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Increasing the trickle
A proposed critical multiculturalist conceptual model to increase the pipeline to a more diverse STEM doctorate population

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Abstract
Purpose – For several decades, human and financial resources have been the focus of academic institutions in Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics fields of study because of low matriculation and graduation involving diverse student populations. However, there is a paucity of research about pathways to doctoral-level education and completion for these underrepresented populations. The purpose of this paper is to explore conceptually how STEM doctoral programs can implement a critical multiculturalist framework to recruit, increase persistence and completion to abate the attrition rate of women and students of color in doctoral programs.

Design/methodology/approach – Through a critical multiculturalist framework, issues of access and attainment central to the pipeline of traditionally underrepresented populations in to the STEM fields are addressed in this paper in an effort to support equity and inclusion at the doctoral level. Approaching this issue through critical multiculturalism takes the issue of access and attainment beyond sheer numbers by addressing the limited opportunity of women and students of color to see themselves in graduate faculty within STEM.

Findings – This paper reviews literature regarding the STEM pipeline’s “glass ceiling” that exists at the graduate level for students from marginalized communities, including gender and race. This paper proposes a multicultural doctoral persistence model.

Originality/value – Despite the efforts of many institutions of higher education to diversify the STEM fields, a “glass ceiling” remains at the doctoral level. There appears to be a pipeline for women and minorities from K-12 to the undergraduate level, but the doctoral level has been largely left out of the conversation.

Keywords Gender, Diversity, Graduate education, Access, STEM doctoral education, Students of color

Paper type Conceptual paper

Introduction
For several decades, institutions of higher education have and continue to make efforts, stated or real, to recruit students from diverse backgrounds into Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) fields of study with limited success (Baber, 2015). We are focusing on doctoral education in this article, but we do not lose sight of the cyclical nature and interconnectedness of increasing diversity within STEM at all levels. To increase the visibility and viability of a career in STEM, we focus on the need of more diverse tenured and tenure-track faculty so that students of color and women can see role models in their
undergraduate and graduate courses, which in turn allows them to potentially become teachers/faculty in K-20. By examining the doctoral pipeline in STEM, we can help ameliorate the racial and gender discrepancies within STEM at all levels by presenting a conceptual model that specifically supports success at the doctoral level.

Colleges and universities are increasing enrollment of diverse students (Harris and Gonzalez, 2012). For example, in 1997, students of color comprised 25 per cent of all college enrollments and rose to 30 per cent in 2007 (Ryu, 2010). Not only are students becoming more diverse at the undergraduate level, but a recent article by American Council of Education states the following optimistic statement regarding graduate-level student diversity:

In relation to gender, women primarily were responsible for the growth in number of graduate degrees conferred. The total number of master’s degrees awarded to African American and Hispanic women has more than doubled during the past decade. Doctoral degrees conferred to women of all races/ethnicities grew by four times the rate of growth for men. Women now receive more doctoral degrees than men. (Kim, 2011, p. 3)

However, full-time faculty are still primarily White male and female (Harris and Gonzalez, 2012). Indeed, full-time faculty of color comprised 13 per cent of full-time faculty and rose to 17 per cent from 1997 to 2007 (Ryu, 2010). This phenomenon is amplified within STEM fields where the faculties of color and women are less represented (Su et al., 2015). Despite the efforts of many institutions of higher education, a “glass ceiling” remains at the doctoral level of STEM education for women and people of color (Espinosa, 2011) and in many other fields of study. In general, there has been progress in some areas of STEM, such as biology, but little in others (National Science Foundation, National Center for Science and Engineering Statistics, 2015). Research focused on the access and attainment of doctoral degrees in STEM by traditionally underrepresented populations in those fields remains limited (Espinosa, 2011). There appears to be increasing access to the pipeline for women and minorities from K-12 to the undergraduate level, but the doctoral level has been largely left out of the conversation (Ong et al., 2011; Reyes, 2011). This is an area of concern because of the importance of students seeing themselves in the representative faculty (Nieto and Bode, 2011; Su et al., 2015), which increases motivation to pursue and persist in the STEM field of study (Hodson and Dennick, 1994). A diverse university faculty that includes traditionally underrepresented populations serve as role models for students who have typically been marginalized in the STEM workforce (i.e. women, students of color, first-generation students and students with a low socio-economic status). Research has clearly demonstrated that when there are role models in place, students are more likely to persist and retention rates increase (Reyes, 2011). Having role models that are visible in K-20 and beyond is critical in addressing the STEM shortage in academia.

Women and students of color are highly underrepresented in STEM graduate programs (Hodson, 1998; Hodson and Dennick, 1994; Su et al., 2015):

Despite earning roughly half of STEM doctorates in the United States, women have a very limited visibility among STEM faculty bodies and account for only 16 per cent of full professorship and 23 per cent tenure line positions in research extensive universities (Su et al., 2015, p. 840).

It is apparent that a disparity exists between men and women and intersectionality of race and ethnicity in STEM fields. The rate of advancement and promotion within the faculty ranks for women and underrepresented groups of color are dismal.

Although women are well-represented in biology programs at the undergraduate level, they still have not reached parity with their male counterparts at the doctoral and professoriate levels. While the overall numbers are bleak, it is still worth noting that women
have made gains in receiving doctoral degrees in STEM. For instance, a recent 2015 report from the National Science Foundation, using the Survey of Earned Doctorates data, indicates that from 2003 to 2013 women have increased by 75 and 125 per cent in the awarding of physical sciences and engineering, respectively. Of course, a small incremental change from an already small number can have dramatic increases in percentages, but the changes are still significant and worth mentioning. Thus, although the numbers are still problematically low, there is a gradual increase in the number of underrepresented students making their way to doctoral programs in STEM (Kim, 2011). Therefore, in this paper, we will explore conceptually how STEM doctoral programs can implement a critical multiculturalist model to recruit, increase persistence and completion to abate the attrition rate of women and students of color in doctoral programs. By increasing the doctoral completion rates, we can potentially increase the STEM pipeline at all levels ensuring that women and students of color obtain adequate mentoring and support at the post-secondary level by teachers and faculty who look like them.

Through a critical multicultural conceptual model, this paper provides an analysis on broadening participation and increasing the STEM pipeline within the doctoral level for students who are often marginalized (McDowell and Fang, 2007). We maintain that a critical multiculturalist model addresses power dynamics (Rimmington and Alagic, 2008) and approaches this topic from the vantage point of supporting racial, ethnic, gender and cultural equity within STEM (Banks, 2006). Definitions of the scope of multiculturalism vary among scholars (Steinber and Kincheloe, 2001), but for this paper, multiculturalism encompasses gender and race. Previous diversity initiatives and efforts have focused on individual factors, or self-empowerment, that aim to disrupt the racial hierarchy such as: increasing recruitment efforts, increasing interest and supporting STEM throughout PK-12 schools (Baber, 2015; Foor, et al., 2007; Mayo and Larke, 2011). However, these efforts have not focused largely on institutional power that normalizes and legitimates racial and gender biases at the doctoral level.

The patterns and practices that support a normalization of Whiteness and male-dominance at the doctoral level within STEM can be attributed to institutional racism and sexism. This systematic oppression negatively impacts people from traditionally underrepresented populations in STEM and positively impacts White men, by virtue of disadvantaging people of color and some White women, and directly, by specifically advantaging White people and mostly men (Gutiérrez y Muhs et al., 2012; Smith et al., 2014). Institutional racism and sexism is often discussed as something difficult to “prove” because it is so ingrained in our normative practices (Better, 2007; Cross, 2010; Knowles and Prewitt, 1970; Phillips, 2011; Taylor, 2009) and differences attributed to “the way things are”. Consequently, a racial and gender disparity remains present despite the efforts to increase interest among underrepresented populations into the STEM fields (Baber, 2015).

Also, apparent within higher education is the propagation of White privilege in both forms: spared injustice and unjust enrichment. However, this is seen more dramatically within STEM and especially at the doctoral level. Spared injustice is apparent through data showing minimal numbers of people of color at the doctoral level and professoriate, thus giving White men and, to a certain extent, White women more opportunity to fill those positions and secure higher-level positions in STEM professions over men and women of color. Indeed, White women are more represented in STEM fields than African American and Latino males (Espinosa, 2011), which in some ways demonstrate that White women have been the largest benefactors of Affirmation Action and programs of equality. Conversely, unjust enrichment is also apparent within STEM at the doctoral level because White people are more likely to pursue positions in STEM and at the professoriate as a
result of being better prepared and socialized to attain and persist in the field from their increased opportunity and natural enculturation because of the euro-centrism within STEM (Hodson, 1998; Lott, et al., 2009; Jackson, 2004; Millett and Nettles, 2006). Increasing, maintaining, and supporting diversity at the doctoral level necessitates a closer look at current trends and research on diversity initiatives, as well as cultural connections in research and teaching at the doctoral level. Strategically considering issues that enhance the ability of faculty and departments to support a diverse student body are paramount to increasing the trickle.

Proposed conceptual model

As discussed earlier, we argue that a conceptual model addressing the “glass ceiling” in the STEM pipeline that exists at the graduate-level for students from marginalized communities and aims to support racial, ethnic, gender and cultural equity is necessary. The conceptual model for implementation of critical multiculturalism in doctoral programs provides implications for future support systems, initiatives and research. Through a critical multicultural conceptual model, issues of access and attainment essential to increasing the pipeline of traditionally underrepresented populations, including race and gender, into the STEM fields are addressed in this article in an effort to enhance equity and inclusion. Supporting minorities and women in STEM has been central to research initiatives and funding allocation. However, there is a paucity of research about pathways to doctoral-level education and completion for these underrepresented populations. Derek Hodson (1998) discusses the role of critical multiculturalism and antiracist approaches to STEM education. This focus emphasizes, recognizes and acknowledges the social impacts of racism and sexism on STEM fields in the education institution and the intersectionality with other forms of social oppressions, based on class, gender, race, sexual orientation and White privilege (Baber, 2015; Hodson, 1998; May and Chubin, 2003). Approaching this issue through critical multicultural lens takes the issue of access and attainment beyond sheer numbers by addressing the limited opportunity of women and students of color to see themselves in graduate faculty within STEM and the important role of departmental support and institutional climate.

As noted by many researchers, women and people of color face multiple barriers to access and attainment at all levels of education (Ong et al., 2011). In a more dramatic fashion, the doctoral-level of higher education within STEM boasts even smaller numbers of people of color and women because of a myriad of societal and educational barriers such as under-resourced compulsory schools for students of color and the perpetual stereotype that women cannot do math. The demystification of this underrepresentation phenomenon could be one of the most impactful pieces of the pipeline because of the potential to inspire and encourage other people of color and women to enter and persist in STEM fields. Critical multiculturalism aims specific attention to this issue on institutional racism, sexism and White privilege, operating within society as a whole and insidiously manifested in cultural practices and embedded in social norms within STEM (Better, 2007; Cross, 2010; Knowles and Prewitt, 1970; Phillips, 2011). This “norming” of systemic oppression could explain why despite increased funding, interest and intention to increase people of color and women in STEM education; there still exists a gap because of implicit bias issues and the language that is provided early in schools that people of color and women are poor in mathematics. Diversifying the pool of potential teachers in compulsory education and professors within post-secondary institutions to serve as role-models and mentors can dispel myths that certain subgroups cannot perform or succeed academically in STEM.
Accordingly, we have developed a critical multicultural conceptual model to address the persistent “glass ceiling” at the doctoral-level. Through a model that emphasizes the individual needs within a culturally diverse social environment and contrasting homogenous doctoral/professoriate environment, an increased awareness of issues of equality, justice and power can be used to increase persistence of minorities and women in STEM (Banks, 2006; Hodson and Dennick, 1994). A critical multicultural conceptual model also emphasizes the link between theory, policy and practice (May, 1999). Based on Weidman et al. (2001) framework, Conceptualizing Graduate and Professional Student Socialization (p. 37), our model considers critical multiculturalist factors to improve student success rate at the doctoral-level for women and students of color.

Our critical multicultural conceptual model enhances current efforts to diversify STEM fields by focusing on the doctoral-level and moving beyond an assimilation approach. We believe this to be a critical component to successfully diversifying STEM because it is not enough to simply teach women and people of color to operate within and perpetuate the normed beliefs and cultures of the dominant community within STEM. Instead, a paradigm shift must take place to accept, support and proactively promote diversity within STEM in higher education, particularly at the doctoral and professoriate levels.

**Proposed multicultural doctoral persistence model**

Much of the literature on student persistence focuses on undergraduate education (Tinto, 1993; Reason, 2009) with a growing body of literature on graduate socialization (Weidman et al., 2001) and graduate student attrition (Bowen and Rudenstine, 1992; Lovitts, 2001; Nettles and Miller, 2006). Smallwood (2004) suggests that the attrition within doctoral programs is a “scandal” and a major concern in American higher education. Although attrition rates at the doctoral-level is inevitable (Council of Graduate Schools, 2004), research has shown the dropout rates of doctoral students are higher for students of color (Nettles and Miller, 2006), women (Bowen and Rudenstine, 1992), and students who are less connected to faculty and peers (Lovitts, 2001).

Our conceptual model (Figure 1) illustrates the necessity to consider unique attributes at the personal level, as well as the institutional level, to increase matriculation and retention among diverse students (Nieto, 2011; Sleeter and Grant, 1988). These attributes include:

1. social location of student;
2. personal communities specific to the stage of life;
3. characteristics of prior higher education experience; and
4. institutional efforts to support equity and inclusion.

These four attributes are then considered at the departmental level and support given in accordance to the individual profile of the student.

**Social location**

Social location refers to the place groups of people are positioned based on historical and societal contexts. A person’s specific social location can be defined by their gender, race, social class, age, ability, religion, sexual orientation and geographic location. The intersectionality of these attributes may promote or hinder opportunities within STEM. Understanding one’s own social location and the social location of students can foster increased awareness and anti-oppressive policies and practices within the department, the university and the STEM fields. Increasing awareness of social locations leads people in leadership, those maintaining the system and those going through the system to have a
more critical understanding of the oppressions students of color and women face, as well as how that relates to the power and privilege of others. Each student, department and university is uniquely situated and, as such, needs to work from a personalized support system rather than an overarching diversity plan used at other institutions or institution-wide. An ecological and departmental focus on diversity serves a critical role in supporting women (Su et al., 2015) and students of color among STEM fields of study.

**Personal communities**

Often, individuals who pursue a doctoral degree are usually over the age of 24; tend to commute to campus; and many are married and/or may have children. Thus, their past experiences and future expectations of graduate programs are very different than traditional undergraduate students. For students of color, women in particular, family status plays a critical role in their doctoral program. Because STEM programs require a large amount of time in scientific laboratories conducting research, PhD students are away from their families throughout the week. Some may be required to come in on weekends to conduct experiments in preparation for the upcoming week which hinders family time. As Etzkowitz et al. (2000) have observed, the academic tradition typically requires a scientist to choose between an academic or family life, which lends itself to a traditional male dominated culture. As Herzig (2004) states:

> While career and family are no longer assumed to be in conflict for men, this is not the case for women. Consequently, women graduate students in science who marry or have children have been viewed as not serious about their studies, or as unreliable and not worth the investment (p. 189).

Thus, a female graduate student who marries during her doctoral program, or becomes pregnant, may be viewed as not committing herself to the academy. This warped view of intentions or commitment to graduate school only hampers the ability to persist or join the professoriate ranks.

Thus, how STEM doctoral programs are supportive of either married or single mothers with children is important for students’ success. This is a salient issue for female PhD
students who are attempting to show their advisors/committee members and department that they are taking their academic work seriously while at the same time ensuring they do not neglect their family. As Gardner (2009) states:

About one third of the students discussed personal problems as their main attribution for student departure. Unlike their faculty counterparts who also attributed this cause to attrition, the students’ explanations of what these personal problems entailed were much more descriptive and much more precise. Indeed, the majority of the personal problems that the students discussed as a reason for student departure related to marriage, children, or family responsibilities. (p. 106)

Furthermore, Latinas who may not be married or have children may still have responsibilities at home to help support their parents and siblings. The literature discusses how Latinas are consistently involved and supporting their family affairs (Segura, 1990; Vasquez, 1997). Vasquez (1997) discussed how Latinas have a “double-bind” conundrum in that they are attempting to appease both home and college environments when families are supporting them attending college and being academically successful, yet expecting them to maintain the familiarism of their cultural background. Thus, Latinas may find it challenging to play the role of college students and traditional Latina gender role (Vasquez, 1997). Thus, understanding a student’s personal communities is essential to promoting success of women and students of color.

Proximity of doctoral program to family/friends. Prior research has shown that the majority of undergraduate students usually attend a local institution. This familiarity of attending a local four-year institution allows for family and peer support to complete their undergraduate degrees. However, when it comes to graduate education, students of color may deviate from their home state to attend an institution that may provide better financial support to complete their doctoral education. Thus, how STEM programs help students of color and women moving away from their families and communities deal with their transition from the various regions/states they come from can impact how they transition and persist in the doctoral program. Indeed, research has shown that supportive family networks and familismo help abate the challenges of higher education of Latino students (Coohey, 2001; Llamas and Morgan Consoli, 2012; Zambrana et al., 1997). It is paramount that graduate programs provide communities that may replicate the support systems students of color and women leave behind.

Characteristics of prior education experience
Doctoral students of color and females’ trajectory and path to the PhD may not be as linear as their White male counterparts who have traditionally enrolled directly into a PhD program after the completion of their undergraduate education. Students may matriculate directly from their undergraduate institutions, while others delay their pursuit of doctoral degrees for a few years. This delay occurs for several reasons including taking a break from studies, helping support their families financially, starting a family of their own or working for a few or several years in industry to gain work experience. Others enroll in a master’s degree program at a comprehensive or research university and then pursue their doctoral degree to demystify the graduate student experience before fully enrolling in a doctoral program. Others may decide to work and have children before they embark in a long PhD journey. Clearly, the trajectory of underrepresented students in doctoral programs may not be linear. Thus, taking into account marginalized students’ prior educational experiences and trajectories is critical for persistence and graduation once in a doctoral program.
Undergraduate selectivity and institutional type

It is evident that students of color are underrepresented at the most selective private and flagship public institutions of higher education (Carnavale and Rose, 2004). Attending these institutions for an undergraduate education is extremely beneficial because of the “added value” they provide to students and alumni (Bowen and Bok, 1999). For example, Bowen and Bok (1999) state that:

Attending a highly rated undergraduate school is helpful, first of all, because of the quality of the education made possible by well-regarded faculty, well-equipped libraries, and laboratories, and the presence of the other high-achieving students (p. 101).

In addition, students who attend these elite public and private institutions are more likely to attend graduate and professional schools (Bowen and Bok, 1999; Carnavale and Rose, 2004). As stated succinctly by Bowen and Bok (1999):

Graduate and professional schools are more likely to prefer candidates who they know have already undergone a competitive screening process and who are thought to have a solid academic grounding, including practice in writing and research (Bowen and Bok, p. 101).

Furthermore, highly selective liberal arts institutions have a long history of sending many of their graduates to prestigious graduate schools. One of the ways in which highly selective and well-resourced undergraduate institutions accomplish this is by allowing students to closely work with faculty on research projects. These research collaborations with faculty help demystify what to expect as doctoral students and impacts the admissions process, as admissions committees are aware the prospective students have been exposed to research. Thus, these students have the anticipatory socialization to transition from undergraduate to graduate more seamlessly than those who do not. Therefore, one of the primary concerns is the continuous underrepresentation of first-generation students at selective four-year colleges and universities.

Impeding access to more selective graduate programs for students of color, first generation in particular, is attributed to enrollment in community college. Prior research has shown that most students of color who do enroll in post-secondary institutions matriculate at open access community colleges over four-year postsecondary institutions (Arbona and Nora, 2007; Cohen and Brawer, 2003; Fry, 2002; Garza, 2006; Laanan, 2001; Ornelas and Solórzano, 2004; Solórzano et al., 2005). Community colleges offer open-admission which allows students who are over the age of 18 to enroll with or without a high school diploma. These policies, along with the fact that public two-year institutions offer a college education for a fraction of the cost of senior institutions, are major reasons for the overrepresentation of students of color and first-generation students (Cohen et al., 2014). The literature illustrates the drawbacks of enrolling at community colleges (Cohen, et al., 2014). Because community college are not research institutions, students do not have the opportunity to participate in research projects with faculty or take courses with instructors who possess PhDs in their fields or disciplines, such as STEM. Once community college students transfer to a four-year institution, they may not have the peer or faculty networks or experience to work in a research laboratory to engage in rigorous research that may promote access to a PhD program. For those who are successful in gaining admission to a doctoral program, the lack of research experience may hamper their ability to transition to a PhD in STEM if they decide to pursue graduate study.

Clearly, students’ initial institutional entry to their postsecondary pathway impacts their transition and how they are socialized to their doctoral program. As stated above, PhD students who attended a highly selective research (public or private) university at the
undergraduate level are more likely to have been exposed to research opportunities than their peers who first attended community colleges or less research-oriented four-year institutions. Indeed, undergraduate students attending research-oriented institutions may interact with faculty and PhD students who provide “insider knowledge” (Stanton-Salazar, 1997, 2011) by acting as “institutional agents” (Stanton-Salazar, 1997, 2011) to illuminate what research is and how enrolling in a PhD program may promote their professional and academic career. Non-research-focused institutions may neither have the same resources nor funding to provide research opportunities to undergraduate or master’s students as top-tier research institutions. Thus, students who have historically not been successful in PhD STEM programs and attended a less selective or less resourced undergraduate postsecondary institution should receive added support and monitoring. For example, understanding if a Latina first embarked in her post-secondary education at the community college and transferred to a teaching institution to obtain her bachelor’s degree, it would behoove the doctoral program to provide extra support to this student compared to a student who went straight from high school to a highly endowed selective research university and had been conducting research since their second year. However, not all students who are successful attend highly selective predominantly White institutions to be successful in graduate school.

Special purpose institutions such as Historical Black Colleges and Universities (HBCU) (Allen, 1992; Blackwell, 1987; Brazziel, 1983; Garibaldi, 1997; Gasman and Tudico, 2008; Perna, 2001; Willie, et al., 1991) and women’s institutions (Tidball, 1976, 1980, 1986; Smith, 1990; Smith et al., 1995; Wolf-Wendel, 1996) have a long distinguished history in producing future doctoral students. Tidball’s (1976, 1980, 1986) research reminds us of the powerful impact women’s colleges and universities have had on producing a large number of women STEM doctoral students. Furthermore, Black women’s colleges have produced the highest proportion of African-American women doctoral recipients (Wolf-Wendel, 1996). As Astin (1962) suggests, it is important to account where students’ originate from if we are to support doctoral students properly.

The seminal work conducted by Attinasi (1989) can be very illuminating for our purposes. He examined how perceptions regarding “getting in” to college was a process that was developed before and after matriculation in college. He describes how Latino persisters obtained college-going behaviors and attitudes by modeling their behavior after their mentors. Attinasi (1989, p. 258) found that student participants who persisted in college discussed how high school teachers shared their college-going experience with them, providing “indirect simulation” of what it meant to be college student. He referred to this process as “mentoring modeling” which promoted the students’ understanding of what college would be like if they enrolled. The indirect simulation via mentor modeling occurred through two-subcategories: formal and informal simulative experiences. Formal indirect simulation occurred when students took college-level courses such as Advanced Placement (AP) and International Baccalaureate (IB) at their high school. Students who took these courses indicated that they were aware of the college-going behaviors and attitudes because of more rigorous academic work and high expectations by the teachers. Informal experiences occurred when teachers would inform them of the expectations college professors would have of them if they continued their education after high school. Thus, students in the indirect simulations formally took college-level courses in high school and informally received information regarding what the college culture would expect of them. Stanton-Salazar (1997, 2011) suggests that this information would help students in acquiring funds of knowledge regarding the college organizational context; it would also inculcate a college-going behavior and attitude.
Attinasi highlights two very salient processes that enable students of color and women to obtain the attitudes and behaviors before and after college matriculation to transition, persist and be academically successful in a PhD STEM program. This process can be applied to pre-doctoral students as well. Pre-doctoral students in undergraduate or master’s programs can be informed about what research is and what role graduate students play in a doctoral program. This process of demystifying the PhD in STEM can help promote a better understanding of the culture of graduate programs and the role actors in the hierarchal structures play.

Institutional efforts
Many universities are tasked with developing institution-wide diversity initiatives (Smith, 2009). Entire university departments and offices are devoted to supporting diversity on campus and their work is to support students from all backgrounds to enter and succeed at the university. These initiatives include hiring chief diversity officers, having diverse search committees and ensuring that committees have a diverse pool of applicants to interview for faculty and staff position (Smith, 2009).

While these systems may help improve diversity within STEM, they also have the potential to inhibit or not fully embrace students from traditionally underrepresented groups in specific departments. Diversity issues in STEM are not necessarily the same issues experienced throughout the university. Even within STEM fields, differences can be seen in each subgroup, such as the increase of women in biology but not in mathematics, engineering or technology.

Moreover, there are also effort differences at each level of education. Diversity issues could be extremely different at the undergraduate, masters, doctoral and professoriate levels. As such, blanket diversity plans support focus and attention on diversifying and improving equity in higher education, which is entirely necessary to increase awareness, but do not necessarily support diversity in specific disciplines, such as STEM, and the different levels within higher education.

In our critical multicultural conceptual model, we indicate the institutional efforts as a factor to consider, as it impacts outcomes and persistence for women and minority doctoral students. However, this factor is not the only determinant of success at the doctoral level. As Su et al. (2015) indicate, diversity strategies are most impactful at the departmental level. We maintain the institutional efforts should be foundational and function to inform environmental department support for students from traditionally underrepresented populations.

Departmental support based on attributes of student and institution
The aforementioned personal and institutional factors that contribute to the persistence and outcomes of traditionally underrepresented students (i.e. women and students of color) in STEM critically inform support structures, systems and policies at the departmental level. Indeed, it is critical that STEM departments understand their students’ social locations, personal communities and stage of life and prior educational experiences to better understand students’ needs. In addition, having a clear understanding of the institution’s efforts to diversify provides institutions with more structure to leverage institutional resources to recruit and help support students. Most institutions of higher education would argue that they have invested funds and resources to ensure recruitments efforts are successful. However, recruitment without proper personalized support systems embedded within the organization could foster challenges to promote success. Thus, STEM
departments need to be aware of how their institution can fully support their students who are pursuing STEM disciplines.

Often university departments are in direct contact with faculty and students in their disciplines. As such, the influence of departments are much greater than the institution as a whole. Deans, departmental chairs and faculty have the power to ensure students, who have traditionally been underserved and underrepresented in STEM, feel culturally supported by implementing programs, resources, funding and mentorship that is unique to their female and minority students. By cultivating a critical multicultural perspective, institutions of higher education can abate barriers to the doctoral attainment of women and students of color.

Conclusion

The pipeline to doctoral STEM programs for students of color and women has been a trickle for decades, even after concerted efforts were made to increase the flow. Incorporating a critical multicultural lens helps to support recruitment, retention and success among graduate students who have been historically underrepresented in STEM programs. We believe a better understanding of doctoral students’ social location, personal communities specific to the stage of their life and characteristics of prior higher education experiences, buttressed with an understanding of the institutional context of diversification efforts is essential to supporting minority and female success in doctoral STEM programs.

By increasing individualized support, with attention to personal and institutional factors, we can increase the diversity and career options in STEM by ensuring they are successful in obtaining academic and non-academic positions. A more diverse tenured and tenure-track faculty affords representation of faculty for students of color and women to serve as mentors and role models. When students of color and women see individuals like themselves, they are more likely able to envision themselves in such positions (Nieto and Bode, 2011; Su et al., 2015). We can abate the discrepancies within STEM at all levels by ensuring we have a strong flow of diverse students enrolling, persisting and graduating with their doctoral degrees.

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Further reading


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Global citizenship education and diversity (GCEDS)

A measure of students’ attitudes related to social studies program in higher education

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Abstract

Purpose – The aspects of global citizenship, education and diversity are framing a paradigm that encapsulates how education can develop the knowledge, skills, values and attitudes of learners needed for securing a world which is more just, peaceful, tolerant, inclusive, secure and sustainable. The determination of students’ attitudes toward global citizenship education and diversity is a phenomenal issue of the past several decades. This study aims to develop an attitude scale to quantify the attitudes of students, the content of courses and instructors toward global citizenship education and diversity.

Design/methodology/approach – In this study, the factor structure and internal consistency of “Global Citizenship Education and Diversity Scale” (GCEDS) were analyzed, and validity and reliability of the scale were assessed. Two sample groups of participants were used in the assessment of the scale. The first sample group (exploratory factor analysis group) was composed of 147, and the second group (confirmatory factor analysis [CFA] group) was composed of 257 undergraduate students from three different large public universities in Turkey.

Findings – CFA confirmed the structure that emerged in the explanatory factor analysis. In this context, “GCEDS” is a valid and reliable scale.

Keywords Diversity, Globalization, Global citizenship education, Scale development, Validity and reliability

Paper type Research paper

Since the past two decades, globalization and citizenship are terms that have become a part of public as well as academic discourse (Demaine, 2002) and learning about other cultures has become more than only a necessity; it is almost a pre-requisite (Faltis, 2014). Banks (1997) argued that cultural, ethnic, racial, language and religious diversity exists in most nations in the world. Banks (2003, p. 128) emphasized that one of the challenges to diverse democratic nation-states is:

To provide opportunities for different groups to maintain aspects of their community cultures while at the same time building a nation in which these groups are structurally included and to which they feel allegiance.

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Conflict of interest: The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.
Banks (2007) further discussed a delicate balance of diversity and unity should be an essential goal of democratic nation-states and of teaching and learning in a democratic society. In this vein, multicultural education has also become an indispensable part of discussions on education (Aydin, 2013a; Banks, 2010; Mncube, 2008). According to Gay (2000), preparing students for such a world is the goal of multicultural education and it can be accomplished through experiences and interactions in a safe classroom environment. Moreover, Banks (2010) argued that multicultural education provides equal opportunities for all students from different racial, ethnic and cultural backgrounds.

### Diversity

Diversity can be defined as differences among individuals or groups of individuals, which can be based on gender, age, sex, ethnicity and social status (Banks, 2004; Ozfidan and Burlbaw, 2016). Banks et al. (2005, p. 17) explained diversity as “the wide range of racial, cultural, ethnic, linguistic, and religious variation that exists within and across groups that live in multicultural nation-states.” The term also refers to having different cultures respect each other’s differences (Banks, 2004).

Banks (2003) indicated that the challenge of balancing diversity and unity has intensified as democratic nation-states, such as the USA, Canada, Australia and Japan, have become more diversified, and as racial and ethnic groups within these nations try to attain cultural, political and economic rights. In this context, Turkey is also a highly diverse country in terms of ethnic, culture, language and religious for a nation-state (Kaya, 2015; Kaya and Aydin, 2014). For instance, KONDA (2011) reports found out that there are 36 different ethnic and cultural backgrounds in Turkey.

Through growing ethnic, cultural, racial, language and religious diversity (Yigit and Tatch, 2017) throughout the world, citizenship education needs to be changed in substantial ways to prepare students to function effectively in the twenty-first century (Alanay and Aydin, 2016; Banks, 2003, 2007; Ladson-Billings, 1995). Gay (2003) argued that it is increasingly a cross-cultural phenomenon, in that teachers are frequently not of the same race, ethnicity, class and language dominance as their students. This demographic and cultural divide is becoming even more apparent as the number of individuals in teacher preparation and active classroom teaching dwindle (as cited in Oran, 2009). Ersoy (2010) stated that people are constantly influenced by transitional, cross-cultural, multicultural and multiethnic interactions. To create an effective citizenship education program that will educate students to be active citizens in their cultural communities (Aydin, 2013b, 2013c; Gunay and Aydin, 2015), nation-states and in the world community, the curriculum should provide opportunities to reflect the complex national identities within the growing diversity of the world (Banks, 2004).

### Global citizenship

According to Carabain et al. (2012, p. 30):

The global dimension of citizenship is manifested in behavior that does justice to the principles of mutual dependency in the world, the equality of human beings and the shared responsibility for solving global issues.

In addition, Oxfam (2006) stated that a global citizen respects and values diversity, as well as realizes the presence of a wider world and understands how it functions. Moreover, besides taking responsibility for their actions, global citizens know their role as a world citizen (Nanackchand and Berman, 2012), and thus take an active part in the community, both locally and globally. It is
likewise important that a global citizen be severely disturbed by social injustice, and consequently willing “to make the world a more equitable and sustainable place” (Oxfam, 2006, p. 2).

Given the current promotion of global citizenship as a central component of social studies programs in many countries, including the USA, the UK, Canada, Australia and New Zealand, the question of multiple citizenship identities arises (White and Openshaw, 2002). As Scott and Lawson (2002) observed, multiple citizenship identities of this type imply an intermingling of local, national and global elements, with the strong implication that these diverse elements can and should be reconciled. A crucial issue relating to the whole global citizenship phenomena concerns the place and role of the nation-state in the development of civic virtue (White and Openshaw, 2002, p. 151). Moreover, Abdi and Shultz (2008) argued that global citizenship aims to expand inclusion and power, and provides the ethical and normative framework to make this a legitimate and far-reaching project, whereby citizenship is a product of diversity, rather than an institutional tool serving particular groups. Furthermore, several scholars, including Osler and Vincent (2002) and Marshall (2007), proposed the notion of “global citizenship,” which advocates empathy and solidarity with all peoples, along with rights and responsibilities that are valid across national boundaries.

Global citizenship education

Educators in nation states are obliged to reevaluate citizenship education in response to the increase in racial, ethnic, cultural and language diversity (Banks, 2004). According to Banks (2008), conceptions of citizenship and citizenship education around the world face challenges from a number of historical, political, social and cultural developments. For example, Castles (2004) suggested that the principles of nation-states are no longer the absolute authority in organizing economic, political, cultural and social life in a country due to increased international networks. Furthermore, Castles (2004) argued that people used to be a citizen of only one state; however, in the twenty-first-century world, millions of people travel to different countries, and they feel that they are members of multiple places, rather than of one single nation-state. In addition, worldwide immigration, globalization and the tenacity of nationalism have stimulated both novel thinking and controversy about citizenship and citizenship education (Gutmann, 2004). Taking this tide of changes into consideration, a revision of citizenship education appears indispensable, such that students might be assured to function well outside their countries’ borders (Banks, 2004).

According to Osler (2012), the aim of global citizenship education is to provide young people with the ability to develop their identities, participate actively in society and interact with others within the framework of respect. She further suggested that education for citizenship must be suitable with the histories, languages and the cultures of groups other than the dominant group in the country. Furthermore, it must reinforce the positive approach toward diversity, and encourage learners to critically analyze possible situations related to diversity issues they might face in their daily lives.

In an international panel, whose goal was to establish some principles and guidelines for bettering citizenship education programs and preparing learners as effective global citizens, four principles for citizenship education were developed (Banks et al., 2005, pp. 11-13):

(1) Students should learn about the complex relationships between unity and diversity in their local communities, the nation and the world.

(2) Students should learn about the ways in which people in their community, nation and region are increasingly interdependent with other people around the world and are connected to the economic, political, cultural, environmental and technological changes taking place across the planet.
The teaching of human rights should underpin citizenship education courses and programs in multicultural nation-states.

Students should be taught knowledge about democracy and democratic institutions and provided opportunities to practice democracy.

According to United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2014), the aim of global citizenship education is to equip learners with values, knowledge and skills that are based on and instill respect for human rights, social justice, diversity, gender equality and environmental sustainability and that empower learners to be responsible global citizens. Moreover, global citizenship education makes learners aware of their rights and responsibilities for a better world and future [United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), (2014)]. Furthermore, Kerr (2005, p. 80) emphasized that students’ experiences of and attitudes toward citizenship education should be the focal point of citizenship education policy and research in the area because “young people are a vital source of information and insights about citizenship education.” He further suggested that schools have a crucial impact on students in terms of citizenship education in that experiences in schools influence students’ conceptions of and knowledge on citizenship.

Since 1963, global citizenship has gained recognition along with national citizenship during the process of European membership of Turkey; therefore, the transition from the national citizenship toward global citizenship also brings out a new concept of European citizenship among the countries in Europe (Aydin and Kaya, 2017; Ersoy, 2010). Turkish Ministry of National Education (MEB) has made some revisions in the national education program that comprehend Turkey’s European Membership integration process (The Turkish Ministry of National Education-MEB, 2001). In the scope of revisions, Ersoy also argued that global citizenship has found its place in Social Studies Education Program in terms of increasing awareness of concept of citizenship beyond national framework and developing recognition for global citizenship. MEB also made some further revisions such as democratic education, cultural democracy and human rights in social science curriculum. In addition, the Turkish Government has enacted several laws and promoted campaigns toward the inclusion of other cultures and ethnicities in education, which have started to attract more interest since the past decade (Aydin, 2012; Damgaci and Aydin, 2013). In this vein, the purpose of this study is to develop a scale to determine undergraduate students’ attitudes toward global citizenship education and diversity and the contribution of the courses and instructors. In this context, the following research questions guided the study:

RQ1. What are the exploratory factor analysis results of Global Citizenship Education and Diversity Attitude Scale (GCEDS)?

RQ2. What are the confirmatory factor analysis results of GCEDS?

RQ3. What are the internal consistency reliability results of GCEDS?

Methodology
In this study, a quantitative descriptive research design was used to test the validity and reliability of GCEDS, and to describe the psychometric features of the scale with a pilot scheme.
Scale development group

GCEDS is a scale developed for undergraduate students in Social Studies Education Departments. To determine the validity and reliability (Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient for internal consistency) of the scale, data from two groups of students were gathered. The first group, whose results were used for the exploratory factor analysis, consisted of 147 undergraduate students (64 males, 83 females; 44 freshman, 48 sophomore, 48 junior and 7 senior students) from three large public universities in Istanbul, Turkey. For the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), data were gathered from a second group that consisted of 257 undergraduate students (122 males, 135 females; 76 freshman, 78 sophomore, 67 junior and 36 senior students) from the same universities as the first group. The data collection was administered during the spring term of 2015. The scale was applied to the two groups with one-month interval.

Scale development procedure

According to the relevant literature, the scale development process should follow certain steps (Cohen and Swerdlik, 2013; Crocker and Algina, 1986; DeVellis, 2014; Seker and Gencdogan, 2014). In the development of GCEDS, the similar steps listed below were followed:

- defining the purpose and target audience of the scale;
- deciding on the scope and content of the scale;
- writing items based on the scope and content determined previously;
- checking the items and creating the scale form;
- identifying the methods to score the items and procedures for data analysis;
- pilot testing the scale in the scale development group;
- scoring the items and analyzing the data; and
- creating the final draft of the scale based on results

Data collection

GCEDS was designed in three different sections before the pilot scheme. The first section aimed to collect data about attitudes and consisted of 21 items. The second section aimed to collect data about the contribution of undergraduate courses to Global Citizenship Education and consisted of 27 items. The third section aimed to collect data about the contribution of the instructors and consisted of 11 items. The items were designed as a five-point Likert ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Before developing the scale, the researchers reviewed the literature on citizenship, democracy, multiculturalism and global citizenship education. In accordance with the literature, the items of the scale were developed. Then, peer-review feedback was taken from five doctorate students in the field of multicultural education. After that, the scale was presented to three experts in the field of education. After the revision and finalization of the scale based on their feedback and comments, a pilot scheme was administered.

According to the results of the pilot scheme, the following results were determined:

- In the first section of the scale (attitudes), six items (items numbered 4, 9, 10, 16, 19 and 20) presented a low load (below 0.300) in terms of total correlation. Based on the literature, these six items were eliminated, and 15 items remained in the first section of the scale, which were renumbered. According to the redesignated numbering,
Items 1, 6, 10, 12, 14 and 15 compose “Cultural Respect (CS)” dimension. The highest possible score from this dimension is 30. Items 2, 4, 5 and 11 compose “Benefits of Global Citizenship Education (BGCE)” dimension. The highest possible score from this dimension is 20. Items 3, 7, 8, 9 and 13 compose “Bias Against Global Citizenship Education (BAGCE)” dimension. The highest possible score from this dimension is 25. Items 3, 7, 8, 9 and 13 are scored reversely, as they have either a negative meaning or negative load.

In the second section of the scale (contribution of courses), five items (items numbered 29, 30, 38, 41 and 42) presented a low load (below 0.300) in terms of total correlation. Based on the literature, these five items were eliminated, and 22 items remained in the second section of the scale, which were renumbered. According to the redesignated numbering, Items 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15 and 17 compose “Building a Global Community and Citizens (BGCC)” dimension. The highest possible score from this dimension is 40. Items 1, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12 and 14 compose “Raising Awareness for Citizenship and Democracy (RACD)” dimension. The highest possible score from this dimension is 35. Items 2, 16, 18, 19, 20, 21 and 22 compose “Respecting Different Cultures (RDC)” dimension. The highest possible score from this dimension is 35.

In the third section of the scale (contribution of instructors), two items (items numbered 52 and 55) presented a low load (below 0.300) in terms of total correlation. Based on the literature, these two items were eliminated, and nine items remained in the second section of the scale, which were renumbered. According to the redesignated numbering, Items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 compose “Instructors’ Sensitivity to Global Citizenship (ISGC)” dimension. The highest possible score from this dimension is 45.

**Data analysis**

The data obtained were transferred into IBM-SPSS 22 and AMOS 22 programs. For validity and reliability of GCEDS, techniques such as Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) test, Bartlett Sphericity test, varimax rotation method and Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient were used (Buyukozturk, 2013; Ozdamar, 2013). CFA was administered with AMOS 22. The details of the analyses are presented in the “Results” section.

**Results**

**Construct validity (exploratory factor analysis)**

The construct validity of GCEDS was determined via principal component analysis. In the principal component analysis, KMO test and Bartlett Sphericity test were used to determine whether the data file was suitable for factor analysis, and varimax rotation method was used to better reveal the factor structure. The details of these analyses are as follows:

To determine the factor structure of GCEDS, it was tested whether the data obtained from the pilot scheme group are suitable for factor analysis (Buyukozturk, 2013; Ozdamar, 2013):

- KMO values for the first (attitude), second (contribution of courses) and the third (contribution of instructors) sections of the scale were measured as 0.887, 0.947 and 0.938, relatively. The fact that these values were above 0.50 indicate that the data set was suitable for factor analysis.
• The results of Bartlett test were measured as ($X^2 = 1,141.105; SD = 105, p < 0.01$) for the first part of the scale (attitude), ($X^2 = 2,840.766; SD = 231, p < 0.01$) for the second part (contribution of courses) and ($X^2 = 1,043.678; SD = 36, p < 0.01$) for the third part (contribution of instructors). The fact that the significance level proved to be high in the Bartlett test indicates that factor analysis can be applied.

According to the results of exploratory factor analysis via principal component analysis, in the first part of the scale (attitudes), items numbered 4, 9, 10, 16, 19 and 20 presented a low load (below 0.300) in terms of total correlation. Thus, these six items were eliminated from the scale. The load values of the remaining items range between 0.375 and 0.779. Item total correlations range between 0.345 and 0.814. The variance value of the three factors that emerged as a result of varimax rotation procedure is 62.899 per cent for attitudes toward global citizenship education variable. The load value of items and item total correlations are presented in Table I.

As can be seen in Table I, the initial factor load values of the remaining items are not below 0.375, and item total correlations are not below 0.345. The variance is 62 per cent. These values are considered to be acceptable for scale development in social sciences (Buyukozturk, 2013).

Based on the exploratory factor analysis via principal component analysis, in the second part of the scale (contribution of courses), items numbered 29, 30, 38, 41 and 42 presented a low load (below 0.300) in terms of total correlation, and were excluded from the scale. The load values of the remaining items range between 0.437 and 0.849. Item total correlations range between 0.574 and 0.810. The variance value of the three factors that emerged as a result of varimax rotation method is 70.836 per cent for attitudes toward global citizenship education variable. The load value of items and item total correlations are presented in Table II.

As can be observed from Table II, the initial factor load values of the remaining items are not below 0.437, and item total correlations are not below 0.574. The variance is 70 per cent.

According to the results of exploratory factor analysis via principal component analysis, in the third part of the scale (contribution of instructors), items numbered 52 and 55 presented a low load (below 0.300) in terms of total correlation, and were eliminated from the scale. The load values of the remaining items range between 0.599 and 0.74. Item total correlations range between 0.717 and 0.816. The variance value of the three factors that emerged as a result of varimax rotation method is 69.442 per cent for attitudes toward global citizenship education variable. The load value of items and item total correlations are presented in Table III.

### Table I.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item no.</th>
<th>Initial factor load values</th>
<th>Item-total correlation</th>
<th>Item no.</th>
<th>Initial factor load values</th>
<th>Item-total correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M1</td>
<td>0.727</td>
<td>0.663</td>
<td>M11</td>
<td>0.429</td>
<td>0.418</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M2</td>
<td>0.511</td>
<td>0.472</td>
<td>M12</td>
<td>0.799</td>
<td>0.532</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M3</td>
<td>0.695</td>
<td>0.536</td>
<td>M13</td>
<td>0.799</td>
<td>0.686</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M4</td>
<td>0.375</td>
<td>0.512</td>
<td>M14</td>
<td>0.699</td>
<td>0.742</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M5</td>
<td>0.586</td>
<td>0.345</td>
<td>M15</td>
<td>0.774</td>
<td>0.814</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M6</td>
<td>0.632</td>
<td>0.545</td>
<td>M16</td>
<td>0.672</td>
<td>0.673</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M7</td>
<td>0.612</td>
<td>0.707</td>
<td>M17</td>
<td>0.533</td>
<td>0.574</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>M18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>M19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>M20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Notes:** Variance of two factors = 62.899%; cronbach alpha = 0.895

Global citizenship education
citizenship education variable. The load value of items and item total correlations are presented in Table III.

As can be observed from Table III, the initial factor load values of the remaining items are not below 0.599, and item total correlations are not below 0.717. The variance is 69 percent. In the exploratory factor analysis, varimax rotation method was applied to the data set to determine whether there are sub-dimensions in the scale, and if there are, under what sub-dimensions the items can be grouped (Buyukozturk, 2013; Ozdamar, 2013). The dimensions in the three sections of the scale that emerged as a result of varimax rotation are presented in Table IV.

It is observed in Table IV that;

In the attitude section:
- Items 1, 2, 3, 5, 8 and 15 compose a sub-dimension (first sub-dimension). When these first sub-dimension items were analyzed, it was determined that these items are related to cultural respect. The items in this sub-dimension were renumbered as 1, 6, 10, 12, 14 and 15, and named as “Cultural Respect.”
- Items 12, 13, 14 and 17 compose a sub-dimension (second sub-dimension). When these second sub-dimension items were analyzed, it was determined that these items are related to the benefits of global citizenship education. The items in this sub-dimension were renumbered as 2, 4, 5 and 11, and named as “Benefits of Global Citizenship Education.”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item no.</th>
<th>Initial factor load values</th>
<th>Item-total correlation</th>
<th>Item no.</th>
<th>Initial factor load values</th>
<th>Item-total correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S22</td>
<td>0.620</td>
<td>0.692</td>
<td>S35</td>
<td>0.520</td>
<td>0.600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S23</td>
<td>0.765</td>
<td>0.780</td>
<td>S36</td>
<td>0.798</td>
<td>0.775</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S24</td>
<td>0.741</td>
<td>0.729</td>
<td>S37</td>
<td>0.526</td>
<td>0.674</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S25</td>
<td>0.794</td>
<td>0.703</td>
<td>S39</td>
<td>0.717</td>
<td>0.722</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S26</td>
<td>0.674</td>
<td>0.675</td>
<td>S40</td>
<td>0.644</td>
<td>0.727</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S27</td>
<td>0.742</td>
<td>0.810</td>
<td>S43</td>
<td>0.696</td>
<td>0.700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S28</td>
<td>0.437</td>
<td>0.574</td>
<td>S44</td>
<td>0.794</td>
<td>0.767</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S31</td>
<td>0.743</td>
<td>0.793</td>
<td>S45</td>
<td>0.808</td>
<td>0.797</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S32</td>
<td>0.709</td>
<td>0.698</td>
<td>S46</td>
<td>0.849</td>
<td>0.783</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S33</td>
<td>0.825</td>
<td>0.769</td>
<td>S47</td>
<td>0.768</td>
<td>0.742</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S34</td>
<td>0.677</td>
<td>0.756</td>
<td>S48</td>
<td>0.737</td>
<td>0.756</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table II.
Factor analysis initial factor load values and item total correlation results of the second part of GCEDS (contribution of courses)

Notes: Variance of two factors = 70.836%; cronbach alpha = 0.964

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item no.</th>
<th>Initial factor load values</th>
<th>Item-total correlation</th>
<th>Item no.</th>
<th>Initial factor load values</th>
<th>Item-total correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T49</td>
<td>0.667</td>
<td>0.765</td>
<td>T56</td>
<td>0.727</td>
<td>0.808</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T50</td>
<td>0.683</td>
<td>0.776</td>
<td>T57</td>
<td>0.720</td>
<td>0.803</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T51</td>
<td>0.737</td>
<td>0.815</td>
<td>T58</td>
<td>0.599</td>
<td>0.717</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T53</td>
<td>0.740</td>
<td>0.816</td>
<td>T59</td>
<td>0.647</td>
<td>0.750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T54</td>
<td>0.731</td>
<td>0.808</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table III.
Factor analysis initial factor load values and item total correlation results of the third part of GCEDS (contribution of instructors)

Notes: Variance of two factors = 69.442%; cronbach alpha = 0.944
Items 6, 7, 11, 18 and 20 compose a sub-dimension (third sub-dimension). When these third sub-dimension items were analyzed, it was determined that these items are related to bias against global citizenship education. The items in this sub-dimension were renumbered as 3, 7, 8, 9 and 13, and named as “Bias Against Global Citizenship Education.”

In the courses section:

- Items 39, 40, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47 and 48 compose a sub-dimension (first sub-dimension). When these first sub-dimension items were analyzed, it was determined that these items are related to building a global community and citizens. The items in this sub-dimension were renumbered as 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15 and 17, and named as “Building a Global Community and Citizens.”

- Items 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36 and 37 compose a sub-dimension (second sub-dimension). When these second sub-dimension items were analyzed, it was determined that these items are related to raising awareness for citizenship and democracy. The items in this sub-dimension were renumbered as 1, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12 and 14, and named as “Raising Awareness for Citizenship and Democracy.”

- Items 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27 and 28 compose a sub-dimension (third sub-dimension). When these third sub-dimension items were analyzed, it was determined that these items are related to respecting different cultures. The items in this sub-dimension were renumbered as 2, 16, 18, 19, 20, 12 and 22, and named as “Respecting Different Cultures.”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>First part (attitude) Factors</th>
<th>Second part (courses) Factors</th>
<th>Third part (instructors) Factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M3</td>
<td>0.820</td>
<td>S46</td>
<td>0.837</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M1</td>
<td>0.792</td>
<td>S47</td>
<td>0.776</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M2</td>
<td>0.680</td>
<td>S44</td>
<td>0.776</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M15</td>
<td>0.624</td>
<td>S45</td>
<td>0.759</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M8</td>
<td>0.540</td>
<td>S48</td>
<td>0.755</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M5</td>
<td>0.509</td>
<td>S43</td>
<td>0.734</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M12</td>
<td>0.879</td>
<td>S39</td>
<td>0.682</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M13</td>
<td>0.829</td>
<td>S40</td>
<td>0.638</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M17</td>
<td>0.661</td>
<td>S33</td>
<td>0.814</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M14</td>
<td>0.624</td>
<td>S36</td>
<td>0.785</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M7</td>
<td>0.748</td>
<td>S32</td>
<td>0.761</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M6</td>
<td>0.745</td>
<td>S31</td>
<td>0.644</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M21</td>
<td>0.660</td>
<td>S34</td>
<td>0.643</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M18</td>
<td>0.627</td>
<td>S35</td>
<td>0.637</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M11</td>
<td>0.596</td>
<td>S37</td>
<td>0.545</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.830</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.732</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S23</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.732</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.723</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S27</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.643</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.555</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table IV. The dimensions in the three parts of the scale (attitude, courses and instructors) that emerged as a result of varimax rotation, and items under the factors.
In the instructors section, items 49, 50, 51, 53, 54, 56, 57, 58 and 59 compose a sub-dimension. When these items were analyzed, it was determined that these items are related to the instructors’ sensitivity to global citizenship. The items in this sub-dimension were renumbered as 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10, and named as “Instructors’ Sensitivity to Global Citizenship”.

**Confirmatory factor analysis**

A CFA was applied to GCEDS to confirm the new structure of GCEDS, which emerged according to the exploratory factor analysis. The model that emerged as the result of the analysis is presented in Figure 1.

As indicated in Figure 1, the chi-square and degree of freedom values which were obtained as the result of CFA were $\chi^2 = 192.276$ (df = 83, $p < 0.01$), $\chi^2 = 487.817$ (df = 202, $p < 0.01$) and $\chi^2 = 56.965$ (df = 24, $p < 0.01$), and the values obtained were $\chi^2$/df = 2.317, $\chi^2$/df = 2.415 and $\chi^2$/df = 2.374, respectively. The fact that the values were below 3 indicates a perfect fit (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1993; Kline, 2005; Sumer, 2000).

Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) is one of the widely used fit indices in confirmatory analysis. If the RMSEA value is 0.05 or lower, it is an indication of data consistency. This value is acceptable up to 0.08 (Browne and Cudeck, 1989; Hu and Bentler,

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**Figure 1.**

Diagram of confirmatory factor analysis of Global Citizenship Education and Diversity Scale (standardized values)

**Notes:** CS = Cultural respect; BGCE = Benefits of Global Citizenship Education; BAGCE = Bias Against Global Citizenship Education; BGCC = Building a Global Community and Citizens; RADC = Raising Awareness for Citizenship and Democracy; RDC = Respecting Different Cultures; ISGC = Instructors’ Sensitivity to Global Citizenship
The RMSEA values in this research are 0.072, 0.074, and 0.073, which are acceptable. The fact that comparative fit index (CFI) and incremental fit index (IFI) values were above 0.90 is an indication that model and fitness correspond to a “perfect fit” (Aydin and Aslan, 2016; Bentler, 1990; Hu and Bentler, 1999; Sumer, 2000; Simsek, 2007; Cokluk et al., 2010). In the analysis, it was measured that CFI = 0.926, 0.936 and 0.981, and IFI = 0.927, 0.936 and 0.981. In this context, it is safe to say that “Global Citizenship Education and Diversity Scale” is confirmed with fit statistics obtained from the three sectional CFA with three-factor structure for the first and second sections and one-factor structure for the third section.

Reliability analysis (Cronbach alpha test)
In the exploratory factor analysis, it was revealed that this scale is composed of three sections; the first and second section has three sub-dimensions, and the third section has one sub-dimension. Cronbach alpha reliability values were measured and additivity tests were applied for each and every one of these sub-dimensions. The results are presented in Table V. Table V shows that:

1. In the attitude section, Cronbach alpha reliability values were measured as 0.843 for the first sub-dimension, 0.870 for the second sub-dimension and 0.946 for the third sub-dimension.
2. In the courses section, Cronbach alpha reliability values were measured as 0.946 for the first sub-dimension, 0.919 for the second sub-dimension and 0.915 for the third sub-dimension.
3. In the instructors section, Cronbach alpha reliability value was measured as 0.944.

Reliability co-efficiencies above 0.70 are considered to be highly reliable (Ozdamar, 2013). Thus, these sub-scales have high reliability. In addition, these sub-scales are Likert-type additive sub-scales in terms of scoring (Tukey non-additivity $p > 0.05$).

Conclusion
In analyzing the Turkish students’ attitudes toward global citizenship education and diversity, and the contribution of the courses and instructors, one significant approach has been to consider how global citizenship education is taken up in a social science courses or skills and instructors’ awareness’ acquisition approach to the knowledge society as an instrumental curricular concept based on transmitting what are perceived as new and better skills. According to Banks (2017), Global migration, “the rise of populist nationalism, and the quest by diverse racial, ethnic, cultural, linguistic, and religious groups for recognition, civic equality, and structural inclusion within their nation-states have complicated the attainment of citizenship in countries around the world” (p. 1). Scholarship on global citizenship education and diversity in the Turkey traditionally has focused primarily on the dispositions, experiences and learning of teacher education students with a strong perspectives on nationalism (Aydin and Koc-Damgaci, 2017; Turkan et al., 2016). Scholars have focused considerably less attention on the dispositions, experiences and learning of global citizenship educators. By conducting and reporting the results of this study, we have attempted to fill part of this knowledge gap, examining the perceived learning, development and support needs of people teaching global citizenship education courses in teacher education programs across Turkey.
Table V. Cronbach alpha and additivity test results for the sections and sub-dimensions of GCEDS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Sub-dimension</th>
<th>Cronbach alpha</th>
<th>Variance source</th>
<th>Sum of squares</th>
<th>Mean of square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>Cultural Respect (CR)</td>
<td>0.843</td>
<td>Nonadditivity</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.959</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Benefits of Global Citizenship Education (BGCE)</td>
<td>0.870</td>
<td>Nonadditivity</td>
<td>0.076</td>
<td>0.076</td>
<td>0.176</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.675</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bias Against Global Citizenship Education (BAGCE)</td>
<td>0.756</td>
<td>Nonadditivity</td>
<td>0.309</td>
<td>0.309</td>
<td>0.328</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.567</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Courses</td>
<td>Building a Global Community and Citizens (BGCC)</td>
<td>0.946</td>
<td>Nonadditivity</td>
<td>0.061</td>
<td>0.061</td>
<td>0.156</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.693</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Raising Awareness For Citizenship And Democracy (RACD)</td>
<td>0.919</td>
<td>Nonadditivity</td>
<td>0.277</td>
<td>0.277</td>
<td>0.652</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Respecting Different Cultures (RDC)</td>
<td>0.915</td>
<td>Nonadditivity</td>
<td>0.818</td>
<td>0.818</td>
<td>1.826</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructors</td>
<td>Instructors' Sensitivity to Global Citizenship (ISGC)</td>
<td>0.944</td>
<td>Nonadditivity</td>
<td>1.072</td>
<td>1.072</td>
<td>2.351</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.125</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to the results of exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses on GCEDS, the scale has been finalized. Accordingly:

- In the attitudes section, Items 1, 6, 10, 12, 14 and 15 compose “Cultural Respect” dimension. Items 2, 4, 5 and 11 compose “Benefits of Global Citizenship Education” dimension. The highest possible score from this dimension is 20. The highest possible score from this dimension is 30. Items 3, 7, 8, 9 and 13 compose “Bias Against Global Citizenship Education (BAGCE)” dimension.

- In the courses section, Items 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15 and 17 compose “Building A Global Community and Citizens (BGCC)” dimension. The highest possible score from this dimension is 40. Items 1, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12 and 14 compose “Raising Awareness for Citizenship and Democracy (RACD)” dimension. The highest possible score from this dimension is 35. Items 2, 16, 18, 19, 20, 21 and 22 compose “Respecting Different Cultures (RDC)” dimension.

- In the instructors section, Items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 compose “Instructors’ Sensitivity to Global Citizenship (ISGC)” dimension.

Further research with GCEDS would be of great help in determining the technical features of the scales better. Thus, investigation and experimentation into GCEDS with different participants are highly recommended to obtain diversified evidence for the validity and reliability of the scale. The findings of this study can help inform colleges and schools of education dedicated to providing the supports necessary to help their instructors teach global citizenship education and diversity and related social sciences courses effectively. A few studies also supported the findings of this paper, for example, The Government of Catalonia, Cyprus, Estonia, and Portugal introduced the National Accord about Immigration that aims “to promote coexistence in a plural society that shows its cultural diversity” and to adapt public services towards plurality (Issa et al., 2015). The findings also can inform professional associations and other entities with access to global citizenship teacher educators to hone their offerings in ways that respond more effectively to the perceived needs of their citizens. In addition, Tasneem (2005, p. 192) examined National Curriculum for England and found out that teachers need to provide meaningful opportunities for students to actively participate in school and community based activities and projects related to global citizenship and student’s experiences of citizenship within the school and local community influence their commitment to values of “social justice and equity” and “respect for diversity” as global citizens. The development sector produced texts that provide opportunities for teachers and students to investigate links between local and global citizenship issues, develop skills of participation and reflection and examine their own values and attitudes. They serve, finally, as a reminder that there is little hope of sufficiently meeting the global citizenship education needs of future teachers without simultaneously ensuring that the learning needs of the people teaching those teachers are sufficiently addressed.

References


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Further reading


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Access to gifted education among African-American and Latino males

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James L. Moore III
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Abstract

Purpose – Across the nation, African-American and Latino males have experienced limited access to placement in gifted education programs. This paper aims to pinpoint and describe the factors that frequently influence access to gifted education programming among African-American and Latino males.

Design/methodology/approach – African-American and Latino males are persistently underrepresented in gifted education for reasons such as teachers’ narrow conceptions of giftedness, teachers’ bias in the nomination process and teachers’ inappropriate usage and interpretation of intelligence measures. When these students qualify for such services, they often experience feelings of isolation and loneliness due to scarce representation of other African-American and Latino male students. A review of extant literature was conducted to identify factors that influence access to gifted education programming among African-American and Latino males.

Findings – African-American and Latino males encounter roadblocks in being identified for gifted placement and many also experience implicit biases and stereotypical beliefs about their ability. The need for culturally competent professionals is critical to meet the academic and social-emotional needs of gifted African-American and Latino males.

Practical implications – Recommendations for school psychologists and school counselors are offered to support the needs of gifted African-American and Latino males, assist in increasing their identification and participation in gifted education, and promote academic success.

Originality/value – There is an urgent need for research on access and placement in gifted programming among African-American and Latino males. Moreover, the role of school psychologists and school counselors should be considered in facilitation of gifted identification and placement.

Keywords Gifted education, African-American males, Gifted identification and access, Latino males, School counselors, School psychologists

Paper type Conceptual paper

Across the nation, African-American and Latino males have experienced limited access to placement in gifted education programs (Ford, 2011; Moore and Flowers, 2012; US Department of Education Office for Civil Rights, 2014). Their reduced access often stems from narrow definitions of giftedness, teacher bias in the nomination process and the misuse and misrepresentation of intelligence measures (Ford, 2010; Ford and Moore, 2013; Ford and Whiting, 2010; Harradine et al., 2013; McBee, 2006). Positive racial socialization by parents and high teacher expectations contribute to positive academic outcomes and the development of a scholastic identity among male students of color (Allen, 2015). Furthermore, participation in gifted and talented education increases the likelihood of attaining a bachelor’s degree (Rose, 2013).
Nonetheless, placement in gifted education may lead to feelings of isolation and loneliness due to scant representation of other African-American and Latino male students; therefore, considerations of their social-emotional needs are vital. School psychologists and school counselors can also play a major role in increasing access to gifted education by analyzing school-level data to determine racial/ethnic and gender representation in gifted programs, evaluating gifted identification criteria, and developing alternative criteria for gifted identification. They are also equipped to provide small group and/or individual counseling to help students develop appropriate coping skills, as well as critical support systems (Henfield, 2013; Robinson, 2002).

This paper pinpoints and describes the factors that frequently influence access to gifted education programming among African-American and Latino males. It also describes the factors that often facilitate access to gifted placement. In addition, recommendations for school counselors and school psychologists are offered to increase the identification and placement of African-American and Latino males in gifted programming.

Review of literature

Defining and identifying giftedness

Various definitions of "gifted and talented" exist, and consequently, may create confusion about who is gifted and how to identify students as gifted. The federal definition, according to the No Child Left Behind Act (2002), stated:

The term “gifted and talented,” when used with respect to students, children, or youth, means students, children, or youth who give evidence of high achievement capability in such areas as intellectual, creative, artistic, or leadership capacity, or in specific academic fields, and who need services or activities not ordinarily provided by the school in order to fully develop those capabilities.

The definition, according to the National Association of Gifted Children (NAGC) (2018), indicates:

Gifted individuals are those who demonstrate outstanding levels of aptitude (defined as an exceptional ability to reason and learn) or competence (documented performance or achievement in top 10 per cent or rarer) in one or more domains. Domains include any structured area of activity with its own symbol system (e.g., mathematics, music, language) and/or set of sensorimotor skills (e.g., painting, dance, sports).

Although these definitions are similar, a federal mandate for gifted education does not exist. As a result, each state has developed its own definition of giftedness and established minimum standards for gifted education programming (Ford, 1998). A lack of consensus in defining giftedness still exists among state policymakers and the majority of states use intelligence and achievement tests to identify students (McClain and Pfeiffer, 2012). To this end, McClain and Pfeiffer (2012) found that approximately half of all states mandate gifted education policies for identifying students from underrepresented groups; however, the tests and procedures used were unclear.

When examining racial/ethnic and gender disparities in gifted education, it is imperative that educators take into account how states, districts and schools define giftedness. Identification criteria, such as the use of intellectual ability and achievement tests, may limit students from racially, culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds from being classified, due to inherent cultural loading and linguistic demand (Ford, 1998; Ford and Whiting, 2007; Ortiz and Ochoa, 2005). Nonetheless, most school districts widely use standardized tests to consider students for gifted and talented programs (Ford et al., 2009; Romanoff et al., 2009). Using intelligence tests as the criterion for giftedness ignores all other
domains in the definitions of gifted and talented (e.g., creative, artistic and leadership ability), thereby restricting who can access gifted education. Teacher nomination is also a commonly used practice to identify gifted students (Moore and Flowers, 2012; Moore et al., 2005); however, this method is subjective, and deficit views or implicit bias may prevent African-American and Latino boys from being referred for a gifted evaluation (McBee, 2006; Speirs Neumeister et al., 2007). Speirs Neumeister et al. (2007) found that even after teachers received professional development training on identifying gifted students, their definitions of giftedness remained narrow.

Hargrove and Seay (2011) found that White teachers believed that the African-American community does not value intellectual giftedness. It is highly likely that this belief system is a barrier to participation in gifted education among African-American males. The authors also found that, compared to teachers of color, White teachers did not believe teachers’ inability to recognize indicators of potential giftedness, acknowledge standardized test bias, recognize prejudicial teachers’ attitudes, understand the negative impacts of narrow screening processes and recognize teachers’ fears about “watering down” the gifted curriculum by including underrepresented children, served as barriers to participation in gifted programs among males of color. These findings demonstrate the lack of acknowledgment of the impact of teachers’ bias and test unfairness, and deficit views often held by teachers. The absence of appropriate teacher training in cultural responsiveness and in identifying the characteristics of gifted students contributes to deficit thinking and the under-referral of African-American and Latino boys (Ford and Moore, 2004; Ford and Whiting, 2007).

Opportunity gap among African-American and Latina/o students
African-American and Latina/o students face significant challenges throughout the US public education system. Recent data, from the US Department of Education Office for Civil Rights (US DOE OCR) (2016), highlight the opportunity gaps between males of color and their White counterparts. School influences students’ educational and career trajectories and inequitable opportunities track African-American and Latina/o students, particularly males, into stratified roles (Allen, 2015). Through the use of suspensions beginning at the preschool level, African-American and Latino males encounter messages that reinforce the notion of school being an unwelcoming place, which may subsequently adversely affect their academic performance (Allen, 2015). Although African-American boys represented 19 per cent of male preschool enrollment in the 2013-2014 school year, they still comprised 45 per cent of male preschool children receiving one or more out of school suspensions (US DOE OCR, 2016). This discrepancy was also present at the K-12 level, as African-American boys comprised 18 per cent of one or more out of school suspensions, compared to 6 per cent of all K-12 students (US DOE OCR, 2016).

For Latina/o students at the preschool level, in the 2010-2011 school year, they comprised 29 per cent of school enrollment and 20 per cent of students suspended out of school more than once. When compared to White preschool enrollment of 43 per cent, only 26 per cent of students were suspended out of school more than once. Suspension as a disciplinary method is ineffective and particularly, at the preschool level, is problematic for all students, as it is associated with adverse developmental, health and educational outcomes (US Department of Health and Human Services, 2018). Latino males were also suspended at greater rates than White students were; 7 per cent versus 5 per cent (US DOE OCR, 2016). Thus, this process of exclusion starts early in these students’ academic career and is associated with negative outcomes, such as dropping out, retention, involvement in the juvenile justice system, underemployment and incarceration (American Civil Liberties Union, 2008).
Moreover, in the area of college and career readiness, similar data indicated that African-American and Latina/o students received less access to high-level mathematics and science courses. For instance, 33 per cent of high schools with enrollment of over 75 per cent African-American and Latina/o students offer calculus classes compared to 56 per cent of high schools with enrollment of less than 25 per cent Black and Latino students (US DOE OCR, 2016). Access to gifted and talented programs and Advanced Placement (AP) courses has also been shown to be limited. African-American and Latina/o students make up 42 per cent of student enrollment in schools that offered gifted programming, but only 28 per cent are enrolled. Similarly, representation of African-American and Latina/o students in schools that offer AP courses was 38 per cent per cent, yet 29 per cent of these students enrolled in at least one AP course (US DOE OCR, 2016). Access and enrollment in programs, such as gifted and talented education and AP courses, show positive correlations with college readiness and success (Rose, 2013). Mattern *et al.* (2009) found that higher AP performance was related to higher first-year college grade point average, higher retention rates in the second year of college, and attendance at highly selective institutions. More importantly, these findings echo the importance of providing equitable access to all students, so they have the opportunity to become college and career ready.

Furthermore, the quality of teachers varies significantly, as it relates to student demographics. The OCR data (2016) suggest that 11 per cent of Black students and 9 per cent of Latina/o students attended schools where more than 20 per cent of teachers were in their first year of teaching compared to 5 per cent of white students. Reduced access to a school counselor was also found; Latina/o and African-American students were, respectively, 1.4 times and 1.2 times as likely to attend a school with a school resource officer but not with a school counselor, compared to White students. These disparities create negative consequences for Latina/o and African-American students. Therefore, the role of teachers and school counselors cannot be underestimated in preparing African-American and Latina/o students for college.

*Gifted African-American males*

It is well documented that African-American males tend to encounter educational experiences that may lead to dismal outcomes. The national graduation rate for African-American males, in the 2012-2013 school year, is strikingly low at 59 per cent compared to 80 per cent of White males (Schott Foundation for Public Education, 2015). These graduation trends provide evidence of the impact of the obstacles these students face. Giftedness is an area where African-American males have been historically underrepresented and the implications of being left out of gifted education and, in turn, missing out on opportunities to reach their full academic potential (Ford and King, 2014). Nonetheless, many African-American gifted males experience success and demonstrate resilience in the face of hindrances.

*Winsler et al.* (2013) found that African-American boys who started kindergarten with greater cognitive, language, fine motor and behavioral readiness skills were more likely to be identified for gifted programming. Thus, attending public school prekindergarten programs increased the chances of being identified as gifted compared to attendance at community-based preschool programs. These findings have implications for preschool enrollment and the type and quality of preschool program in which African-American boys enroll. It is important that these students enroll in preschool; furthermore, a rigorous preschool curriculum should be used to provide African-American boys with essential school readiness skills. School context may also influence long-term outcomes, such as college enrollment and degree attainment. Attending an urban school decreases the
likelihood of attaining a bachelor’s degree, whereas attendance at a private school has the most influence on bachelor’s degree attainment among gifted African-American males (Rose, 2013). This educational outcome is not surprising, when considering the state of urban public schools. Such school systems tend to have less qualified teachers and low access to high-level math and science courses, gifted programs and AP courses (Moore and Lewis, 2012, 2014; US DOE OCR, 2016).

Students who enter gifted programs early in their academic career may remain in these programs and reap increased benefits as they advance each grade. Grantham (2004) found that an African-American male who entered gifted classes in first grade benefited from positive relationships with his peers and teachers. The accelerated curriculum also exposed him to unique educational experiences that his non-gifted peers did not have, including field trips to learn more about certain subjects and taking advanced courses, such as completing eighth-grade mathematics as a seventh grader.

An earlier study by Graham and Anderson (2008) found that the gifted African-American males were high-achieving students that possessed the ability to do well in the future. Their parents emphasized the relevance of school as it related to racial identity development by discussing common barriers African-American males face in society and how education may provide increased opportunities for success. In addition, the African-American male participants’ teachers believed in their capability and developed strong connections with them. Similarly, African-American males, in Allen’s (2015) study, viewed school as a means for moving toward upward mobility and success. The parents of the participants engaged in racial socialization practices, which provided positive messages of racial pride and an understanding of potential barriers in society associated with race and racism. The parents frequently discussed how people look down on others because of the color of their skin and encouraged them to use such beliefs as a motivator to work harder. The Black male participants also appreciated teachers that held high expectations for them, provided rigorous academic instruction and felt it would prepare them for the demands of college.

The experience of gifted Black males is not always positive as McGee (2013) encountered in her study. The males reported being subjected to stereotypical views from their peers and teachers and responded by ignoring them and working to prove others wrong. However, these experiences came with psychological and emotional costs as the African-American males experienced self-doubt about their ability and anxiety from constantly working to prove stereotypes wrong. These same students also experienced limited access to advanced coursework because their school only offered one AP class. Despite these negative experiences, the students persevered in school and maintained academic success.

Gifted Latino males

The national graduation rate for Latino males, in the 2012-2013 school year, was 65 per cent compared to 80 per cent of White males (Schott Foundation for Public Education, 2015). In the scientific literature, minimal research has examined the experiences of gifted Latino males; to date, two empirical studies have specifically explored this population (Carrillo, 2013; Hébert, 1996). Thus, in this section, we focus on extant research on high-achieving Latino males in particular and Latino males in general. Similar to African-American males, Latino males are highly represented in urban public schools comprised with unqualified teachers and limited access to advanced academics (Clark et al., 2013; US DOE OCR, 2016).

In Hébert’s (1996) study of gifted Latino males, he identified numerous factors that contributed to the resilience of these young men. More specifically, the Latino males
discussed the support they received from their family and how it motivated them to be successful. They also shared how they watched their parents struggle and make sacrifices so that they could have access to educational opportunities. School personnel, including athletic coaches and school counselors, were also seen as supportive and role models. The Latino males also aspired to graduate college and have a professional career, which motivated them to continue to work hard.

In a retrospective qualitative study by Carrillo (2013), the Latino males reflected on their educational experiences. One participant, David, indicated that he was an honors student but did not meet the requirements to get into a state university and ended up attending a community college. In addition, Carlos, another participant, was nurtured at a gifted elementary school but felt marginalized as he transitioned to secondary school because his intelligence was not recognized and affirmed. He recalled the implicit bias he experienced by his teachers, resulting in him spending endless hours in the library to develop his intelligence. Furthermore, these Latino males challenged how their schools celebrated giftedness, which conflicted with how others perceived them as inadequate. To this end, they demonstrated resilience in attaining academic success while staying true to their social and cultural identities as Latino males.

Generally speaking, high-achieving Latino males attribute their academic success to multiple factors, including involvement with church and other extracurricular activities, a strong ethnic identity and support from family (Garrett et al., 2010). Garrett et al. (2010) found that church and extracurricular participation served as protective factors for these males as they gained social capital through the networks they built with others, and these activities occupied their time, preventing them from indulging in non-productive, problematic endeavors. In addition, the Latino males expressed pride and held a strong ethnic identity, which they used to dispel stereotypes about them and other people of color. Comparable to the experiences of African-American males discussed earlier, the Latino males witnessed the sacrifices and struggles of their families, which inspired them to work hard and achieve more. Unfortunately, they did not experience the level of support they desired from their teachers. They wanted caring and meaningful relationships from their teachers; however, they did not feel that their teachers demonstrated interest in being mentors or role models.

The role of school counselors and school psychologists
School psychologists and school counselors have the potential to play a significant role in students’ academic journeys, including African-American and Latino males. Advocacy is needed to increase the representation of African-American and Latino males in gifted education. School counselors and school psychologists should work with their administrators to examine school policies for identifying giftedness and participation in advanced academics. The examination of existing data that indicate the number of gifted students being served by race/ethnicity and gender can help to identify disproportionate representation (King et al., 2009). This process can serve as a starting point in understanding why certain groups are under- and over-represented in gifted programs and working toward closing such gaps. Both school professionals can work toward developing alternative criteria for gifted identification that is more inclusive of the skills and talents of diverse populations.

The use of multiple and alternative procedures is encouraged compared to the reliance on intelligence tests that have been deemed invalid for use with diverse populations (McClain and Pfeiffer, 2012). The identification of gifted students is an area where school psychologists can take on a viable school leadership role (Robertson et al., 2011). Due to their
extensive training with intelligence and achievement assessments, they can determine which tests are most appropriate in identifying African-American and Latino males for gifted programs. Additional considerations are needed for Latino males who are also English Language Learners, as measures with high verbal demands and cultural loading may deflate the ability of these students (Ortiz and Ochoa, 2005). Thus, factors such as language proficiency in native language and English and length of time in home country and the USA need to be examined when assessing students for gifted and talented programs (Moore and Flowers, 2012; Vega and Moore, 2016).

To increase awareness of the limited access to gifted programs for African-American and Latino boys, both school counselors and school psychologists may consider providing professional development training to their school staff (Henfield et al., 2014). These trainings may offer a space to understand the needs of these groups, explore inaccurate stereotypes and help teachers better identify, and work with gifted African-American and Latino males. For example, school psychologists can use their consultation knowledge to work with teachers to identify and accommodate gifted students (Robertson et al., 2011). As mentioned earlier, African-American and Latino males often go unnoticed and under-referred for gifted assessment (Moore and Flowers, 2012); therefore, school psychologists can help teachers better understand the broad range of giftedness that exists (Robertson et al., 2011; Robinson, 2002). School psychologists may also serve as liaisons between the gifted teacher and classroom teacher and assist them in addressing students’ academic and/or social-emotional needs in the classroom (Robinson, 2002).

Similar to teachers, mental health professionals should be culturally competent and be aware of the unique challenges these males encounter and understand how to connect and build relationships with them (Henfield et al., 2014). School psychologists and school counselors are well equipped to address the social-emotional needs of African-American and Latino gifted males through the provision of small group and/or individual counseling to help these students develop effective coping skills, support systems and long-term educational goals (Henfield, 2013; Robinson, 2002). The support of school psychologists and school counselors may be imperative, as African-American and Latino males in gifted programs may experience isolation, low expectations from their teachers and peers, anxiety and pressure to succeed, which can take a toll on their emotional well-being (Belleza, 2012; Carrillo, 2013; Ford and Grantham, 2003; Ford and Moore, 2013; McGee, 2013). School counselors also play an important role in college and career readiness so they can identify supplemental out-of-school programs (e.g. summer college preparatory programs and bridge programs) to help gifted African-American and Latino males access supports that will expose them to advanced curricula (Henfield et al., 2014).

The development of family–school partnerships is needed to educate parents about gifted programs and to enable them to advocate for their child’s placement in these programs (Brulles et al., 2010). School counselors and school psychologists can both engage in building and maintaining partnerships with families by serving as liaisons to support communication across the home–school environments (Moore and Flowers, 2012; Moore et al., 2005).

Discussion and implications
Based on this review of the literature, it is evident that African-American and Latino male students encounter barriers unrelated to their ability or potential that prevent them from participating in gifted programming (Allen, 2015; Moore and Flowers, 2012). Rather, other factors such as how giftedness is narrowly interpreted, teacher bias, and the procedures and instruments used for gifted identification contribute to under representation in gifted
education (Ford, 2010; Ford and Moore, 2013; Ford and Whiting, 2010; Harradine et al., 2013; McBee, 2006). Research also finds positive educational outcomes when African-American and Latina/o students are afforded the opportunity to participate in gifted education and advanced curricula (Card and Giuliano, 2014; Mattern et al., 2009; Rose, 2013; Winsler et al., 2013). However, these students often have negative school experiences replete with disproportionate suspension rates beginning in preschool (US DOE OCR, 2016). Exclusion from gifted education and education in general through disciplinary methods such as repeated suspension has consequences for the college and career readiness skills of African-American and Latino male students. Low graduation rates also underscore the detrimental consequence of exclusion from an equitable educational experience.

School personnel must examine their definitions of giftedness, perceptions of what giftedness “looks like” and the identification procedures used to assess for giftedness. Particularly, as it relates to interpretations of giftedness, schools must go beyond narrow conceptions that only include intellectual and academic giftedness. The definitions of giftedness provided by NCLB (2002) and NAGC (2018) are broader than these two areas (e.g., creativity, leadership and artistic skills), so schools must do the same. In addition, African-American and Latino boys do demonstrate intellectual and academic giftedness; however, teacher bias (Hargrove and Seay, 2011) is pervasive and the instruments/tests used (e.g., IQ tests and state achievement tests) may not be most appropriate in demonstrating these characteristics. School administrators must make culturally responsive instruction a priority and hold their teachers and school staff accountable and to the highest standard in providing their students with equitable educational opportunities.

Furthermore, recurring professional development in identifying gifted African-American and Latino boys is critical to the development and advancement of the cultural competence and responsiveness of educators. Wright et al. (2017) recommended professional development cover topics such as deficit views, the role of culture in testing and teacher–student relationships, and included hands-on experiences (e.g., community event participation and visits with families) to fully grasp the exceptionality of students of color. Many schools have implemented universal screening methods to identify students with low academic performance. Therefore, a final recommendation is that these data be used to determine which students show above-average academic performance, thereby aimed at reducing teacher bias and under-referral for gifted placement (Grissom and Redding, 2016). Research has found the use of universal screenings is associated with increases in gifted identification rates of non-White students (Card and Giuliano, 2015).

Limitations and future research directions
There is an urgent need for research on gifted African-American and Latino males. Although they are underrepresented in gifted education and other advanced academic programs, the experiences of those students who are placed and succeed in gifted programming should be examined. This can contribute significantly to the literature and assist in increasing the identification of these students. Moreover, the definition of “gifted and talent” varies tremendously from the federal to state to local level; in addition, it is often unclear how it is identified in the extant scientific and theoretical literature. Consistency in defining giftedness in the literature is needed to gain a clear understanding of the needs and challenges faced by this population. There is especially a dearth of scientific literature concerning gifted Latino males. In addition to research examining this group in general, there is also a need to evaluate similarities and differences based on countries of origin (e.g., Mexico, Puerto Rico and Guatemala), due to the heterogeneity of this population.
Robertson et al. (2011) found that school psychologists lacked pre-service preparation in gifted assessment and identification, as well as in-service professional development training. Half of the school psychologists in their sample received training in testing gifted students, and 37 per cent had received no training in gifted assessment, characteristics, social-emotional needs, and/or theories. Moreover, 94 per cent reportedly received either little or no training in screening or identification of gifted students. In addition, over 66 per cent of the sample never or rarely conducted gifted assessments even though the most important factor in determining giftedness was intelligence test score according to over 80 per cent of the sample. It is evident that there is a significant need for graduate training programs to prepare school psychologists in this area, as they are often the experts in assessment as a result of their extensive graduate training. Their broad range of skills (e.g., consultation, counseling, and advocacy) is also helpful in addressing the needs of gifted populations; therefore, school psychology training programs should emphasize working with these students. School counseling programs should also include more training in the curriculum for pre-service school counselors. School counselors have a unique responsibility to provide counseling services to all students, regardless of their academic ability. They also have specialized training in counseling, collaboration, coordination, and consultation that can help ensure that the African-American and Latino males are identified, placed, and supported in gifted education and other advanced academic programs.

Conclusion
The underrepresentation of African-American and Latino males in gifted programs should be as much of a concern as the overrepresentation of specific groups in special education. The development of the academic potential of these groups is crucial to their ability to be contributing members to the advancement of society. Therefore, as students of color become the majority population in schools, an investment in these students is necessary. African-American and Latino males encounter roadblocks in being identified for gifted placement and many also experience implicit biases and stereotypical beliefs about their ability. The need for culturally competent professionals is critical to meet the academic and social-emotional needs of gifted African-American and Latino males.

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Parental expectations of and satisfaction with the services of preschool centres
A case study in Songkhla Province, Thailand

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Abstract

Purpose – This paper aims to study parental expectations of and satisfaction with overall services of preschool centres and to determine the factors which affect parents’ satisfaction in a part of one of Thailand’s southern provinces.

Design/methodology/approach – Data were collected using a structured questionnaire from parents of children attending 29 day-care or preschool centres in Songkhla Province, South Thailand, over a two-month period in the Spring 2014. The data were analysed mainly using descriptive statistics and some correlation analyses with subsequent logical interpretation.

Findings – Given the location and non-compulsory nature of the childcare provision being assessed, it would seem fair to say that the answer to the overarching objective was fairly positive. Expectations were non-trivial; parents looked for more than “baby-minding” and expected there to be some appropriately qualified staff. The perceived satisfaction levels indicate that there is nevertheless scope for improvement.

Research limitations/implications – The sample studied is from a limited geographical region of Thailand; hence, there must be some caution in making recommendations for the whole country.

Practical implications – As the outcomes being delivered are seen to be mainly positive by parents and guardians, the policy implication for the Thai Government is that they should continue to promote, and ideally enhance, this kind of early years provision. Results suggest that Thai parents would be well advised to make use of childcare centres to promote the socialisation and development of their children.

Originality/value – The originality of the work derives from the lack of similar systematic studies in Thailand and, in particular, for the rural southern provinces.

Keywords Expectations, Thailand, Childcare centre, Parents’ satisfaction, Preschool, Songkhla

Paper type Research paper

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Introduction

The significance of preschool education has been emphasised in Thailand since the National Education Act B.E. 2542 (1999) was launched on 20 August 1999 (ONEC, 1999). Besides the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Health and the Ministry of Social Development and Human Security have also provided several strategic plans and programmes about early childhood development. The local administrative organisation is responsible for providing preschool education according to the National Education Act B.E. 2542 (1999). All childcare centres established by organisations such as the Department of Community Development; the Ministry of Interior; Department of Religious Affairs, the Ministry of Culture; and the Office of Primary Education, the Ministry of Education were transferred to the local administrative organisation in 2002. In all, since that transfer, 19,157 childcare centres across the country have been under the jurisdiction of the local administrative organisation [Department of Local Administration Organization (DLAO), 2014].

Both direct and indirect budgets from both central and local government were continuously provided to support and develop childcare centres, especially educating and training all caregivers in each childcare centre to have a formal qualification. A National Curriculum for preschool education, together with a plan of learning activities preparation, was developed as a guideline for caregivers to educate children in childcare centres to achieve an ultimate goal of the whole development of a child in physical, mental, emotional, social and intellectual domains, promoting morality and ethics and encouraging children to do their daily activities on their own [Ministry of Education (MOE), 2013; DLAO, 2014].

Although preschool education is not compulsory in Thailand, some local administrative organisations set up a policy to encourage parents to enrol their preschool-age children as a key performance index. In 2013, the Office of Regional Educational Sector Twelve reported that 72.5 per cent of children between three and five years of age were enrolled in a childcare centre or a kindergarten in Songkhla Province, which is located in the lower southern part of Thailand. However, parents, as their child’s first teachers, still have a crucial role in their child’s development in childcare centres (ONEC, 2007). Research has clearly shown that strong parent–teacher relationships lead to increased parental involvement, which has been shown to have a significant and lasting impact on children’s academic achievement (Knopf and Swick, 2007, p. 291). However, more specific guidance on developing positive relationships and ideas for involving parents in the childcare centres, especially in respect of parents’ expectations and satisfaction for asking their cooperation in childcare and child development, is needed for early childhood educators.

The overall objective of the research project reported here was to study parental expectations of and satisfaction with overall services of preschool centres and to determine factors which affect parents’ satisfaction with the preschool education provided in a part of one of Thailand’s southern provinces.

The population for the empirical work reported here were families with at least one child in preschool education (see the Methodology section for more details). Thus, the objective noted was pursued amongst those who were actually engaged with the preschool education system. A major complementary issue, which we do not attempt to address in our primary work, is that of the degree of inclusion or exclusion of families and their children in preschool and later school education. We briefly review some of the associated issues at the end of the Literature Review section and pick up the theme again in the final section on the implications of our work.
Brief literature review
As stated in the Introduction, prior research from beyond Thailand asserts the importance of strong parent–teacher relationships if the kind of early years education now being promoted by the Thailand’s Ministry of Education is to bear fruit [e.g. Knopf and Swick (2007)]. An early study that focussed on the Thai parental attitudes was conducted by Dunn and Dasananda (1995). They noted that by 1995, at least one-third of the Thai children of three-six years of age were attending kindergarten programmes. The parent subjects in their study were reported to place a high value on the teaching of academic skills and rather less value on care giving. Since then, there have been several studies, master’s theses mostly, about parents’ satisfaction with childcare services in the area of each local administration organisation in Thailand (Tongsow and Runegsuwan, 2013; Marasi and Sewdon, 2013), but there remains much to be explored. Some of these Thai studies showed that factors affecting their levels of satisfaction were related to their own education. Information about parents’ satisfaction, along with knowledge of the dimensions with which parents are most and least satisfied and their expectations, could be used to show whether the childcare service in a centre is effective and could serve as a basis for future development of centres to serve all families in the service area of each local administration organisation. Israsena (2007) concluded within her doctoral thesis that while Thai teachers are favourably inclined to the notion of student-centred learning with early years children, they exhibit “relatively low levels of developmentally appropriate practices”. In other words, the spirit is willing, but they need help to develop professionally.

Whilst knowledge of prior work in the Thai context is clearly valuable, evidence from other places should not be overlooked as simple logic suggests that the issues involved are likely to be common across national boundaries: children, their parents and teachers have at least some aims in common [e.g. Liu et al. (2001); Kellingham et al. (2006); Frey et al. (2013)]. Liu et al. focussed on parental expectations of childcare facilities in Australia, while Kellingham et al. looked at the potential link between parental satisfaction and then loyalty to providers in the early years, educational arena. Omar et al. (2009) undertook a study in Malaysia which found that service quality, as perceived by parents, of childcare centres was positively related to parental satisfaction and trust. This may be thought to be especially relevant as Thailand and Malaysia are neighbouring ASEAN countries.

Frey et al. (2013) examined the feasibility of and satisfaction with an early childhood intervention programme in the USA (namely, the preschool version of the “First Step to Success”), investigating its treatment integrity, social validity and outcome satisfaction (The focus of the programme is on proactive interventions with children who have had poor parenting, up to and including abuse, prior to their exposure to formal preschool). The researchers found that parents’ perceptions of and satisfaction with the programme’s goals, procedures and outcomes were extremely favourable of the first step to success of interventions aimed at improving children’s social skills and decreasing problem behaviour. In a different context, Norwegian day-care legislation places the responsibility for developing positive and close relationships with parents on the care giver [Drugli and Undheim (2012)]. They investigated the perspectives of parents and care givers regarding their partnerships when young children are in Norwegian day-care facilities. They found that most parents and care givers expressed some measure of satisfaction with their daily communication but felt that the quality of communication could be improved, particularly at the end of the day. Overall, these two pieces of research emphasise the idea that early stage interventions with children as they enter a structured care and learning environment can be very positive.
Dalli et al. (2011) conducted a literature review for the New Zealand Government, focussing on quality of very early years education. Their conclusions included, *inter alia*, that: clear programme protocols are beneficial; low adult–child ratios, well-qualified staff and a well-articulated curriculum are of benefit; and, direct benefits to children include social development and positive social behaviour. At the very least, this suggests that the Thai Government’s decision to make efforts in the area of early years (preschool) is well judged. Another study supporting this view is that of Powell et al. (2010). They examined public sector school pre-kindergartens in the mid-west area of the USA. Key aspects of their findings were that parental involvement with the schools and perceived teacher responsiveness were severally, positively linked with children’s social skills, maths skills (parental) and early reading (teacher responsiveness), while both aspects of adult activity were negatively related to problem behaviour amongst children. The finding about behaviour seems especially important as it indicates that preschool centre attendance can help avoid the bad behaviour of spoilt, and perhaps also ignored, young children.

An Asian study supporting this line of reasoning (particularly relevant because of its social setting) is that of Aboud (2006); looking at data from rural Bangladesh, she reports as follows (p. 46):

> Four hundred children between 4.5 and 6.5 years were assessed, half in preschools and half in villages where there were no preschools. After controlling [for] the differences in children’s age, nutritional status, mother’s education, and assets: preschool children performed better than the comparison children on measures of vocabulary, verbal reasoning, nonverbal reasoning, and school readiness. On some indicators of social development during play, preschool children performed better, though not on the cognitive aspects of play. They were less likely to be stunted but did not differ on most other health variables.

Again, while asserting the benefits of early years interventions in some form, the study by Kabitchibasi et al. (2001) in Turkey looks at the differing effects of such interventions being home-based (i.e. the input is mainly from parents) or based at preschool day-care centres. They found that both types of intervention could be effective in the short term but the home-based approach had more enduring effects. Our thought here would be that primacy of parental input and control obviously pre-supposes that the children’s parents themselves have the social and educational skills necessary to create an environment which delivers benefits. Such an assumption may be somewhat “heroic” when one looks at parents who actually are poorly educated rural peasants, of whom there are many in Thailand. This argues for day-care centres and kindergartens if all children are to have a decent chance.

While there appears to be a broad consensus as to the value of preschool education, and there have been efforts to identify positive situational factors, there may be problems too. This is illustrated by a study in Hong Kong of Ho (2008). She highlights the potential tensions inherent in preschool provision where parents already worry about their children’s future school attainment before they even arrive at a “proper” school. These tensions are basically between the parents’ desire for academic preparation for primary school and the professionals’ belief in the value to children of learning through play. This is perhaps likely to be less of an issue in rural Thailand but illustrates the principle that the actors in the play may not always begin by pulling in the same direction, albeit all of them have the children’s interests at heart in a broad sense.

We pause here to consider the issue of inclusion/exclusion, as it relates to the education of young children in Southeast Asia, of which Thailand is part. There are a variety of reasons why children may not participate in preschool education: these include social convention (ideas such as “parents know best”); ability to pay, given that such education is often not funded by the state; and unwillingness of providers to deal with handicapped children.
Kim and Umayahara (2010) state that, although pre-primary enrolment has increased substantially in the first decade of the twenty-first century in the Asia Pacific region, huge disparities continue to exist among and within countries. Countries in the region are far from providing equal opportunities for all children from birth. One of the problems that governments face is the competing demand for funding from other important areas such as pollution, disease and infrastructure development [Bray (1998)]. This is why, in some countries such as Cambodia, non-governmental funding is the norm for preschool education [Rao and Pearson (2009)].

Children with special needs are a particular case for concern. Such children have educational needs similar to other children, but these are not always readily provided for. In the context of Brunei, Mundia (2009) noted with concern that there was a lack of contact and coordination between special education in schools and school counselling professionals. Even worse, there are no special education teachers or school counsellors at preschool level in Brunei.

Finally, in regard to the issue of inclusion, Pereira (2016) makes an important point; he argues that while at one level, issues faced by Southeast Asian countries (with his exemplars being Malaysia, Indonesia and Vietnam) are common, solutions have to be tailored to the individual country in line with their differing contextual challenges: the place of religion within education in Indonesia; the tensions between the Malays and other ethnic groups in Malaysia; and issues around minority ethnic groups in Vietnam. He also notes that in Vietnam, three quarters of children attend preschool in urban areas but only about half of them do that in rural areas. Against that baseline, Thailand's Songkhla Province is doing quite well, but the development of services for the excluded should remain a matter for future attention.

Methodology
This study sought to fulfil a perceived need to determine participating parents' views of the activities of preschool childcare centres which their children attend. It forms part of an existing research and development project, “Preschool Centres Development in Songkhla: A Case Study of Local Curriculum and Integrated Lesson Plans for Early Childhood Development in the Pilot Preschool Centres” (Sornprasith et al., 2015). Instead of undertaking this research and development project separately, it was integrated into a wider work of the Arts and Cultural Centre (ACC), Prince of Songkhla University, based on the value and process of the Thai living culture as the main driving force to develop human potential, which is the main social capital for the sustainability of cultural evolution and inheritance. The second author, a project leader and director of ACC until 2014, has been working with these preschool teachers in the studied area since 2000. Results of this study were also used to enhance the service quality of each childcare centre for developing human potential in early childhood, which will help deliver equity and efficiency (Heckman, 2011).

As noted already, the overarching objective was to study parental expectations of and satisfaction with overall services of preschool centres and to determine factors which affect parents’ satisfaction with the preschool education provided in a part of one of Thailand's southern provinces. To address this overall objective, we analysed five separate questions which consider parts of the overall picture. Those questions were as follows:

Q1. What are the expectations of parents regarding teachers’ duties in childcare centres?
Q2. What is the overall level of parental satisfaction with childcare services and the qualifications of staff, including the building and environment of the centre?

Q3. With which dimension(s) of Q2 are parents most and least satisfied?

Q4. What is the level of parental satisfaction with their children’s development?

Q5. How are parents’ expectations and satisfaction related for each dimension?

We now consider the nature of the data collection process and the type of analysis deployed to examine that data.

The data collection instrument
In this study, a questionnaire was designed to ask parents about their expectations of teachers’ duties and their levels of satisfaction about teachers’ knowledge and ability, services, activities and quality of the childcare centre. Satisfaction regarding each aspect was scored on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from least satisfactory, 1, to highly satisfactory, 5 (Likert, 1967).

Although violent incidents have caused concern among people in the three southern border provinces of Thailand and in some districts in Songkhla, which were not part of study area, some sensitive questions such as socio-economic characteristics of respondents were excluded to avoid issues of perceived discrimination during the collection period. However, some information about respondents which concerns a childcare centre was addressed in the questionnaire.

Because this study was a part of the long-term development of a wider project, as noted in the Introduction, the questionnaire was developed mainly by the second author and discussed with the preschool teachers for confirmation of construct and content validity. There was a pilot test of the instrument for concurrent validity and reliability. As a result, some terms of the questionnaire were amended prior to data collection to ensure that parents could understand and give their opinions directly.

The population, data collection and sample
The population consisted of families in a rural area of Songkhla Province, who had at least one child enrolled in a childcare centre in the educational year from May 2013 to March 2014. The childcare centres were public and organised by local public administration in each Tambon or sub-district, which are the targets of study in the project. Their locations are shown in the map of the area in Figure 1.

Data were gathered from 27 February to 27 April 2014 by a self-administered questionnaire. Parents were asked to complete the questionnaires, which were distributed and collected by a teacher or teaching assistant in each childcare centre. Using a convenience sampling method, the details of the population and the sample are listed in Table I.

As these data were gathered by staff in each childcare centre, the response rate for each childcare centre was probably affected by the number of staff. The collection period started at the end of the second semester, which is another factor that affected the response rate. Therefore, some childcare centres which still had more activities at the end of semester had higher response rates than others.

Data analysis
Statistical methods that were used included basic descriptive statistics such as means and some fairly straightforward hypothesis testing as described below. Data were analysed using SPSS software. As this study was a part of the wider project for
evaluation of childcare services provided by centres, after using the “Local Curriculum and Integrated Lesson Plans for Early Childhood Development”, Pearson’s chi square and significance level (two-tailed test) at 0.01 were used to test the hypothesis of correlation between parents’ satisfaction levels and their expectation for teachers’ duty in childcare centre. Factors or independent variables in this study were parents’ expectations for teachers’ duties in childcare centres.

The hypotheses tests were set up along these lines:

Null Hypothesis – $H_0$: Factors or independent variables were not associated with parents' satisfaction levels (dependent variable).
Alternate hypothesis – $H1$ : Factors or independent variables were associated with parents’ satisfaction levels.

If the asymmetric significance (two-sided) or the observed significance level is less than 0.01, it leads us to reject $H0$ and accept $H1$.

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Findings from the analysis

Information about the respondents

Most respondents had one child enrolled at a childcare centre (81.6 per cent). Most children were either about two-three years old (37.7 per cent) or about three-four years old (38 per cent). Most people who answered the relevant question lived less than 1 km from a childcare centre (41.8 per cent); 17.2 per cent of the values were missing. Most respondents were parents of children (85 per cent). Therefore, most children lived with their parents (84.3 per cent) and were picked up by them (73.3 per cent) (Table II).

Respondents’ expectations of teachers’ duties in their childcare centre

Respondents could choose their expectations of teachers’ duties to include more than one function. The top three teachers’ duties were taking care of children, allowing them to have their own development and potential (Exp1 = 85 per cent); teaching children reading and writing skills and mathematics literacy (Exp2 = 71 per cent); and regularly developing teaching methods for children (Exp3 = 70 per cent). Picking up children from home to take them to a childcare centre was a teacher’s duty for which respondents had the lowest expectation. However, almost 50 per cent of respondents expected the teacher to fulfil the role of nannying (performing the functions of a nanny) for their children, including feeding and bathing them and looking after their security (Exp5 = 49 per cent) (Table III).

Average level of respondents’ satisfaction with a childcare service

Respondents could rate their levels of satisfaction ranging from least satisfactory, 1, to highly satisfactory, 5, for each dimension of satisfaction such as teachers’ knowledge and ability, services, activities and quality of childcare centre. The average levels of respondents’ satisfaction fell within quite a narrow range (3.40-4.08).

The dimensions of satisfaction with the highest average rating were as follows:

- knowledge and ability of teachers at a childcare centre (Satis2 = 4.08);
- knowledge and ability of the head of a childcare centre (Satis1 = 3.93);
- looking after children’s security (Satis10 = 3.91);
- teaching and study media and tools (Satis12 = 3.91); and
- children’s development (Satis13 = 3.91).

While the dimensions of satisfaction with the lowest average rating were as follows:

- knowledge and ability of teaching assistants at a childcare centre (Satis3 = 3.40);
- picking up children (Satis14 = 3.40); and
- environment outside childcare centre (Satis4 = 3.51).

However, the respondents’ average overall rating of childcare centres was (Satis19 = 3.79), which sets it at the 42nd percentile of the set (Table IV).
Levels of respondents’ satisfaction regarding their children’s development

Respondents could choose their satisfaction with their child’s development in more than one dimension. The top two child development factors were ability to live with others and self-care (80 per cent), while love for culture/Thai identity and reasoning were the factors with the lowest satisfaction ratings (25 per cent) (Table V).
Correlation of parents’ satisfaction levels and expectations of teachers’ duties in childcare centres

As respondents could express their expectations of teachers’ duties in relation to more than one function, data related to each function may be correlated. To analyse the correlation of respondents’ expectations of teachers’ duties in a childcare centre for each function, Pearson’s chi square and significance level (two-tailed test) at 0.01 were used before conducting further analysis. The results in Table VI show that most functions of a teacher’s duties are correlated, as reflected by their significance levels (two-tailed tests, at the 0.01 level), except taking care of children to have their own development and potential (Exp1) and nannying children by feeding, bathing and looking after their security (Exp5). The observed significance levels that were less than 0.01 led us to reject \( H_0 \) that states that most functions of a teacher’s duties that respondents expected were independent and to accept that most of them were dependent except Exp1 and Exp5. It meant that a group of respondents who had an expectation of the teacher’s duty of Exp1 was a different and

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<tr>
<th>Teachers’ duty</th>
<th>(%)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Taking care of children to have their own development and potential (Exp1)</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Teaching children reading and writing skills and mathematics literacy (Exp2)</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Regularly developing teaching methods for children (Exp3)</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Arranging children activities to stretch the very able kids (Exp4)</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Nannying children by feeding them, bathing them and looking after their security (Exp5)</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Communicating with parents (Exp6)</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Producing teaching and studying media and tools (Exp7)</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Supporting community activity (Exp8)</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Regularly setting up meetings with parents (Exp9)</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Picking up children from home to take to a childcare centre (Exp10)</td>
<td>15</td>
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Table III. Respondents’ expectations of teachers’ duty in their childcare centre ordered by rated importance

Satisfaction

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<tr>
<th>Satisfaction</th>
<th>Average</th>
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<tr>
<td>1. Knowledge and ability of the head of a childcare centre (Satis1)</td>
<td>3.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Knowledge and ability of teachers of a childcare centre (Satis2)</td>
<td>4.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Knowledge and ability of teaching assistants of a childcare centre (Satis3)</td>
<td>3.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Environment outside a childcare centre (Satis4)</td>
<td>3.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Environment inside a childcare centre (Satis5)</td>
<td>3.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Cleanliness of a childcare centre (Satis6)</td>
<td>3.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Neatness and tidiness of a childcare centre (Satis7)</td>
<td>3.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Quality of lunch meal for children (Satis8)</td>
<td>3.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Quality of break time meal for children (Satis9)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Looking after children’s security (Satis10)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Arranging activities for children’s development (Satis11)</td>
<td>3.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Teaching and study media and tools (Satis12)</td>
<td>3.91</td>
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<td>13. Children’s development (Satis13)</td>
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<td>14. Picking up Children (Satis14)</td>
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<td>15. Participating in activities at a childcare centre (Satis15)</td>
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<td>16. Parent and teacher meetings at a childcare centre (Satis16)</td>
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<tr>
<td>17. Receiving information from a childcare centre (Satis17)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Supporting and development of a childcare centre by local public administrator (Satis18)</td>
<td>3.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Overall quality of a childcare centre (Satis19)</td>
<td>3.79</td>
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</table>

Table IV. Average level of parents’ satisfaction with childcare
separate one from the group of respondents who had an expectation of the teacher’s duty in respect of Exp5. Therefore, Exp1 and Exp5 are functions to represent respondents’ expectations of teachers’ duty for further analysis. Furthermore, this different expectation of respondents or parents also implied a conflicting perspective of teachers’ roles in the infant/toddler classroom (Wilgus, 2005).

In Table VII, we examine correlations between the selected customer expectation factors and customer satisfaction factors. This highlights whether the parents’ expectations (or hopes) were in fact realised in practice in the sample centres. We focus on factors of Satis \( i \), where \( i = 1, 2, 3 \) and 15, because they refer specifically to respondents’/parents’ perceptions of the effectiveness of the teaching staff in the centres \( (i = 1, 2 \) and 3\) and the interaction between the two types of adults \( (i = 15)\).

Examination of these data showed that the correlations of these selected expectations in relation to only three dimensions of satisfaction were significant at the 0.01 level, namely, in conjunction with Exp 1 (the expectation that teaching staff would facilitate children’s individual development):

- knowledge and ability of the head of childcare centre (Satis1) and in relation to Exp 5 (effective child nanny);
- knowledge and ability of teacher assistant of childcare centre (Satis3); and
- participating in activities at a childcare centre (Satis15).

The relationship between Exp 5 and knowledge and ability of teachers of the childcare centre (Satis2) was significant at the lower level of 0.05. This led us to reject \( H_0 \), which argues that the variables were not associated and to accept the alternate hypothesis, i.e. accept that the variables were associated. This means the following:

- The respondents who expected teacher’s duty of taking care of children so as to allow them to have their own development and potential (Exp1) got more satisfaction with knowledge and ability of the head of childcare centre (Satis1).
- The respondents who expected teacher’s duty on nannying children by feeding them, bathing them and looking after their security (Exp5) got more satisfaction with knowledge and ability of teacher of childcare centre (Satis2), knowledge and ability of teacher assistant of childcare centre (Satis3) and participating in activities at childcare centres (Satis15).

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<th>Child development</th>
<th>(%)</th>
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<td>1. Live with others</td>
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<td>2. Self-care</td>
<td>80</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Emotion and mind</td>
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<td>4. Body</td>
<td>68</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Language/communication</td>
<td>63</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Manner and etiquette</td>
<td>54</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Creativity</td>
<td>48</td>
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<td>8. Art/music</td>
<td>45</td>
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<td>9. Moral and ethics</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. Decision-making</td>
<td>43</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. Knowing for community</td>
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<tr>
<td>12. Love for nature/environment</td>
<td>33</td>
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<td>13. Love for culture/Thai Identity</td>
<td>25</td>
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<tr>
<td>14. Reasoning</td>
<td>25</td>
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Table V. Parents’ satisfaction with their child’s development, on a range of elements, in decreasing rank.
Table VI. Correlation among functions of a teacher’s duties

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<tr>
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<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.070*</td>
<td>0.333**</td>
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<td>0.169**</td>
<td>0.232**</td>
<td>0.111**</td>
<td>0.143**</td>
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<td>0.000</td>
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<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
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<td>0.181**</td>
<td>0.180**</td>
<td>0.085**</td>
<td>0.112**</td>
<td>0.062*</td>
<td>0.044</td>
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<td>0.274**</td>
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<td>0.349**</td>
<td>0.244**</td>
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(continued)
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<td>0.307**</td>
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<td><strong>Exp 8</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Pearson correlation</td>
<td>0.111**</td>
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<td><strong>Exp 9</strong></td>
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</table>

**Notes:** **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed); *correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (two-tailed)**
The last Table (VII) also shows a strong intra-correlation within this subset of parent satisfaction elements.

**Conclusion**

Overall, given the location and non-compulsory nature of the childcare provision being assessed, it would seem fair to say that the answer to the overarching objective was fairly positive. Expectations were non-trivial; parents looked for more than “baby-minding” and expected there to be some appropriately qualified staff. The perceived satisfaction levels indicate that there is scope for improvement, but the picture is not unduly negative. In short, parents and guardians of the children attending the Songkhla facilities believed that their charges are being properly cared for by acceptable staff, are being helped to develop socially and are learning some important basic intellectual material (such as numeracy and reading). However, it should be noted that the official aims of the “Local Curriculum and Integrated Lesson Plans for Early Childhood Development” programme did not specifically focus on the acquisition of mathematical knowledge. Hence, we only report that parents perceived some knowledge acquisition in this field positively relative to their own expectations, distinct from the programme’s specified objectives.

In more detail, the results of the study showed that the majority of respondents were parents and had one child enrolled at a childcare centre. Most children were three-four years old. The table below shows correlations between selected expectation and satisfaction factors.

### Table VII
Correlations between selected expectation and satisfaction factors

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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Exp1</th>
<th>Exp5</th>
<th>Satis1</th>
<th>Satis2</th>
<th>Satis3</th>
<th>Satis15</th>
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<tr>
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<td>1</td>
<td>-0.005</td>
<td>0.150**</td>
<td>0.036</td>
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<td>0.403**</td>
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**Notes:** **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed); *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (two-tailed)**
old and lived less than 1 km from each childcare centre. Although respondents were allowed to choose their expectation for more than two functions, the top three teachers’ duties of respondents’ expectation were taking care of children, allowing them to have their own development and potential; teaching children reading and writing skills and mathematics literacy; and regularly developing teaching methods for children. The study showed moderate to high level of respondents’ satisfaction with teachers’ knowledge and ability, services, activities and quality of childcare centre. Although expectations such as teaching assistants’ knowledge and ability and picking up children had the lowest average rating, they had high satisfaction of their child’s development, which were live with others and self-care. The respondents’ expectations about taking care of children to allow them to achieve their own development and potential affected the levels of satisfaction in respect of head teachers’ knowledge and ability. The respondent’s expectation on nannying children by feeding them, bathing them and looking after their security affected the levels of satisfaction in respects of both teacher and assistant teachers’ knowledge and ability and participating in activities at a childcare centre.

Expectations of respondents about taking care of children such that they have their own development path and potential were not highly correlated with perceptions of satisfaction in respect to the nannying of children, by feeding, bathing and looking after their security. This suggested some element of conflict of perspectives around the teacher’s role in the infant/toddler classroom. It inevitably denies that such perspectives relate to the relationship between parent and teacher. Many research works have clearly shown that parent–teacher relationships lead to increased parental involvement, which has been shown to have a significant and lasting impact on children’s academic achievement (for more details, see Knopf and Swick, 2007). One result was to show that different expectations affected levels of satisfaction in respects to different dimensions. Parents who expected a teacher’s duty to focus on child development were more likely to be more satisfied with the knowledge and ability of a head teacher of a childcare centre, whereas parents who expected a teacher’s duty to focus on factors such as feeding tended to have more satisfaction with the knowledge and ability of teachers and assistant teachers and participating in activities at a childcare centre. These results implied that the teaching direction (or focus) of a head teacher may concentrate on child development issues, while teachers and teaching assistants may concentrate more on the nanny role. Although both these aspects of a teacher’s duties fall within their job description and responsibility to provide a good service in a childcare centre, other components such as parental involvement are needed to bring about good-quality or effective education with full potential for children’s development in all ways. Therefore, to build a parent–school partnership into the life of a childcare centre with space for providing parent feedback and involvement, as well as exchanging views of their expectations between parents and all staff, is what is truly required to deliver a vision of their (mutually understood) ideal childcare centre.

Implications and utility of the study findings
As noted, this study began with the need for parents’ views in evaluating the childcare service of centres in a Thai province, which forms part of a sponsored research and development project, “Preschool Centres Development in Songkhla: A Case Study of Local Curriculum and Integrated Lesson Plans for Early Childhood Development in the Pilot Preschool Centres” (Somprasit et al., 2015). After conducting data analysis, a workshop for discussion of these results with head teachers or representatives of childcare centres and local public administration was held. This two-way communication brought about a useful and direct implication because teachers and representatives of a childcare centre were
allowed to ask questions and make comments to help them understand it and to use the
results of this study in each centre to improve their service. The results of this project were
not a direct output of a unified local curriculum, with associated integrated lesson plans
such as those observed in the project and used in the childcare centres, because they use
various curricula, including a National Curriculum and various teaching methods advised
by other institutions and the local public administration. Nevertheless, the researchers can
use these results and their feedback as a valuable part of the larger project.

One interesting outcome, as noted before, was the dissonance between perceptions of
importance of what may be seen as early-stage academic development of and the care-giving
and social nurture of the children attending the kind of Thai preschool centres studied. This
suggests that it would likely be beneficial for an enhanced explanation to the parents of
existing and potential students of the benefits of a holistic approach to the development of
their children. Social, health and academic development are all important for the child, and
all of them should be moulded into an attractive, unified experience. Finally, lessons learnt
in the southern province of Songkhla are likely to be equally applicable across the rest of
Thailand, even in Bangkok, albeit the “metropolitan elite” may feel themselves to be special.
It may also be reasonable to speculate that many findings may also apply to other countries
in the region. After all, why should good-quality preschool provision be fundamentally
different in Malaysia, Vietnam, Brunei or wherever? To take a very particular case in point,
Southern Thailand and the northern states of Malaysia have much in common. Indeed, the
border between the two countries, as they now are, was adjusted as recently as 1909 under a
treaty between Siam (Thailand) and Britain.

The reported study’s usefulness or utility could be further enhanced if some of the factors
related to the inclusion/exclusion issue were to be addressed in a future phase of work. The
most basic issue would probably be to explore why those children not participating in
preschool provision in Songkhla are absent. If possible, it would be helpful to also compare that
position with that of other provinces in Thailand. Pereira’s (2016) comment that solutions must
be crafted to best fit contexts perhaps raises the issue of the Buddhist/Muslim mix in Songkhla
(as the province is located in the South of Thailand, there are many more Muslims there than in
the rest of the country). Pereira with reference to Indonesia and Young et al. (2017) in the Brunei
context make explicit reference to the potential tensions between modern, educational thinking
and the perceived needs of Islam in school, and presumably also preschool, education.

Finally, one would speculate that, sadly, the opportunities and needs of disabled children,
be they physical or mental disabilities, are likely to be rather low down the priorities list of
many funders and providers, in a setting of intrinsic shortage. Any evidence to the contrary
would be both interesting and a source of hope.

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Undergraduate African–American student’s experience of racial microaggressions on a primarily white campus

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Abstract

Purpose – The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between African–American undergraduate students, racial microaggressions (RMAs) and college retention rates.

Design/methodology/approach – Data were obtained from a survey given out to African–American undergraduate students, recruited from a large, midwestern, predominantly white public university (n = 53).

Findings – The results indicate that students did experience a wide range of microaggressions. Furthermore, the data revealed a statistically significant relationship between the participants’ perceptions that others viewed them as if they were foreigners and did not belong to the place and the participants’ thoughts about dropping out during the ongoing semester [r(51) = 0.338, p = 0.05]. The results suggest that African–Americans frequently experience RMAs while on campus but these experiences are not significantly tied to their intentions to complete the ongoing semester or return for the subsequent semester.

Practical implications – This study shows that African–American students felt disconnected from the campus that they attend. This information may allow for faculty and staff members to assist in making students feel more welcomed and included in the classroom and on campus.

Originality/value – This is one of the few studies to provide evidence of the relationships between African–American undergraduate students, RMAs and college retention rates. In addition, most studies looking at the relationship between RMAs and retention are qualitative in nature. The use of a quantitative approach helps us eliminating possible observer bias and increasing sample size.

Keywords Retention, Undergraduates, African–Americans, Racial microaggressions

Paper type Research paper

African–American college students are already at a significant disadvantage when it comes to achieving academically in higher education (Forrest-Bank and Jenson, 2015). Many of these students have faced the challenges, prior to entering higher education, brought on because of institutionalized oppression. They come with personal experience of being openly discriminated against and not given the same opportunities to grow and advance educationally as their white counterparts. Students of color are more likely to attend school
with a significantly lower amount of resources and have teachers that are less likely to notice and push academic success. Recent literature suggests that racial microaggressions (RMAs) negatively influence the lives of African–American college students (Grier-Reed, 2010; Henson et al., 2013; Lewis et al., 2013). One unfortunate trend is that educational institutions reward students for conforming to white norms (Lewis et al., 2013). These norms could be things like the way a person speaks, how an individual dresses and how a person behaves in public. Practices like these reinforce discriminatory RMA statements like “You speak so educated for an African–American”.

Enrollment in college for ethnic minorities has increased steadily since 2005 (USA Department of Education, 2015). This increase has resulted in a more diverse campus climate, which in turn created opportunities for students, varying in ethnic and racial backgrounds, to interact with one another. This growth may also lead to an increased opportunity to experience racial discrimination (Rothman et al., 2003). Racial discrimination and inequalities negatively affect academic success (Sue et al., 2008).

Universities struggle to graduate minority students from four-year degree programs (Johnson-Ahorlu, 2013). This is particularly true of African–American college students (Johnson-Ahorlu, 2013). Since the early 1990s, African–American undergraduates have had one of the lowest degree completion rates in comparison to all other races in the USA (Johnson-Ahorlu, 2013; Jones and Williams, 2006). In response, universities implement retention initiative programs, such as Upward bound, first-year introduction, tutoring services and African–American Student centers (Carter, 2006; Wells, 2008). However, even with these programs, African–American students’ four-year graduation rates still lag behind other ethnic groups (Brooks et al., 2013). Studies have shown that one of the prominent reasons why minorities left their current institution was due to racial discrimination (Lewis and McKissic, 2010; Grier-Reed, 2010). Studying the effects of RMAs and retention may assist universities in increasing their multicultural competencies to continue providing a safe and diverse learning environment.

The experience of racism and racial discrimination plays a key role in explaining why African–American undergraduate students have lower graduation rates than do their peers (Grier-Reed, 2010; Wells, 2008). While some of the factors that influence retention are known (Dabney, 2010), little is understood about how RMAs affect African–American students’ retention on predominantly white institutions (PWI). A PWI is an institution at which white students make up for 50 per cent or more of the student body (Brown and Dancy, 2009). An RMA is an act, intentional or unintentional, verbal or nonverbal, that sends a hostile, derogatory or racial insult toward an ethnic/racial individual or group (Sue et al., 2008). An example of an intentional RMA would be when a bartender purposefully serves a white patron over a minority patron who arrived at the bar first. Subtle RMAs can be more harmful than blatant discrimination due to their ambiguous nature (Torres et al., 2010; Sue et al., 2008). Subtle acts can leave the targeted individual in a confused state wondering whether the act was meant to be intentional or whether it was a misunderstanding. Eventually this cognitive thought process can lead to a decrease in personal mental health and academic performance (Solorzano et al., 2000; Sue et al., 2008).

To date, research on RMAs on PWIs is limited. Torres et al. (2010) examined the influence RMAs have on the mental health of African–American doctoral students and graduates of doctoral programs. The researchers asked their participants to identify the types of microaggressions they experienced. This was followed by an investigation to determine what effect the reported microaggressions had on participants’ mental health. The researchers found that the experience of an RMA was partially responsible for psychological distress and depressive symptoms.
McCabe (2009) examined undergraduates’ experiences of RMAs at PWIs. McCabe conducted 68 one-on-one interviews and four focus group interviews with participants at a single PWI. Four main themes emerged:

1. African–American men were viewed to be threatening.
2. Latina women were viewed as sexual objects.
3. African–American women were viewed as the voice of their entire race/ethnicity and being viewed as academically inferior in comparison to their peers.
4. White women experienced gender microaggressions in academic majors that were viewed as being “male dominated”.

Furthermore, Smith et al. (2007) studied the experiences of 36 African–American male students at PWIs. They found that the constant stereotyping and discriminatory practices led these students to suffer from increased levels of frustration, stress, anger, disappointment, resentment and anxiety.

Based on the limited research in this area, a study that documents the degree to which African–Americans enrolled at a PWI experience RMAs, the degree of stress associated with experienced RMAs and how RMAs are associated with retention is warranted to deepen our understanding, open the door for further dialog on this issue and inform strategic responses about how to improve African–American students’ success in higher education. Therefore, the purpose of this study is threefold. First, we document the degree to which African–American college students experience RMAs. Second, we document the impact of RMAs on African–American college students. Finally, we explore the relationship between experiences of RMA and RMA distress on African–American college students’ decisions regarding retention.

Method
This study used a cross-sectional survey design to assess whether undergraduate students’ thoughts about retention are associated with the experience of RMAs. This design allowed us to ascertain whether there was relationship between RMAs and students’ degree of consideration for the following semester and during the semester (retention). This study also allowed us to identify whether there was a difference between witnessing acts of RMAs toward others and students’ plans for return the following semester. Permission to conduct this study was provided by the sponsoring institution’s Institutional Review Board. The study looked at African–American undergraduate college students who were currently enrolled at the University of Toledo. The researcher used the racial microaggression scale (RMAS) (Torres-Harding et al., 2012) and a self-report Likert scale that assessed thoughts about leaving college to collect the data for our study.

Participants
Participants were recruited from a large, midwestern, PWI public urban university in the spring of 2016. The inclusion criteria were self-identification as an African–American, being enrolled in at least 6 h of undergraduate studies at the sponsoring university and being 18 years old or older. Individuals that were excluded from participation of the study were those who did not identify themselves as African–American. Graduate students and students under the age of 18, regardless of enrollment status, were also excluded from the study.

A total of 53 participants were enrolled. Of these, 50 (94.3 per cent) participants self-identified as black/African–American and 3 (5.7 per cent) said that they were multiracial (part black/African–American). The participants’ means age was 22.01 years (SD = 6.96,
range = 18-53). A total of 13 (24.5 per cent) self-identified as being male, 38 (71.7 per cent) self-identified as being female and 2 (3.8 per cent) identified as being transgender. A total of 17 (32.1 per cent) were first-year students, 9 (17 per cent) were sophomores, 11 (20.8 per cent) were juniors and 16 (30.2 per cent) were seniors.

Measures
Demographics. To describe the sample, a demographic data sheet was used to ascertain the participants’ age, race/ethnicity, education level and gender. The race/ethnicity is based on their self-report on demographic items of the survey. The participants were classified into male (0) and female (1), non-Hispanic white or euro-American (0), black, Afro-Caribbean or African–American (1), South Asian or Indian-American (2), East Asian or Asian-American (3), Native American or Alaskan Native(4), Latino or Hispanic American (5), Middle Eastern or Arab-American (6) and Other (7). This classification system came from a modified version of the current US Census. Participants’ age and gender were also collected through self-report on demographic items on the survey. Educational level corresponded with the number of years of education participants completed post high school. Participants had the option of choosing, first, second, third or fourth year.

Racial Microaggressions. Participants’ experiences of RMAs were measured using Torres-Harding et al.’s (2012) RMAS. Each of the 32 item asks respondents to identify how frequently they experienced each item’s described event and to identify how distressed they felt as a result of the event(s). Respondents indicate whether they have experienced each item’s content often/frequently (4 points), sometimes/a moderate amount (3 points), a little/rarely (1 point) or never (1 points). Respondents who endorse any item are further asked to say how stressful, upsetting or bothersome the event was for them. Response options to these questions are: this has never happened to me/not at all (0 points), a little (1), moderate level (2) and high level (3).

The RMSA has six factors: foreigner/not belonging (3 items), criminality (4 items), sexualization (3 items), low-achieving/undesirable culture (9 items), invisibility (8 items) and environmental invalidations (5 items). Torres-Harding et al. (2012) reported acceptable internal consistency estimates for each of these six factors. The reported alphas were: foreigner/not belonging ($\alpha = 0.78$), criminality ($\alpha = 0.85$), sexualization ($\alpha = 0.83$), low-achieving/undesirable culture ($\alpha = 0.87$), invisibility ($\alpha = 0.89$) and environmental invalidations ($\alpha = 0.81$). These six RMA factors were used as the study’s predictor variables.

Retention. Participants were asked to answer two retention questions. The first question was, “Please rate how you feel about coming back to the University for the fall semester.” The five response options were: I am seriously considering not returning to this university (5), I am considering not returning to this university (4), I am not sure if I should stay or go (3), I am fairly sure I will return for the following semester (2) and I will return for the following semester (1). The second question was, “Did you ever feel like dropping out during the ongoing semester?” This question’s response options were: I seriously thought about leaving during the ongoing semester (5), I thought about leaving during the current semester (4), I was not sure if I was going to leave or stay (3), I was fairly certain I was staying for the ongoing semester (2) and I always knew I was staying for the ongoing semester (1).

Procedures
The researchers worked with the University of Toledo’s Institutional Research Department to reach the participants eligible to engage in the survey. The researchers used a cross-sectional survey design. We sent an email to participants in which link to an online survey was embedded. A total of 1,677 emails were sent out to prospective participants. Only 23
per cent \((n = 397)\) opened the recruitment email. Of those, 21 per cent \((n = 84)\) began the survey and 63 per cent \((n = 53)\) completed the survey thus making our response rate 13.4 per cent. The survey was available from March 23, 2016 to April 11, 2016. Reminder notices were sent on March 28, 2016 and April 4, 2016.

Results
A total of 51 respondents answered the question, “Please rate how you feel about coming back to the University for the fall semester.” The mean score for this sample was 1.9 \((SD = 1.3,\ range = 1-5)\). A total of 30 (54.5 per cent) respondents stated that they were certain to return for the fall, eight (14.5 per cent) were fairly sure, five (9.1 per cent) were uncertain, four (7.3 per cent) were considering leaving and the final four (7.3 per cent) were seriously considering not returning to this university in the fall. One-quarter of the students said that they were unsure or were considering not returning for the following semester.

All 53 participants answered the question, “Did you ever feel like dropping out during the ongoing semester?” Their average response was 1.8 \((SD = 1.1,\ range = 1-5)\). A total of 28 (50.9 per cent) stated that they never thought about leaving during the semester, 14 (25.5 per cent) were fairly certain that they would finish the semester, six (10.9 per cent) were unsure whether or not they would finish the semester, three (5.5 per cent) thought about leaving during the semester and the final two (3.6 per cent) seriously thought about leaving during the semester. One-fifth of this sample was unsure whether or not to finish the semester.

Table I presents the mean, standard deviation, range of scores and internal consistency estimates for each of the RMAS’s six factors and the degree of distress associated with each RMAS factor. The two factors on which this sample scored the highest were low achieving/undesirable culture (2.07) and environmental (2.13). Both of these scores were in the moderate range. Scale scores that fell between the rarely and moderate range were criminality (1.5), sexualization (1.01) and invisibility (1.11). The participants’ mean score on the foreigner/not belonging factor was 0.62, which is between never and rarely. While it is important to understand the RMAS factors on which these participants scored the highest, group means can mitigate and under-represent the number and the experiences of persons

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Notes: FOR = Foreigner/not belonging; FORD = Foreigner/not belonging distress; CRIM = criminality; CRIMD = criminality distress; SEXU = sexualization; SEXUD = sexualization distress; LOW = low-achieving/undesirable culture; LOWD = low-achieving/undesirable culture distress; INV = invisibility; INVD = invisibility distress; ENV = environmental invalidations; ENVD = environmental invalidations distress
near a distribution’s asymptotes. Five (9.4 per cent) and two (3.8 per cent) persons, respectively, said that they sometimes and frequently felt like others saw and treated them like they were a foreigner and did not belong to this sample’s campus. Of note, 22 (41.4 per cent) and 10 (18.9 per cent), respectively, scored in the sometimes and often range of the criminality factor. Nine (17 per cent) and six (11.3 per cent) scored in these two ranges on the sexualization factor. A total of 26 (49 per cent) and 18 (34 per cent) scored in the sometimes and frequently ranges of the low achieving/undesirable culture factor, respectively. Fourteen (26.4 per cent) and six (11.3 per cent) scored in these ranges on the Invisibility factor. Finally, 29 (54.7 per cent) participants and 14 (26.4 per cent) scored in the sometimes and frequently ranges of the environmental factor, respectively. This presentation of the frequency of RMAs across the RMSA’s six factors demonstrates that while the factor mean scores were in the rare to low moderate ranges, many participants experienced RMAs on a moderately high to frequent basis.

A Pearson product–moment correlation matrix was run to determine whether there were statistically significant relationships between students’ experiences of RMAs and their intentions to complete their current spring semester and return to the same college in the following fall semester. Positive and medium-sized relationships were found between students’ thoughts about leaving during the semester and scores on the foreigner/not belonging scale and the foreigner/not belonging distress scale. Specifically, as students’ scores on the foreigner/not belonging RMAS subscale rose, so did their thoughts about not completing the spring semester ($r = 0.34$, $p = 0.01$). Likewise, as students’ scores on the foreigner/not belonging scale rose, so did their thoughts about not completing the spring semester ($r = 0.35$, $p = 0.01$). No other statistically significant relationships were found between students’ thoughts about leaving during the spring semester and the RMAS scales.

More than half of the participants reported knowing that they were going to return for the following semester. Less than 10 per cent of the participants reported that they were seriously considering not returning to the university for the following semester, whereas 7 per cent of participants reported being undecided on whether or not they would be returning. Just over half (50.9 per cent) of the participants were certain that they were going to finish the current semester. A small percentage of participants (3.6 per cent) reported serious consideration of leaving the university before the end of the semester. Only 10 per cent of the participants reported being undecided on whether they would stay or leave before the semester ended. This study uncovered a positive and moderate relationship between students’ decisions about dropping out during the ongoing semester and their feelings of not belonging and being a foreigner.

**Discussion**

The purpose of the study was to document the frequency of and distress associated with RMAs and the degree to which RMAs were associated with African–American college students’ retention. Previous literature had shown that African–American students who experienced RMAs at PWIs left those institutions to attend colleges known for being historically black (Smith et al., 2007). This study investigated students’ intentions and not their actual behaviors. We cannot determine whether these students did persist in college; however, the findings on the subscales of the RMAS indicated that African–Americans frequently experience RMAs. African–American students frequently found themselves in situations where there was a noticeable absence of people representing their own race/
Participants reported that they experienced a moderate amount of situations in which their race was viewed as dysfunctional, and undesirable. African–Americans on campus had moderately high encounters of being viewed as aggressive, threatening or hostile. Finally, participants rated experiences of being overlooked, the invisibility subscale, at the rare to moderate amount. The findings showed that African–Americans perceive themselves to be dismissed in group settings due to their race, as well as they feel that they have their thoughts and feelings invalidated.

The present findings are similar to those of previous studies. For example, previous efforts suggest that African–American college students’ had difficulties fitting in and feeling like they belonged on their campuses (Dabney, 2010; Grier-Reed, 2010; Smith et al., 2007). The results were also similar to those reported by Grier-Reed (2010) who found that African–American students at PWIs felt uncomfortable in their surroundings and that they did not belong to it. The students in Grier-Reed’s study were more likely to drop out and attend historically black colleges. Likewise, Sue et al. (2008) found that African–American students felt as if they did not belong to PWI and that they are outsiders.

The participants’ scores on the environmental subscale were consistent with the findings reported by Torres-Harding et al. (2012) who found that African–Americans’ felt that their race was not being represented in roles of power in their community. Harper (2009) found similar results such that African–American students at PWIs felt that racial stereotypes negatively affected the expectation of black men in leadership positions.

The participants felt that others on campus viewed them as criminals. This finding is consistent with that of Smith et al. (2011) who demonstrated that African–American students at PWIs reported high level of stress due to being frequently stopped by the police or “fitting the description.” African–American men report being viewed by others as hostile, aggressive or angry. The researchers also found that participants felt that coworkers, bosses and employees were afraid or intimidated, which led to the avoidance of African–American men (Miller and Travers, 2005; Nadal et al., 2014). Additional research from Janice McCabe confirms these results. McCabe (2009) conducted 68 one-on-one interviews and four focus groups using undergraduate students from a single PWI. The researcher found that African–American men were perceived as threatening. During McCabe’s interviews, several participants would mention noticing authority members (campus and city police) constantly on their dormitory floors, as well as handing out stricter penalties to African–Americans than to white students who committed similar offenses.

**Implications**

*Educate faculty members and staff.* The results of the study showed that African–American students felt disconnected from the campuses that they attend. Greater efforts should be taken to educate faculty and staff of universities on the importance of making all students feel welcomed and included in the classroom. We recommend that universities mandate yearly diversity trainings to all faculty and staff members to increase multicultural competencies. Current programs like “Safe Place” trainings are examples of university-led programs that successfully increase inclusion of diverse students. Another example could include trainings, in-services or CEU workshops at college counseling centers.

Furthermore, faculty and staff members need to be aware of their own personal biases and possible RMAs that they may be unintentionally communicating to African–American students. It is important for authority figures to be aware, recognize and breakdown their own biases to decrease the possibility of unintentional biases slipping out into their profession. Faculty and staff members should also be open and accepting of their students’
stories, which leads to empowering students and allowing them to feel that their voice is heard within the campus society.

Faculty and staff members should encourage African–Americans to consider graduate and professional degrees. This study’s participants’ scores on the low achieving/undesirable and environmental subscales were the highest amongst all other subscales. These scales indicated that African–Americans do not see people of their own race/ethnicity in positions of power. These scales also indicated that African–Americans feel as if they are viewed as being academically inferior or incompetent to other students around them. Faculty and staff members should increase their efforts in encouraging and supporting minorities to join doctoral programs, which will lead to an increase in diversity amongst graduate programs, which leads to African–Americans being seen in positions of power across campuses.

Teaching students about racial microaggressions

Teaching racial microaggressions across the curriculum. This topic should not only be covered in multicultural counseling courses, but also included across the curriculum for future counselor educators. Counselor educators should educate students on what constitutes a RMA. Educators should then review the three different subtypes of RMAs illustrated by Sue et al. (2007) and provide concrete examples or scenarios. Once students are able to properly identify RMAs, counselor educators can create a safe space in which discussions of RMAs can occur. Students would be encouraged to share personal experiences of events that occurred in their own lives without fear of judgment or invalidation.

Talking about racial microaggressions with counselor education students. All counseling students should be aware of how to appropriately handle RMAs. Counseling students should be made aware of how RMAs affect the students around them and the psychological distress RMAs cause. Students, along with faculty members, can create a safe environment, in which students can feel comfortable sharing their experiences with discrimination. Students should also be made aware of how to appropriately confront acts of RMAs. Educators will want to facilitate an exploration about how perpetrators may perceive being confronted. This may be particularly important with African–Americans as stereotypes related to “the Angry Black woman,” for example, may place these individuals in an additional double-bind situation. Students will need to examine the benefits and risks of confronting (or not confronting) RMAs, the potential impact on the target and potential power dynamics when considering how to confront RMAs.

Limitations and directions for future research

A limitation to the study is that the answers were self-reported. Students may not have felt comfortable participating in a survey that encourages them to rethink past events of racial discrimination (Sue et al., 2009). The participants may not have been completely honest while taking the survey. Some students may not have felt comfortable sharing all parts of their experiences and may lessen the influence of the perceived microaggression. Some students may have inflated their experiences of RMAs to appear as if they were discriminated against more than what actually took place. Lefever et al. (2007) wrote that one difficulty with online surveys is participants lack willingness to participate. This may have caused respondents to speed through the questionnaire without reading the questions.

Students may have engaged in retrospective recall. Retrospective recall occurs when people are asked to remember specific experiences in their past (Solhan et al., 2009). When studies use retrospective reports from participants, the results may be limited in their usefulness due to the participants’ recall bias (Hufford, 2007). Participants may have
experienced different emotions, behaviors and thought patterns during the event they were asked to recall. Because of this, their recollection of the event may have been somewhat skewed due to how they perceived the event.

This study used an ex post facto research design. This type of design prohibits one from making causal statements. The main issue with this design was that the research subjects are not randomly assigned to a control and a treatment group. Furthermore, this study was unable to sample participants who had already dropped out of the university, which means we could not confirm their experiences of RMAs and whether they had any influence on their decision to drop out. The study surveyed students who were current university students. There may have been a group of African–American students whose experience with RMAs caused them to drop out prior to having the chance to participate in the study. Future research should seek out those individuals who did not re-enroll to determine which, if any, RMAs influenced their decision to no longer attend the university.

Survey fatigue/burnout may have been a factor affecting the response rate of the participants. The university’s Office of Institutional Research administered eight other surveys to the general student population during the time period when this study was conducted. Two of these surveys included questions about and provided a definition for microaggressions. As such, participants may have felt oversampled and decided to drop out of the study prematurely or ignore the participation request all together. Some prospective participants may have been unsure of the meaning of RMAs because the recruitment email did not include a formal definition of RMAs.

The current study was limited to African–American students’ retention and RMAs. The present methods could be replicated to include a broader range of ethnic groups. With a more diverse sample size looking at other races/ethnicities, researchers could determine whether there was a difference the frequency and type of RMAs experienced on campus. Researchers could also determine whether different races/ethnicities differed in their thoughts on retention when experiencing RMAs.

References


Further reading


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The effects of check-in check-out on the academic planning and behavior of African American males

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Abstract
Purpose – The Check-in Check-out (CICO) program is a Tier II behavioral intervention that has received empirical support as an effective way to reduce problem behaviors (Hawken and Horner, 2003; March and Horner, 2002). The purpose of this study is to use an intervention that combined CICO with social skill instruction and academic planning with three African-American ninth-grade males identified with emotional and behavioral disorders. A concurrent baseline across participants design was used to evaluate participants’ performance on academic planning and behavior. Results indicate that the combination of social skill instruction and academic planning with the CICO mentoring program improved participants’ academic planning and behavior.

Design/methodology/approach – This study used a concurrent multiple baseline across participants design to determine the effect of the CICO mentoring program. CICO was combined with academic planning and social skills training to determine the effect on the DRC scores and the student’s educational success skills. This study included three phases: baseline, intervention (which included academic planning, social skills training and CICO) and maintenance.

Findings – All of the participants were below 50 per cent during baseline for points earned on the daily report card and the execution of steps for academic planning. During intervention, all of the participants had an increase in level and trend for both skills. Participants were able to maintain the skills two weeks after intervention.

Research limitations/implications – This study has several limitations. First, the study was conducted in an urban setting; therefore, it cannot be generalized to other geographical populations, such as rural or suburban students. Second, the study is not generalizable to self-contained settings, resource rooms or other school environments. Third, the use of DRC data, as opposed to direct observations of behavior, is a strong limitation. Consequently, it is possible that improvements in DRC scores were because of changes in teacher perceptions rather than actual changes in student behavior.

Practical implications – The study presents several implications for future studies. First, researchers could investigate different service-level settings (e.g. self-contained or resource) and different settings (e.g. suburban or rural). Second, researchers could focus on varied populations that are targeted for inappropriate behavior or academic difficulties such as English Language Learners. Researchers could also examine the effects of tutoring with CICO and investigate if mentoring is generalizable to community settings.
Social implications – Social validity outcomes from students, parents and classroom teachers who participated this study were positive. Although social validity measures do not add to data for our dependent variables, it is important to consider perceptions from our stakeholders. Students indicated that they found daily mentoring sessions helpful and beneficial. Based on student perceptions and performance and teacher feedback, components of CICO were effective in reducing disruptive behavior of African-American males at the high school level.

Originality/value – Not only does the study focus on African-American males in high school, but also contributes to the literature by focusing on the increase of students’ academic planning skills, social skills and the reduction of office discipline referrals. The version of CICO used in the present study included the use of FBAs. Few studies found in the literature even mentioned conducting an FBA before or during the implementation of CICO with successful results (Campbell and Anderson, 2008; March and Anderson, 2008; Horner, 2002). The authors also monitored the positive gains of the student using Daily Report Cards (DRC). For this study, DRC is simply a method of reporting success to the mentor, student, parent and mentee.

Keywords Multicultural, Education, Ethnicity, Academic planning, Social skills

Paper type Research paper

Disproportionality of exclusionary practices of African-American males

Data released in 2014 by the US Department of Education Office for Civil Rights indicates that African-American males in our nation’s middle and high schools are:

- disproportionately disciplined;
- suspended and expelled from school at a rate three times greater than white students;
- receive more multiple suspensions than students from other racial backgrounds;
- represent 32 to 42 per cent of those suspended or expelled; and
- have a higher drop-out rate.

Because of this phenomena, African-American males are over-identified as having Emotional and Behavioral Disturbance (EBD) (Lamont et al., 2013). Although the aforementioned statistics are jaunting, the African-American male is not solely the cause. The perceptions of African-American male student behavior are driven by the white, middle class context in which they occur.

Bourdieu (2005) argues that each cultural class has a framework, a set of norms, values and ideas. Middle class dominant culture norms, values and experiences prepare children for school so they “just fit in” with the school’s behavioral, social and academic expectations. In contrast, children from the working class culture, who may not have had such experiences, are devalued, have difficulty assimilating to the norm and are more likely to struggle in educational settings. The aftermath results in a cultural gap.

Oakes et al. (2015) defined the cultural gap as a theoretical, conceptual and practical disconnect between the culture (values, traditions, customs, beliefs, etc.) of the learners, the communities from which they come and the differing proponents of the educational institutions. Therefore, cultural behaviors displayed by African-American students many times, are perceived by educators and administrators as non-compliant and disrespectful and most often, these infractions are endured more by students of color, typically males, and students from low-income families (Jordan and Anil, 2009) and contribute to expulsion and out-of-school suspensions resulting in more office referrals (Gregory and Weinstein, 2008). Consequently, students are repeatedly suspended for the same violation, providing evidence that suspensions are not proactive in preventing future offenses and result in even less success for students (McCurdy et al., 2007; Razfar, 2011; Webb-Johnson and Long, 2012). These infractions are one of the major causes of the over-identification of African-American males in
Check-in check-out intervention
Although the problem of over-identification is intensified by the cultural gap and is increased by the schools inability to adapt and understand the culture of all children represented in a microcosm, methods to provide African-American males with a set of social skills that work well in these settings has proven to be effective (Brophy, 2011; Kourea et al., 2016; Robinson-Ervin et al., 2016). CICO is a simple behavioral intervention designed for use during a single 15- to 30-minute period (Dart et al., 2012). Someone checks in with the student (i.e. teacher, mentor) to set behavioral goals at the start of the day, then checks out with the student at the close of the day to rate that student’s conduct and award points or other incentives earned for attaining behavioral goal(s). The structural goals of CICO are to:
- increase appropriate behavior and contingent adult feedback;
- improve the daily structure for students; and
- provide feedback to families regarding student behavior via daily report cards (DRC) (Crone et al., 2004).

There are several strategies or methodologies that can be incorporated with this system. For example, in this study, the approaches of mentoring, social skills training and positive behavior supports in conjunction with functional behavior assessments were used during the CICO period.

Components used with CICO
Mentoring, defined as having a trusted counselor or guide, is an evidence-based intervention that has been recognized as effective in increasing appropriate behaviors, while decreasing office discipline referrals and out of school suspensions (Maynard et al., 2014; Owens et al., 2012). Incorporating Positive Behavior Intervention and Support (PBIS), a behavior management system that supports and teaches desirable changes in behavior through positive reinforcement in the environment, produces even more of a positive effect in the classroom setting when combined with mentoring (Crone, Horner and Hawken, 2004; Todd et al., 2008) both in elementary (Cheney et al., 2009) and high school settings (Sinclair et al., 2005).

Social skills training (SST), a method that has a strong positive research base, is a form of instruction used by teachers and trainers to help persons learn positive and varied ways of relating to others through verbal, as well as non-verbal behaviors involved in social interactions (McDaniel et al., 2017; Robinson-Ervin et al., 2016). The mentor provides the platform for introducing appropriate social skills instruction, social goal setting for the day and reinforcement when the goals are met. Functional behavior assessments (FBAs), procedures to ascertain the purpose or reason for behaviors displayed by individuals, can be used to target particular behaviors in social skill instruction. The use of FBAs has had positive results in the literature (Bruni et al., 2017; Scott and Alter, 2017).

Purpose of study and research questions
The purpose of this study was to assess CICO’s effects for a sample of African-American males with EBD in an urban high school. Although the effectiveness of CICO are demonstrated at the elementary level (Hawken et al., 2007; Swoszowski et al., 2012; Todd et al., 2008), there are no studies that specifically target African-American males (McCurdy et al., 2007; Sinclair et al., 2005), especially at the high school level. Not only
does the study focus on African-American males in high school, but also contributes to the literature by focusing on the increase of students’ academic planning skills, social skills and the reduction of office discipline referrals. The version of CICO used in the present study included the use of FBAs. Few studies found in the literature even mentioned conducting an FBA before or during the implementation of CICO with successful results (Campbell and Anderson, 2008; March and Horner, 2002). We also monitored the positive gains of the student using Daily Report Cards (DRC). For this study, DRC is simply a method of reporting success to the mentor, student, parent and mentee.

Figure 1.
Per cent of steps for skills needed for educational success executed
Research Questions: This study addressed the following research questions:

RQ1. To what extent did the CICO program combined with academic planning social skills instruction improve participants’ execution of skills needed for educational success?

RQ2. To what extent did the CICO program combined with academic planning and social skills training increase participants skill levels (e.g. measures on the daily report card scores (DRC), a method for reporting student success)?

RQ3. What are the perceptions of teachers, students, parents and facilitators of the CICO implementation and outcomes?

Method

Participants

African-American male students were chosen because of disproportional:

- placement in special education (particularly in the EBD category);
- disciplinary referrals; and
- out of school suspensions.

Three African-American ninth grade males identified with EBD were chosen for the study. Selection criteria included:

- teacher recommendations;
- review of school records;
- classification of EBD by the school system; and
- a minimum of five office referrals for disruptive behavior (ranging from non-compliance to aggressive behavior) the current or previous year.

The students were self-identified as African-American male, attended the same school, were in the ninth grade and had the parents’ informed consent to participate in the study.

Two content area teachers were chosen to verify each student’s at-risk status by completing the Social Skills Improvement System Rating Scales Teacher Form (SSIS; Gresham and Elliott, 2008). The SSIS is an individually administered, standardized procedure measuring three subscales: Social Skills, Competing Problem Behaviors and Academic Competence. Only students receiving “Below Average” levels or lower on two or more of the seven Social Skills subscales (indicating that they exhibit fewer than the average number of social skills for individuals in their norm group) or “Above Average” level or higher on two or more of the five Competing Problem Behaviors subscales were eligible for participation in this study.

Que. Que (pseudonyms are used to identify students), a 15-year-old, ninth-grade African-American male student with EBD demonstrated in class; a) a lack of focus; b) inappropriate communications; c) aggressive and disruptive behavior; and d) inappropriate language. He had numerous suspensions and used controlled substances. According to Que’s current Individualized Education Program (IEP), he had a good attendance record but demonstrated academic difficulties. At the time of the study, he was performing in the low range in all of his core classes, earning F’s on his last report card.

Max. Max, a 15-year-old, ninth-grade African-American male with EBD with a mild intellectual disability, demonstrated noncompliance, physical aggressive behavior in class and disruptive verbal behavior. The previous year, he had several out of school suspensions.
Max was: a) failing three out of four classes; b) not making progress towards his IEP goals; and c) could not consistently organize academic task.

Nate. Nate, a 15-year-old, ninth-grade African-American male with EBD, demonstrated several inappropriate behaviors such as:

- being off-task and withdrawn;
- refusal to complete classroom assignments;
- poor planning and organization of task;

Figure 2. Per cent of Daily Report Card (DRC) points earned
His psychologist also diagnosed Nate with Major Depressive Disorder.

Setting
The study was conducted in a large, urban, Southeastern school district. The school had an enrollment of 2,050 students that was 48.4 per cent African American, 38.4 per cent Caucasian, 15.5 per cent Hispanic, 2.5 per cent Asian, 0.9 per cent American Indian and 1.2 per cent multi-racial. In all, 21 per cent of students received special education services and 58 per cent received free or reduced lunch. The intervention and mentor training occurred in the mentor’s classroom.

Experimental design and procedures
The study used a concurrent multiple baseline across participants design to determine the effect of the CICO mentoring program. CICO was combined with academic planning and social skills training to determine the effect on the DRC scores and the student’s educational success skills. The study included three phases: baseline, intervention (which included academic planning, social skills training and CICO) and maintenance.

FBA process. Before beginning the baseline conditions, FBAs were conducted for all participants. There were no mentoring session during that time. The FBA process included:
- conducting interviews of students, teachers and parents;
- conducting observations in the classroom; and
- completing antecedent, behavior, consequence assessments.

The teacher-directed functional assessment interview form, functional assessment observation form, and competing behavior model form were borrowed from the Functional Assessment and Program Development for Problem Behavior handbook (O’Neill et al., 1997).

During the student interview, participants were asked questions about their inappropriate behaviors such as, when the behavior generally occurred, and what they gained or avoided by displaying the behaviors. Parents and teachers were asked similar questions in relation to the environments where they saw the participants. Antecedent, behavior, consequence assessments were conducted for each participant, in two separate settings (e.g. math, English, history), each lasting a 90-minutes class period.

Baseline (A). During the baseline phase, participants were asked to perform important daily academic tasks by the mentor (e.g. checking their binder for assignments, bringing materials to class, discussing behavioral issues appropriately) but were not given any instruction on how to perform these daily tasks. Each of the student’s four classroom teachers completed daily report card scores at the end of every class period; however, the students did not see their scores. Based on the baseline data, the participant with the lowest and most stable level of performance entered the intervention phase first. The second participant for intervention implementation was selected using the same method.

Intervention (B). The researcher and mentor analyzed the data from the FBAs to determine the likely function of challenging behavior and to develop social skills goals for each participant. Based on this, the mentor implemented the intervention, which consisted of academic planning and social skills instruction. Detailed information is provided below.

Mentor/teacher training. The mentor, selected by the school administrator because of his positive interaction with students, was a 30 year old, African-American male teacher and
basketball coach. At the time of the study, the district had employed him for three years. The mentor was trained by the researcher to audio record the sessions and to implement the CICO with fidelity. Fidelity included:

- appropriately following the steps of the checklist;
- assisting students with setting daily goals;
- completing the DRC; and
- conducting mini social skills activities based on FBA data.

The researcher trained the mentor and teachers using role-play, discussion and modeling. Classroom teachers were shown how to complete the DRC. The researcher demonstrated to the teachers the method of using the behavior rating and reminded them that the interactions between teacher and student were to be positive when acknowledging behaviors.

*Social skills instruction.* Once the possible function of each participant’s disruptive behavior was determined using the FBAs, the researcher and mentor developed social skill activities and goals for each participant. Social skill activities were modified from *Skill-Streaming the Adolescent: New Strategies and Perspectives for Teaching Prosocial Skills* handbook (McGinnis, 2011) for their daily sessions:

- based on FBA results;
- according to the applicable setting; and
- for one-on-one instruction.

FBA data analysis showed that Que’s disruptive classroom behaviors (e.g. talking, laughing and playing) was an attempt to avoid completing assignments and usually occurred during independent assignments that he did not understand; the result being removal from class. The mentor used the “Asking for Help” activity (McGinnis, 2011) for remediation. The mentor and Que collaborated on the four steps in the activity:

- defining the problem;
- determining if assistance is needed;
- choosing a person to assist (e.g. classroom teacher, classroom assistant, or peer); and
- informing them of the problem and ask for assistance.

The activity included discussion, role-playing and checking for comprehension of the solution. During the afternoon sessions, both mentor and student discussed the success of the intervention.

An analysis of FBA data determined that Max’s off-task/non-compliant behavior was to avoid completing classroom assignments and was more likely to occur when he was required to complete a non-preferred task. The mentor used the “Following Instructions” activity (McGinnis, 2011) which consisted of four steps:

1. listen carefully for instructions;
2. ask questions to get clarity;
3. repeat the instructions for clarity; and
4. perform what is required.

The FBA analysis of Nate’s data revealed his non-compliance behavior (refusal to complete classroom assignments) was to avoid classwork. The behavior usually occurred when he
was required to work in a group. The mentor used the “Joining In” activity (McGinnis, 2011) that consisted of four steps:

1. determine participation in the activity;
2. find a suitable way to join in;
3. choose the best time to join in; and
4. join the activity.

CICO Intervention. Participants were provided the CICO intervention for ten, 15-min CICO sessions per week (at the beginning and the end of the day). The mentor explained the CICO procedure during the first morning check-in. Check-ins created a positive beginning for the day and they included:

- engaging the student in a brief chat;
- determining the completion of homework;
- giving the DRC to the student;
- checking for necessary supplies;
- collecting the DRC that had been signed by the parent; and
- positively affirming the student (e.g. have a good day).

Participants were required to:

- state the assignments they had to complete for each of their four classes;
- produce the handouts or materials required to complete the assignment(s);
- state a behavior problem to address in their class(es); and
- state strategies to address these problems (based on FBA results).

Using the DRC, general education classroom teachers rated the behavior of the students throughout the day at the end of each class period. Teachers were also encouraged to remind participants of alternatives to disruptive or inappropriate behavior. At the end of each day, the mentor:

- encouraged each participant to review the day;
- inquired about homework assignments and the materials needed to complete them;
- discussed any behavior issues that may have occurred that day and the strategies used; and
- totaled the points earned and gave appropriate reinforcements (e.g. snacks, pencils).

Participants were required to:

- state problem behaviors that day;
- state the strategy they used to address the problem;
- show their written assignment(s) for each class in their planner; and
- provide materials needed to complete the assignment(s).

Students were provided with a planner to write daily assignments. Students’ performance of task were during mentoring sessions were graphed daily (skills needed for educational success). The mentor used a procedural fidelity checklist provided by the researcher during CICO.
Two weeks after the intervention ended, maintenance data were collected. One probe point occurred two weeks after intervention was terminated and then one week later. During the maintenance phase, participants did not participate in daily check-ins or social skills training. Maintenance data were collected only for the skills needed for educational success. Maintenance data were collected during end-of-course exams (non-school day schedule); therefore, DRC data were not gathered.

Data collection

Dependent variables

The two dependent variables included the participants’ performance of skills needed for educational success and the DRCs. The primary dependent variable was the skills needed for educational success and were based on points earned during the mentoring sessions as stated earlier in the article (i.e. a) state what assignments they had to complete; b) produce materials required to complete the assignment(s) etc.) For each task, the student could earn 0 (no performance of the skill), 1 (minimal performance of the skill) or 2 (correct performance of the skill). The mentor recorded the skills for education success during morning and afternoon sessions. The secondary dependent variable was the points earned on the DRC. Teachers rated each participant’s behavior daily up to 180 points maximum. Teachers rated students on five items related to:

- following directions;
- completing assignment(s);
- talking at appropriate times; and
- displaying appropriate behaviors.

Students could earn 1-9 points per item based on a Likert scale (1-3, seldom/never, 4-6, sometimes and 7-9, often/always). They had to earn 80 per cent possible points to receive a reward (i.e. candy, snacks, pencils, etc.).

Once the first participant displayed an increase during mentoring sessions and in DRC scores; another baseline data probe was administered to the remaining participants to determine if levels of performance remained stable before the next participant was introduced to the intervention. Once all participants reached a criterion of 80 per cent during mentoring sessions and DRC scoring, the intervention was terminated. The criterion was set at 80 per cent based on the low levels of baseline data of two of the participants. Also, in an educational setting, 80 per cent is considered a B average. The researcher also wanted participants to feel the goal was attainable in an effort to avoid attrition.

Dependent variables and inter-rater agreement

Mentoring sessions were audio recorded to evaluate inter-rater reliability (IRR). (Live observation and video recording were rejected, as they were too intrusive). The researcher trained two outside doctoral students on the data collection process. The raters practiced scoring a mentoring session for each participant and reached 100 per cent agreement. IRR data for the dependent measure of execution of skills needed for educational success were collected for 33 per cent of the sessions across all conditions using the “Student’s Checklist for Check-in Check-out” form. The raters listened to a total of 30 digitally audio-recorded sessions and scored participants’ responses using the checklist. An item-by-item (26 items) analysis was used to calculate percentage of agreement by dividing number of agreed items by total number of applicable items on the checklist and multiplying by 100. During baseline, IRR was as follows: 94 per cent with a range of 92-96 per cent for Que; 96
Procedural fidelity and inter-rater reliability

Treatment fidelity data were collected using a 14-item “Procedural Checklist for Check-in Check-out” to measure the degree to which the interventions were implemented as planned. One of the trained raters listened to 33 per cent of the audio-recorded mentoring sessions. The rater then circled either a “YES” or “NO” for each item on the checklist to determine fidelity regarding the mentor’s implementation of the components of CICO. The percentage of procedural fidelity was calculated by dividing the number of correctly performed steps by the number of total steps (14) and multiplied by 100. Overall, procedural fidelity ranged from 85 to 100 per cent with a mean of 92 per cent. The steps that were not always conducted included the mentor:

- totaling points earned;
- asking for the signed DRC; and
- providing the reward if earned.

Inter-rater agreement was calculated for 50 per cent of the instructional sessions on which procedural fidelity data were collected. During baseline, inter-rater reliability was as follows: 95 per cent for Que; 98 per cent for Max; and 100 per cent for Nate. During intervention, inter-rater reliability was as follows: 100 per cent for Que; 95 per cent for Max; and 95 per cent for Nate.

Social validity

At the conclusion of the study, the researcher interviewed the participants, students and mentor. The interviews took approximately 20-30 min to complete and measured their satisfaction regarding the acceptability, benefits, practicality and effectiveness of the interventions. The same teachers who completed the SSIS inventory for the participants were asked to complete the social validity questionnaire. Teachers were asked to complete a six-item questionnaire using a four-point Likert rating scale (e.g. 1 = no improvement, 2 = slight improvement, 3 = moderate improvement or 4 = a lot of improvement) that addressed:

- degree of improvement in the target behaviors;
- appropriateness, effectiveness and practicality of the interventions used; and
- changes in perceptions and likelihood of continued uses. It took teachers approximately 5 min to complete the questionnaire.

Results

The results are as follows. They include the dependent variables: a) skills need for educational success; b) DRC points; and c) social validity.

Skills needed for educational success

Que had a mean percentage of 1.7 per cent with a range of 0-10 per cent during baseline. During the intervention phase, he scored a mean percentage of 69.3 per cent with a range of 30-80 per cent with an increasing trend. Maintenance probes for Que were 60 and 91 per cent with a mean
of 75.5 per cent. Even though there was a drop-in percentage from intervention to maintenance, the mean during maintenance was higher than the mean during intervention, suggesting success with short-term maintenance of skills.

Max had a mean percentage of 9.2 per cent with a range of 0-30 per cent during baseline. His data remained at 0 per cent during baseline when Que entered the intervention phase. During the intervention phase, he had a mean percentage of 77.9 per cent with a range of 75-80 per cent and no trend (zero slope). Maintenance probes for Max were 85 and 96 per cent with a mean of 90.5 per cent. The mean during maintenance was higher than the mean during intervention suggesting success with short-term maintenance of skills.

Nate had a mean percentage of 18.3 per cent with a range of 0-35 per cent during baseline. His data showed an increasing trend when Que entered intervention phase, but at 25 per cent, he was still below his highest baseline point. During the intervention phase, he had a mean percentage of 72.5 per cent with a range of 35-90 per cent and an increasing trend. Maintenance probes for Nate were 97 and 100 per cent with a mean of 98.5 per cent. The mean during maintenance was higher than the mean during intervention suggesting success with short-term maintenance of skills.

**DRC points.** Que had a mean percentage of 29 per cent with a range of 22-38 per cent during baseline. During the intervention phase, he had a mean percentage of 79.3 per cent with a range of 66-88 per cent. There was a distinct level change from baseline to intervention, suggesting the intervention was highly effective for improving DRC scores.

Max had a mean percentage of 36.7 per cent with a range of 22-52 per cent during baseline. His data remained stable when Que began intervention. During the intervention phase, he had a mean percentage of 86.2 per cent with a range of 83-88 per cent. There was a distinct level change from baseline to intervention, suggesting the intervention was highly effective for improving DRC scores.

Nate had a mean percentage of 40.1 per cent with a range of 33-47 per cent during baseline. His data remained stable when Max began intervention. During the intervention phase, he had a mean percentage of 79.6 per cent with a range 75-86 per cent. There was a distinct level change from baseline to intervention, suggesting the intervention was highly effective for improving DRC scores.

**Social validity**
Overall, interviews with the participants indicated positive perceptions of the strategies, benefits and interactions of mentoring intervention package. All of the participants could recall a time when meeting with the mentor circumvented conflict or had a positive impact on their day. When questioned about what could be changed to make the mentoring program better, there were no suggestions. When questioned about what they liked most about the program, common responses were:

- meeting with the mentor;
- getting feedback from teachers every day; and
- the rewards they earned for making points on their DRCs.

Results of the interviews completed by the participants’ mothers indicated that they liked being informed often of their students' performance and stated a perceived improved status of their child's grades, behavior and organization abilities.
The mentor was questioned regarding training. He stated:

The checklist was very helpful in understanding what to do and allowed me to know what the goals were. The program had a positive impact on the participants. Even if they did get into trouble, this program created some accountability, because many times the parents have no idea what's going on at the school. I like getting to see the kids, getting to know them, watching them start out shaky and then improve.

The mentor hypothesized that meeting with him daily deterred some of the behavior issues because students wanted a good report. Four of the six teachers rated student’s behavioral improvement as (3 = moderate or 4 = a lot of improvement), five of the six teachers rated the intervention’s effectiveness on students’ success in the classroom as (4 = slightly effective or 5 = effective) and three of the six teachers rated the practicality of the intervention as (3 = practical or 4 = very practical). Four of the six teachers rated students’ academic improvement as (2 = slight or 3 = moderate improvement).

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of CICO combined with the academic planning and social skills instruction for African-American males with EBD in an urban high school setting. Findings from this study indicated a likely functional relationship between the mentoring intervention and improvement in academic planning and appropriate social skills, as measured by an increase of DRC scores. Participants’ percentage of correct responses of completion of task during mentoring sessions averaged 12.3 per cent during the baseline condition and 77.1 per cent during intervention.

This study also contributes to the notion of incorporating academic planning, social skills instruction of CICO for students (Hawken et al., 2011; Owens et al., 2012; Vannest, et al., 2010). Each of the participants were able to complete the planning checklist, state the steps of social skills that would benefit them in the classroom and school environment and improved on their DRC scores. Previous researchers have had positive results by targeting social behaviors (Reinke et al., 2013) and disruptive behaviors (Lam et al., 1994).

Social validity outcomes from students, parents and classroom teachers who participated in the study were positive. Although social validity measures do not add to data for our dependent variables it is important to consider perceptions from our stakeholders. Students indicated that they found daily mentoring sessions helpful and beneficial. Based on student perceptions and performance and teacher feedback, components of CICO were effective in reducing disruptive behavior of African-American males at the high school level and are consistent with the results of previous studies (Todd et al., 2008) that found that CICO increased appropriate behaviors (i.e. talking at appropriate times in class, following directions).

Limitations and implications for future research

This study has several limitations. First, the study was conducted in an urban setting; therefore, it cannot be generalized to other geographical populations such as rural or suburban students. Second, the study is not generalizable to self-contained settings, resource rooms or other school environments. Third, a single case research design study generally has limited or no external validity because of small sample size and lack of randomization. Further replications with more participants and more sophisticated designs are needed.

The study presents several implications for future studies. First, researchers could investigate different service-level settings (e.g. self-contained or resource) and different settings (e.g. suburban or rural). Second, researchers could focus on varied populations that are targeted for inappropriate behavior or academic difficulties such as English Language Learners. Third,
the researchers could investigate if the sex or ethnicity of the mentor adds to the effectiveness of the mentoring. Researchers could also examine the effects of tutoring with CICO and investigate if mentoring is generalizable to community settings.

Conclusion
Exclusionary practices significantly affect African Americans, particularly males and those with a disability are at an even greater risk (Losen and Martinez, 2013; Losen and Gillespie, 2012; Losen et al., 2015; US Department of Education, 2014). The current study makes two important contributions to research literature. First, the results of the study support previous research (Lampley and Johnson, 2010) that CICO positively influences academic planning and behavior. Second, the study supports the combination of social skill instruction, academic planning and the CICO mentoring program as viable interventions to improve academic planning and behavior for African-American students (Campbell and Anderson, 2008; Cheney et al., 2009; Crone et al., 2004; Owens et al., 2012; Sinclair et al., 2005; Todd et al., 2008; Vannest et al., 2010). Finally, this study gives credence to mentoring programs and PBIS strategies (e.g. social skill instruction) and their positive effects on the behavior and academic achievement of African-American males.

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Further reading

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Book review

Precarious International Multicultural Education (Hegemony, Dissent and Rising Alternative)
Edited by Handel K. Wright, Michael Singh and Richard Race
The Netherlands
Sense Publishers
2012
376 p.
$35.57
(Paperback)
ISBN: 978-94-6091-892-6
ISBN E-Book: 978-94-6091-894-0

This book consisted of 19 chapters and each one includes one article. The articles were presented in a conference held in Canada 2012. Different scholars have been gathered together in this event to share their ideas and experiences about the multiculturalism and the multicultural education. The book’s main theme is to contribute to the policies and preferences for multicultural education in different countries and how these matters may affect the life of people of color and those who have different cultural backgrounds. The government laws and decisions efficacy on the multiculturalism issues on people’s life is undeniable, especially on the minority people group’s education. The terminology multiculturalism got different meanings when it is putting on the action. Different authors who have various perspectives, pointed out to the multicultural affairs. In this book, different assentation are represented for alternative educational agenda for the intellectual equality in multicultural countries such as England, Canada, Australia and the USA.

The main stream of the research is focusing on the multicultural society and how the governments are running it to gain better results. Now, for each country, it is necessary to make a meaning for multiculturalism in general and for multicultural education, in particular. In general, the governments posed some statements about supporting multiculturalism in the society like Europe and the USA, and this claim is not sensible in the educational setting and the students’ personal life in the multicultural society. In this situation, the students of multicultural teacher education thought that it is important to have better understanding of the discrimination and the racism. (2009, p. 177, citing Sleeter, 2000/2001 and McDiarmid and Price, 1990). In general, the highlighted points in these articles regard how the identity of each individual with special cultural background is important and how these individuals could live together. The ambivalent and identifications replicating of integrity of ethno-religious identities in the ethnic context has become important. Regarding to the articles, pedagogies that are relating to egalitarian cosmopolitan, are being promulgating the ability to separate oneself from restricted and exclusive ethno-cultural outlooks and the narrow forms of ethno-religious interests, and to
self-consciously, entertain the global perspectives, methods and communication (Pinar, 2009). The cosmopolitan pedagogy is being reinforced in opposition to constrains and restrictions of the influences of acute racial, ethnic and national narrow outlooks. Cosmopolitan pedagogy is amplifying intercultural contacts and the exchanges that focusing on the theoretical knowledge rather than evidentiary knowledge (Van Hooff and Vandekerckhove, 2010). From the reviewer’s view point, each policy that is made, has its own opponents and supports in the European and Western countries. Even if these diplomacies are based on the equality of the different people in a community, these laws established silent gaps between different groups in the multicultural society. People from diverse cultures, who are the immigrants, need to touch the condition in the multicultural society while appreciating the national values and customs because the values of the country that accepted the refugees, has its own place.

In particular, based on the descriptions, the students of the minority groups who have different cultural backgrounds are those who are affected by the governmental decisions. Therefore, the multiculturalism education is the response to the struggles over the students’ personality, especially all of them. In this book, the researchers highlight how each student’s personality is unique in its own place, which tends toward self-absorption and withdrawal with regard to ethnicity or generates ethno-cultural reorientations for the spectators. Knowledge exchange requires cosmopolitans’ capability development. The challenges that the educators may facing with, are the administrations, which are based on the alternatives constructed on this premise about intellectual equalization. Pedagogically, probabilities can establish the associations between people from non-Western people who have different cultural backgrounds within a Western nation-centered educational program. What the researcher means is that the educational alternative, which is worldly, embraces a development in the intellectual issues, engaged among the Western educational system, and the speaking English educators have to establish the productive use of their incapability to outreach knowledge boundaries, which is rooted in differences in educational and linguistic cultures.

Part of the articles is about how to make a meaning about how multiculturalism is disposed to understand upbringing the citizenship education. Nation-states have an important role in protecting and securing the well-being of their citizens; there is a possibility for engrossing the meanings that lie behind both children’s education policymaking and intellectual traditions and portend the need for the teachers to find pedagogies and to create diplomacies for engaging with their insufficient knowledge of these. It does not mean that the educators or students have to disconnect themselves from the basic attachments. The nation-state gives continuous protection and the importance of the rights to their non-citizens and citizens (Hollinger, 1995; Sen, 2006; Yang, 2009). The essays in this book also hint to the policies that were applied in the European countries such as Britain, Germany and France and were somehow effective. In the USA, when President Barak Obama was elected, the citizens (especially the people of color) were hoping for the changes in the governments’ policy toward the multiculturalism.

Multiculturalism consisted of the alternatives that are not nation-based but emphasized the themes and the developments between different nations and countries. The articles in this book highlight the preference pedagogies that are navigated toward advancing and overlapping egalitarian and civic national cosmopolitan identity through separated self-reflections that are oriented to build a democratic nationality and internationally by requesting global/local intellectual relations and, in particular, rationalizations for democracy establishments using different theoretical policies available among communities that are consisted of culturally diverse groups (Keane, 2009). Furthermore, the alternatives
to the multicultural education are component of assembled intercultural exchanges operated by the main intellectual responsibilities that are contributing to the educational developments beyond the national states with cultural diversities.

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References

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206 Increasing the trickle: a proposed critical multiculturalist conceptual model to increase the pipeline to a more diverse STEM doctorate population
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