetings, conferences, or other events for parents and family members who may require this level of assistance.

24. I encourage and invite parents and family members to volunteer and assist with activities regardless of their ability to speak English.

25. I use alternative formats and varied approaches to communicate with children and/or their family members who experience disability.

26. I arrange accommodations for parents and family members who may require communication assistance to ensure their full participation in all aspects of the early childhood program (e.g. hearing impaired, physical disability, visually impaired, not literate or low literacy etc.).

27. I accept and recognize that there are often differences between language used in early childhood/early intervention settings, or at "school", and in the home setting.

VALUES & ATTITUDES

28. I avoid imposing values that may conflict or be inconsistent with those of cultures or ethnic groups other than my own.

29. I discourage children from using racial and ethnic slurs by helping them understand that certain words can hurt others.

30. I screen books, movies, and other media resources for negative cultural, ethnic, racial, or religious stereotypes before sharing them with children and their families served in my early childhood program or setting.

31. I provide activities to help children learn about and accept the differences and similarities in all people as an ongoing component of program curricula.

32. I intervene in an appropriate manner when I observe other staff or parents within my program or agency engaging in behaviors that show cultural insensitivity, bias or prejudice.

33. I recognize and accept that individuals from culturally diverse backgrounds may desire varying degrees of acculturation into the dominant culture.

34. I understand and accept that family is defined differently by different cultures (e.g. extended family members, fictive kin, godparents).

35. I accept and respect that male-female roles in families may vary significantly among different cultures (e.g. who makes major decisions for the family, play and social interactions expected of male and female children).

36. I understand that age and life cycle factors must be considered in interactions with families (e.g. high value placed on the decisions or childrearing practices of elders or the role of the eldest female in the family).

37. Even though my professional or moral viewpoints may differ, I accept the family/parents as the ultimate decision makers for services and supports for their children.

VALUES & ATTITUDES (CONT’D)

_____ 38. I accept that religion, spirituality, and other beliefs may influence how families respond to illness, disease, and death.

_____ 39. I recognize and understand that beliefs and concepts of mental health or emotional well-being, particularly for infants and young children, vary significantly from culture to culture.

_____ 40. I recognize and accept that familial folklore, religious, or spiritual beliefs may influence a family's reaction and approach to a child born with a disability or later diagnosed with a disability or special health care needs.

_____ 41. I understand that beliefs about mental illness and emotional disability are culturally-based. I accept that responses to these conditions and related treatment/interventions are heavily influenced by culture.

_____ 42. I understand that the health care practices of families served in my early childhood program or setting may be rooted in cultural traditions.

_____ 43. I recognize that the meaning or value of early childhood education or early intervention may vary greatly among cultures.

_____ 44. I understand that traditional approaches to disciplining children are influenced by culture.

_____ 45. I understand that families from different cultures will have different expectations of their children for acquiring toileting, dressing, feeding, and other self-help skills.

_____ 46. I accept and respect that customs and beliefs about food, its value, preparation, and use are different from culture to culture.

_____ 47. Before visiting or providing services in the home setting, I seek information on acceptable behaviors, courtesies, customs, and expectations that are unique to families of specific cultural groups served in my early childhood program or setting.

VALUES & ATTITUDES (CONT’D)

_____ 48. I advocate for the review of my program’s or agency’s mission statement, goals, policies, and procedures to ensure that they incorporate principles and practices that promote cultural diversity, cultural competence and linguistic competence.

_____ 49. I seek information from family members or other key community informants that will assist me to respond effectively to the needs and preferences of culturally and linguistically diverse children and families served in my early childhood program or setting.

How to use this checklist
This checklist is intended to heighten the awareness and sensitivity of personnel to the importance of cultural diversity, cultural competence and linguistic competence in early childhood settings. It provides concrete examples of the kinds of practices that foster such an environment. There is no answer key with correct responses. However, if you frequently responded "C", you may not necessarily demonstrate practices that promote a culturally diverse and culturally competent learning environment for children and families within your classroom, program or agency.

## APPENDIX H

Codes for Missed Opportunities Record

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>QUESTIONS</th>
<th>CODE</th>
<th>INDICATOR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Date of observation</td>
<td>date</td>
<td>Write date written on contextual factors sheet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observation interval number</td>
<td>Interval</td>
<td>Write the number given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child identification number</td>
<td>Child id</td>
<td>Write the letter and number given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount of specified behavior</td>
<td>amount</td>
<td>Write the number circled on checklist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of specified behavior</td>
<td>qualit</td>
<td>Write the number circled on checklist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appropriateness of specified behavior</td>
<td>approp</td>
<td>Write the number circled on checklist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily mean score</td>
<td>dailym</td>
<td>mean score for each day calculated from the scores on the three aspects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missed opportunity-child initiated interactions</td>
<td>moname</td>
<td>Write number on contextual factors sheets that identifies the number of times child attempted to interact with teacher verbally by calling teacher’s name and which the teacher did not respond verbally and/or nonverbally to the child’s attempt at interaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>motalk</td>
<td>Write number on contextual factors sheets that identifies the number of times child attempted to interact with teacher verbally by starting a conversation with her within the child’s arms length distance away and which the teacher did not respond verbally and/or nonverbally to the child’s attempt at interaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>motouch</td>
<td>Write number on contextual factors sheets that identifies the number of times child attempted to interact with teacher nonverbally by tapping the teacher on any of the teacher’s body parts and which the teacher did not respond verbally and/or nonverbally to the child’s attempt at interaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mohand</td>
<td>Write number on contextual factors sheets that identifies the number of times child attempted to interact with teacher nonverbally by raising hand and which the teacher did not respond verbally and/or nonverbally to the child’s attempt at interaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mofrnt</td>
<td>Write number on contextual factors sheets that identifies the number of times child attempted to interact with teacher nonverbally by standing in front of teacher and which the teacher did not respond verbally and/or nonverbally to the child’s attempt at interaction.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
moside  Write number on contextual factors sheets that identifies the number of times child attempted to interact with teacher nonverbally by standing beside teacher and which the teacher did not respond verbally and/or nonverbally to the child’s attempt at interaction.

mobehnd  Write number on contextual factors sheet that identifies the number of times child attempted to interact with teacher nonverbally by standing behind the teacher and which the teacher did not respond verbally and/or nonverbally to the child’s attempt at interaction.

mother  Write number on contextual factors sheet that identifies the number of times child attempted to interact with teacher in a manner other than categories given.

Specify  Write the behavior provided

Missed opportunity-Teacher initiated interactions

monameT  Write number on teacher notes sheets that identify the number of times teacher attempted to interact with child verbally by calling child’s name and in which the child did not respond verbally and/or nonverbally to the teacher’s attempt at interaction.

motalkT  Write number on teacher notes sheets that identify the number of times teacher attempted to interact with child verbally by starting a conversation with child within the teacher’s arms length distance away and in which the child did not respond verbally and/or nonverbally to the teacher’s attempt at interaction.

moquesT  Write number on teacher notes sheets that identify the number of times teacher attempted to interact with child verbally by asking child a question and in which the child did not respond verbally and/or nonverbally to the teacher’s attempt at interaction.

motouchT  Write number on teacher notes sheets that identify the number of times teacher attempted to interact with child nonverbally by tapping the child on any of the child’s body parts and which the child did not
respond verbally and/or nonverbally to the teacher’s attempt at interaction.

**mofrntT** Write number on teacher notes sheets that identify the number of times teacher attempted to interact with child nonverbally by standing in front of child and which the child did not respond verbally and/or nonverbally to the teacher’s attempt at interaction.

**mosideT** Write number on teacher notes sheets that identify the number of times teacher attempted to interact with child nonverbally by standing or sitting beside child and in which the child did not respond verbally and/or nonverbally to the teacher’s attempt at interaction.

**mobehndT** Write number on teacher notes sheets that identify the number of times teacher attempted to interact with child nonverbally by standing or sitting behind the child and in which the child did not respond verbally and/or nonverbally to the child’s attempt at interaction.

**motherT** Write number on teacher notes sheet that identifies the number of times teacher attempted to interact with child in a manner other than categories given

**Specify** Write the behavior provided