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HANDBOOK ON TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS

Michael Anthony Arteaga

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HANDBOOK ON TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS

A Project
Presented to the
Faculty of
California State University,
San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts
in
Communication Studies

by
Michael Anthony Arteaga
September 2017

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ABSTRACT

This project aims to help teachers learn how to connect with their students of different cultural backgrounds. It is written to help teachers understand how cultural differences can have an unseen effect on student learning and immediacy. In turn, these effects can lead to a lack of motivation and lower levels of success in college attainment. This project will also have a handbook to help teachers learn about their students' backgrounds and understand how culture plays a role in the learning process. The handbook will review understanding the demographics of the school, cultural mismatch, cultural communication, and instructional communication. These topics are geared to help teachers gain an understanding of the challenges their students face. When teachers are engaging in the handbook sections and working to overcome educational obstacles, their students may have greater academic success.

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CHAPTER ONE

EXAMINATION OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM

There have been many attempts to fix the education system. In more recent times it seems that every new presidential administration tries to fix the problem but none have been successful in their attempts to improve the way that the United State is educating our youth. The other missing factor that faces the education system is finding solutions to increasing the success rate of minorities. New policies, at the very least, have not eliminated or substantially improved the large gap between the success rates of the minority and the non-minority students across the country. This project will aim to examine some of the failed policies and how they have affected student performance. It will then move to help find ways to improve the education system at a local level to attempt to solve the larger issues in the education system.

There have been education reforms since the 1950's, according to the National Defense Education Act (United States Senate, 2017), that were geared toward helping students obtain funding for higher education. The start of recent changes to education system policies began with the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) in 1965. "ESEA offered new grants to districts serving low-income students, federal scholarships for low-income college students. Additionally, the law provided federal grants to state educational agencies to improve the quality of elementary and secondary education" (UNITED STATES Department of

Education, 2017, Sections History of ESEA, Para. 2). Since then, changes by different presidential administrations have tried to improve the educational system.

No Child Left Behind

One of the more recent policies to try to solve the educational gap of students was No Child Left Behind (NCLB), which was put in to place to help the education problem the nation was facing (Aldridge, 2003). This system was targeting several large achievement gaps. For example, it showed that 13% of the 17-year-old students in the United States were functionally illiterate and minority illiteracy rates could be as high as 40% (Jorgensen & Hoffmann, 2003). Jorgensen and Hoffmann (2003) also found that students in public colleges needed so many remedial classes that one-fourth of the classes offered in college were to serve the remedial population of students. To solve these problems, the Bush administration came up with the No Child Left Behind Act in 2002. Jorgensen and Hoffmann (2003) summarize the policy as follows:

Education opens doors to children for a lifetime and leads to their success.

NCLB is the engine driving a new era of accountability for every child's learning journey. Children who are being left behind must be identified and states will have the responsibility to provide the resources to teach every child how to read, to apply mathematics, to study, to learn—to succeed.

(p.7)

Aldridge (2003) broke it down as follows:

Legislators hoped that passage of No Child Left Behind would lead to: 1) greater accountability for results; 2) more flexibility for schools, school districts, and states in how they use federal funds; 3) a wider range of education choices for families from disadvantaged backgrounds; and 4) an emphasis on research-based teaching methods. The Act strongly emphasizes literacy for young children, improving teacher qualifications, and ensuring that every child who attends school in the United States will learn English. (p. 45)

Effects of Standardized Testing

To measure student learning and hold school districts accountable for poor performance, NCLB relied heavily on standardized testing. Test-benchmarked student learning lead to several undesirable outcomes including creative learning opportunities being cut from the curriculum. Instead, learning is focused on how to pass a test. Together, these changes result in education systems that do not promote learning social skills (Kohn, 2000). The education system is not structured to accommodate individual student needs. Schools are made to be like an assembly line designed to put students through the process to graduating by just passing a test, ignoring the fact that students do not have a “one size fits all” leaning style (Beattie, 2012). Research also shows that standardized testing places students with a higher socioeconomic class in a better position to pass standardized tests because they have a better chance to

obtain test prep materials than those of a lower class (Kohn, 2000). In looking at students from a lower socioeconomic status, Tzuriel (2013) found that:

Children who come from low socioeconomic status families do not have adequate learning opportunities or efficient mediation within the family and therefore fail in academic performance or in standard tests. Their failure does not reflect lack of intellectual ability but rather lack of learning strategies, learning habits, and motivation to master cognitive tasks. (p.1)

These studies show that standardized testing, used as a means of accountability in the NCLB policy, ignores these differences and actually reinforces the very inequities in minority education the policy was designed to address.

Effects on Math and Reading

Research shows that NCLB has not been successful on a number of different levels. NCLB would not meet its goal of 100% proficiency in math and reading. The data showed that “only 24 to 34 percent of students [were projected to] meet the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) proficiency target in reading and 29 to 64 percent would meet that math proficiency target by 2014” (Lee, 2006, p. 11). Byrd-Blake, Fabunmi, Leander, Pryor, and Afolayan, (2010) found that schools were more test-focused and less focused on the classroom curriculum, which has a negative effect on the students learning the subject matter. The issues with NCLB policy are, in part, the issues with standardized testing not being an effective measure of a child’s intelligence.

Based on the Nation's Report Card (2017), the data from 2015 shows that there is still a large gap between White and minority students in math and reading. The reading report states that 44% of White students read at or above the 8th grade level while only 21% of Hispanics and 16% of African-American students were proficient at this level. In math, levels of proficiency for White student are at 43%, Hispanics at 19%, and African-American at 13%. As we can see, the national strategies that were put in place have not been effective in solving the problems of inequity in our school systems nationwide.

Comparing the data from today to the years before the NCLB act, we can see that the gains were small, inconsistent, or nonexistent.

Among eighth-graders, average reading scores rose in the 1990s, and then had a drop from 2002 and 2005 (from 264 to 262), then showed nearly a decade of increases (rising to 268 in 2013). In 2015, average scores had decreased back to their 2011 level of 265. (Child Trends, 2015, para.3)

Not only did math scores not improve significantly over the years of NCLB, they actually dropped. Seventeen year-olds had an average score of 62% on a mathematics competency exam in 1999, which dropped to 61% in 2012 (National Center for Education, 2017). These data show that the NCLB policies in place have not resulted in significant changes in reading or mathematics over the years.

Effects on Minority Students

The breakdown of minority students in this section will start to look at the average score of the students before and after the NCLB measures were put into place. The racial analysis shows lower scores for minorities compared to White students throughout the years. From 1999 to 2012, reading scores for White students rose slightly from 53% to 54%, Hispanics showed a slight increase from 48% to 50%, and African-American students increased from 48% to 49% (National Center for Education, 2017). In 2015, the reading scores over the same time period and demographics had similar results (Nation's Report Card, 2017). The proficiency rate in math from 2003, the start of NCLB, to 2013 showed an increase at all levels with White students scoring from of 37% to 45%, Hispanic students 12% to 21%, and African-American students 7 % to 14% (Nation's Report Card, 2017). Although there was some improvement, overall in 2014, the students had not come close to reaching the 100% proficiency level that the NCLB tried to achieve.

In comparison to the nation, California has the greater minority population of students. The state's largest groups are the Hispanic (54%), followed by Whites (24%), and African-Americans (5.8%) (EdData.org, 2017). This higher minority population had a predictable effect on the proficiency scores of California's students. Out of a perfect score of 500, math proficiency scores nationally are 281 and California's are 275. The writing proficiency baseline is scored at 300 where the basic level is equal to a score of 260. These scores are

higher from the 1990s where the nation and state were both under 260 basic levels (EdData.org, 2017). Together, these data show that over the years of NCLB, there has been little to help the gap between the minorities and White students, which NCLB was aiming to close.

Effects on College Preparation

An important part of education is to get students to the next level. A big part of that are the placement tests that help students gain access to university level education. Without good scores on these tests, students will have limited access to obtaining the degrees they need to be more successful in life. It can be seen that there is a difference in the Scholastic Assessment Test (SAT) scores when it comes to the national, state, and local levels. According to the NCES (2017), the national average of critical reading was 61%, mathematics at 64%, and writing at 61%. California has similar results to the national profile. At the state level, critical reading averages are at 61%, mathematics at 63%, and writing at 61%. This shows the state of California has slightly lower SAT scores than the national averages in mathematics and equals the national average in reading and writing.

Remediation at the college entrance level can also be a factor in showing the success rate for the NCLB policy. An article by the NCES found:

Remedial course taking was widespread among students who began their postsecondary education in 2003–04: about 68 percent of those who started at public 2-year institutions and 40 percent of those who started at

public 4-year institutions took at least one remedial course during their postsecondary enrollment between 2003 and 2009 (Chen, 2016 p. 15). The study by the NCES (2017) also looked at student demographics among students who had to take remedation courses and found that

Remediation was more common among several demographic groups typically associated with having weak academic preparation. At public 2-year institutions, 78 percent of African-American students and 75 percent of Hispanic students (vs. 64 percent of White students) and 76 percent of students who were in the lowest income group (vs. 59 percent of those in the highest) took remedial courses. (Chen, 2016, p.16)

This shows that the polices that were put in to place during the NCLB were not successful in completing the goal of helping the lower income students and minorities to be successful in math and English when it came to college preparedness.

Educational Effects on Local Communities

This next section will start to look at how local levels of education can affect the community at large. The ethnicity of the community has a direct correlation to the amount of education the community has and the economic status of those who live in the community. In our local area, two of these schools, Colton and Grand Terrace High, are similar in size with about a 500 student population difference and only about 5 miles distance from each other. It is

important to look at how education can affect the community. When there are lower levels of education in a community, it can also have an economic effect.

There are large differences between the populations of those who live in these two California cities. The city of Colton has a racial makeup of 71% Hispanics, 13% White, and 9.7% African-American compared to the adjacent city of Grand Terrace which has a racial makeup of 39.1% Hispanics, 46% Whites, and 9.7% African-American (United State Census Bureau, 2016). Other differences in the cities show that there is a median household income of \$63,871 in Grand Terrace versus \$41,565 in Colton, which shows that there is an economic difference between the two cities. There is also a difference in educational attainment for residents 25 and older, with Grand Terrace having 89.3% of adults graduating from high school and 29% with a Bachelor degree or higher in comparison to Colton that has 70% graduating from high school and 12.7% with a Bachelor degree or higher (United State Census Bureau, 2016).

When looking at the racial makeup of the state, district, and schools levels we can see that these areas have higher rates of minority students in them. According to EdData.org (2017), the makeup of California students is 54% Hispanics, 24% White, and 5.8% African-American. There is a large gap between the demographic makeup of the students between the state and local levels. In the Colton Joint Unified School District, the ethnicity of students at Colton High School is higher with Hispanics at 83.2%, 7.2% White, and 5.6% African-

American. At Grand Terrace High (in the same school district), the Hispanic population is 69.1%, White 14.6% and African American at 8.7%.

Colton High School has an SAT critical reading score of 53.3%, mathematics score of 56.5% and writing a score of 53.5%. Grand Terrace shows scores of critical reading 56%, mathematics 56%, and writing 55% (EdData.org, 2017). The Grand Terrace students scored somewhat higher than the Colton students in all but math. Although there was only a .5% difference in the math scores; Colton was found to be higher.

Another evaluation of the success of students is the eligibility of students to be qualified to attend a four-year state institution of higher education. One of the main tasks to enter a California state school is to complete the A-G requirements which are the following classes:

- “History / social science ("a")
- English ("b")
- Mathematics ("c")
- Laboratory science ("d")
- Language other than English ("e")
- Visual & performing arts ("f")
- College-preparatory elective ("g") Honors courses.”

(<http://www.ucop.edu/agguide/a-g-requirements/>, 2017)

According to the Ed-Data.org (2017), in the state of California, 43.4% of students completed the A-G requirement and were eligible to go to a University

of California (UC) and/or California State University (CSU). At Colton High, only 23.9% completed the A-G requirement and were eligible to be admitted to a UC and/ or a CSU. This creates an access problem for students in this community. At Grand Terrace High School, Ed-Data.org (2017) showed that 36.7% of students completed the A-G requirement and were eligible for a CSU and/or UC.

Looking at the socioeconomic status of the students based on free lunch programs, we can evaluate how the state, district, and school levels compare in terms of poverty. According to the Ed-data.org (2017), in the year 2015-2016, 58.9% of students in California were on a free lunch program. At the district level, Colton Unified has 80.7% of students on the free lunch program and at Colton High School, 81.8% of the students qualify for free lunches and there are 66.5% of their students on the program. In comparison to their counterpart school, Grand Terrace High School students are in a much better position economically speaking (using the free lunch as an indicator), with 15.8% less students on free lunch. It can be seen that there is a greater need for assistance in the Colton Unified School District and at the high school level. Grand Terrace High also has 23.1% less Hispanic students than Colton High and has 10.2% more White students, which shows a correlation between the minority students that are at a lower social economic status.

In examination of the graduation rates, we can see there are minor differences when it comes to the state, district, and school level. From Ed-Data.org (2017), the state of California has a graduation rate of 82.3%, the

Colton Joint Unified School District level is 83.8%, the Colton High level is at 85.9%, and the Grand Terrace High level is at 90.1%. This shows that students are passing classes and exit exams to graduate or passing a GED but they are still not helping students get to the next level of education.

Graduating from high school and going to college has a greater impact on how successful a student is in getting a job in the future. According to the National Center for Educational Statistics (2017), students who have more education have better rates of employment at any level. The National Center for Educational Statistics (2017) show the rate of education and job obtainment was 89% of those who have a Bachelor degree or higher, 76% of those with some college, 67% of those who had graduated from high school, and only 51% of those who did not graduated from high school had jobs.

The statistics help to explain the effects of standardized testing on students across the nation, the state of California, and in areas such as the Colton Unified School District that are affected by the socioeconomic class in that area. Also, the rate of minority students that are in Colton would be highly impacted by standardized testing and the NCLB policies because these have been shown to have a negative effect on minority students. Based on the numbers, it can also be seen that the areas with higher minority populations have more financial needs as well as a greater need for support and guidance to access the state college system with lower eligibility rates for four-year institutions. It has been seen that schools with higher rates of minority students

had lower acceptance rates with lower SAT scores, which are taken in to consideration when processing applications. These rejected students would have to look for other options after high school.

The impact of a student's success has a direct impact on the community where s/he resides. The statistics show that there are lower numbers of community members that have more than just a high school diploma which means there are more students with families that may not understand how to help their students achieve the next level of education and better their futures. This also means that these students will have a harder time finding jobs and helping future students move to higher levels of education. In addition, lower college mobility causes lower income levels in the community with more unemployed members because they do not have the education to obtain higher-level employment. This causes a cycle that is hard for students to break out of without the resources and understanding of the issues by the educators who need to guide them.

The next chapter will take a deeper look into the issues facing the students along with the education and communication theories to provide some explanation of the problems minority students are having in the education system. There will also be an evaluation of the makeup of the student body of the schools and the teachers to evaluate any coalition in affinity between teachers and students.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL EVALUATION

In chapter one, it was shown that education has not been as successful as those who wish to change it would want. There are still many students that are below proficiency in math and writing. In this chapter, there will be an evaluation of theories and data to see why the policies of the past have not been successful in helping students in their educational journey.

There are a variety of ways to look at the system of education in the United States and how students learn and take in information. There are also different ways to look at teaching strategies and understand student culture, learning styles, and instructional communication. When teachers focus on the needs and preferences of the students they teach, there may be an effect on how the students respond to their teaching. Students may become more motivated which is positively related to learning outcomes. In this chapter, there will be an analysis of who the teachers are and the ways that a student-teacher relationship can affect learning.

A Comparison: Students vs. Teachers

There is a large gap between the demographic make-up of students and teachers at each of the schools examined in the last chapter. When looking at teacher demographics of the two local high schools, we can see that Colton High School has an ethnicity mismatch between the students and teachers with the

breakdown of Hispanic students of 92.2% and White teachers at 62.8% (EdData.org, 2017). Meanwhile, Grand Terrace has fewer Hispanic students with a makeup of Hispanic students at 69.1% and White teachers at 67.6% (EdData.org, 2017). This shows that there is a mismatch between the cultures of the students versus the teachers at each of the schools. This could lead to issues of lower student success based on the teachers' lack of understanding of their students' learning styles and cultural mannerisms. The next section will examine cultural theories and how they relate to both schools.

Educational and Cultural Theories

This section will look at the different theories that apply to the education system from a cultural standpoint. These theories are related to the issues we have spoken of in the past chapter regarding the education system and how it relates to the students that are failing to perform to standards. These theories and concepts are comprised of communication and education concepts to show how they can work together to help create an understanding of the student teacher relationships that are taking place.

Cross Cultural Communication

First, we will examine the cultural communication styles of the students and the teachers in Colton and Grand Terrace. With different cultural backgrounds within the schools, there are different communication styles that are rooted in the students' upbringing. The examination at the core level of cross

cultural communication is the understanding that different communication styles exist among cultures.

Culture has been defined as “the way of life of a people, for the sum of their learned behavior patterns, attitudes, and material things,” (Hall, 1959, p. 43). Hall (1976) also talks about cultural as being “what we pay attention to and what we ignore” (p.85). Culture is a complex part of a person that is learned through family teachings and experiences. Culture is hard to understand by even those who are in the culture and when studying a culture, one will only get a glimpse of what it truly is. Therefore, educators may not understand the reasons behind the way a student may act or fail to act in a particular way.

Cultural communication looks at what culture is and how it affects people’s thinking, communicating, and way of life. Trying to understand the way people communicate is very complex because every culture has their own way of thinking and acting. According to Kittler, Rygl, and Mackinnon’s (2011) review of Hall (1976), there are three different demensions of culture:

1. Time refers to how members of different cultures orient towards time and the way they perceive it (monohronic vs polychronic).
2. Space refers to differing cultural frameworks for defining and organizing space, with frameworks internalized in all individuals at an unconscious level.

3. Context refers to the nature of how meaning is constructed differently across cultures using different ratios of context and information. (Hall (1959, 1976 as cited in Kittler, et al., 2011, p. 65)

These are the foundation of the way cultures work and live in the world around them. The dimensions influence people whether they see it or not.

Monochronic and polychronic times are the way people look at time in their lives and how the clock reflects their daily living. Monochronic time (M-Time) is a set schedule of time where everything is planned and happens when it is planned to happen. This approach to time is the way of the Western world, like the United States, where everything is planned and meetings are set for a time frame (Hall, 1976). In our daily schedule, school schedule is from 8:00 am to 3:00 pm with a 30-minute lunch, normally from 11:30 am to 12:00 pm. We have set meetings throughout the day that have to take place at the appointed time and location.

On the other hand, Polychronic time (P-Time) which is more common in Latin America and the Middle East is seen in a much different light. Time is seen as loose and without a lot of structure and involves multi-tasking with no real structure or end goal in mind (Hall, 1959). There is normally a goal that needs to be reached but there are no hard steps of how to get there. The future is not planned more than a week out because the goals are those that are here and now and change can happen freely (Hall, 1959). Time and goals are about the greater good of the whole group and not individual achievement (Hall, 1976). The

boss in a P-Time structure would not micro-manage the group, but allow them to reach their goals as they see fit. In a classroom setting this can be students working at their own pace, and having them reach the goal by an overall deadline. This way the student can get it done sooner or later just as long as it is in before the end of the term. Time is seen in different ways and some people (or students) need to be able to have that flexibility to get things done. It might be hard for a P-Time student to always get his/her work done in one night because s/he has to watch his/her siblings or help around the house where some other cultures might not require those responsibilities of their children.

The second dimension that Hall (1959) talks about is space and how people of different cultures see space. Hall (1959) talks about space in America as personal, even when in a public space where space is limited. Americans pull themselves in to create as much space between themselves and others. Whereas in other cultures, being in close proximity to someone is normal and seen as part of how to communicate with one another. Hall (1959) stated that in Latin America, people get close while talking, where in America this closeness would only happen if the people were trying to be intimate with each other. In contrast, Latin Americans see Americans keeping distance as being unfriendly to the person with whom they are speaking. These differences in culture can create different meanings to those around us no matter what the intentions of the person doing the act. This can relate to classroom learning based on the American culture (teachers) and the Hispanic culture (students) may see their

teachers as unfriendly and feel as if the teachers not care about the relationship between the two, this can take place when the teachers do not take interest in the students' needs.

The third dimension is context, how the meaning of the message is taken based on the person's culture (based on what s/he has learned and has experienced). In American culture, more low context (LC) communication takes place. This is where meaning is taken directly from the words themselves. Whereas in high context (HC) communities, *how* the words are used have the true meaning of the message. The diagram below shows how context and information is used in these two terms.

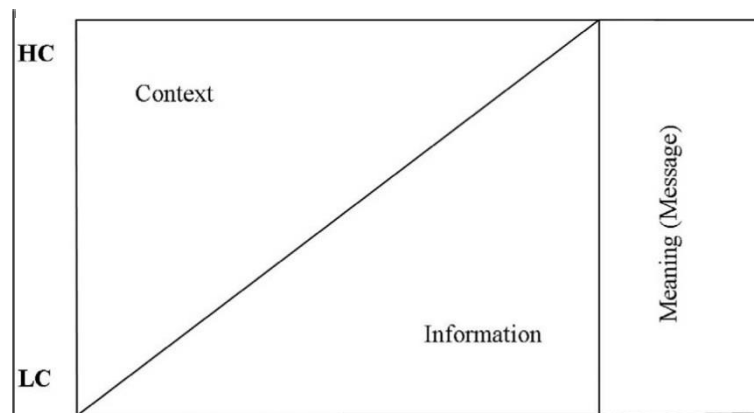


Figure 1. High Context and Low Context Message Meaning
(Hall, 1976 as cited in Kittler, et. al, 2011, p. 102)

The graph shows how the higher you go to HC the more the context takes on meaning, whereas on the low end of the spectrum (LC) is information (i.e. words)

has the more direct meaning. Thus the source of meaning depends on how the culture perceives the information and context that is given.

The HC and LC cultures are very different from each other and have deep-rooted values behind the actions of individuals and how they communicate. Hall (1976) breaks it down:

HC communication or messages is one in which most of the information is either in the physical content or internalized in the person while very little is in the coded, explicit, transmitted part of the message ... LC communication is just the opposite; i.e., the mass of the information is vested in the explicit code. (p.91)

Communication is different between high context (HC) and low context (LC) cultures in that HC is not always direct in the meaning of the message. According to Hall (1976), the interpreter must find the meaning of the message by beating around the subject. If the person is too direct in HC cultures, it can be seen as disrespectful to the receiver.

Westbrook (2014) categorized what cultures fit under HC and LC cultures. White American culture is seen to be a LC culture in which the teachers would be categorized and the students who are Hispanic (from Latin America) were found to be of HC cultures. When looking at the Colton School District high schools that were evaluated in chapter one, it was shown that there were two major groups represented amongst the teachers and students, namely, a high level of White teachers (LC) and a high level of Hispanic students (HC).

There is also a difference in the perception of success in these two cultures for example:

A high-context, collectivistic system depends on the community to bring individual successes, reasoning that when one person succeeds, the community succeeds. A community works together to see children develop, learn skills, and then give back. In a collectivistic society, an educational model that pushes individual success and competition breaks down if the individual's successes infringe on the harmony of the whole.

(Westbrook, 2014, p. 285)

In this example, it can be seen that teachers that are from a low context community look at individual success. However, from the students' perspective in a high context society, it would be seen as if one person's successes are the success of the whole community.

Teachers who come from a LC culture may have trouble when they are trying to teach students who come from HC backgrounds because they may communicate differently than which the students may have been familiar. With this misunderstanding, conflict can arise (Hall, 1976). According to Croucher et al. (2012), "Individuals from low-context cultures used solution-oriented conflict styles more than individuals from high-context cultures, and individuals from high-context cultures preferred non-confrontation" (p. 65). Thus, a student from a HC culture may not voice his/her opinion when s/he has a conflict or disagreement because of his/her non-confrontational upbringing. Croucher et al.

(2012) also found that, “avoiding style ignores/withdraws from a conflict” (p. 66). In other cultures, this can be seen in a negative light when it comes to students not wanting to voice how they are feeling due to their cultural upbringing (Croucher et al., 2012; Hall, 1976).

In terms of the local high schools, most students from Colton may be from the HC culture that might not always speak up in class because the directness of the communication might not seem acceptable to the student’s culture. The student’s culture of not being able to express themselves to the teacher might be explained by Hall (1976) when he talks about how HC cultures do not always express directly what they are feeling. However, they expect the person to take more meaning out of what they are saying beyond the words themselves and looking at the whole picture of what is happening to the students. The students in the HC culture would also not want to question the teacher if they are not understanding the teaching style even though it is different from the student’s cultural upbringing and learning style.

A common fault of teachers and professors is that they pay more attention to their subject matter than they do to their students, who frequently pay too much attention to the professor and not the subject (Hall, 1976, p. 88). This shows that students will look to the teacher for all the answers and not to what they are learning or the subject that is being taught. This seems to relate to teaching to the test and not learning what the actual subject is they are learning.

Cultural Mismatch Theory

Cultural Mismatch Theory (Villegas, 1988) explains these misunderstandings of culture between the student's home and educational environment. Villegas (1988) states that the "broadest expression, this theory attributes the academic problems of minority students to cultural disjuncture between home and school. Several versions of the theory exist, each examining a specific area of disjuncture" (p. 253). The theory also looks at language as a means of misunderstanding. Steeter (2008) talks about teachers needing to build a teaching strategy that is related to the background of the students they are teaching and learn how to use what the students bring to the classroom as a positive resource. Steeter (2008) also said that there needs to be involvement with the adults in the students' lives to help bring the school and their home lives together. Villegas (1988) explains how teachers and students of different backgrounds interact:

If dominant groups have the power to impose their own language variety on the educational system, it is to be expected that subordinate groups, whose language varieties are accorded less prestige, will encounter difficulties in school. It is no accident that minority students experience linguistic gaps between home and school, while middle-class students have a smoother transition between the two. (p. 260)

In the case of teaching, Losey (1995) found that the way Hispanics learned at home with their mothers was different than the teaching styles of the

teachers. Losey (1995) looks at the way that mothers were teaching their children different activities across different ethnicities and found that they all used different techniques. For example, students in the Hispanic family are given tasks to do at home but let to find ways to do the task, but in school they were given one way to solve the problem which was different from what the students had learned. This demonstrates that teachers need to have an understanding of the ways their students learn in order to help them succeed in school.

When we look at the school system, like the one at Colton High, there are differences in student-teacher racial composition which means there can be differences in language between the two groups. Fryberg (2012) talks about “when the educational context matches, students feel that they belong and can be successful, but when the context does not match, belonging and potential for success are undermined” (p.73). Other research by Hauser-Cram and Sirin (2003) found that, “when teachers believed the education-related values of parents differed from their own, they rated children as less competent academically and had lower expectations for their future academic success” (p. 818). When teachers have lower expectations because they have different backgrounds it can cause them to look at their students differently and possibly in a more negative light than students who have a background similar to their own.

While other research found that “while cultural norms of independence can be positive and motivating for some students, they can inadvertently undermine the sense of fit and the performance of others” (Stephens, et al., 2012). In

relation to this, Heath (1983) did research on students in minority communities and found that the parents were explaining that the student did not connect with the teachers because they did not talk like students did. The minority parents were asking their children questions that required only a yes or no answer to gain information the parents did not know about or to extract information based on an event that may have happened. When Hispanic students go to school, the “language” students are expected to use is different than what they were raised in and it is the academic language that the teachers use in the classroom that causes a disconnect between the students and teachers. The minority students are expected to repeat information they learned to the teacher which is more than what they were raised to do.

Teachers need to understand that different cultures have different ways of expressing themselves. When speaking to older people at home Hispanic students are expected to just give a direct answer but in school questions are based on the information that the teacher presents, and students are expected to articulate an answer, not just give a yes or no like they would at home. Testing is also set up in this manner, so students who grow up in a culture where they are saying their colors, numbers etc. have the advantage of understanding the structure. When student are part of the system or understand the system structure they have an advantage when it comes to the testing and perceived knowledge.

Mainstream educational policies are set up in a way to teach one way of learning. Researchers Stephens and Townsend (2015) provided an overview of these policies:

Two key tenets: (a) U.S. institutions tend to promote mainstream, independent cultural norms, and exclude interdependent cultural norms that are common among underrepresented groups; (b) when institutions promote only mainstream norms, they inadvertently fuel inequality by creating barriers to the performance of underrepresented groups. (p. 1304)

When comparing this to the high schools from chapter one, cultural norms of the primarily White teacher might not relate to the students who are primarily Hispanic. The students are being taught in ways that are designed to teach the national majority of White students which could create barriers for students in areas that are not found to be part of the mainstream learning styles. Villegas (1988) explained this as:

Children whose language use at home and in their immediate community corresponds more closely to what is expected in the classroom have an advantage in terms of opportunities for learning. For these students, prior experience transfers to the classroom and facilitates their academic performance. This case seems to be true for White, middle-class, Anglo-American students. In contrast, minority children frequently experience discontinuity between home and school in ways of using language. They

are often misunderstood when applying prior knowledge to classroom tasks. (p.254)

Other mainstream factors that are being used, like standardized testing, might work for one group of students and not others. When there is a culture that is not familiar with the nature of testing and spitting out information, they will not be successful in a testing and performance evaluation style. We can see that in a Coachella Valley (Desert Mirage High School), there is a majority of Hispanic students at 97.8% and 55.7% Hispanic teachers (EdData.org, 2017) who live in the area due to the migrant farm communities. When looking at Coachella, the scores in reading 51.5%, mathematics are 50.5%, and writing 51.75% based on the data shown from EdData.org (2017). In chapter one, it was discussed that the testing styles were not developed to work with students of a Hispanic background. It can be seen that a higher level of Hispanic teachers with a higher level of Hispanic students helps student success in college readiness. For example, 31.6% of Coachella Valley (Desert Mirage High) students meet the A-G requirements, which is more than Colton High students at 23% of the students completing these same requirements. In other ways the system is not set up for the Hispanic students learning styles as seen in the SAT scores being lower when there are more Hispanic students in the schools. When it comes to SAT scores, the Coachella Valley (Desert Mirage High School) is lower than those in the Colton School District. In comparison to the Colton and Grand Terrace High Schools, the scores at Coachella were found to be lower across the board. The

way the system is set up is for students who grow up with the understanding of how the system works and is geared towards those who grew up learning in a test structured environment. With this data, it shows that students that had teachers who were of the same cultural background were more likely to meet A-G requirements because teachers advised students on what courses to take. When teachers are not of the same cultural background as their minority students, the students are tracked in to classes that only fulfill graduation requirements and not A-G requirements. The data also shows that no matter the ethnic background of the teachers, the students of minority backgrounds will still not do as well on standardized testing as students of non-minority backgrounds.

Cultural mismatch shows that there can be problems when teachers do not have the same background as their students. When teachers have different cultural backgrounds, it is shown that there is less academic achievement by the students, compared to students who are taught by teachers with the same cultural background, as the students who have completed more A-G requirements. The teachers need to be aware of these effects on students to better serve the population they serve.

Instructional Communication

This section will cover the instructional communication immediacy and motivation along with the factors that affect them. These will be applied to the teachers and students of Colton and Grand Terrace High Schools, and we will look at how the motivation of the students is affected by the teachers'

communication practices. There will also be a comparison of how teachers play an important role in the student learning process. When comparing teachers' and students' communication relationships we come to the next concept that is instructional communication which "is the process by which teachers and students simulate meaning in the minds of each other using verbal and nonverbal messages" (McCroskey, Mottet, & Richmond, 2006, p. 5).

Teacher Immediacy

Immediacy is an instructional communication term that describes the closeness of the student and the teacher, either physically or psychologically, which can create connections with positive learning outcomes (McCroskey, Mottet, & Richmond, 2006). Research found that high levels of immediacy were related to high levels of perceived learning and vice versa where there were lower levels of immediacy the learning levels were also lower (Menzel & Carrell, 1999). McCroskey, et al. (2006) also brings up examples of nonverbal factors of immediacy, such as the tone of voice or the space the teacher puts between him/herself and the students during lessons, as ways that immediacy can be improved. Christophel's (1990) research found that immediacy has a positive effect on students across the board and found that "highly motivated students also reported observing more immediate teachers" (p.335). This means that students who were more motivated in their studies had more immediate teachers.

Immediacy is related to affinity seeking, as described by Bell and Daly (1984), is a process that people use to get others to like them, that teachers are trying to accomplish in the student teacher relationship. McCroskey (2006) talks about teachers seeking immediacy to have an affinity with their students to help motivate students to learn. McCroskey (2006) brings up that, “if students like and respect the teacher, they will engage in less misbehavior and direct more efforts towards learning (p.181).” If the teachers get their students to like them and trust them this may create immediacy between the student and teacher.

Cognitive and Affective Learning

Two learning concepts are cognitive and affective learning. This section will break down the meaning of these concepts to apply them to the situations at the high school levels that have been analyzed.

When looking at cognitive learning, students learn to apply what they have learned to the real world. According to McCroskey, et al. (2006), “Cognitive learning focuses on the acquisition of knowledge and the ability to understand and use knowledge (p.7).” Teachers will need to help students apply what they are learning to create real world connections. For example, when students are learning math, they use cognitive learning to help their parents understand how much interest they are going to pay for that car they just bought. When the students find that the things they are learning can apply to the real world, they may pay more attention to the teacher’s instructions. Another example is if students see that the classes they are taking will help them further their

education, they may be more motivated to learn or take classes that help them be accepted to college.

In affective learning, the students are motivated to learn in a different way than cognitive learning. McCroskey et al. (2006) shows affective learning as, “addressing, changing or reinforcing students’ attitudes, beliefs, values and underlying emotions or feelings as they relate to the knowledge and skills they are acquiring (p.8).” So when students are learning about a subject and it changes the way they see the world or what they believe in, it can have a lasting impact in their motivation to learn more about the subject. For example, the students at Colton can learn about how to get in to college and it can change the way they see that path to get there. Students may not have an understanding of how accessible higher education can be if they have not been taught the path to get there. In classroom learning, if students learn the history of the struggles of those who fought for educational rights they may be more motivated to try to get to the next level of education.

Student Motivation

Other instructional communication methods that would be effective in the classroom would be to increase student motivation. Wlodkowski (1978) wrote that motivation is “processes that can (a) arouse and instigate behavior; (b) give direction and purpose to behavior; (c) continue to allow behavior to persist; and (d) lead to choosing or preferring a particular behavior” (p. 12). Wlodkowski (1978) also brings up attitudes showing that if students walk in to the classroom

with an attitude towards a teacher it can affect the student's motivation in the classroom. An example that was used for positive motivation was a student that has a teacher who is like his/her parents is motivated to do well because s/he wants to do well for his/her parents. On the other side is the student who thinks the teacher will be mean and will cause the student to shut down and want to leave the class because s/he feels like it is a hostile environment and want to withdraw. These examples demonstrate how students who can relate to their teachers, and how the teachers who understand their students will have more motivational success.

This connection can lead to students wanting to learn. "Students who perceive greater social support for math and science from parents, teachers, and friends have better attitudes toward math and science and a greater sense of their own competence in these subjects" (Rice, 2013 p. 1037). In a related study, Bosker, Maulana, and Opdenakker, (2016) wrote:

Perceptions of all teachers' instructional behavior domains play a powerful role for students' perceived academic motivation. Notably, students' perceptions of teachers' clarity of instruction appears to be the most important instructional behavior for all of their academic motivation components, accompanied by teachers' classroom management, teacher-student shared control, teachers' lose control and teachers' strong control respectively. The consistency with which perceptions of instructional

clarity is related to all academic motivational outcomes suggests the most powerful finding. (p.154)

It was shown that when teachers have clarity in the classroom they can motivate their students to become more successful and have control. They may also be able to be clear with what students need to get to the next level to help motivate students to complete course work that will get them into higher education.

McCroskey, et al. (2006) found that perceived relevance of the subject was of high importance when it came to learning a subject. When the students feel that the subject relates to them or is going to benefit them in some way, they are more apt to learn about the subject. However, some of the more recent models of education, like NCLB, are to teach students to pass a test or learn reading and math, but there is no connection for the students. The students may not find the topic relevant to their lives because they have not been explained that the things they are learning will affect their future educational career or how the subject relates to things they experience in their daily lives. Students may not understand that earlier teaching in math will affect their future when they are in higher-level math classes that they need to get in to college. Some students may end up not passing algebra in middle school and spend time taking these classes over in high school, which will stop them from taking class that would qualify them for the A-G requirements that are needed to get in to a state university. The data appears to support that if the teachers are culturally related to the students then they are more likely to be motivated to complete the A-G requirements.

These factors show why students need to be understood from a cultural standpoint because they need teachers to understand why the students may not find relevance in the subject matter (Stephens & Townsend, 2015). When students can relate to their teachers and have a connection to them the data show that there are better outcomes, although other factors, such as socio-economics, may also be influencing these patterns. Even though we cannot change the testing structure in our local schools, the data seems to suggest by making these changes when students are taught by those teachers who are more like them, it seems that they are more likely to be successful in their education. This pattern shows up in the Coachella Valley (Desert Mirage High School) where, with 97.8% Hispanic students and 55.6% Hispanic teachers, the school had a state university (CSU or UC) eligibility rate of 31.6% rate which is higher than that of Colton High. Colton High has more White teachers in a school with a majority of Hispanic students with only 23.9% of its student eligibility for a state university (EdData.org, 2017). When the school system works to understand the students there may be positive results in the students' performance.

The next chapter, will examine solutions to help solve the problems that face the education system. There is not only a problem at the national level but on local levels as well. The aim is to help solve the local issues to help create solutions that can grow to help the next level of students achieve higher benchmarks and reduce the lack of educational achievement in minorities

CHAPTER THREE

CREATING CHANGE

In the first two chapters, it has been shown that there are issues with the education system as it stands today. There are problems with the way the system is set up and how it has failed to help students become successful when it comes to testing scores and post-secondary education. The research has shown that this is not a new problem and it cannot be solved with one single solution. This chapter aims to develop solutions to one of these problems, namely, schools not graduating students that are eligible for a four year state school or placing high enough on a standardized placement test.

One gap that has been shown is the lack of teachers that relate to the students they teach. There are differences in the cultural background in which they were raised. Students are expected to have the same understanding as the teacher does of education and learning styles. When teachers are of different cultural backgrounds than their students, students have less educational success when it comes to going to college and their benchmark test scores. This relationship was illustrated in the data from Colton High, which has a majority of White teachers with a majority of Hispanic students, and has lower percentages of students eligible to apply to a state college than schools which have majority Hispanic students and teachers (i.e. Coachella).

An understanding of the theories and concepts of educational practices and communication studies can help solve this problem. Students that grow up in a culture outside of their teachers' culture have a different way of learning. As we saw in chapter two, different cultures have both differences in lifestyles and learning styles. An understanding of the instructional communication concepts that relate to the student the teacher is teaching, can be beneficial. Specifically, teachers need to work with an understanding of how each student learns whether it is a White teacher teaching a Hispanic student or a Hispanic teacher teaching a White student. With this understanding, more students can be successful in their educational careers.

Goals of Handbook

The main goal of the handbook presented in this project is to bring awareness of the cultural and educational concepts that will help teachers understand their students, and address the potential mismatch in teaching and learning styles. Once teachers understand where their students are coming from, they can bring a greater understanding of who their students are and what it takes to educate them. By taking interest in their needs, teachers can build trust and rapport with their students through non-verbal immediacy, which has been shown to create motivation to learn from the students (Bosker, Maulana, & Opdenakker, 2016). When teachers have a greater connection with their students, they have a greater chance of success in terms of their educational achievement.

Teachers need to understand what culture is and how it affects learning. In chapter two there was an analysis of what culture is and how different cultures have different perceptions of time and communication styles. The readers of this handbook will gain an understanding of the possible mismatch between the school environment and their home environments to the communication and learning styles of the teachers. The teacher needs to be aware of the mismatch and how it can affect student learning outcomes. Teachers might not always understand that students from different cultures have had a different upbringing from their own learning styles. We saw one example in chapter two in which children are asked different types of questions growing up. The minority students were not always asked questions to test their knowledge but asked questions to get information only they had. This is different from a school or test that is always based on repeating what you were taught. Students might also see authority in different ways. They might have grown up taught to not question adults around them or not to speak unless spoken to, but in contrast, in a classroom students are required to speak up.

The impact of a greater cultural match (and thus implicit understanding of learning styles and values) is seen in Coachella Valley (Desert Mirage High School) where there are more teachers (55.2%) that are of the same culture as students (97.8%) (Ed-data.org, 2017). Coachella Valley (Desert Mirage High School) has large numbers of Hispanic students and large numbers of Hispanic teachers with higher levels of students completing the A-G requirements to get in

to a state university (CSU and UC Systems) compared to Colton and Grand Terrace. The handbook will help teachers gain an understanding of who their students are through reviews of their area demographics to understand the local communities where they teach. The handbook will include data showing test scores and what percentages of the students are eligible for higher education in local school districts.

Teachers can also benefit from a greater understanding of what challenges the students face not only in the classroom, but outside the classroom too. When a family is on the free lunch program, it is safe to assume that if they cannot afford the \$2.50 per day for their student to pay for lunch in the cafeteria. It could also mean they cannot afford other educational resources like books, computers, or high speed Internet. Without some of these things, students are put behind some of their peers that are more financially stable at home and have more resources to help them achieve their educational goals. When the teachers are from a different background, it may be hard for them to see the struggles that the students experience. They may not know what it was like to not have Internet in their homes or having to take care of younger siblings after school because the parents work late. To help teachers really understand the communities they serve based on the income and education levels of the community, the handbook will also look at the census information for their districts.

The handbook will also cover what instructional communication is and how it can help teachers relate to their students. As we saw in chapter two,

instructional communication focuses on motivation and immediacy. It showed how students can be motivated by a teacher who shows more immediacy behaviors. Immediacy helps the students feel like they are cared for and that the teacher is there for them. It also helps with trust in the teacher which can also help with student motivation. Teachers can also use immediacy to improve student motivation by helping students relate to the subject at hand. One technique is making the subject specifically relevant to students' lives which can help motivate them to learn; for example, teaching history by students learning about the history around them or how history affected the area in which they live. Another subject that teachers could relate to students' lives is math. Some students might have to help their parents understand finances or help translate for their parents when making a financial transaction. Showing the students how it can benefit them to learn the subject can help to motivate them to learn.

Overall, the goal is that teachers and students can work together to help create a better learning environment. The teachers need the tools to understand where their students are coming from so they know how to help them. Students need to learn to trust their teachers and see them as role models so that they can gain the knowledge to pass tests and further their education. Students need to be given the right tools so that they know what it takes to graduate and get in to college. They need to understand the importance of tests they take, whether the exit exam to graduate or the SAT to get to college. Students need to understand the consequences of not taking A-G classes and how it can affect their future.

Lastly, the students and teachers need to work together to make student success a reality and make sure more students are eligible to go to a state university.

Handbook Summary

This handbook is structured in sections to help the trainers teach the teachers about each of the relevant subjects. This handbook touches on five major points with one lesson for each:

1. Understanding your students
2. Understanding the demographics of where the teachers teach
3. Understanding of the basic principles of Cultural Communication
4. Understanding Instructional Communication
5. Understanding how Cultural Mismatch Theory can be a factor in your classroom

The sections of each lesson are: an overview of what will be taught, learning objectives, schedule of the lesson, activities for the lessons, what materials will be needed, and resources that will be needed to help the instructor during the lesson. Each of the lessons will be approximately an hour in length and will be broken down in to 5 – 25 minute sections including introductions, evaluations, dissections, presentations, and concluding remarks to close out the section.

This handbook is made so that those who read it can go back to their schools and do some of the activities that were learned with their students to help the teachers learn more about the students. The sections are structured in a way

that allows the teacher who is learning the information to freely express him/herself, just as s/he can let his/her students do in the classroom. Some activities allow the teachers to present what they have learned in different formats that allows freedom of expression. This will help show teachers what can be done in the classroom when they allow their own students to do the same.

APPENDIX A

UNDERSTANDING YOUR STUDENTS WORKSHOP GUIDE



Michael Anthony Arteaga

UNDERSTANDING YOUR STUDENTS

Handbook to learning the cultural differences between students
and teachers in a culturally diverse setting

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INTRODUCTION

This handbook is written with the intention of helping teachers better understand their middle and high school level students and help create:

- Better achievement of learning outcomes
- Higher graduation rates
- Higher college eligibility

With these factors, students can help create a better life for themselves and become better role models for future generations. These outcomes can help students to achieve higher education, and in turn greater employment opportunities.

This handbook will provide lessons on five major points:

1. Understanding your students
2. Understanding the demographics of where you teach
3. Understanding of the basic principles of Cultural Communication
4. Understanding Instructional Communication

Understanding how Cultural Mismatch Theory can be a factor in your classroom. These lessons are geared to help teachers identify potential cultural mismatch and how it can affect learning styles and learning outcomes. They will illustrate how differences in educational backgrounds, culture, and upbringing can cause a disconnect in the teacher-student learning process.

In the lesson on cultural communication, teachers will learn the basic theory of what culture is, and how different cultures interpret messages in different ways. Teachers will also learn how time is interpreted in different ways based on cultural upbringing. Finally, the communication area will go over collective thinking versus individualized thinking.

The instructional communication lesson will show how using basic principles of instructional communication can help teachers connect with their students. The lesson will cover student motivation and instructor immediacy. It will also illustrate the ways that immediacy can build trust between teachers and students to help create a better learning environment for the students.

Finally, there will be a presentation of Cultural Mismatch Theory and how it can affect the education system. The lesson will examine how teachers and students

that have been brought up in different cultures have different ways of learning. The ways that the teachers might think are best for the student learning might not connect with students who have been brought up in a different culture of learning. This lesson will illustrate how different cultures have different learning styles or different resources that may cause the students to learn not only the lessons, but the teaching style of the teacher. Teachers need to understand the cultural challenges that their students face while learning.

It is the hope that the teachers that take these lessons will learn more about their students and their students' learning styles to create a thriving learning environment. This understanding may help create more successful students, successful teaching practices, and in turn, better communities. Research has shown that if parents do not have a higher education, it is harder for their children to get out of the cycle of being low income unless they are given the opportunity to break the cycle and get a higher education. It is hoped that this manual will help create such opportunities for Inland Empire students.

SECTION 1: UNDERSTANDING STUDENTS

OPENING INTRODUCTION- EDUCATIONAL JOURNEY

LESSON OVERVIEW

The point of this lesson is to understand student background. Let's look at who the students are and how your background can connect to the students you work with. This section is also designed to be part of a lesson that can be done in the class room and was written in a way so that the teacher can use this in their own students. Please complete the activity as if the facilitator is the teacher in the classroom and they who is trying to learn about your educational journey to help understand where the teachers who will be taking the workshop are coming from.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

The goal of this training session is to learn who your students are and where they are coming from. They all have different backgrounds and may have had challenges in their lives that shape the way they approach school and the education system in general. In this lesson, we will focus on:

- Learning who the students are
- Challenges they may have faced
- Ways to help the student use their voice

SCHEDULE/AGENDA

15 min. – Introduction to lesson

15 min. – Reflections of the student's past

15 min. – Students express learning challenges

15 min. – Lesson Conclusion

ACTIVITIES & INSTRUCTIONS

Part One- Talk to the students about the area they live in and what challenges the community is facing.

Part Two- Ask students to write down their educational journey to help find out what challenges they have faced in their education.

Part Three- Have students share what challenges they have faced and are facing to gain a better understanding of who they are and where they are coming from.

MATERIALS NEEDED

- Handouts with example of educational journey
- Paper and pens
- Open mind

OTHER RESOURCES NEEDED

The instructor of this workshop will need to review the following attachments to help gain an understanding of what their students may be going through. They will also need to review the examples of the educational backgrounds to have an idea of what the students need to do for their projects. The instructor can understand what the students' backgrounds are by researching the demographics to know what some of the challenges the students are facing. This is important to know because some students may not have the resources at home that others had when they were growing up. For example, a teacher can ask if there were books in the house, access to a computer, or did they have to take care of siblings when their parents were working. These can affect what students are facing when trying to achieve their educational goals. A student may arrive late because they must walk a sibling to school every morning before being able to get to school themselves. A student may not be able to do the research that is needed for a paper because they have no internet at home and the library is closed at 5:00 pm. These are just a few things to look at for this lesson.

EXAMPLE

MY EDUCATIONAL JOURNEY

When I was in elementary school I was (what I would call) normal. I did well in school and got along with the teachers. I would always talk to the teachers and the staff and was always one of the students that was willing to help; these were helpful because I got to know who my teachers were and they built a relationship with me. I do remember getting in trouble once where I had to sit on the red box for recess. I don't remember why I had to sit on it but I do remember being in trouble for it.

When I moved away from my first hometown, I was forced to go to a school where I did not know anyone and most of the students knew each other since they were in Kindergarten. I didn't feel as if I fit in and it would make me feel like an outsider so I moved to the school where my mom worked because I had known the staff for years and had a few friends that I had known growing up. Looking back, I can see that the move I made was to a school where there were more people like me and who understood my cultural background and where I could fit in. The first school was also in an upper middle class area where I had grown up in a mid-middle class area that was more diverse than my second school.

High school and middle school were both good for me. I had a great experience where I connected to the students and the teachers there. My friends took me in and the teachers that I had, for the most part, understood their surroundings and the culture of the students that they were teaching.

I wish I had a better understanding of what college was when I was looking for what I wanted to do after high school. I almost ended up at a technical school where I would not have had the great college experience I got at CSUSB. I would not be in the high-level job I have today or be able to help students the way I do. I would have never gone for my master's degree either. I am grateful for the chances I took and the opportunities I received. Thanks to the mentors who had gone before me and helped guide me through the process.

SECTION 2: UNDERSTANDING SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY DEMOGRAPHICS

LESSON OVERVIEW

The point of this lesson is to understand the demographics of the school.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

The goal of this training session is to look at the break down of students and teachers. In this lesson, we will focus on:

- Demographics of the students
- Demographics of the teachers
- Demographics of the city

SCHEDULE/AGENDA

5 min. —Introduction to lesson

15 min. —Evaluation of the demographics

25 min. — Group activities

20 min.—Presentations

5 min. —Conclusion: How to connect to students

ACTIVITIES & INSTRUCTIONS

Part One— Break into groups and have groups select a form of presentation (e.g. drawing, acting, speech, etc.). Then assign each group to one of the demographics.

Part Two— Explain the demographic breakdown, and how it indicates challenges students may face.

MATERIALS NEEDED

- Handouts with the statistics of the school and city

- Paper and pens
- Open mind
- Updated data will need to be pulled from the following websites:
 - For gaining information on students and teacher in school districts California: Ed-Data.org
 - For information on the communities that the schools are in and to get an overview of the state please use: www.Census.org

OTHER RESOURCES NEEDED

Presenter will need to gain an understanding of the breakdown of the school and city where the teachers attending the work shop will be teaching. They will need to review the materials and come up with examples to help guide the teacher in the workshop to help the teachers gain an understanding of their own community and school.

Figure 1: Examples of Student/Teacher Demographics

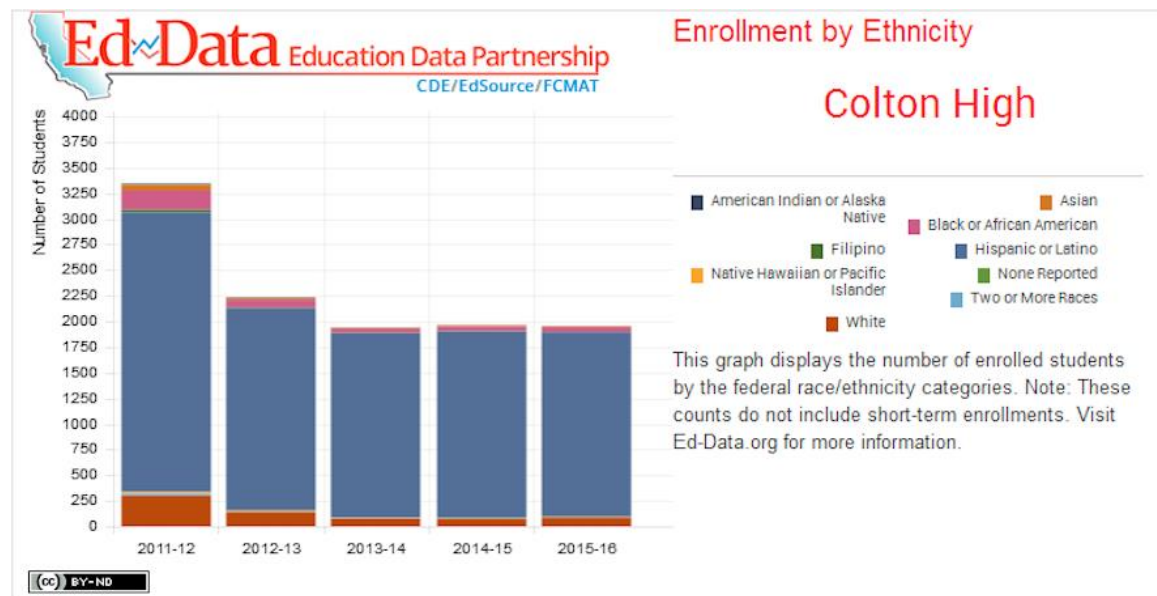


Table Source: <http://www.ed-data.org/district/San-Bernardino/Colton-Joint-Unified>

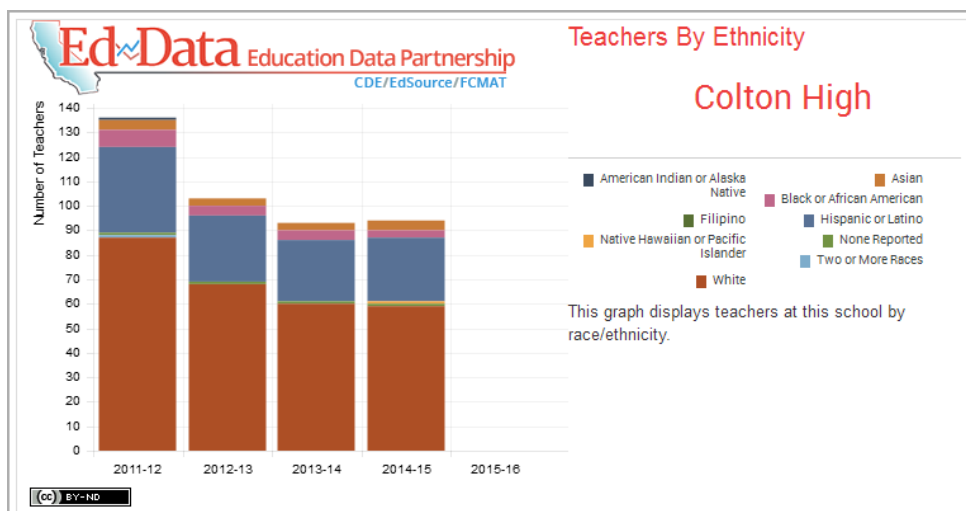


Table Source: <http://www.ed-data.org/district/San-Bernardino/Colton-JointUnified>

Figure 2: Student Performance

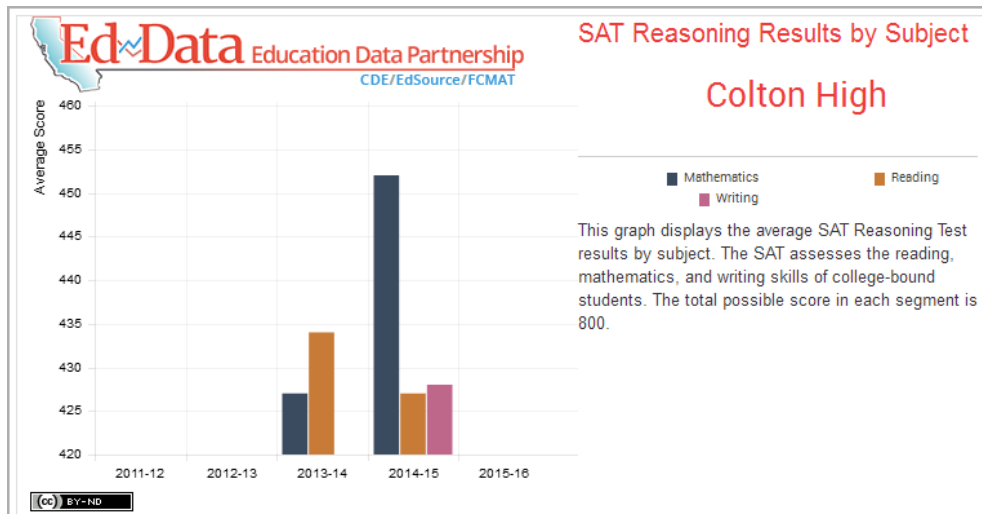


Table Source: <http://www.ed-data.org/district/San-Bernardino/Colton-Joint-Unified>

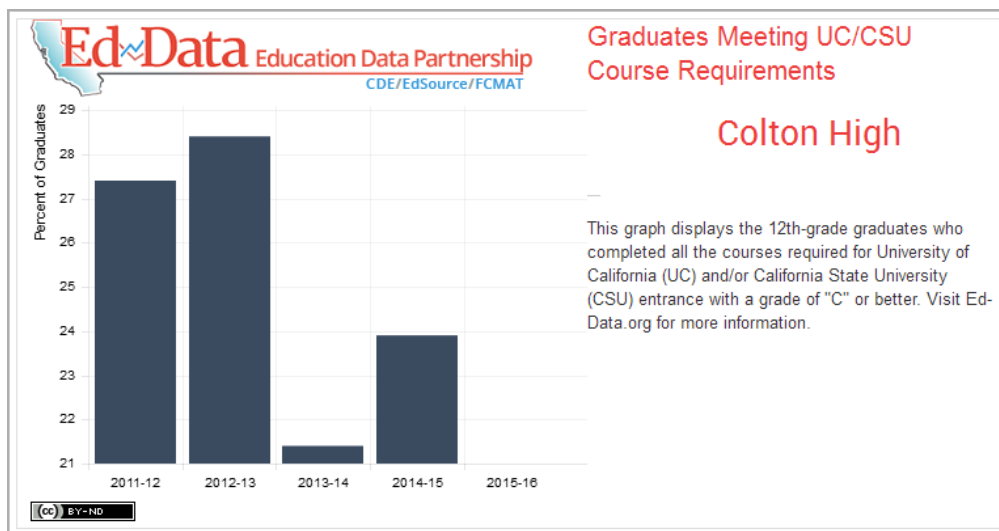


Table Source <http://www.ed-data.org/district/San-Bernardino/Colton-Joint-Unified>

Figure 3: Free Lunch Program

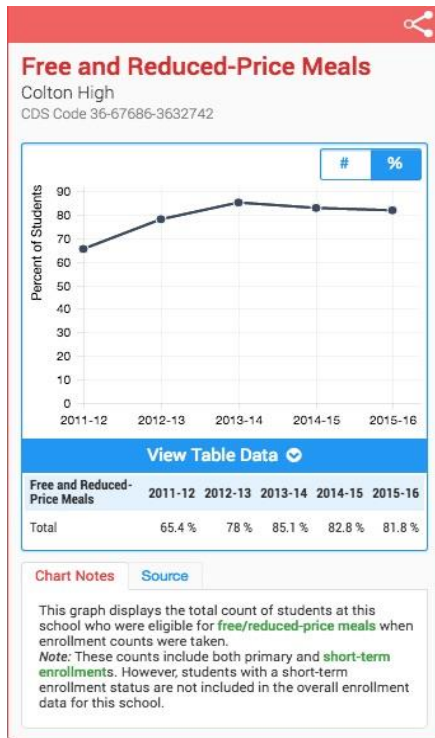



Table Source: <http://www.ed-data.org/district/San-Bernardino/Colton-Joint-Unified>

Table 1: Census Data

5/22/2017

California



U.S. Department of Commerce (<http://www.commerce.gov/>) | Blogs (http://www.census.gov/about/contact-us/social_media.html) | Index A-Z (<http://www.census.gov/about/index.html>) | Glossary (<http://www.census.gov/glossary/>) | FAQs (<http://ask.census.gov>)

www.census.gov/en.html

Search

U.S. Census Quick Facts

QuickFacts

California

QuickFacts provides statistics for all states and counties, and for cities and towns with a **population of 5,000 or more**.

All Topics	↑	CALIFORNIA	COLTON CITY, CALIFORNIA
People			
Population			
Population estimates, July 1, 2016, (V2016)	39,250,017	NA	
Population estimates, July 1, 2015, (V2015)	39,144,818	54,621	
Population estimates base, April 1, 2010, (V2016)	37,254,522	NA	
Population estimates base, April 1, 2010, (V2015)	37,254,503	52,155	
Population, percent change - April 1, 2010 (estimates base) to July 1, 2016, (V2016)	5.4%	NA	
Population, percent change - April 1, 2010 (estimates base) to July 1, 2015, (V2015)	5.1%	4.7%	
Population, Census, April 1, 2010	37,253,956	52,154	
Age and Sex			
Persons under 5 years, percent, July 1, 2015, (V2015)	6.4%	X	
Persons under 5 years, percent, April 1, 2010	6.8%	9.4%	
Persons under 18 years, percent, July 1, 2015, (V2015)	23.3%	X	
Persons under 18 years, percent, April 1, 2010	25.0%	32.0%	
Persons 65 years and over, percent, July 1, 2015, (V2015)	13.3%	X	
Persons 65 years and over, percent, April 1, 2010	11.4%	7.0%	
Female persons, percent, July 1, 2015, (V2015)	50.3%	X	
Female persons, percent, April 1, 2010	50.3%	51.0%	
Race and Hispanic Origin			
White alone, percent, July 1, 2015, (V2015) (a)	72.9%	X	
White alone, percent, April 1, 2010 (a)	57.6%	43.4%	
Black or African American alone, percent, July 1, 2015, (V2015) (a)	6.5%	X	
Black or African American alone, percent, April 1, 2010 (a)	6.2%	9.7%	
American Indian and Alaska Native alone, percent, July 1, 2015, (V2015) (a)	1.7%	X	
American Indian and Alaska Native alone, percent, April 1, 2010 (a)	1.0%	1.3%	
Asian alone, percent, July 1, 2015, (V2015) (a)	14.7%	X	
Asian alone, percent, April 1, 2010 (a)	13.0%	5.0%	
Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander alone, percent, July 1, 2015, (V2015) (a)	0.5%	X	
Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander alone, percent, April 1, 2010 (a)	0.4%	0.3%	
Two or More Races, percent, July 1, 2015, (V2015)	3.8%	X	
Two or More Races, percent, April 1, 2010	4.9%	5.1%	
Hispanic or Latino, percent, July 1, 2015, (V2015) (b)	38.8%	X	
Hispanic or Latino, percent, April 1, 2010 (b)	37.6%	71.0%	
White alone, not Hispanic or Latino, percent, July 1, 2015, (V2015)	38.0%	X	
White alone, not Hispanic or Latino, percent, April 1, 2010	40.1%	13.0%	
Population Characteristics			
Veterans, 2011-2015	1,777,410	1,568	
Foreign born persons, percent, 2011-2015	27.0%	24.0%	
Housing			
Housing units, July 1, 2015, (V2015)	13,987,625	X	
Housing units, April 1, 2010	13,680,081	16,350	
Owner-occupied housing unit rate, 2011-2015	54.3%	50.9%	
Median value of owner-occupied housing units, 2011-2015	\$385,500	\$167,300	
Median selected monthly owner costs -with a mortgage, 2011-2015	\$2,155	\$1,525	
Median selected monthly owner costs -without a mortgage, 2011-2015	\$500	\$382	
Median gross rent, 2011-2015	\$1,255	\$1,004	
Building permits, 2015	98,188	X	
Families and Living Arrangements			
Households, 2011-2015	12,717,801	15,432	
Persons per household, 2011-2015	2.96	3.44	
Living in same house 1 year ago, percent of persons age 1 year+, 2011-2015	85.2%	82.7%	
Language other than English spoken at home, percent of persons age 5 years+, 2011-2015	43.9%	49.0%	
Education			
High school graduate or higher, percent of persons age 25 years+, 2011-2015	81.8%	70.1%	
Bachelor's degree or higher, percent of persons age 25 years+, 2011-2015	31.4%	12.7%	
Health			
With a disability, under age 65 years, percent, 2011-2015	6.8%	6.8%	

<https://www.census.gov/quickfacts/table/RH1725215/06,0614890>

1/3

California

2/3

SECTION 3: UNDERSTANDING CULTURE

LESSON OVERVIEW

The point of this lesson to learn about cultural communication to understand how students use their cultural norms to communicate and interpret teachers' communication.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

The goal of this training session is to learn dimensions of cultural communication. In this lesson, we will focus on:

- Dimensions of Cultural Communication
- Cultural Mismatch Theory

SCHEDULE/AGENDA

5 min.— Introduction to lesson

15 min.— Cultural Communication, Cultural Mismatch, Critical Race Theory

25 min.— Group activities

20 min—Presentations

5 min. —Conclusion: How to connect to students

ACTIVITIES & INSTRUCTIONS

Part One—Break into groups and have each group select a form of presentation (drawing, acting, speech, etc.). Assign each group one theory.

Part Two— Explain the basics of Cultural Communication. Break down the areas of Cultural Mismatch Theory, and explain Critical Race Theory.

Part Three—Explain how these affect students

MATERIALS NEEDED

- Handouts with the definitions of cultural education
- Articles on cross-cultural communication
- Paper and pens
- Open mind

OTHER RESOURCES NEEDED

Presenter will need to gain an understanding of the theories to help facilitate the class. They will need to review the material and come up with examples to help guide the class. They must also learn the theories in order to help explain when the class misunderstands the theory by the class. Some examples have been added to the definitions of the theories to help with explanations.

Figure 4: Description of Cultural Communication

Culture has been found to be “the way of life of a people, for the sum of their learned behavior patterns, attitudes, and material things,” (Hall, 1959, p. 43). When you look at cross-cultural communication, there are many differences in the way cultures perceive the order of importance of everyday life. Key components of this are:

- High context culture
- Low context cultures
- Individualistic cultures
- Collectivist cultures
- Monochronic Time
- Polychronic Time

Table 2: Examples Hispanic Students' Classroom Behavior That May Be Different From White Teachers' Expectations.

<p>High Context culture</p> <p>Example: Hispanic students take meanings primarily from the context of the message over the direct language. They may use the tone of voice or the setting to take meaning.</p>	<p>Low Context culture</p> <p>Example: White teachers take meanings directly as they are said and do not use context to play a primary role in the meaning.</p>
<p>Collectivist culture</p> <p>Example: Hispanic students see things as a group and help each other out.</p>	<p>Individualistic culture</p> <p>Example: White teachers see the project as something that is done as an individual activity. Students need to learn on their own and not work in a group setting.</p>
<p>Polychronic time</p> <p>Example: Hispanic cultures need to have things done that day but not a set time in the day.</p>	<p>Monochronic time</p> <p>Example: White teachers think in a way where things are done at 8:00 am that morning.</p>
<p>Non-verbal messages have more meaning</p> <p>Example: Hispanic students who see their teachers standing at a distance when talking to them may see that as disrespectful. Also, students questioning the teacher can be seen as a disrespectful act.</p>	<p>Verbal, direct messages have literal meaning</p> <p>Example: White teachers see their message as what is said and ignore the context in which it was said. There is no hidden meaning to the conversation. It was meant just as it was spoken.</p>
<p>Doing things for the good of the group</p> <p>Example: Hispanic students might do better in a group setting to help each other to succeed on the project.</p>	<p>Do things for self-growth</p> <p>Example: White teachers see the learning process as individual students need to learn and push themselves up to be successful and pass, not the group passing.</p>
<p>Multi-tasking is a norm</p> <p>Example: Hispanic students might do better at working on three projects at once.</p>	<p>"One thing at a time" working habits</p> <p>Example: White teachers prefer to see a student working on one assignment until it is done then moving on to the next.</p>

Credit Robert Dahl URL:

http://www.ci.uri.edu/ciip/CIIPLeadership/Docs_2007/Monochronic%20and%20Polychronic%20Cultures.pdf information filled in as example by Michael Arteaga based on information researched in project chapters.

Suggested Readings:

Croucher, S. M., Bruno, A., McGrath, P., Adams, C., McGahan, C., Suits, A., & Huckins, A. (2012). Conflict styles and high–low context cultures: A cross-cultural extension. *Communication Research Reports*, 29(1), 64-73.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/08824096.2011.640093>

Hall, E. T. (1959). *The silent language*. Garden City, NY: Anchor Press/Doubleday.

Hall, E. T. (1976). *Beyond culture*. Garden City, NY: Anchor Books.

Kittler, M., Rygl, D., & Mackinnon, A. (2011). Beyond culture or beyond control? Reviewing the use of Hall's high-/low-context concept. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 11(1), 63-82. doi:

[10.1177/1470595811398797](https://doi.org/10.1177/1470595811398797)

SECTION 4: UNDERSTANDING EDUCATION AND COMMUNICATION

LESSON OVERVIEW

The point of this lesson is to understand the background of cultural communication in order to understand students better.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

The goal of this training session is to learn Instructional Communication. In this lesson, we will focus on:

- Instructional communication

SCHEDULE/AGENDA

5 min. — Introduction to lesson

15 min. — Instructional Communication Theory

25 min. — Group activities

20 min —Presentations

5 min.— Conclusion – How to connect to students

ACTIVITIES & INSTRUCTIONS

Part One—Break into groups and have each group select a form of presentation (drawing, acting, speech, etc.). Assign each group one of the theories.

Part Two— Explain the basics of instructional communication.

Part Three—Explain how immediacy affects students and how it plays a role in motivation in the classroom.

MATERIALS NEEDED

- Articles of instructional communication (provide articles prior to the section being presented)

- Paper and pens
- Open mind

OTHER RESOURCES NEEDED

Presenter will need to gain an understanding of the theories in order to help facilitate the class. They will need to review the material and come up with examples to help guide the teacher in the classroom. The instructor will need to review the articles to have an understanding of how motivation and immediacy are related. They will also need to be able to explain how immediacy plays a role in the level of motivation in the classroom.

Figure 5: Description of Instructional Communication

Instructional Communication

To start off, explain what Instructional Communication is. McCroskey, Mottet, and Richmond (2006) that state, “Instructional Communication is the process of teacher and students stimulating meaning in the minds of each other using verbal and nonverbal messages” (p.27). Students and teachers need to have good communication in order to understand what the teacher wants from the student and what the students need from the teacher. If there is not good communication between the two parties, then learning cannot take place. When there is a breakdown in communication strategies, the learning process for students is affected. Key components to Instructional Communication are:

- Teacher credibility
- Immediacy
- Affinity
- Cognitive learning
- Affective learning

Teacher credibility

Teachers need to be credible just like any public speaker does when they are trying to persuade someone that what they are talking about is correct. They need to be experts for students to listen and trust them.

Immediacy

This is the perception of teacher psychological closeness to the student. This can be negatively impacted by teachers creating separation from the student, which can be done as easily as a teacher remaining behind a podium during a lecture. Non-verbal communication can affect immediacy as well as the way the teacher is speaking about their subject. The closer students feel they are to the teachers, the better the learning experience is for the students.

Affinity-seeking

Students and teachers build relationships in which the teacher is seeking to be liked by the student. They can use a number of strategies that can include openness, supporting the students, immediacy, etc.

Cognitive learning

Teaching students so that they learn in a way that they can apply and use what they learn.

Affective learning

When the teacher is teaching the students, learning can affect their beliefs and feelings about a subject. This helps students take ownership of what they are learning and feel they want to learn about the subject.

Clarity of instruction

Was found to “appear to be the most important instructional behavior for all of their academic motivation components, accompanied by teachers' classroom management, teacher-student shared control, teachers' loose control and teachers' strong control respectively. The consistency with which perceptions of instructional clarity is related to all academic motivational outcomes suggests the most powerful finding.” (Bosker, Maulana, and Opdenakker, 2016, p. 154)

Suggested readings:

- Bosker, R., Maulana, R., & Opdenakker, M.-C. (2016). Teachers' instructional behaviors as important predictors of academic motivation: Changes and links across the school year. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 50, 147–156.
- Christophel, D. M. (1990, October). The relationship among teacher immediacy behaviors, students motivatio, and learning . *Communication Education* , 39, 323-340.
- Kittler, M., Rygl, D., & Mackinnon, A. (2011). Beyond culture or beyond control? Reviewing the use of Hall's high-/low-context concept. *international Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 11(1), 63-82.
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- McCroskey, J. C., Mottet, T. P., & Richmond, V. P. (2006). *Handbook of instuctional communication rhetorical and relational perspectives*. Boston, MA: Pearson Education.
- Menzel, K. E., & Carrell, L. J. (1999, January). The impact of gender and immediacy of willingness to talk and perceived learning. *Communication Education* , 48, 31-40.

SECTION 5: UNDERSTANDING MISSMATCH THEORY

LESSON OVERVIEW

The point of this lesson is to understand what Cultural Mismatch is and how it can affect the classroom

LEARNING OUTCOMES

The goal of this training session will focus on cultural mismatch. In this lesson, we will focus on:

- Students' educational upbringing
- Teachers' educational upbringing
- School structure vs. student makeup

SCHEDULE/AGENDA

5 min.— Introduction to lesson

15 min.—Cultural mismatch based on research

25 min.—Group activities

20 min— Presentations

5 min.—Conclusion – How to take it back to their institution and how Cultural Mismatch Theory can affect the institution

ACTIVITIES & INSTRUCTIONS

Part One—Break into groups and have groups select a form of presentation.

Part Two— Present the data and discuss

MATERIALS NEEDED

- Handouts with the definitions of Cultural Mismatch Theory (provide articles prior to the section being presented)
- Articles regarding Cultural Mismatch Theory
- Paper and pens
- Open mind

OTHER RESOURCES NEEDED

Presenter will need to gain an understanding of the theories in order to help facilitate the class. They will need to understand how they can affect the learning environment. The instructor will need to review the articles of Cultural Mismatch Theory and have completed Sections 1 and 2 to understand the difference between student and teacher characteristics to see if there is a cultural mismatch between the teachers and the students. This will help to see where the mismatch is taking place and how much the teaching population differs from the student population.

Figure 6: Summary of Cultural Mismatch Theory

In reference to Cultural Mismatch Theory, Villegas (1988) states that in its “broadest expression, this theory attributes the academic problems of minority students to cultural disjuncture between home and school” (p. 253). The theory also looks at language as means of misunderstanding. Sleeter (2008) argues that teachers need to build a teaching strategy that accounts for the background of the students they are teaching and to learn to use what the students bring to the classroom as a positive resource. Sleeter (2008) also said that there needs to be involvement with the adults in the students’ lives to help bring school and home lives together. Villegas (1988) describes how teachers and students of different backgrounds interact: “If dominant groups have the power to impose their own language variety on the educational system, it is to be expected that subordinate groups, whose language varieties are accorded less prestige, will encounter difficulties in school. It is no accident that minority students experience linguistic gaps between home and school, while middle-class students have a smoother transition between the two” (p. 260). In support of this, Hauser-Cram and Sirin (2003) found that “when teachers believed the education-related values of parents differed from their own, they rated children

as less competent academically and had lower expectations for their future academic success” (p. 818).

Suggested readings:

Hauser-Cram, P., & Sirin, S. R. (2003). When teachers' and parents' values differ: Teachers' ratings of academic competence in children from low-income families. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 95(4), 813-820.

Fryberg, S. ,.-G. (2012). Cultural mismatch and the education of aboriginal youths: The interplay of cultural identities and teacher ratings. *Developmental Psychology*, 49(1), 72-29. doi: 10.1037/a0029056

Losey, K. M. (1995). Mexican american students and classroom interaction: An overview and critique. *Review of Educational Research*, 65(3), 283-318.

Sleeter, C. (2008). Preparing White teachers for diverse students. In M. Cochran-Smith, S. Feiman-Nemser, D. J. McIntyre, & K. E. Demers (Eds.) *Handbook of research on teacher education: Enduring questions and changing contexts* (3rd ed., pp. 559-582) . New York, NY: Co-published by Routledge/Taylor & Francis Group and The Association of Teacher Educators.

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<https://nces.ed.gov/fastfacts/display.asp?id=147>
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