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Vicks in the Classroom: A Study on the Effects of Teacher Cultural Awareness on Hispanic/Latinx Student Discipline

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VICKS IN THE CLASSROOM: A STUDY ON THE EFFECTS OF TEACHER
CULTURAL AWARENESS ON HISPANIC/LATINX STUDENT DISCIPLINE

A Dissertation

Presented to

The Faculty of the Educational Doctoral Program in Educational Leadership

San José State University

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

by

Arthur A. Maldonado

August 2022

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The Designated Dissertation Committee Approves the Dissertation Titled

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Arthur A. Maldonado

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ABSTRACT

VICKS IN THE CLASSROOM: A STUDY ON THE EFFECTS OF TEACHER CULTURAL AWARENESS ON HISPANIC/LATINX STUDENT DISCIPLINE

by Arthur A. Maldonado

With the booming Hispanic/Latinx populations nationwide, particularly in the state of California, the disproportionate disciplining of this student population for minor infractions such as defiance is an issue that has persisted for many decades. Therefore, to better inform this phenomenon, a historical perspective and critical look into the cultural awareness of teachers was examined throughout this research. The purpose of this mixed-methods study was to examine the relationship between middle school teacher cultural awareness and the disciplining of Hispanic/Latinx students in the schools being studied. The findings in this study reveal cultural perceptions from teachers that current body of research does not reflect, but have an overwhelming impact on a Hispanic/Latinx student's educational and life outcomes. Recommendations include implementing culturally responsive pedagogy into class curriculums, cultural awareness professional development training, international student teaching, and critical consciousness and ethical caring training for teachers, district, and school leaders at all levels.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Tables	ix
List of Figures	x
Chapter 1: Introduction and Statement of the Problem	1
California Suspension Data.....	7
Statement of the Problem.....	15
Statement of the Purpose	19
Research Questions	19
Assumptions.....	20
Background and Role of the Researcher in the Study	20
Definition of Terms.....	24
Overview of the Study	30
Chapter 2: A Review of the Literature.....	31
Brief History and Evolution of School Discipline in U.S. Public Schools.....	31
Puritans and Protestantism.....	32
Corporal Punishment and Shaming of Hispanic/Latinx Students.....	36
Historical Educational Inequities	41
Americanization and Segregation	41
U.S. Perceptions of Hispanic/Latinx Populations.....	47
Exclusionary Discipline	52
The Gun-Free Schools Act.....	54
Zero Tolerance	55
School-to-Prison Pipeline	57
Shaming in American Schools.....	59
Culturally Responsive Teachers	62
Culturally Responsive Pedagogy	64
International Student Teaching.....	65
Ethical Caring	65
Social Reproduction Theory and Settler Teacher Syndrome.....	66
Gaps in the Research.....	69
Conceptual Theoretical Framework.....	69
Critical Race Theory.....	69
Latino Critical Race Theory (LatCrit)	70
Summary	71
Chapter 3: Methods and Procedures	72
Introduction.....	72
Statement of the Purpose	72
Research Questions.....	72
Research Design and Rationale	72

Population and Sample	74
Selection Criteria for the Sample	75
Instrumentation	75
Phase 1	75
Phase 2	76
Trustworthiness	77
Field-Test Procedures	78
Data Collection Procedures.....	78
Data Analysis	80
Phase 1. District and School Archival Data.....	80
Phase 2. Mixed-Methods Scenario Survey	82
Limitations	83
Summary	85
 Chapter 4: Data Analysis and Findings of the Study	 87
Introduction.....	87
Statement of the Purpose	87
Research Questions.....	88
Sample Profile.....	88
Demographic Profile of the Sample.....	89
Data Analysis	90
Phase 1: Archival Suspension Data Statistical Relevance Findings.....	90
Phase 2 Research Questions 1: Survey Data Findings and Discussion	91
Scenario 1: Speaking Spanish Over the Teacher	92
Scenario 2: Student Interrupts Class.....	95
Scenario 3: Caldo de Pollo and Sprite	95
Scenario 4: Vicks in the Classroom.....	98
Scenario 5: The Sleepy Student	101
What Attributes to Student Misbehavior	102
Research Question 2 Phase I and II: Convergent Findings and Discussion	103
Summary	105
 Chapter 5: Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations for Future Research and Action.....	 106
Introduction.....	106
Statement of the Purpose	106
Research Questions.....	106
Summary of Key Findings Research Question 1	107
Summary of Key Findings Research Question 2.....	107
Conclusions and Discussion	108
Complexity of Cultural Awareness and Discipline	108
Settler Teacher Syndrome.....	109
Disproportionality of Discipline Remains Highest with Hispanic/Latinx Students.....	109

Pervasiveness of a Deficit Perspective of Hispanic/Latinx Students.....	109
Lack of Critical Consciousness and Need for Ideological Clarity.....	110
Recommendations for Further Research Studies.....	110
Implications for Action.....	111
Epilogue.....	111
References.....	112
Appendix	
A Administrator Email.....	123
B Teacher Email.....	124
C Survey Instrument and Consent Form.....	125
D Deductive Code Book.....	137

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1	California School Suspension Data, 2011-12	8
Table 2	California School Suspension Data, 2016-17	8
Table 3	Three-Year Average of Historical Cumulative Hispanic/Latinx Enrollment Data from Fourteen California Middle Schools, 2016-17, 2017-18, and 2018-2019	81
Table 4	Three-Year Average of Historical Hispanic/Latinx Suspension Data from Fourteen California Middle Schools, with prevalent teacher ethnicity 2016-17, 2017-18, and 2018-2019	82
Table 5	Teacher Distribution of Surveys	89
Table 6	Scenario 1: Speaking Over the Teacher survey results with deductive codebook descriptor	93
Table 7	Scenario 2: Student Interrupts the Class Survey Results with Deductive Codebook Descriptor	96
Table 8	Scenario 3: Caldo de Pollo and Sprite Survey Results with Deductive Codebook Descriptor	97
Table 9	Scenario 4: Vicks in the Classroom Survey Results with Deductive Codebook Descriptor	99
Table 10	Scenario 5: The Sleepy Student Survey Results with Deductive Codebook Descriptor	101
Table 11	Closed-Ended Question: Reasons for Student Misbehavior	103

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1 2016-2017 Comparison of Fourteen Middle Schools and Statewide
Suspension Percentages92

Chapter 1: Introduction and Statement of the Problem

Public education has successfully shifted the blame for the failure of schools to meet the needs of minority students on to the shoulders of the clients they purport to serve. They have pulled off the perfect crime, for they can never be held accountable since the reason for failure in school is said to be the fault of poor homes, cultural handicaps, linguistic deficiencies, and deprived neighborhoods. The fact that schools are geared primarily to serve monolingual, White, middle-class and Anglo clients is never questioned. (Arciniega, 1977)

These words ring true more than four decades after they were written. Throughout U.S. history, there have been countless campaigns to Americanize minority students. As a result, the U.S. educational system has continuously failed to properly educate the minority youth in California and throughout the United States. However, minority youth like Hispanic/Latinx students are no longer the minority. This student population has grown steadily and has made up the majority of public school students in California since the 2009–10 school year (Buenrostro, 2018). Although efforts have been made over the years to better serve the minority student populations, punitive disciplinary policies such as corporal punishment, suspensions and shaming, as well as other exclusionary and discriminatory policies such as Americanization have deprived Students of Color of a free and equitable public education. These unethical practices have exacerbated the school-to-prison pipeline, elevated disproportionate high school dropout rates and suspensions, normalized shaming, and stripped Students of Color of their culture and language (Fowles, 2019; Kennedy et al., 2017; Losen & Martin, 2018). Racial microaggressions or slights have also been complicit in depriving Students of Color of a stress-and trauma-free educational environment. In and of itself a microaggression may seem harmless, but the cumulative burden of a lifetime of

microaggressions can theoretically contribute to early death, augmented morbidity, and flattened confidence (Pierce, 1995, p. 281).

The purpose of this study was to explore teacher cultural awareness and the disciplining of Hispanic/Latinx students. It also intends to examine the cause-and-effect impact that language-cultural shaming and racial microaggressions have on student behavior, which ultimately leads to student discipline (Kohli & Solórzano, 2012). A lack of cultural awareness from educators has a profound effect on student behavior and academic success, which this study will show (Moll, 2014). Teachers mispronouncing a student's name or preventing Hispanic/Latinx students from speaking Spanish are some of the reasons why students have misbehaved and acted out in defiance and challenged a teacher's authority. Others have unfortunately dropped out of school due to being excluded from the classroom learning environment so often that they fall behind only to end up in the school-to-prison pipeline, while others have quietly hidden the pain of their K-12 school years and went about their lives (Losen & Martin, 2018). The lack of cultural awareness is a real threat to our Hispanic/Latinx youth (Ortiz et al., 2012).

A few years ago, I attended an elementary school award ceremony. As each teacher went up to the podium to present certificates of academic achievement, I could not help but notice that these teachers were not accurately pronouncing the names of some of their students. This was a mid-year event, so teachers had plenty of time to get to know their students and practice how to say their names correctly. Many of the students whose names were being mispronounced were either Asian or Hispanic/Latinx descent, and therefore did not have traditional Anglo-American first and last names. One student's last name was Martinez,

which phonetically is commonly pronounced Mar-THEEN-ehz. However, the teacher pronounced the student's last name as MAR-tin-ehz.

Another Hispanic/Latinx student's first name was also not pronounced correctly. The student's first name was Natalia, and while it is commonly pronounced as Nah-THAH-lee-ah, the teacher announced her name as Nuh-TAY-lee-uh. While the mispronunciation of these students' names was nothing short of unacceptable, especially in the age of Google and YouTube, what was even more shocking was the way a teacher pronounced the traditional Nahuatl-Mexican name, Cuauhtémoc. Before she uttered the name, as if her statement would justify her actions, she told the audience of her peers, parents, students, and administrators that she was going to mangle this student's name ahead of time. In an attempt to be humorous, she asked the student to forgive her for this mistake. "I am going to butcher this student's name, so please forgive me, 'C,'" she chuckled. "I usually just call him 'C.'" She started to slowly pronounce his name, "Coo-ah," then leaned back and slurred one of the most disrespectful sounds I ever heard at such an event. "Coo-ah... mooka-utah-mooka-blah-blah-blah. I don't know how to say it!" she exclaimed as she laughed at her mistake. "He can come up and say his own name." She drew chuckles from the crowd. My jaw dropped in disbelief. When the student walked up to receive his award, not only was he visibly embarrassed, but he was also nervous to walk up to the podium to pronounce his first name correctly. "Come on... come on up and say it," she insisted. Apprehensive, but with some pressure from his teacher, he spoke into the podium's microphone and said, "kwow-TEH-mohk," as the crowd laughed and then proceeded to give him a round of applause.

While pronouncing a student's name incorrectly may seem trivial and often times jovial, it can leave long lasting impressions and emotional scars on Students of Color. The hurt and shame can run so deep, that students go so far as to anglicize their names, as was the case with a student in Oregon:

Every teacher she ever had mispronounced her name. She dreaded daily attendance, never raised her hand, and tried to remain inconspicuous and anonymous in the classroom. She graduated from one of Portland's high schools with honors. At the honors ceremony prior to graduation, a vice principal walked to the podium to present the student with a prestigious award. He butchered her name mercilessly, shaking his head and laughing as others laughed along. The student slumped in her seat and hid behind the person seated in front of her. She did not go onstage to receive her award and did not attend graduation the next night. As soon as she was able to, the student changed her name to 'Anita.' (Kohli & Solórzano, 2012, p. 453)

Research has shown that negating one's name can be detrimental to students' psychological well-being from an early age, causing anxiety, stress, embarrassment, and shame around their name (Wickramasinghe, 2021). This, in turn, harms their sense of identity and dehumanizes the student. It can also hinder academic progress and impact how they see themselves and their culture (Kohli & Solórzano, 2012; Mitchell, 2016). In effect, name mispronunciation is a microaggression, or a "tiny act of bigotry" (Gonzalez, 2014). By not making an effort to pronounce a student's name correctly, it demonstrates the preconceived notion that they do not belong. If a child goes to school and reads textbooks that do not reference their culture, sees no teachers or administrators that look like them, and perhaps does not hear their home language, the mispronunciation of their name is an additional example for that student that who they are and where they come from is not important (Kohli & Solórzano, 2012). Furthermore, when a teacher who is an authority figure in a classroom space, either mispronounces, makes fun of, or changes a student of color's name, they are essentially

making it acceptable for other students to do the same. When students are taught to tease the unfamiliar, rather than embrace or celebrate an exposure to something new, it can create a climate of racial hostility for those who are not part of the majority (Kohli & Solórzano, 2012).

Students of Color see the correct pronunciation of their names as a bridge not only to their cultures and family significance, but also to understanding (Kohli & Solórzano, 2012; Mitchell, 2016). A child begins to understand who they are through their parents' accent, intonation and pronunciation of their name (Kohli & Solórzano, 2012). Names can connect children to their ancestors, country of origin or ethnic group, and often have deep meaning or symbolism for parents and families (Kohli & Solórzano, 2012). When student names are butchered and disrespected, teachers are indirectly disrespecting both the student's family and their culture. If bridges are to be built between Students of Color and their teachers, it is critical that teachers respect the names and cultures of their students. Most importantly, when students do not respond to their mispronounced names, then they are labeled as defiant, as was the case of a Spanish-speaking student by the name of Carmen Fariña. As a kindergarten student in 1950s Brooklyn, she had a teacher who marked her absent every day for weeks because she didn't raise her hand during roll call (Mitchell, 2016). The teacher assumed Fariña was being defiant, but she never heard her name called; the teacher had repeatedly failed to pronounce it correctly, including rolling the r's (Mitchell, 2016). Defiance and the discipline go hand in hand, and it has been one of the main culprits in the disproportionate disciplining of Hispanic/Latinx students for decades (Losen & Martin, 2018).

In another case of name mispronunciation and racial microaggression, a Latina teacher named Elaine who was in a teacher preparation program shared an example of a time when she went to observe a teacher's classroom. She said this teacher was repeatedly mispronouncing the names of her immigrant students.

The teacher called someone whose name is Fidel, "Fiddle, Fiddle," and the student did not respond because that's not his name. You're not going to respond to your name if you don't recognize it. And then she berated him, yelled at him like, "Why aren't you answering me? Why aren't you answering me?" and of course imagine how confused [he was]. It was clear that [he was thinking]... "This teacher is yelling at me because I'm doing something wrong. I don't know what I'm doing, but I'm being bad." (Kohli & Solórzano, 2012, p. 454)

In an interview, Elaine argued that the teacher was not sensitive to the students' names, their recent arrival in the US, or their limited English skills. While the teacher in this example did not intentionally mispronounce Fidel's name, or even realize that she was doing so, the frustration she exerted on the young immigrant child was due to her lack of cultural knowledge. Because of the impact this episode had on the child, this action, regardless of the teacher's intentions, was a racial microaggression (Kohli & Solórzano, 2012, p. 455).

In yet another case of defiance, a Hispanic/Latinx student by the name of Gilbert Rivera challenged the authority of his teacher for shaming his language and accent in a college preparatory English class. When Gilbert was shamed by his teacher for his failure to say the word "church" in an anglicized accent, in defiance, he did not complete any classwork for the rest of the school year. Thinking back on the incident, Gilbert said not doing any work in class was his way of standing up against that type of oppression (Rivera, 2016). The teacher ultimately gave him a passing grade of a D minus minus (Rivera, 2016).

These subtle microaggressions or slights have resulted in Hispanic/Latinx students being labeled as defiant, and defiance such as this has become one of the main culprits causing the high discipline and suspension rates for Hispanic/Latinx student populations. These slights can take their toll on Students of Color, and in some cases, cause students to act out in defiance against their teachers, which in turn can cause a teacher to react and suspend the student from the classroom learning environment.

California Suspension Data

As revealed by an analysis of a California suspension data news release by the California Department of Education (CDE, 2017), Hispanic/Latinx student total suspensions and suspensions for defiance-only accounted for well over half of all suspensions during the 2011-12 academic school year (see Table 1). Of the 335,079 total statewide suspensions that were for defiance-only, 184,621 (55 percent) were given to Hispanic/Latinx students. The second highest number of suspensions for defiance-only were issued to White students, who received 65,998 (20 percent) suspensions. Even higher were the total suspension numbers in California during the 2011-12 academic school year. There was a total of 709,702 total statewide suspensions. Of that number, 379,686 (53 percent) suspensions were issued to Hispanic/Latinx students. White students had the second highest suspension numbers at 143,818 (20 percent), while African American students had 134,064 (19 percent).

These numbers were disproportionately high and have since declined. However, while the suspension numbers for defiance-only have decreased over the years, as of the 2016-17 school year, Hispanic/Latinx students still accounted for more than half of the total statewide suspensions for defiance-only (see Table 2). Of the 78,242 total statewide suspensions that

Table 1
California School Suspension Data, 2011-12

Total Suspensions and Suspensions for Defiance-Only				
	Total Statewide Suspensions	Total Statewide Suspensions for Defiance-Only	Total Statewide Suspension Percentage	Total Statewide Suspension Percentage for Defiance-Only
All other races/ethnicities	330,016	150,458	47%	45%
Hispanic/Latinx	379,686	184,621	53%	55%
Totals	709,702	335,079	100%	100%

Source. CDE (2017)

Table 2
California School Suspension Data, 2016-17

Total Suspensions and Suspensions for Defiance-Only				
	Total Statewide Suspensions	Total Statewide Suspensions for Defiance-Only	Total Statewide Suspension Percentage	Total Statewide Suspension Percentage for Defiance-Only
All other races/ethnicities	178,821	35,046	47%	45%
Hispanic/Latinx	203,024	43,196	53%	55%
Totals	381,845	78,242	100%	100%

Source. CDE (2017)

were issued for defiance-only, 43,196 (55 percent) were given to Hispanic/Latinx students. That is nearly three times more than the number of suspensions for defiance-only that White (15,630) and African American (12,927) students received during that same school year. As was noted in the previous sentence, White students had the second highest number of suspensions for defiance-only, behind Hispanic/Latinx students. As was the case for defiance-only suspensions, California also saw total suspension numbers steadily decline after the 2011-12 school year. The 2016-17 school year had a total of 381,845 suspensions, of which 203,024 (53 percent) were issued to Hispanic/Latinx students. So, although the numbers of total suspensions and suspensions for defiance-only have drastically declined, the percentage of Hispanic/Latinx students who were suspended during the 2016-17 school year has nearly remained the same since 2011-12.

Hispanic/Latinx students have been disciplined for many other so-called “willful defiance” behaviors such as for speaking Spanish, not doing any work in class to challenge the authority of teachers who shame students, and simply not responding to one’s mispronounced name during roll call when teachers take attendance. In extreme cases, these students were paddled on the buttocks or had their mouths taped shut for these infractions in the 1950s and 1960s. However, since corporal punishment was abolished in most states in the 1970s and 1980s, discipline for these minor infractions has taken much more of an exclusionary form of punishment that has come by way of suspensions. The educational treatment of Hispanic/Latinx students has reflected the racial attitudes of Anglo-Americans toward Students of Color for centuries. This study examines the historical lack of cultural awareness such as the prejudices and microaggressions of teachers and the discipline of Hispanic/Latinx students that has resulted from it. Moreover, data and research have consistently shown that the overrepresentation of Hispanic/Latinx youth in school discipline percentages is not due to higher rates of misbehavior by this student population, but instead is impacted by a lack of cultural knowledge, racial structures, and systemic factors that this study will examine.

Teachers who send students out of class to in-school suspension (ISS) due to disruption or defiance often use exclusionary forms of discipline instead of demonstrating best behavior practices for students to use in the classroom. There is a history of punitive and exclusionary discipline that has been pervasive throughout the U.S public education system for many years, particularly against Students of Color (Emmons & Belangee, 2018; Mancilla, 2018). These exclusionary policies have forced Students of Color and socioeconomically

disadvantaged students into the principal's office and increasingly into the juvenile and criminal justice systems. They have exacerbated the school-to-prison pipeline. While research has shown that these forms of exclusionary discipline have been commonplace in many school districts and classrooms across the United States, they have not been effective in reducing misbehaviors in the classroom (Dupper, 2010; Rios, 2011; Skiba, 2014).

Victor Dike (2018), author of *In-School Suspension (ISS): School Discipline that Works*, asserts that ISS is a useful tool to deal with disruptive and destructive students. He argues that the ISS program, if properly implemented, is an effective discipline policy to reform students' misbehavior in the classroom, because it retains students in school where trained officials have the opportunity to give the students appropriate consequences for their inappropriate behavior, and at the same time transform their behavior with structured programs (Dike, 2018).

In contrast, Neil Blomberg (2004), author of *Effective Discipline for Misbehavior: In School vs. Out of School Suspension*, suggests that although it does remove a disruptive or potentially dangerous student from the academic setting, it offers little to at-risk students in the long term. While Dike points out that ISS, if implemented properly, was created to help correct student misbehavior, a dedicated number of educators and structured programs is needed for remediation. However, Bernshausen and Cunningham (2001) surmise that teachers seldom have the time to do this. They assert that inexperienced teachers often do not have the time to develop successful strategies to control their students, and thus burn out early in their careers (Bernshausen & Cunningham, 2001). Walters and Frei (2007) agree and further suggest that controlling students remains a challenge for veteran teachers as well, as

each year brings a fresh group of students for whom to establish management practices. Moreover, since teachers are not dedicating the time to teach appropriate behaviors to their most disruptive or defiant students, a perpetual cycle exists in which these students are continuously being sent out of class. Historically, a large percentage of these students have been Students of Color. As a result, these student populations are not being taught the appropriate classroom behavioral skills needed to return to the classroom learning environment after a suspension. According to Slee (1999), this is evidenced by the fact that students who are repeatedly suspended from school often return to school with the same or worse behaviors following a suspension. Repeatedly suspending students who do not have the necessary skills to behave appropriately in school will not result in more desirable behaviors (Dupper, 2010). Subsequently, sending a student out of class to ISS for defiant or disruptive behaviors may benefit the teacher, the majority of students in the class, and the immediate learning environment in the short term. However, what long-term benefits, if any, befall the students who are repeatedly sent out of class when behaviors are not addressed and rectified? While much scholarly work has been conducted to spotlight the issue of classroom misbehavior resulting in students being sent to ISS, this study takes a deeper look into another lesser-known phenomenon that may also be contributing to this punitive form of student discipline. What if Hispanic/Latinx student misbehavior is not the problem and behavioral remediation policies like ISS are not the answer? This study examines teacher cultural responsiveness as a potential cause for the disproportionate number of suspensions of Hispanic/Latinx student populations. Hispanic/Latinx students are the fastest growing minority population in the country, and yet they account for one of the highest percentages of

school discipline and school suspensions in California. If teachers were more understanding, accepting, and knowledgeable of Hispanic/Latinx culture and language, would they be less likely to discipline and suspend these students for minor infractions such as defiance and disruption? This will be the overarching theme that will be examined throughout this study.

Latinos comprise the nation's largest minority group, both as a percentage of the population (17.6 percent) and as a percentage of school-age students (25 percent) (Gándara, 2017). It was predicted by the President's Advisory Commission on Educational Excellence for Hispanic Americans (2000) that, by the year 2050, Hispanic American students will constitute nearly one-quarter of the overall K-12 population. However, that milestone has already been achieved, and more than 30 years ahead of schedule. According to the U.S. Census Bureau, one in four K-12 students in the United States is Hispanic/Latinx (Gándara, 2017). Furthermore, the National Center for Education Statistics projects that by 2023, nearly one-third of all students will be Hispanic/Latinx (Snyder et al., 2016). While the Hispanic/Latinx student populations continue to grow throughout the country, so too is the failure of U.S. society to educate them. In terms of academic achievement, Hispanic/Latinx youth continue to lag behind non-Hispanics even though Hispanic/Latinx children under 18 years of age are the second largest group of students after Whites (Kohler & Lazarín, 2007). According to a 2005 Harvard University report on California youth, only 60% of Hispanic/Latinx and 57% of African American students graduated with their high school class in 2002 as compared to 84% of Asian American students (Ochoa, 2007). While the use of suspensions has decreased over the years, Hispanic/Latinx students still underperform academically in comparison to their non-Hispanic peers. Much of the reduction in

suspensions can be attributed to lessening the use of suspensions to respond to minor misbehaviors such as defiance and disruption. Alternatives to these suspensions, such as restorative justice interventions and policy mandates such as AB 420 and SB 419, have attributed to this decline as well. However, although many of these strategies have been successful in mitigating Hispanic/Latinx suspension and student dropout rates, research still shows that Hispanic/Latinx students are one of the most disproportionately disciplined student populations in California and lose out on valuable instructional time. Data from the CDE (2017) shows that the suspension numbers for Hispanic/Latinx youth are still much higher than other student groups, even though they have experienced significant declines since 2011-12 (see Table 2).

Why are these statistics significant to this study? They are important because as the percentage of Hispanic/Latinx student populations continue to grow year after year in the United States, particularly in California, so too does their percentage of suspensions and high school dropout rates. So, what can we attribute to the continued disproportionate disciplinary percentages of Hispanic/Latinx students? Does student discipline rest solely upon the misbehaviors of these students? If not them, then who is to blame? While evidence-based frameworks such as Multi-Tiered Systems of Support (MTSS) provide prevention and interventions for all students which cover everything from parental engagement, school and community collaboration, curriculum design, postsecondary goals, and teacher professional development (Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning, 2018), not enough emphasis is placed on cultivating teacher cultural awareness. The consequences and complexities of Hispanic/Latinx student discipline are explored in this study. We give

teachers frameworks and intervention strategies such as MTSS and PBIS to help build and improve Hispanic/Latinx competencies in the classroom and on school campuses. We established community partnerships with parents and stakeholders for successful school functioning and deeper student engagement, support, and well-being. We positively reinforced the appropriate Hispanic/Latinx student behaviors to help lessen issues with disruption and willful defiance, which ultimately lead to ISSs. However, despite the current paradigm shift towards evidence-based practices to improve educational outcomes, disproportionate student suspension percentages amongst Hispanic/Latinx student populations still persist. The root of the problem may be more difficult to measure. For decades, much of the blame has been placed on the defiant students, their language barriers, the absentee parents, or the low socio-economic communities that surround most of the schools with high Hispanic/Latinx student populations (Arciniega, 1977). Every year, schools contend with how they can improve student behavior, achieve greater parental involvement, and help students rise above their circumstances and focus on school in order to achieve greater academic success (Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning, 2018). However, not enough focus may be placed on teachers in order to help them and school districts rectify the past, allowing them to see the greater picture of what is at stake for the future. It may be that Hispanic/Latinx student discipline is rooted not only in the cultural competency of our educators, but also in the U.S. educational system's historical attitudes and perceptions of Students of Color.

The historical perspective in the proceeding chapter has been told by students who were on the receiving end of these policies. There are solutions that can be implemented and will

be recommended in this study. It is important to keep in mind that Hispanic/Latinx students are the majority student population in California and are continuing to grow in numbers in other states across the country as well. As each passing academic year, more will be filling seats in the classrooms. If American dominant society and school leaders cannot assist in rectifying the past and help teachers understand the ramifications of disciplining and suspending the future of California and America, then school leaders and educators will not be able find practical and effective solutions and alternatives to suspensions and disciplinary infractions. This in turn will not allow school leaders to improve high school graduation and dropout rates or disrupt the school-to-prison pipeline. If they cannot achieve this, then the progress of U.S. communities both statewide and nationally may appear uncertain for the foreseeable future.

Statement of the Problem

Of the 6.2 million K-12 students who attend California public schools, just over half—3,376,591 million (54 percent)—are Latino (Buenrostro, 2018). Of that number of Hispanic/Latinx students who attend California public schools, over 200,000 were suspended at least once during the 2017-18 academic school year. With the knowledge that Hispanic/Latinx student enrollment numbers are rapidly increasing every year and represent over half of all California students, the role that teachers play in the percentage of disciplinary infractions and suspensions of this student population was explored. Hispanic/Latinx students have had one of the highest suspension and dropout rates in California over the past decade compared with other student demographics. However, while the Hispanic/Latinx population has grown rapidly throughout the United States, the teaching

force has remained predominantly White, with limited intercultural experience (American Association of College for Teacher Education, 1994; Sleeter, 2001). Only 14.6% of all teachers nationwide identify as African American or Latinx (Schaeffer, 2021), and only 13% of teachers report that they speak a language other than English at home (Williams et al., 2016). Furthermore, researchers indicate that many U.S. teachers may have little understanding of those who are culturally or racially different than themselves (Castro, 2010; Sleeter, 2001). As this study will show, the California schools and teachers that were surveyed in this study embody the national demographic, which is a predominantly White workforce in education. Therefore, it was critical to take a deeper look into the level of cultural responsiveness of California educators in order to understand the possible reasons why Hispanic/Latinx students have the highest suspension numbers and are disproportionately disciplined at high percentages in California.

Throughout California public schools, the ethnic group with one of the largest suspension and dropout percentages have historically been Hispanic/Latinx students. It was important to evaluate this trend because researchers have discovered a correlation between suspension and dropout rates and an increased risk for involvement in the juvenile justice system (Losen & Martin, 2018), commonly known as the school-to-prison pipeline (Fowles, 2019; Okilwa et al., 2017; Mendez, 2003).

Latinos are the second-largest student population enrolled in the nation's schools (behind their White peers), and improved educational outcomes for Latinos have not kept pace with their rapid growth (Kohler & Lazarín, 2007). Studies have shown that when Hispanic/Latinx students are suspended or removed from the classroom learning environment, they lose

instructional time. When they lose instructional time, they fall behind, which makes it harder for them to catch up to their peers. What is the end result? Students drop out of school. The California School Board Association (2015) explained in an AB 420 Discipline Fact Sheet:

Suspension and other disciplinary practices that send students away from the classroom often cause students to feel disconnected from the school community and miss valuable learning time, which can put them further behind academically. It is reasoned that students act out because of the frustration and/or boredom they feel because they cannot follow the lesson. If this is true, then sending these students away from school by suspending or expelling them is counterproductive. Instead of being given the support to catch up, they are sent home where they fall further behind academically and become less connected with the school community.

A connection was discovered and acknowledged by the California School Board Association between disciplinary practices and suspensions resulting in the loss of classroom instructional/learning time and dropping out of school. Furthermore, being suspended in middle school dramatically increased the risk for dropping out and for involvement in the juvenile justice system (Losen & Martin, 2018). A study released in 2018 by UCLA researchers indicated that California students lost over 760,000 days of instructional time during the 2016-17 academic school year alone (Losen & Martin, 2018). Most notably, these suspensions had the greatest impact on students in grades seven and eight, and were one of the highest amongst Hispanic/Latinx student populations (Losen & Martin, 2018).

The statistics are being highlighted to evaluate teacher cultural awareness and its impact on Hispanic/Latinx student suspensions and discipline in middle school. To explore these variables, a comprehensive 2018 report was conducted by the U.S. Government Accounting Office. In a statement, the U.S. Government Accounting Office determined, “implicit bias on the part of teachers and staff may cause them to judge students’ behaviors differently based on the students’ race and sex.” Therefore, this study sought to investigate the interplay

between the cultural awareness of educators and the diverse student populations they purport to serve to find a possible explanation for such high disciplinary and suspension percentages amongst Hispanic/Latinx middle school students in California.

Furthermore, as Hispanic/Latinx students continue to increase in numbers in California public schools, more of a focus needs to be placed on properly preparing teachers to educate students to be successful adult citizens. As it stands now, the cause and effect of suspending Hispanic/Latinx students so frequently to the point that they drop out of school may end up being a significant hindrance to the economic dominance that California currently enjoys, not just locally within communities in California, but nationally and globally as well.

This study introduces Critical Race Theory (CRT) and Latinx Critical Race Theory (LatCrit) as frameworks to critically look at the systems and structures in place that have an impact on the educational successes of Hispanic/Latinx students; furthermore, these systems and structures such as culturally relevant pedagogy, international student teaching, and ethical caring are meant to empower teachers, policy-makers, and school leaders to promote greater equity and social justice for Students of Color. As of 2018, 77% of the students in California were non-White, with 54% being Hispanic/Latinx (Buenrostro, 2018). Therefore, there is an urgent and significant need to build cultural knowledge and understanding so that teachers and educators in schools can adequately comprehend the needs of their students in order to disrupt these high suspension and discipline numbers and percentages of Students of Color.

Statement of the Purpose

The purpose of this mixed-methods and culturally responsive study was three-fold: (a) to determine why Hispanic/Latinx students are disproportionately disciplined in public schools by middle school teachers who have or do not have knowledge of culture; (b) to better understand what factors may contribute to the pattern of student discipline and the extent of disproportionality with a focus on the importance of a teacher's knowledge of Hispanic/Latinx culture; and (c) to understand the extent of the practice of cultural responsiveness by teachers relative to the Hispanic/Latinx students they serve. In this study, the purpose was to explore the cultural awareness of California middle school teachers and its impact on the disciplining of Hispanic/Latinx students. This study also examines the specific population of students that were suspended during the 2016-17, 2017-18, and 2018-19 academic school years.

Research Questions

RQ1: What are middle school teacher perceptions of knowledge of culture and its application in practice when disciplining middle school Hispanic/Latinx students?

RQ2: In what ways does knowledge of culture affect discipline practices of teachers?

The research questions were intended to gather explanations from teachers about exclusionary discipline practices. The first question sought to determine the level of cultural consciousness that teachers may or may not have when disciplining Hispanic/Latinx students. The reasoning behind this question stemmed from the notion that if a teacher has knowledge and awareness of the Hispanic/Latinx culture, they would be less likely to discipline or suspend them, and instead, try to build relationships and rapport with them. The second question served to ascertain the following: even if teachers have knowledge of or share

Hispanic/Latinx student culture, does that ultimately play a factor in determining whether they discipline these students or not? These questions may help inform teachers and administrators of improved teaching techniques and procedures in properly managing, understanding, relating to, and building rapport with the Hispanic/Latinx students they serve.

Assumptions

The research is based on respondents' willingness to participate in this study and survey. Their perceptions will be an accurate depiction of what actually occurs when faced with disciplinary interactions with middle school students. In addition, the research study is believed to be relevant to the respondents and will result in an outcome that will provide a basis of knowledge to the research questions.

Background and Role of the Researcher in the Study

This study was particularly important to me because I saw firsthand the number of suspensions and disciplinary actions that disproportionately targeted and affected the Hispanic/Latinx students within my school district. I was one of those students. I was disciplined on several occasions throughout my intermediate years when I attended school. The treatment that I received from teachers and administrators as an adolescent in a predominantly Hispanic/Latinx school district was not only unfair but was also discriminatory in practice.

During the early 1990s, explicit rap music was making its way into the homes, Sony Walkman cassette and CD players, boomboxes, and car stereos of every rebellious and impressionable youngster in America. Parents all across the country, led by censor advocate groups and high-profile political figures, were either trying to censor rap music, prevent their

children from listening to it, or suppress the culture associated with it. These groups successfully campaigned for and garnered approval from music companies to affix parental warning labels to record albums that contained explicit lyrics that promoted excessive violence or glorified drugs. However, despite the fact that these warning labels were placed on records, it made youngsters want to buy that type of music even more because it made them look cool and rebellious to their friends to have such music. Ultimately, rap music and its explicit lyrics made its way into mainstream society, and so did the dress of urban street culture—baggy clothes.

School administrations all across California were taking notice and a hardline stance on the issue of rap music and its effect on young adolescents. The urban street culture was making its way into schools. Students in my district were being suspended in droves because of the baggy clothes that they were wearing to school. How did administrators justify these suspensions? They used the Guns-Free School Act and zero-tolerance policies as legal justification. The federal government, through the Guns-Free School Act required states to enact zero tolerance legislation mandating school districts expel students automatically for a period of one year if they brought weapons to school (Sughrue, 2003). So, my school district, along with many others throughout California, suspended students for wearing baggy clothes under the false pretense that students could conceal weapons and other drug paraphernalia inside of these garments. As a result of this new district- and county-wide dress code policy, I was suspended for wearing what school administrators considered to be “baggy jeans.” However, if school administrations understood the Hispanic/Latinx culture at this time, they would have realized that parents like mine, who worked extremely hard to provide a decent

living for their families, could not afford to purchase jeans every time their children had a growth spurt. So, what would parents like mine do? They would buy us clothes that did not necessarily fit perfectly, but that we would eventually grow into.

Hispanic/Latinx parents did their best to buy their children clothes that were not only fashionable, but that they could afford. They would routinely buy us shirts that were at least a size bigger than we normally wore. They also bought us jeans that were at most an inch or two wider in the waist and longer in the hem. To solve our issue of loose jeans at the waist, we would use a belt. To prevent our jeans from dragging past our shoes, we would cuff up our pants an inch or two at the hem and staple them in place. If parents could afford a few extra dollars to get them hemmed, we would take our jeans to a Mexican seamstress or “sastre.” For other Hispanic/Latinx students, their parents sewed their pants themselves, which really didn’t score them any popularity points with students in school. These methods of hemming or stapling were usually preferred in Hispanic/Latinx households because it was a cheaper alternative to buying new jeans every time kids had a growth spurt. As we grew taller, we would either let some of the hem down and staple our pants lower or venture off again to the sastre.

So, although my jeans were not baggy in terms of being able to conceal a weapon of any sort, they were slightly roomy at the waist and longer at the hem. I used a belt to hold my pants up to my waist and a stapler to secure the inside of the hem to prevent them from dragging on the ground. School district dress code policy stated that the pant waist of male and female jeans could not be more than two fingers in width, or the width of a ruler; nor could they be held up by a belt. When the belt was removed, a student’s pants had to remain

in place. Needless to say, when my belt was removed, my pants did not remain in place, and I was suspended for not adhering to the district's dress code policy. Board members and school officials were bombarded when this districtwide policy came under heavy scrutiny from Hispanic/Latinx parents like mine who took issue with this unfair rule. Ultimately, my suspension, along with many others was overturned after some intense debate took place during late night school board meetings to repeal and improve the districtwide dress code policy. While my story was unfair in many regards, it pales in comparison to the reasons why Hispanic/Latinx students are disciplined and suspended today for much more minor school infractions such as disruption and defiance.

Therefore, my passion to address the issue of Hispanic/Latinx student discipline relative to the cultural awareness of teachers became very personal for me. I also recently discovered that while completing this dissertation, several members of my family had been victims of the campaign against speaking Spanish in schools during the 1950s and 1960s. As an educator and researcher, I was very interested in finding out answers and solutions to these issues. I looked forward to disseminating my survey to teachers all across California, and I felt I would get some fairly honest answers regarding their level of cultural competency and awareness; and, to some degree, I did. However, I did not receive the answers that I was hoping for when it came to cultural awareness. Hence, my role as a researcher was to try and provide a neutral environment where I could gather quantitative and qualitative data that would help better inform practices and professional development for teachers in the future. Most importantly however, as a school counselor and advocate for the students that I am

committed to serving, my ultimate goal was and is to support and promote the fair and equitable treatment and education of all students.

Definition of Terms

Americanization: Campaigns, programs, and schools established during the late 19th and early 20th century that sought to eliminate cultural differences between American White culture and Indigenous and immigrant populations.

Anglicize: To adapt (a foreign word, name, or phrase) to English usage such as to alter or convert (a name) to its English equivalent (e.g.: anglicize Juan as John) (Merriam-Webster, n.d.-a).

Anglo-American: An inhabitant of the U.S. of English origin or descent; a North American whose native language is English and especially whose culture or ethnic background is of European origin (Merriam-Webster, n.d.-b).

At-Risk: In this context, refers to students who either exhibit disruptive behaviors that interrupt the learning environment, are failing multiple classes and have low GPAs, or have social-emotional concerns that prevent them from focusing in school.

Critical Race Theory (CRT): A social theory that uses critical theory to understand and interrogate societal and cultural inequality and racism in the United States.

Cultural Assimilation: The process in which a minority group or culture comes to resemble a dominant group or assume the values, behaviors, and beliefs of another group.

Cultural Noticing: A person's ability to notice details about cultural context, such as the cultural practices, values, and behaviors that a group of individuals engage in within a particular social context at a particular point in time (Cunningham, 2019).

Culturally Relevant Pedagogy: A theoretical model that not only addresses student achievement, but also helps students to accept and affirm their cultural identity while developing critical perspectives that challenge inequities that schools (and other institutions) perpetuate (Ladson-Billings, 1995).

Cultural Responding: Actions a person takes or adapts as a result of cultural noticing (Cunningham, 2019).

Cultural Responsiveness: Cultural responsiveness is the level at which a teacher or educator views other cultures differently from their own. Cultural responsiveness, cultural awareness, cultural competence, and cultural knowledge are used interchangeably throughout this study to understand how valuable this learned or practiced skill can be for teachers in order for them to best serve culturally diverse student populations.

Deficit Thinking: Refers to the notion that students, particularly low-income minority students, fail in school because they and their families experience deficiencies that obstruct the learning process (e.g., limited intelligence, lack of motivation, language barriers, inadequate homes and socialization) (Valencia & Black, 2002).

Evidence-Based: The term “evidence-based” as defined by the Every Student Succeeds Act means an activity, strategy, or intervention that demonstrates a statistically significant effect on improving student outcomes or other relevant outcomes based on strong evidence from at least one well designed and well implemented experimental study; moderate evidence from at least one well designed and well implemented quasi-experimental study; or promising evidence from at least one well designed and well implemented correlational study with statistical controls for selection bias; or

demonstrates a rationale based on high quality research findings or positive evaluation that such activity, strategy, or intervention is likely to improve student outcomes or other relevant outcomes; and includes ongoing efforts to examine the effects of such activity, strategy, or intervention (National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, n.d.).

Hispanic: A term commonly used in American official government documents to refer to a collective group of diverse peoples whose ancestors were subjected to colonial rule by Spain. In *We the people: Hispanics in the United States, the Census 2000 special reports*, Roberto R. Ramirez used the term to include peoples from the following origins: Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Central American, South American, Dominican, Spaniard and other Hispanic (as cited in Chan et al., 2009). The terms “Hispanic” and “Latino” are used interchangeably by the U.S. Census Bureau to identify persons of Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Central and South American, Dominican, Spanish, and other Hispanic descent. This identifier was chosen due to the majority of respondents from the survey who identified as Hispanic or Latino.

Implicit Bias: Unconscious attitudes and stereotypes of a certain race or ethnicity that can manifest in the criminal justice system, workplace, institutions of learning, healthcare system, or anywhere else in society.

Indigenous: The term Indigenous or Native American will be used interchangeably throughout this paper to avoid any confusion with the people from India, who are referred to as Indians. Although the term “Indian” is the most prominent term used when referring to Indigenous or Native Americans by the United States government, I will not be using

the term in this paper. The only mentions of the word “Indian” in this paper will be used when citing exact quotes from authors in journals and articles, names of schools, and works cited in References.

In-School Suspension (ISS): A form of exclusionary discipline where students are removed from the classroom learning environment and forced to stay in an ISS classroom for a certain amount of time ranging from part of a day to several days in a row (Blomberg, 2004).

Latinx Critical Race Theory (LatCrit): LatCrit is a social theory that theorizes and examines the ways in which race and racism explicitly and implicitly impact on the educational structures, processes, and discourses that affect People of Color generally and Latinas/os specifically; also theorizes and examines that place where racism intersects with other forms of subordination such as sexism and classism.

Latinx: The term “Latinx (*latin-ex*)” was used throughout this study as a gender-neutral pronoun that is inclusive of all people of Latin American descent. This identifier was chosen due to the majority of respondents from the survey who identified as Hispanic or Latino.

Multi-Tiered System of Support (MTSS): The CDE’s definition of MTSS provides a basis for understanding how California educators can work together to ensure equitable access and opportunity for all students to achieve the Common Core State Standards. MTSS includes Response to Instruction and Intervention (RtI²) as well as additional, distinct philosophies and concepts (CDE, 2021).

PBIS: Acronym for Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports. A research-based approach to interventions that are utilized for teachers, educators, administrators, and other educational stakeholders to improve behavioral outcomes and academic success for students in K-12.

Racial Microaggression: Also known as a slight, is indirect, subtle, or unintentional discrimination by individuals against Hispanic/Latinx students and other races/ethnicities; subtle, innocuous, preconscious, or unconscious degradations, and putdowns, often kinetic but capable of being verbal and/or kinetic.

Racism: Racism and other forms of discrimination are based on assumptions that one ethnic group, class, gender, or language is superior to all others (Nieto & Bode, 2008).

Referral: In this study, a referral means an office referral, in which a student is sent to the office typically for defiance or disruption, or when a student's behavior impacts the learning of other students in a negative way, so much so that learning stops taking place (Martinez & Zhao, 2018). It also refers to a paper or online document that is filled out by a teacher and input into a schoolwide database system where these referrals accumulate for a particular student. When a student receives a certain number of referrals, it can often lead to loss of school privileges (e.g., lunchtime activities, dances, school rallies, ineligibility to play sports), classroom detention, conferences with teachers, parents contacted, conference with principal or school administrator, ISS, out-of-school suspension, expulsion and even law enforcement contact.

School-to-Prison Pipeline: The American Civil Liberties Union (n.d.) defines the school-to-prison pipeline as, "the policies and practices that push our nation's schoolchildren,

especially our most at-risk children, out of classrooms and into the juvenile and criminal justice systems” (para. 1).

Settler Colonialism: A distinct type of colonialism whose purpose is to remove and replace Indigenous people, to claim and exploit the land while developing a distinct culture, and establishing and maintaining ideological, material and economic sovereignty.

Settler Teacher Syndrome: A condition in which classroom teachers make instructional, pedagogical, and disciplinary decisions that support settler colonialism (Cherry-McDaniel, 2018). Teachers who suffer from settler teacher syndrome teach students to prefer and value dominant culture over their own, and to adopt dominant culture as a means of surviving and thriving in school and beyond.

Stakeholders: In terms of education, stakeholders is a term used to describe both internal and external stakeholders. Internal stakeholders are those who work within the school system on a daily basis such as school staff, district staff, and, to some extent, school boards. External stakeholders are those who work outside the day-to-day operations of the schools and have a strong interest in school outcomes such as taxpayers, parents, the business community and other community members (Paine & McCann, 2009).

Testimonio: A Spanish term understood as “witness account”, embodies a narrative research methodology rooted in Latin American History; a first-person account by the person (narrator) who has faced instances of social and political inequality, oppression, or any specific form of marginalization (Mora, 2015).

Zero Tolerance: Refers to exclusionary school discipline policies and practices that mandate predetermined consequences (e.g., out of school suspension and expulsion), in response

to specific types of student misbehavior—regardless of the context or rationale for the behavior (Zero Tolerance Support Initiative, 2020).

Overview of the Study

In the following chapter, the relevant body of literature regarding the history of discipline in America is reviewed and then related to Hispanic/Latinx exclusionary discipline practices. Disciplinary practices such as corporal punishment, ISS policies, and shaming relative to Hispanic/Latinx student populations is also discussed. The use of CRT and LatCrit comprised theoretical perspectives for this study. In Chapter Three, the mixed-methods research methodology and design are described. In Chapter Four, the findings of this research are discussed. Lastly, in Chapter Five, a conclusion, limitations of the study, and recommendations for future research on this topic are presented.

Chapter 2: A Review of the Literature

This chapter will present relevant background information to answer the following research questions: (RQ1) What are middle school teacher perceptions of knowledge of culture and its application in practice when disciplining middle school Hispanic/Latinx students? (RQ2) In what ways does knowledge of culture affect discipline practices of teachers? The first section of this literature review will focus on the larger structural and historical contexts of educational discipline, racism and segregation that provides the socio-political context of why and how a lack of teacher cultural awareness has impacted Hispanic/Latinx populations throughout U.S. history. A historical context provides a background to the ways discipline of Hispanic/Latinx students has been dehumanized and resulted in a disproportionality. The second section of this chapter will focus on conceptual theoretical frameworks such as CRT, and an extension of CRT also known as LatCrit to frame the educational lens for this study.

Brief History and Evolution of School Discipline in U.S. Public Schools

Discipline today in U.S. public schools is rooted with the inception of the nation and the Puritanical and Protestant view of punishment. This study makes a concerted effort to briefly chronicle the history of punitive punishment and discipline before zero tolerance between the early-18th to the mid-20th century. From religious teachings that dictated and demanded students behave a certain way or ultimately face discipline in the form of physical punishment, to policies of exclusion and marginalization, disciplinary policies in U.S. public schools have evolved from their physically raw and painful beginnings.

Puritans and Protestantism

Prior to the 20th century, discipline was based on memorization of biblical teachings, fear of punishment, humiliation, and a sense of shame (Dupper, 2010). Children were often seen as inherently evil, and through harsh punishments and discipline would receive a better chance at salvation. Theories of school discipline stemmed largely from the Puritanical and Protestant views of punishment that are referenced in Protestant Biblical teachings. As the Protestant Biblical teaching states, spare the rod and spoil the child. Much of this belief originated from religious teachings from the Bible, most notably, Proverbs 23:13-14, which states, “Do not withhold discipline from a child; if you punish him with the rod, he will not die. Punish him with the rod and save his soul from death” (as cited in Dupper, 2010, p. 16). This theory of school discipline became the dominant philosophy in U.S. public schools for many decades. Some U.S. states and schools still practice this form of punishment despite documented studies affirming harsh punishments as ineffective means of discipline in correcting misbehavior. They sought out this theory as a deterrent in preventing insubordination and establishing control amongst schoolchildren.

Harsh disciplinary policies also had a moral imperative. Schools wanted to make sure students were receiving moral training based on the Protestant Bible. Harsh punishments developed the moral essentials of a student. In doing so, this approach would produce righteous and obedient citizens. In fact, early advocates of public education often argued that students’ moral training was more important to the success of the nation than their academic training (Kafka, 2011). As statesmen and textbook author Noah Webster explained in 1790,

“The virtues of men are of more consequences to society than their abilities” (as cited in Kafka, 2011, p. 20).

The Puritans used biblical scripture and the English common law concept of *in loco parentis*, which translates to “in place of the parent” as methods of control in order to govern student behavior in the classroom. This punitive view of school discipline *in loco parentis* was one of the more dominant philosophies in U.S. public schools up until the late-twentieth century. This belief system was responsible for incorporating corporal punishment into American schools during the 18th century and well into the late 20th century. Although much of this belief has diminished, remnants still exist today.

Protestant doctrine also played a very significant role in the shaping of American disciplinary policies in public schools (Kafka, 2011). Protestantism was a religious belief system that taught that subservience achieved through inflicting physical pain was a primary way for adults to transform children into obedient individuals according to Biblical philosophies. As Kennedy et al. (2017) state, schools were charged with students’ moral welfare. American public schools felt it was their duty to make sure students were being punished appropriately according to Protestant Biblical teachings. They believed that harsh punishments developed the moral essentials of a student. They sought out this theory as a deterrent in preventing insubordination and establishing control amongst schoolchildren. In doing so, it would produce righteous and obedient citizens. In fact, early advocates of public education often argued that students’ moral training was more important to the success of the nation than their academic training (Kafka, 2011). As statesmen and textbook author Noah

Webster explained in 1790, “The virtues of men are of more consequences to society than their abilities” (as cited in Kafka, 2011, p. 20).

As a result, the philosophy of corporal punishment was ultimately supported and adopted by 49 states, with New Jersey being the only state that did not allow the practice in 1867 (Gershoff & Font, 2016). This philosophy would become one of the principal educational disciplinary policies up until the 1970s, when the public became aware of the documented detrimental effects of child maltreatment and when the Supreme Court began to distinguish students’ rights at school as distinct from those they have as children at home (Kennedy et al., 2017). However, despite the effects that these harsh disciplinary practices have had on students and Students of Color in particular, thoughts and beliefs from school administrators about school discipline and punishment have remained the same in some U.S. states. One superintendent criticized the loosening of tough disciplinary policies by the federal government in response to a six-year-old student’s request to use the girls’ restroom to reflect her gender identity, although she had been assigned male at birth. The administrator indicated that the federal government was interfering with a state issue, and as a result, had a bleak message for the country, stating that unless society returns to the Biblical basis on which the nation’s laws were established, the nation is in serious trouble—and cannot expect God’s continued favor (Cooley, 2017).

Hundreds of years have passed since these doctrines were imagined, but some of them still ring true today. Hence, as of 2018, 19 states still allow and employ the use of corporal punishment to discipline children from the time they start preschool until they graduate 12th grade... and over 160,000 children in these states are subject to corporal punishment in

schools each year (Gershoff & Font, 2016). Most of the corporal punishment that is being implemented in public schools is occurring in Southern states... to children who are Black, to boys, and to children with disabilities (Gershoff & Font, 2016). Texas, which is state that will be discussed in this study, still allows the use of corporal punishment to date. However, if parents do not want corporal punishment used against their student, they must opt out of their district's policy—in writing—each school year (Craven, 2021). This requirement can present challenges for parents who do not know their district has a corporal punishment policy, do not understand the corporal punishment policy, or do not fully understand what corporal punishment may actually look like for their child (Craven, 2021).

California is another state with a history of corporal punishment by way of paddling and culturally shaming Spanish speakers (Lopez, 2018). California and 31 other states did away with the practice of corporal punishment in the late 20th century, but the very real emotional and psychological scars that these policies have inflicted on Students of Color lives on through their stories and testimonies (Eureste, 2016; Gershoff & Font, 2016; Munoz, 2016). The harsh disciplinary practices and assimilation techniques that these individuals suffered in segregated schools over decades of physical and mental abuse led to generational trauma that is still being felt today (Eureste, 2016; Munoz, 2016). The educational perceptions, racial microaggressions, and ill-informed beliefs that are still present in this day and age for the supposed lack of Hispanic/Latinx academic achievement has a historical narrative. The segregated schools that will be documented in this study were the places of nightmares for many, and their histories continue to make their way into academia. The voices of those affected are chronicled through oral history projects, testimonios, and qualitative research.

Stories of Indigenous peoples and Hispanic/Latinx youth being assimilated into American society during the late 19th and early 20th century, often times by force, are also discussed in this study to determine where today's current teacher perceptions, microaggressions, and policies may have originated.

Corporal Punishment and Shaming of Hispanic/Latinx Students

Corporal punishment is defined as the use of physical force with the intention of causing a child to experience pain so as to correct their misbehavior (Straus, 2001). Texas Education Code (2011) defines permissible corporal punishment as, “the deliberate infliction of physical pain by hitting, paddling, spanking, slapping, or any other physical force used as a means of discipline.” Paddling was one such form of corporal punishment that was used against Hispanic/Latinx youth to control their behavior, or in these examples, control what came out of their mouths. These forms of punitive discipline were addressed in proactive organizations like the Civil Rights in Brown and Black Oral History Project and docu-dramas such as the movie *Walkout* (Eureste, 2016; Lopez, 2018; Munoz, 2016). The trauma that was inflicted upon these students still reverberates more than 60 years later (Eureste, 2016; Munoz, 2016). These former students recount their educational experiences with corporal punishment and cultural shaming, as well as the decades of hurt that came along with it (Eureste, 2016; Munoz, 2016). The students who were selected for this oral history project were from different parts of Texas, and were interviewed by researchers from Texas Christian University (TCU) (Eureste, 2016; Munoz, 2016). Many of them, now in their 60s, 70s, and 80s, described teachers paddling and culturally shaming students for speaking Spanish in elementary school (Eureste, 2016; Munoz, 2016).

Arturo Eureste (2016), who grew up in Bryan, Texas, recalls teachers giving hand beatings to Hispanic/Latinx students in elementary school if students spoke Spanish in the classroom. Other students like Susana Almanza (2016) from East Austin, Texas, also remembers students being paddled by their teachers, as well as students mouths being washed out with soap for speaking Spanish. Some students like Sylvia Herrera (2016) even had her mouth taped shut, as she describes in her interview about the racial discrimination she experienced while living in East Austin, Texas during the 1950s and 1960s. Other former students like Hilda Martinez (2016) disturbingly illustrate a particular incident of corporal punishment when a White teacher hit a Mexican female student with a wooden pointer stick. According to Hilda's account, students were lining up outside of their classroom after lunch. As they were lining up, students were not supposed to be talking while in line. Nevertheless, one of the students started talking in line and the teacher hit the female student so hard in the back of the calf with the pointer stick, blood splattered everywhere, including on Hilda Martinez's face. That memory, she says, will forever be seared into her memory. Rogelio Munoz (2016) also recalls student whippings, lickings, and spankings for speaking Spanish. Students had to hide from their teachers and administrators when they spoke Spanish to their fellow classmates. He even recounted a time when one of his coaches would not let Hispanic/Latinx students play in sporting events at school if they were caught speaking Spanish.

The practice of corporal punishment was also enforced in California schools as well. California was the first state in the union in the mid-19th century to enforce an English-only policy (Robledo Montecel & Danini Cortez, 2001). One of the ripple effects of this policy

was depicted in the 2006 HBO docu-drama film called, *Walkout*, which chronicled the 1968 student-led walkout to protest injustices in the East Los Angeles public school system. In the movie, there is a scene in which two Mexican American students are paddled in front of their classmates by a White teacher in a California school. What was their offense? They were not disruptive, defiant, or disrespectful, nor did they talk back to their teacher. The reason for their punishment was for speaking Spanish in class. In this shocking scene, the entire classroom is engaged in a read-aloud. One by one, students are called upon to read by their teacher. A student named Jesus is chosen to read, and while he is reading, he turns to one of his classmates who is a fellow Mexican student. His friend mistakenly utters a few words in Spanish and the teacher hears it. The teacher calls the two students up to the front of the class. When they ask the teacher what they are being punished for, the teacher replies, “you spoke Spanish, you know the rules.” As they reluctantly and slowly shuffle up to the front of the class, the teacher proceeds to walk over and grab a wooden paddle that is hanging on the classroom wall. Underneath the paddle reads the following: “If it’s not worth saying in English, it’s not worth saying at all.” The two students are subsequently told to assume the position by leaning forward and grabbing their ankles. The teacher then paddles each student twice on the buttocks. It is a shocking scene to watch, particularly because this was a frequent disciplinary practice throughout the United States (Eureste, 2016; Rivera, 2016). Even though this scene is from a movie, it represented a very painful reality for many Hispanic/Latinx students across the American Southwest when these policies were the law of the land. Not only does the use of corporal punishment via paddling and whipping hurt students physically and psychologically via trauma and low self-esteem, but the students who

are being punished are affected also. In this scene, one can clearly see how the students who were witnessing the punishment react to this treatment. As research shows, the use of corporal punishment in schools can limit the academic achievement and success of the students being punished and the students who see their peers punished (Craven, 2021; Dupper & Dingus, 2008; Hyman, 1996). Furthermore, corporal punishment teaches violence as a solution (Craven, 2021). Schools that model violence as a way to address conflict (real or perceived) grant permission for students to use violence, as young people and later as adults (Craven, 2021). This can compromise interpersonal relationships (Terk, 2010) and perpetuate a culture where physical violence, particularly against People of Color and people with disabilities, is seen as acceptable.

As was mentioned above, harsh practice of corporal punishment in schools was used as a means to an end. The end result for Anglo society was to suppress the Spanish language. When the Spanish language is suppressed, it also suppresses the identity of millions of Hispanic/Latinx students in California and across the country. Legislation was eventually created to help suppress bilingualism and biculturalism in the American Southwest. Although it was not successful in completely eradicating the language and culture of Hispanic/Latinx populations altogether, it did have an enormous impact on the decline of Spanish speakers in the United States due to English-only legislation. As Ruiz Cameron (1997) pointed out,

With the passage of English-only legislation in the state many generations of Spanish speakers are reminded that, as descendants of the native peoples of the Forum on Public Policy New World, —Latinos have lost their language twice. First, they lost their language rights when Spain conquered the Americas and substituted Spanish for the Indian languages and second, when the U.S. conquered the Southwest and substituted English for Spanish. This is a process that continues to the present day. (p. 1367)

Texas law and others like it across the country made it illegal to speak Spanish in school. The bill, commonly referred to as the English Only Law, was introduced during the 35th Texas Legislature in 1918:

Governor's Office,
Austin, Texas, March 12, 1918.

To the Thirty-fifth Legislature in Fourth Called Session:

At the request of Messrs. Fly, Poage and Tilson, I submit for your consideration an Act requiring teachers in the public free schools to conduct school work in the English language exclusively, preventing the adoption of texts for elementary grades not printed in English, defining the grades in which a foreign language may be taught, and fixing penalties for the violation of this Act.

Respectfully submitted,

W. P. HOBBY,

Governor of Texas (Yarbrough, 1918)

This law was approved on April 3, 1918. After this bill became law, the Texas Department of Education encouraged teachers to punish children who used Spanish in the classroom or the playground (Crawford, 1992), much like was depicted in the movie, *Walkout*. Teachers were also fined if they did not uphold this statute. This law remained legal precedent in Texas until the late 1960s and early 1970s when bilingual education began to take shape.

Discrimination against Spanish-speakers has had a long history; in 1855, legislation was passed in California mandating English-only instruction in both public and private schools (Ricento, 1995). These laws and many others like it were a coordinated effort by the United States to culturally assimilate immigrant and Hispanic/Latinx communities into Anglo-American language and customs. When the issues of properly educating and indoctrinating Hispanic/Latinx and Indigenous students into mainstream American values and beliefs were considered, Anglo-Saxon Protestant Whites felt that the status quo could be best achieved through the standardization of education (Gerstle, 2001). Educators were encouraged to use

curriculum and pedagogy to assimilate all students to White, Anglo-Saxon Protestant ideals (Gerstle, 2001). Segregated school settings were often sites for discarded curriculum from White schools, used to promote the dominant culture to African American, Latino and Asian American students (Nakanishi & Nishida, 1995). As Spring (2005) opined:

The attitude of racial, religious, and cultural superiority provided motivation for the United States to take over Mexican land, fueled hostilities between the two countries throughout the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, and was reflected in the treatment of Mexicans who remained in California and the Southwest after the U.S. conquest. Segregated schools, housing, and discrimination in employment became the Mexican American heritage. (p. 171)

This Anglo-American, nationalistic view of cultures different from their own aided in paving the way for the Americanization of immigrant populations through xenophobic campaigns, harsh disciplinary practices, and segregated schools.

Historical Educational Inequities

Americanization and Segregation

After chronicling the harsh disciplinary beginnings and practices of corporal punishment, to understand White teacher perceptions of Hispanic/Latinx students and the impact of something as seemingly minor as defiance and disruption, it is important to view these policies and perceptions within a larger context of historical Americanization campaigns, efforts to eradicate the Spanish language, and segregation in U.S. schools. The Americanization of millions of immigrants and Indigenous populations during the late 19th and early 20th centuries was one such form of segregation that contained widespread xenophobic underpinnings and was a massive push by the U.S. government to culturally assimilate “foreigners” into their new communities. The surge of millions of European immigrants between 1880 and 1924 made Americans uneasy because immigrants were

creating their own communities in mining towns and city centers, relying on their languages of origin to communicate, and celebrating the customs of their homelands (Paul, 2017).

Americanization and segregation of Indigenous and immigrant populations as far back as the Carlisle Industrial Indian School and Mexican Americanization schools were seen as eugenics experiments in order to sterilize cultures from procreating and preserve Anglo-American superiority.

Anglo-Americans felt it was necessary to Americanize immigrants in order to remove them from their cultures and ways of life and assimilate them into a White superior culture (Burkholder, 2010). Many Americans questioned the allegiance of these immigrants, especially at the outbreak of World War I, and thus, Americanization was imagined, with reformers hoping to accelerate immigrants' adaptation to the dominant social, cultural, and political practices to become ideal citizens (Burkholder, 2010). Citizenship education was once argued by educational reformers as necessary in assisting immigrants on the way to citizenship in the Republic to offset the feudal heritage brought from Europe (Beard, 1944, p. 218). While Americanization programs are now viewed as disciplinary and unnecessarily coercive, at the time they were considered progressive, liberal, and kind because Americanization sought to ease immigrants' transitions into the United States (Burkholder, 2010). One can infer that the Americanization philosophy and ideology was also applied to Indigenous and Hispanic/Latinx populations in order to create successful integration outcomes similar to that of European immigrant populations who came to the U.S. in a massive wave between the late 19th and early 20th centuries.

Early in the 18th century, similar to the plan for European immigrants, Americanization campaigns and schools for Native Americans and Mexicans were established. These schools worked to strip Indigenous people of their language and culture and replace it with English, European clothing, and Eurocentric cultural values (Ferg-Cadima, 2004). The Carlisle Indian Industrial School was one such Americanization campaign. The purpose of Carlisle, as well as other Indian boarding schools across the nation, was to (often forcefully) remove Native Americans from their cultures and lifestyles and assimilate them into the white man's society (Kliwer et al., n.d.). The ultimate goal, according to Richard H. Pratt, who was the founder and superintendent of the Carlisle Indian Industrial School in Carlisle, Pennsylvania at the time, was to, "kill the Indian in him, and save the man." This philosophy meant administrators forced students to speak English, wear Anglo-American clothing, and act according to U.S. values and culture (National Park Service, 2020). Pratt believed that if you isolate them from their families and their tribal life and you immerse them in standard American White culture, they'll be just like everybody else (Kliwer et al., n.d.).

Akin to the Carlisle Indian Industrial School and its nationalistic philosophy, due to a massive migration of Mexican immigrants between 1910 and 1930, a similar school was built in Oceanside, CA in 1931, and was aptly named The Americanization School. It was built to accommodate increasing numbers of immigrants from Mexico. Between 1900 and 1930, the Mexican Revolution, combined with the rise of agribusiness and a strong U.S. economy in the American Southwest, prompted a large-scale migration of Mexicans to the United States (American Social History Productions, n.d.). Between 1910 and 1930, the number of Mexican immigrants counted by the U.S. census tripled from 200,000 to 600,000 (Library of

Congress, n.d.). While the history of the Oceanside Americanization School is not as well documented as the Carlisle Indian Industrial School, according to the Oceanside Chamber of Commerce's website, this school was considered a "true gem" due to its architectural design. In the late 1920s, the Oceanside School District began to segregate non-English speaking students into "Americanization classes" (Hawthorne, 2015). What was meant by "Americanization classes" is not exactly mentioned on their website; however, it did acknowledge that the school was utilized to "Americanize" Mexican children and immerse them in the English language (Hawthorne, 2015). Hence, one can infer, due to the body of knowledge that exists about Americanization classes, that they were courses which acculturated immigrants into the language, ideals, traditions, and ways of life in the United States (Prinzing, 2004). Initially, students were housed in an old telephone building, but as their numbers increased, a larger building was needed to accommodate them. As the numbers of Mexican immigrants pouring into California began to rise as a result of the Mexican Revolution and a strong U.S. economy, so too were the efforts of the California legislature. Schools were no longer the only testing grounds for U.S. Americanization efforts. The Mexican mother, her home, and her household became new targets of Americanization integration.

Efforts to assimilate large communities of Hispanic/Latinx populations into American society were at the forefront of Americanization efforts throughout California in the early 20th century. George J. Sanchez (1995), author of *Becoming Mexican American: Ethnicity, Culture, and Identity in Chicano Los Angeles, 1900-1945*, provides a fairly detailed history of the Mexican immigrant Americanization campaign during the first Mexican mass

migration during this time period. In 1915, the California state legislature passed the Home Teacher Act, a law which allowed school districts to employ a teacher—usually a single, middle-class, Anglo woman, “to work in the homes of the pupils, instructing children and adults in matters relating to school attendance... in sanitation, in the English language, in household duties... and in the fundamental principles of the American system of government and the rights and duties of citizenship” (Sanchez, 1995). Mexican mothers were sought out for a variety of reasons. One, they were thought to be the individuals primarily responsible for the transmission of values in the home (Sanchez, 1995). So, if American teachers were successful in transforming the Mexican mother, her household would follow her lead. Second, due to the Mexican mother being taught proper American homemaking skills, it was meant to solve two problems at once: a happy and efficient mother would create an environment suitable for molding workers to the industrial order, and her newfound homemaking skills she learned from her trainers could be useful outside of the home in the cheap domestic labor markets of housemaids, seamstresses, laundresses, and service workers in the Southwest (Sanchez, 1995).

However, while Americanization advocates were pushing to integrate cultures different from Anglo-American ideals and beliefs, they only really wanted their future fellow citizens to be Americanized up to a certain point. Because while Hispanic/Latinx families were assimilating into U.S. culture and traditions, in the end, they were not going to be viewed as equals in the eyes of the law and Anglo-Americans. The halfhearted effort of administrators of Americanization programs limited available personnel and resources and ensured that the programs would never be able to cope with the volume of the Mexican migration (Sanchez,

1995). With the stock market crash of 1929 and the subsequent Great Depression of the 1930s, all attempts to Americanize Mexican immigrants came to an abrupt end (Sanchez, 1995). After Mexican families fulfilled their purpose by Americanizing their homes, providing cheap labor for agribusiness and other domestic labor markets, and learning the English language, instead of continuing to try and integrate Mexican immigrants into American society, hundreds of thousands either left under strong pressure from the government or were repatriated back to Mexico during this time period. However, this was not the only time the U.S. government tried to “repatriate” Mexicans back to Mexico. Another deportation period, aptly named Operation Wetback, was utilized after World War II when the U.S. used Mexican farm laborers to work in the fields. The Bracero Program was an agreement between Mexico and the U.S., which allowed millions of Mexican men to work legally in the United States. However, much like the Mexican repatriation campaign that took place during the 1930s, after the labor services of Mexican field workers expired and the United States required no more use for them, these Mexican immigrants were caught in the snare of Operation Wetback. This was the biggest mass deportation of undocumented workers in United States history (Blakemore, 2018). In the end, what was presented turned out to be little more than second-class citizenship (Sanchez, 1995).

The historical American policies of Americanization and de facto and de jure segregation have regrettably aided in alienating and marginalizing Communities of Color like Hispanic/Latinx youth in California for generations. One of the most notable triumphs against these policies and de jure segregation occurred in California in 1955 with the case of *Mendez v. Westminster*. Segregated schools for Indigenous and Mexican populations had

been the common practice up until the 1940s, when a Mexican parent by the name of Gonzalo Mendez tried to enroll his children in an all-White school in Westminster, California. In September 1944, the school refused to allow his children to attend. Gonzalo did not agree with this decision and felt his children were not receiving an equal education under the Constitution. So, he hired David Marcus, who was a civil rights lawyer and fought this case in federal court on behalf of the Mendez family. Marcus argued that segregating students violated their Fourteenth Amendment rights, which guarantees equal rights for all U.S. citizens. Marcus also contended that segregation caused the children harm because it made them feel inferior. As a result, in February 1946, the U.S. district court decided on behalf of the Mendez family. *Mendez v. Westminster School District of Orange County* was an important civil rights case in U.S. history because it paved the way for the landmark civil rights case, *Brown v. Board of Education*. As a result, in 1954, the U.S. Supreme Court declared desegregation illegal in any public school in the United States.

U.S. Perceptions of Hispanic/Latinx Populations

Many stereotypes and intolerant perceptions of Hispanic/Latinx people came out of this era of Americanization and de facto and de jure segregation. The view of the “dirty Mexican”, the “Mexican problem,” the “lazy Mexican,” and the ill-informed Anglo belief that “*Quien sabe?* (Who knows?)” was the philosophy of all of Mexico, were all false narratives that emerged during this xenophobic period in Southwest American history (Sanchez, 1995). Some of these misconceptions continue to be offensively uttered to this day. The misconceived notion that the Mexican woman’s “intellectual ability is stimulated only by her husband, and if he be the average peon type, the stimulation is not very great,” and

moreover, the “traditional and unprogressive Mexican husband places limitations upon his wife” (Sanchez, 1995) has continued to be racially offensive narratives throughout American society. Mexicans were seen as unkept, which according to Anglo-Americans, was a reason for their poor state of health during this period, and thus reinforced the stereotype of a “dirty Mexican.” The “Mexican problem” was an effort by the U.S. government to blame Mexicans for “causing an immense social problem in American charities, schools, and health departments” (Sanchez, 1995).

The Mexican diet was also the target of racially disparaging comments and vitriol during Americanization change efforts. It was once conceived by Anglo society that if Mexican children did not receive proper food training and abstain from eating such items as a “folded tortilla with no filling,” it could easily be the first step to a lifetime of crime (Sanchez, 1995). Mexican mothers were told that a proper American diet of bread, lettuce, and broiling food was more nutritious for her children than beans, tortillas and fried foods (Sanchez, 1995). Sanchez (1995) goes on to say that:

Americanization teachers believed that “with no milk or fruit to whet the appetite” the child could become lazy as well as hungry and might subsequently “take food from the lunch boxes of more fortunate children.” Thus, the initial step in the life of thieving is taken. Teaching immigrant women proper food values became a route to keeping the head of the family out of jail and the rest of the family off charity. (p. 102)

These false and imaginary perceptions of Mexican people being a bunch of malnourished, unintelligent, dirty, lazy criminals continues to be perpetuated throughout the country, especially in schools. In fact, twice-impeached former U.S. President Donald Trump even joined in on the racial banter of Hispanic/Latinx people when he was campaigning for president prior to the 2016 presidential election. Throughout his campaign, he said some very

oppressive and disparaging words to describe Mexican immigrants. During one of his campaign speeches, he spoke the following words:

What can be simpler or more accurately stated? The Mexican Government is forcing their most unwanted people into the United States. They are, in many cases, criminals, drug dealers, rapists, etc. (Phillips, 2017)

He also uttered the following during one of his campaign appearances:

When Mexico sends its people, they're not sending their best. They're not sending you. They're sending people that have lots of problems. They are not our friend, believe me. They're bringing drugs. They're bringing crime. They're rapists. And some, I assume, are good people. (Phillips, 2017)

This hateful and vile speech reverberated throughout the country after the former president made these reprehensible remarks. Hispanic/Latinx students all across the country were fearful that if he won the presidency, their families would be deported back to Mexico. Almost six years after his presidency, his flawed perceptions and inaccurate portraits of Hispanic/Latinx people continue to reverberate throughout society. In California and in other parts of the American Southwest, Hispanic/Latinx students had historically been discriminated against and treated like second-class citizens for decades after the passing of English-only educational mandates and for immigrating to the U.S. for the chance at a better life and economic independence. Little did many Hispanic/Latinx immigrants know that their journey towards American economic prosperity, equality, freedom, and independence was riddled with strife and contention. As was the case with African American students in the American South, Mexican students were also not allowed to attend all-White schools in the Southwest and were treated just as bad. Escobar (1999) stated that anti-Mexican discrimination was equal to, or even exceeded, anti-Black discrimination in the South. The Office of War Information equated discrimination against Mexican Americans with Jim

Crowism and noted “that in some portions of the Southwest the discrimination against Spanish-speaking people is greater than that practiced against Negroes” (Escobar, 1999, p. 167). However, discrimination was at its most destructive form when it came to education. School districts used the lack of English proficiency of Hispanic/Latinx students as a cause to segregate them. School officials believed Mexican students were lazy and had no motivation. In 1946, a superintendent attempted to justify continued segregation by asserting first that Mexican Americans constituted a “distinct and therefore ‘inferior’ race” and later by claiming “that Mexican children were ‘dirty’; that they had lice and impetigo; that their hands, face, neck, and ears were often unwashed; and that, generally speaking, they were ‘inferior’ to the other students in point of personal hygiene” (Escobar, 1999, pp. 169-170). One Los Angeles teacher returning from a workshop entitled “The Education of Mexican and Spanish-Speaking Pupils” summed it up: “I’ve had a very entertaining experience,” she said, “but as far as I am concerned, they are still dirty, stupid, and dumb” (Escobar, 1999, p. 170). Unfortunately, these attitudes have manifested themselves in the classrooms and Hispanic/Latinx students have had to endure this barrage of insults and low expectations for years. Escobar goes on to describe other racist attitudes and remarks towards Mexican American youth by school officials. He quotes the following from educators: “If you teach them attitudes and responses and how to be good citizens, how to wash and iron and scrub and bake, that’s all you need to do. Why teach them to read and write and spell? Why worry about it... they’ll only pick beets anyway” (Escobar, 1999, p. 170). He goes on to say that other educators developed more callous methods for dealing with overachieving Mexican American students, (Escobar, 1999). The head of a high school business department stated,

“I have no problems with the Mexicans. I take care that the first few days’ work is so difficult and involved that they become discouraged and quit.” Similarly, a local high school principal revealed his rather simple technique: “We just see that none of them get to the tenth grade” (Escobar, 1999, p. 170).

These historical perceptions, attitudes, and practices of racially disparaging Hispanic/Latinx youth continues well into the present day. There have been countless news reports of teachers demanding that Hispanic/Latinx students stop speaking Spanish in their classrooms. In 2017, a teacher in New Jersey was caught on video telling her class that U.S. soldiers were “not fighting for your rights to speak Spanish. They’re fighting for your rights to speak American” (KABC-TV, 2017). The teacher subsequently apologized over the school’s public address system after the incident. Moreover, in 2019, a substitute teacher in Texas was being investigated for telling a Mexican student to “Speak English. We’re in America” (Aviles, 2019). According to KVIA-TV,

Carlos Cobian, a junior at Socorro High School in El Paso was watching a soccer game between Argentina and Uruguay on his cellphone as he walked into class when the teacher asked him to hand over the device. Cobian said he responded ‘Por qué?’—which means ‘but why’ in Spanish—because he was confused as to why he was being singled out when most of his classmates were also on their phones. (Aviles, 2019)

The substitute teacher was subsequently caught on video telling the student to speak English. As a result, The League of United Latin American Citizens, or LULAC, which bills itself as the largest and oldest Latino organization in the United States, called for the substitute teacher to be “permanently disqualified from instructing students following racist remarks” (Aviles, 2019). In 2020, another teacher in New Mexico was accused of telling a bilingual student not to speak Spanish in her classroom after the student was helping to translate for

her classmate because she did not understand the assignment (Ruiz, 2020). Although many English-only discriminatory policies have been banned in the U.S., and bilingual education programs have been adopted, a battle still wages on in the classrooms against non-White, culturally diverse student populations. While laws are in place to protect Communities of Color, the hearts and minds of Anglo-American society is a battle that has yet to be won and transformed. Nearly every state in the country has legislatively progressed forward towards an equitable education for all students. However, one state still allows English-only education to maintain a stronghold within their state boundaries. As of January 2022, Arizona is the only state in the nation with the restrictive English-only education law (Gómez, 2022). In 2019, the English-only repeal was approved by committees in both chambers but didn't get scheduled to receive a final formal vote in the Senate (Gómez, 2022). It is the hope that a final vote will take place in Arizona to help move our country in the right direction towards the inclusivity of cultural diversity. While this battle is close to being won, other battles continue to rage on like the issue of exclusionary discipline. An offshoot of corporal punishment, exclusionary discipline has evolved over time in an effort to continuously and disproportionately punish and affect Students of Color for minor infractions such as disruption or defiance. Hispanic/Latinx student populations have been impacted the most from a numbers standpoint, and the resulting policies have aided in making that happen.

Exclusionary Discipline

In many school districts throughout the country, if a student exhibits disruptive or defiant behaviors, they are usually sent out of class. More often than not, they report to ISS where ultimately, they are prevented from interacting with their peers and excluded from the

learning environment. Kennedy et al. (2017) discuss the disproportionate use of exclusionary discipline by teachers and school administrators, primarily amongst Students of Color.

Exclusionary forms of discipline such as the Gun-Free School Act and zero tolerance policies, like corporal punishment and shaming, have disproportionately and predominantly affected Students of Color.

Through the expansion and applications of zero tolerance policies of the 1990s, America was at war with its youth—seeing them as delinquents at best and criminals at worst—as their often minor, adolescent acts occur or originate in the only place other than their homes. And for those acts, America is excluding many youths from school and from obtaining an education. (Hansen, 2005, p. 314)

These policies have only exacerbated Hispanic/Latinx suspensions, which sadly has resulted in millions of students dropping out of high school due to missing out on so much classroom instructional time (Losen & Martin, 2018). These policies have also not been successful in disrupting the school-to-prison pipeline. Researchers like Kennedy et al. (2017) state that the individual principles, values, and beliefs of administrators have had a direct impact on their use of exclusionary discipline. Just as teachers' philosophical beliefs shape their decisions regarding student discipline, so do those of school administrators, and their implicit and explicit beliefs lead to differential treatment of students (Kennedy et al., 2017). Kennedy et al. surmises that a principals' or administrators' attitude about discipline has a direct effect on their decision-making. If a principal favors prevention over exclusion, Kennedy et al. asserts that they are less likely to give their students' out-of-school suspensions or expulsions. Conversely, if the principal or administrator favored exclusion over prevention, they were more likely to suspend or expel those students. Researchers have suggested that the cultural responsiveness of educators and administrators plays a significant

role not only in student misbehavior, but in the disproportionate number of ISS referrals and disciplinary infractions.

Exclusionary punishment policies such as ISSs and office referrals that take students out of the classroom learning environment are embedded within school district guidelines all across the country; and, while the intentions were worthy in trying to keep students safe and the learning environment free from disruptions and unruly behavior, it had unintended consequences for more vulnerable student populations such as at-risk youth, Students of Color, socio-economically disenfranchised students, and those with intellectual learning disabilities. Not only does exclusionary punishment exclude the student from the learning environment, but it also excludes the student from learning.

The Gun-Free Schools Act

The 1994 Federal Gun-Free Schools Act was one such policy that ushered in a new era of exclusionary school discipline. Instead of threats, physical punishment, and religious education from Puritanical and Protestant ideologies, the Guns-Free School Act sought a strategy of exclusion and relied heavily on fear to gain order and control in the classroom. However, that was not its original intention. It was primarily meant to prevent bringing weapons onto school grounds. Moreover, that single piece of legislation helped school districts pave the way for broader expulsion policies. Many state legislatures and local school districts expanded the mandate of zero tolerance beyond the Guns-Free School Act mandate on firearms to include offenses such as smoking, drugs and alcohol, fighting, threats, swearing, and the catchall category of “school disruption” (Skiba & Rausch, 2006). As a

result, zero-tolerance policies and practices became the prevailing standard of discipline in the vast majority of U.S. public schools.

Zero Tolerance

Hispanic/Latinx students have been unnecessarily burdened by the undesirable effects of zero tolerance policies over the past few decades with the implementation of ISSs and exclusionary discipline. School discipline has evolved from its cruel beginnings. However, it has continued to be unfair and discriminatory, particularly against Hispanic/Latinx student populations. For many of these students, experiences with school discipline were an extension of already painful migration pathways they themselves or someone in their immediate family experienced that included police harassment and incarceration (Michaels, 2019). Researchers affirm that the current discipline paradigm of zero tolerance in U.S. public schools is a failure, grossly ineffective, are fundamentally harmful (Dupper, 2010; Skiba, 2014), and disproportionately affect Students of Color. This policy became commonplace in U.S. public schools after corporal punishment began to slowly fade away throughout most of the country. Many schools adopted zero tolerance policies in an effort to enforce school discipline and reduce disruptive and defiant behaviors from students. It gained in popularity during the mid- to late-1990s as a response to the perception that drug use and gang violence were developing into issues necessitating a firm approach from educational administrators (Bleakley & Bleakley, 2018). However, Bleakley and Bleakley (2018) asserts that this policy has unquestionably led to a rise in the over-policing of misbehavior. Zero tolerance policies ran in stark contrast to social inclusion, which encouraged students to be engaged in school; but zero tolerance policies had the opposite effect. It was exclusionary by

design and often resulted in the removal of vulnerable student populations from the classroom learning environment, particularly African American and Hispanic/Latinx student populations. As a result, researchers have found that exclusion-based disciplinary measures contribute to poorer academic achievement in students (Fowles, 2019). Moreover, the American Psychological Association Zero Tolerance Task Force (2008) revealed that the use of school suspension is a predictor of increased levels of misbehavior and future suspensions for students who experience these exclusionary consequences. In theory, suspending a student from class or school is intended to discourage further misconduct on his/her part and to preserve orderliness and safety in the school setting... but suspending a student from a school is a discretionary act that often fails to deter—or may even encourage—further misconduct (Fowles, 2019). The ineffectiveness of suspensions and referrals in reducing or eliminating student misbehavior should not be surprising because the vast majority of students suspended from school, even repeatedly, do not receive any assistance in addressing those academic, social, or emotional issues that led to the incident for which the student was suspended (Mendez, 2003). The failure to acknowledge this complex interplay of factors may help to explain why current school disciplinary approaches are largely ineffective—school officials that single out students rather than addressing the school contextual factors that contribute to student misbehavior (Rathvon, 1999).

In many aspects, zero tolerance policies were similar in theory to corporal punishment in that they punished students who were racially disparaged and socio-economically deprived, and it has demonstrated its ineffectiveness through its role in what is known as the school-to-prison pipeline (Fowles, 2019). When students are excluded from the classroom learning

environment due to minor infractions such as defiance or disruption, they end up falling behind. When they fall behind, it becomes harder for them to catch up to their peers. Ultimately, they become bored and refrain from doing any classwork at all. They end up being sent out of class either on purpose or due to incomplete work, and the cycle continues until they eventually end up dropping out of school due to the vast amounts of instructional time that has been lost. Their involvement with the juvenile justice and the carceral system often times becomes their unfortunate reality.

School-to-Prison Pipeline

Exclusionary discipline policies have swept Students of Color, and poor and socioeconomically disadvantaged youth into the carceral system at disproportionate rates.

In the last decade, the punitive and overzealous tools and approaches of the modern criminal justice system have seeped into our schools, serving to remove children from mainstream educational environments and funnel them onto a one-way path toward prison... The School-to-Prison Pipeline is one of the most urgent challenges in education today. (National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, 2005, p. 2)

ISSs, according to Emmons and Belangee (2018), tend to exacerbate the school-to-prison pipeline. As a result of the passing of the Gun-Free Schools Act and ineffective zero tolerance school policies aimed at controlling misbehavior from students, these policies have increased the risk of students being suspended, expelled, and/or arrested at school. This pattern has become so pronounced that scholars, child advocates, and community activists refer to it as the “school-to-prison pipeline,” the “schoolhouse-to-jailhouse track,” or as younger and younger students are targeted, the “cradle-to-prison track” (Emmons & Belangee, 2018). Emmons and Belangee state that this pipeline is not random and disproportionately affects the poor, students with disabilities or mental illness, and youth of

color, especially African Americans, who are suspended and expelled at the highest rates, despite comparable rates of infraction by White students. In addition, Black and Latino students represent more than 70% of the students arrested or referred to law enforcement at school (Eckholm, 2013). Students of Color are criminalized through the unequal application of school disciplinary policies (Mancilla, 2018).

Schools have also increased reliance upon school-based police to punish students for infractions at school, resulting in citations and involvement with the juvenile justice system for often minor offenses (Gagnon et al., 2014). For example, in the state of Florida where corporal punishment is still legal and practiced, researchers found that there were over 12,500 youth who were arrested at school for minor infractions, with nearly two-thirds of them being for misdemeanors (Gagnon et al., 2014). Students punished punitively have lower rates of school completion, implicating punitive school discipline policies in decreased productivity in the labor force, as well as increased reliance on the social safety net by these high school dropouts (Gagnon et al., 2014).

Castillo (2013) found evidence which indicated that Hispanics are disproportionately represented in all pathways to the school-to-prison pipeline (e.g., suspension, expulsion, and arrests for school-based infractions). Villaruel and Walker (2001) reported that, compared to their white counterparts, Latinxs were arrested 2.3 times more often, prosecuted as adults 2.4 times more often, and imprisoned 7.3 times more often between 1996 and 1998. They also found that Latinxs were 2 to 3 times more likely to be incarcerated than their white counterparts. According to Heitzeg (2014), “nationally, 1 in 3 black and 1 in 6 Latino boys born in 2001 are at risk of imprisonment during their lifetime” (p. 18).

Shaming in American Schools

Amanda Cooley (2017), author of *Against Shaming: Preserving Dignity, Decency, and A Moral-Educative Mission in American Schools* makes a determined effort to shed light on the practice of shaming in American schools as a disciplinary measure. According to Cooley, throughout America, public schoolchildren are being disciplined by shaming for alleged violations of school rules and community norms. Specific examples of these shaming practices include strip searches, forced apologies, dress code violation punishments, and transgender student restroom access denials (Cooley, 2017). Cooley illustrates her assertion:

On her third day at a Clay County, Florida high school, fifteen-year-old Miranda Larkin wore a skirt that was less than one inch shorter than the dress code permitted. Students who violate the dress code of that high school are provided three options: attending in-school suspension while wearing the noncompliant clothing, arranging for someone to bring them a new set of compliant clothes, or wearing the school's dress code "shame suit." Miranda maintains she was only given the last option. The school-mandated outfit was an ill-fitting, neon yellow T-shirt and a pair of scarlet red sweatpants, with the words "DRESS CODE VIOLATION" emblazoned across the chest of the shirt and the leg of the pants. After changing into the outfit, Miranda broke out in hives. In reference to the punishment, Miranda claims " '[t]he school... said this is to embarrass you' ... 'It's supposed to embarrass you so you don't do it again.' " (p. 794)

There has been a great deal of research regarding shaming prisoners in the criminal justice system; however, there has been very little regarding the practice of shaming students as a disciplinary measure in U.S. public schools. The rejection of shaming in criminal law can be translated to a corresponding rejection of shaming in education law, because as a baseline, children in schools should not be subject to the types of shaming punishments inflicted by adult and institutional state actors on adult criminal offenders and incarcerated prisoners (Cooley, 2017). Shaming has become a growing problem and one that requires attention from state policy makers, educators, and school administrators. Cooley argues that school shaming

should be abolished and rejected in the strongest possible terms in an effort to preserve student dignity and lead school communities into an era of respect and acceptance, rather than communities of stigma and shame. Unfortunately, Hispanic/Latinx communities are still reeling and traumatized by the stigma and shame of certain harsh disciplinary practices that were inflicted upon them during the early- to mid-20th century. Bilingual students were reprimanded and humiliated for utilizing the Spanish language in schools, or for even having a Spanish accent (Winstead & Wang, 2017). These were the disciplinary policies during the mid-20th century in California and in other parts of the country, and although these policies and procedures may not be as prevalent today in California as they were a few decades ago, deficit perceptions and attitudes of Hispanic/Latinx Spanish-speaking youth still exist. Deficit thinking persists and reverberates in the professional lives of educators across this country. Gonzalez-Adamski (2021) recalls a time when a fellow teacher asked her, “What can I do with these students who come to school speaking garbage English and garbage Spanish?” These sentiments are not isolated to a particular school district, city, or state. These thoughts and feelings are pervasive across the country and unfortunately end up making their way into the classrooms and target Hispanic/Latinx populations. The practice of shaming and marginalizing Hispanic/Latinx English-Language Learner student populations has had a profoundly emotional and deeply psychological impact in their lives. The healing stories that have emerged from former students who were recipients of shaming practices in their classrooms are heart-wrenching and help shed some light on the depth of hurt and shame that was caused during their primary and secondary school years. Winstead and Wang (2017) do a remarkable job in chronicling their stories of language shame and fear. All of the

following stories and participants reported language shame or sensed language embarrassment and anxiety due to harsh criticisms as children and adolescents. Here are some of their stories below:

Throughout my education I have been ridiculed by teachers in front of peers because of the way I pronounced words and my thick accent. I can remember my seventh-grade history teacher, “Speak English, what are you trying to say?” I remember being laughed at and since then I learned to stay quiet and avoid answering any teacher unless the teacher made me feel safe...but it was not easy speaking English at school or through my college years. [...] I still fear speaking in either language.

In elementary school I hardly participated in class discussions. Most of my teachers carried harsh consequences for using English incorrectly and worst for trying to use Spanish to replace English. My reading suffered greatly both because of practice and fear of being lectured. [...] Teacher remarks and constant reminders of my limitations was the biggest obstacle between me and a book. In class I had a great fear of reading. In fifth grade I had a teacher who would write students names on the board every time you mispronounce words during reading. This teacher would almost always pick me to read. By the time I was done reading I had my name on the board with multiple checkmarks.

“You can’t speak Spanish. Only English in this class.” That was something really difficult for me. I remember a teacher that told me that she once played a song [in Spanish] that administrators who were conducting a class visit didn’t approve of. Being a recently graduated teacher in my first year, I was scared upon hearing that.

Some have preferred that I use as little Spanish as possible. As stated earlier, I have come across teachers that automatically have low expectations of ELs. I have even come across a teacher that directly said to a student that used Spanish to talk to a friend in class, “You are in the United States! We don’t speak Spanish here and not in my classroom” [...] very unfortunate.

Juan’s words below summarized the importance of primary language expertise for bilinguals:

Our language is so much more than communication to others. It is our connection to our family, culture, and community. I have learned first-hand that the weaker your primary language becomes, the less strength your connection to family, community and culture will be. I would not say that I have lost my language, but it has weakened over the years. Fortunately, I was able to communicate with my grandmother regularly and effectively, but my cousin was the one who was not as fortunate. He lost at least 80% of his Spanish-speaking skill and his connection with people like our grandmother was the cost. [...] Looking back, I see now how fortunate I was to have been exposed to so much Spanish at home.

As Juan stated above, language and family remain at the core of the Hispanic/Latinx experience. Their success lies with the familial relationships that are formed and woven together throughout generations. As was painfully evidenced above, the practice of language shaming took a tremendous toll on these former students. Not only were they shamed by their teachers for speaking their native languages, but they were also subjected to forced cultural assimilation by teachers and administrators. If they spoke Spanish in class, they were yelled at for substituting Spanish words for English words or shamed by having their names written on the board. Due to these harsh demands and classroom mistreatment, some students eventually drifted apart from family members because they were unable to connect with them after the shame they had to endure. School leaders must be cognizant that students are connected to families, communities, and the cultures they exist within (Goings et al., 2018).

Culturally Responsive Teachers

In order for Hispanic/Latinx students to give teachers the best output they can give, teachers must also provide healthy and productive inputs that are both culturally and linguistically safe for the diverse student populations that they serve (Mendoza-Reis & Flores, 2014). As Yosso (2005) asserts, Communities of Color enter the classrooms with multiple forms of cultural wealth such as aspirational, social, navigational, linguistic, resistant and familial capital. As educators, drawing out this capital will not only help Students of Color realize that their knowledge is valuable, but it will also acknowledge the multiple strengths of Communities of Color in order to serve a larger purpose of struggle toward social and racial justice (Yosso, 2005). Culturally responsive teachers understand this

purpose and can significantly assist with moving Students and Communities of Color forward in the right direction.

Cultural knowledge is the lens through which people see and understand the world (García & Dominguez, 1997). For students who come from homes that share similar cultural norms to those taught in school, school is about learning academic content and reinforcing familiar cultural norms. For students who are socialized with a different set of cultural norms from those taught at school, school is about learning both academic content and cultural norms (Nelson & Guerra, 2014). When Hispanic/Latinx students are caught in the middle of this cultural dichotomy, oftentimes they become victims of exclusionary school discipline policies.

School disciplinary policies have come under heavy scrutiny over the years in terms of its effectiveness in dealing with student discipline. These policies have been the central theme for many decades, but other issues have recently come to light. The United States is becoming more diverse than ever before, particularly in the case of public schools. Recent data indicate that 41% of public schools nationwide identify as African American or Latinx (McFarland et al., 2017), and 25% of all U.S. students speak a language other than English at home (Williams et al., 2016). While the U.S. is becoming more diverse, more students, such as Hispanic/Latinx student populations, are being sent to ISS at a much higher rate than their White counterparts. Thus, the necessity for more culturally responsive teachers is important now more than ever with the ever-growing population of Hispanic/Latinx students in U.S. public schools. So how can we help put a stop to and potentially end the disproportionate

discipline phenomenon? Several potential solutions to this problem are noted in the research and will be discussed.

Culturally Responsive Pedagogy

Culturally Responsive Pedagogy is a teaching framework in which teachers care for their students as people, communicate with them across any existing cultural divide, and adapt curriculum and instruction to respond to student needs and experiences (Cunningham, 2019). Teachers can implement more content into their curriculum that is culturally relevant to Hispanic/Latinx students. For example, allowing Hispanic/Latinx students to call their teacher “maestro” or “maestra,” which simply means teacher in English. In most Latin American countries, teachers are highly regarded and are often called by their title, “maestra” (Gonzalez-Adamski, 2021). By allowing Hispanic/Latinx students to call their teachers “maestra” instead of Mr. or Ms. Smith for example, adults would be allowing these students to actually use a more respectful term (Gonzalez-Adamski, 2021).

However, teacher preparation courses that are meant to prepare educators for work with increasingly diverse populations has researchers worried. Cherry-McDaniel (2018), who is an African American teacher educator, is concerned with the lack of attention paid to ensuring that all Teachers of Color are properly prepared and adequately trained to meet the needs of Students of Color, specifically as it relates to being culturally responsive and culturally sustaining. Moreover, the education from teacher preparation courses that teacher candidates receive was inadequate in training them to be culturally responsive and culturally sustaining (Cherry-McDaniel, 2018). The people that go into the teaching profession are given short or nonexistent training and are equipped with little culturally relevant knowledge. We send

many of them to schools afflicted by high levels of poverty and segregation and when they don't deliver the results we seek, we increase external pressure and accountability, hoping that we can do on the back end what we failed to create on the front end (Mehta, 2013).

Training pre-service teachers to be culturally responsive is one thing, but as Dillworth (2012) states, there is a failed assumption that there is a homogeneity of thinking that creates a sense of community between teachers and Students of Color.

International Student Teaching

International student teaching has been another potential solution for cultural awareness knowledge and understanding. It has been recommended to teachers for decades as a short-term and useful way for them to gain cultural awareness simply by immersing themselves into the language and culture of the students they serve (Cunningham, 2019). They get an idea of what it is like being a cultural outsider, like many Students of Color experience in the U.S. public school system. International student teachings can be powerful learning experiences for pre-service teachers because they are engaged in learning through cognitive, affective, and behavioral domains, which makes learning more powerful (Cunningham, 2019). Also, when teachers experience a culture apart from their own, they appear to have more meaning for members of a dominant cultural group, such as White U.S. Americans (Marx & Moss, 2011).

Ethical Caring

Ethical caring can also be utilized as a tool to better equip teachers with the cultural awareness and knowledge to productively support the academic growth and well-being of Students of Color in the classroom. Previous research has linked ethical caring, high

expectations, and instructional practices relevant to student culture as three fundamental characteristics of exemplary teachers for children from ethnic minority groups in the American school system (Chan et al., 2009). Caring teachers weave their students' cultural backgrounds into a relational curriculum that establishes high expectations within recognizable forms of authority (Chan et al., 2009). However, as Chan et al. (2009) explain, the way in which teachers express this form of ethical caring matters. When ethical caring is utilized correctly among Hispanic/Latinx students, they found that successful teachers showed that they cared by forming supportive relationships with students, setting high expectations for students' success, and respecting students' families (Valenzuela, 1999). Puerto Rican scholar Nieto (2004) maintained that, "Care means loving students in the most profound ways: through high expectations, great support, and rigorous demands" (as cited in Chan et al., 2009, p. 62). Similarly, in research done with Central American and Mexican immigrant students, Katz (2002) found that caring and high expectations were central to teachers who support students' academic achievement. More recently, a study by Flores-Gonzales (2002) also identified high expectations and caring as key ingredients in the work of the teachers who could strengthen their students' identities as "school kids" and increase their students' likelihood of staying and succeeding in school.

Social Reproduction Theory and Settler Teacher Syndrome

In the literature on unequal outcomes in academic achievement, scholars have cautioned against a social reproduction theoretical perspective that maintains the status quo of inequities in society (Anyon, 2009; Giroux, 1983). Giroux (1983) noted that for educational alternatives to move forward, education must move beyond reproductive approaches by

recognizing that reproduction is a complex phenomenon that only serves the interest of domination but also contains the basis of conflict and transformation. More recently, scholars have argued for de-colonization approaches in teaching through culturally responsive teaching and hiring more teachers of color as a way to avoid the settler-teacher syndrome.

Teachers of Color are important for many reasons including academic performance and improved student-teacher relationships. Cherry-McDaniel (2018) affirms the need to have Teachers of Color in classrooms is undisputed. Research over the last few decades has shown that all students, particularly Students of Color, benefit educationally and affectively from having knowledgeable and well-trained Teachers of Color (Cherry-McDaniel, 2018). Furthermore, she states that not only does the academic performance of Students of Color improve when they are taught by Teachers of Color, but student-teacher relationships become mutually beneficial as well. However, Cherry-McDaniel (2018) cautions against assuming that Teachers of Color are naturally more well-suited to teach Students of Color. To make this case, she points out the following in a classroom management course she taught:

To spark a dialog on the ways in which schools aim to control Black children's bodies, I showed a video clip of the South Carolina resource officer dragging a young Black girl from her seat and slamming her to the ground. The teacher candidates, all African American and over 90% women, argued that the young lady had been disrespectful and deserved to be treated like that by the officer. Instead of contemplating the student's motivations, they sympathized with the officer, and speculated that he might have had a bad day dealing with similar discipline problems. Similarly, teacher candidates' ideas about student achievement, graduation rates, and school culture writ large were rife with stereotypical tropes about poor kids of color, who could learn and be successful in school, only if they would try harder, act better, and if they had families and communities who cared about them and their education. What is most ironic is that some of those teacher candidates come from the very same communities they so readily disparaged. Teacher candidates who were just semesters away from entering classrooms to practice on the nation's most vulnerable children, I found, were potentially just as dangerous and

problematic as research had shown White teachers to be. (Cherry-McDaniel, 2018, p. 242)

To describe this phenomenon, Cherry-McDaniel says that this type of sympathetic behavior towards people of a dominant society is likely from someone who she identifies as having *settler teacher syndrome*. Settler teacher syndrome is defined as a teacher who teaches students to prefer the dominant society and culture of settler colonialism over their own, thus assimilating students into a society and culture that is not their own (Cherry-McDaniel, 2018). In turn, teachers make instructional, pedagogical, and disciplinary decisions to support settler colonialism and act and think just like their White counterparts, essentially becoming cultural gatekeepers of indigenous student populations (Cherry-McDaniel, 2018).

In sum, while there are teachers who are of the same culture and ethnicity as the students they serve, it does not necessarily mean that they will make disciplinary decisions that are in the best interests of their students. Nor does it mean they have the cultural awareness necessary to build rapport with students from the same ethnic background. In fact, research shows that while the majority of teachers in California are White, a growing number of Hispanic/Latinx teachers in California make disciplinary decisions that intentionally or unintentionally favor settler colonialism similar to their White counterparts (Cherry-McDaniel, 2018). This troubling phenomenon fosters low academic achievement, increases high school dropout rates, and exacerbates the school-to-prison pipeline for Hispanic/Latinx youth and other Students of Color. The end result is a dominant society who has successfully eliminated the first language, culture, and identity of Students of Color, making them less Indigenous and more White (Cherry-McDaniel, 2018).

Gaps in the Research

There is an abundance of literature and research on student discipline, school discipline, and exclusionary discipline policies. However, there is a paucity of research on the cultural awareness of middle school educators relative to Hispanic/Latinx student discipline in U.S. public schools. Little is known about the reasons why Hispanic/Latinx students are disproportionately disciplined in middle school, only to end up dropping out of high school a few years later. Middle school educator perceptions of Hispanic/Latinx culture and teacher disciplinary practices are explored throughout this study.

Conceptual Theoretical Framework

The conceptual theoretical frameworks used in this study were CRT, and LatCrit. According to Edmonson and Irby (2007), a theoretical framework is a guiding theory that gives perspective to a study and helps understand phenomena. The focus of this study was on how significant teacher cultural awareness played a role in Hispanic/Latinx student discipline. By looking at historical research and the origins of discipline and assimilation policies, we may be able to understand the contextual framework of this phenomena.

Critical Race Theory (CRT)

In using CRT as a framework, this study employs the use of scenarios to examine the different forms of racial and cultural biases experienced by Hispanic/Latinx middle school students. CRT suggests that the issues of historical marginalization of Hispanic/Latinx youth, deficit thinking, and implicit biases cannot be resolved effectively without first addressing the systems that put these policies and practices in motion in the first place. Four tenets of CRT helped guide this study: (a) racism and subtle or unintentional biases go unnoticed by

those who do not experience it, (b) racial equality will become reality only when those who are not White are assimilated into the dominant culture, (c) the stories of those who experience educational and cultural inequality can be helpful in illustrating the nature of racism; and (d) instances of inequality can only be understood when they are situated within the appropriate historical context (as cited in Gonzalez-Adamski, 2021). In accordance with these tenets, education scholars assert that racism is woven into the fabric of education in the United States (Solórzano & Yosso, 2001), and as such, was utilized throughout this study. Using CRT as a theoretical framework, this study examined the perceptions, policies and practices of educators that research has shown to contribute to the disproportionate discipline of Hispanic/Latinx student populations.

Latinx Critical Race Theory (LatCrit)

LatCrit is akin to CRT and is one of its several offshoots (Gonzalez-Adamski, 2021). LatCrit, as explained by Delgado and Stefancic (2012), calls attention to issues such as immigration, bilingual schooling, and language rights. Solórzano and Delgado Bernal (2001) state that LatCrit focuses more on issues pertaining to Hispanic/Latinx communities that are often ignored by critical race theorists such as language, immigration, ethnicity, culture, identity, phenotype, and sexuality (Solórzano & Delgado Bernal, 2001). In using scenarios in conjunction with this theoretical framework, the researcher was able to formulate a much deeper understanding of the systems that impact the educational and life outcomes of Hispanic/Latinx student populations.

Summary

The historical and present-day practices of exclusionary discipline, cultural and language shaming, and the policies of Americanization have been detrimental to the academic and socio-economic well-being of Hispanic/Latinx peoples. In fact, researchers and educators assert that these policies and practices have also been detrimental to their social-emotional well-being (Skiba, 2014).

Chapter 3: Methods and Procedures

Introduction

Presented in this chapter is the research design, as well as the rationale for the use of this design. The research questions, which will guide this study, are listed. The chapter includes the following sections: purpose of the study, research questions, research design and rationale, population and sample, selection criteria for the sample, instrumentation, data collection procedures, data analysis, potential limitations, and summary.

Statement of the Purpose

The purpose of this study was three-fold: (a) to determine why Hispanic students are disproportionately disciplined in public schools by middle school teachers who have or do not have knowledge of the Hispanic/Latinx culture; (b) to better understand what factors may contribute to the pattern of student discipline and the extent of disproportionality with a focus on the importance of a teacher's knowledge of Hispanic/Latinx culture; and (c) to understand the extent of the practice of cultural responsiveness by teachers relative to the Hispanic/Latinx students they serve.

Research Questions

The research questions for this study were as follows:

RQ1: What are middle school teacher perceptions of knowledge of culture and its application in practice when disciplining middle school Hispanic/Latinx students?

RQ2: In what ways does knowledge of culture affect discipline practices of teachers?

Research Design and Rationale

This was a mixed-methods exploratory study. This approach was appropriate to provide more informative and complete answers to the research questions. A qualitative research

design enabled in-depth analysis of social, interpersonal, and cultural contexts of education (Glanz, 2014). Additionally, quantitative research is useful for collecting numerical data used to explain, predict, or control phenomena, whereas qualitative research is useful for collecting narrative data to gain insight into lived experiences and perceptions (Frels & Onwuegbuzie, 2013).

A mixed-methods design also provided four major rationales: (a) participant enrichment, (b) instrument fidelity, (c) treatment integrity, and (d) significance enhancement (Collins et al., 2006). For this study, significance enhancement was the rationale for using a mixed methods design because according to Collins et al. (2006), significance enhancement facilitates a richer interpretation of the data. Specifically, significance enhancement was achieved by expanding the interpretation of the quantitative results and the qualitative findings, comparing the results from both methodologies (i.e., triangulation), and by adding “real-life” examples in the findings (Collins et al., 2006, p. 79). Nelson and Guerra (2014) state that this type of research is important because while a small number of studies have examined educators’ cultural knowledge, almost none have assessed application of this knowledge in practice. Therefore, this study is of considerable importance because it focuses on educators in the field, the majority of whom are school leaders, and because it examines cultural knowledge and its application in educational practice (Nelson & Guerra, 2014).

For this study, Hispanic/Latinx behaviors in the classroom and the teachers that govern these spaces are examined. CRT was also selected for this study because it offers an in depth look into how race and social, political and economic hierarchies in all areas of society were socially constructed to marginalize, oppress and exploit People of Color. More specifically,

LatCrit was also added to the study to offer a deeper look into the intersectionality of racism, classism, and other forms of oppression. LatCrit is different from general CRT because it focuses on immigration theory and policy, language rights, and accent- and national origin-based forms of discrimination and oppression.

Teachers were surveyed to gauge their responses to real-life scenarios involving Hispanic/Latinx students being disciplined in middle school classrooms. Teachers were asked how they would respond to these different classroom scenarios in order to evaluate teachers' cultural knowledge. In addition, qualitative research approaches were used to examine questions that can best be answered by verbally describing how participants in a study perceive and interpret various aspects of their environment (Crowl et al., 1997). Middle school teachers were asked to interpret various aspects of their classroom environment in order to gain a better understanding of their cultural responsiveness towards Hispanic/Latinx students in schools where they comprised the majority population, according to 2021 data from the CDE.

Population and Sample

The population for this study were middle school educators from California. The participants for this study were middle school educators who taught sixth, seventh, or eighth grade from 14 participating schools within seven school districts throughout California. The seven California school districts represented in this study were from the following counties: Madera, Imperial, Tulare, Fresno, Merced, and San Joaquin.

Selection Criteria for the Sample

The sample of middle school teachers for this study met the following criteria:

1. Teachers and schools that were selected had to reside in a county with a high Hispanic/Latino student population, as noted in 2021 data retrieved from the CDE website.
2. Selection was based on teacher's current employment as a middle school educator from the sixth, seventh, or eighth grades. Teachers also had to be aged 22 and above.
3. Only full-time teachers who held a valid California single or multiple subject teaching credential could participate in the study. Substitute teachers did not qualify for this study since they were not considered full-time, credentialed district employees.

District administrators were sent an email requesting permission to conduct research within their district (see Appendix A). The email addresses of the middle school teachers for this study were acquired either from district office personnel charged with approving the principal investigator's research request, school site administrators or counselors, or by the researcher via a middle school's website. Once the research request was approved, teachers were sent an email asking them for their participation (see Appendix B).

Instrumentation

Two kinds of instruments were used in this study: (a) archival records and (b) survey. They are described below.

Phase 1

In the first phase of this study, archival student population data from the CDE (2021) website was used to identify districts and schools with a majority Latinx student population. A standard instrument was not used to retrieve this data. Excel spreadsheets were used to collect, organize, and analyze this quantitative archival data.

Phase 2

In the second phase of this study, a mixed-methods survey was developed to collect qualitative and quantitative data about teachers' knowledge of Hispanic/Latinx culture. A mixed-method scenario-based survey that was designed by the researcher (see Appendix C). The mixed-method survey, created using Google Forms, was composed of 5 scenarios and 33 questions with both closed and open-ended response opportunities. Likert Scale, closed-ended questions were used in an effort to gauge teacher cultural responsiveness and knowledge in practice relative to disciplining Hispanic students. These Likert Scale questions also asked about the possibility of building rapport with these students from grades 6 through 8. There were also 5 demographic questions at the end of the survey.

The survey took teachers approximately 20 to 30 minutes to complete, depending on their responses to open-ended questions. A consent statement was presented at the beginning of the survey in which educators were able to either agree or disagree to give permission to use their responses for this research study. Completion and submission of the survey also provided consent for their participation. Furthermore, no employees or facilities would be revealed in any reports related to the study. Participation in the survey was completely voluntary, and educators were able to opt out at any time.

The survey was comprised of four sections:

The first section contained the title of the study, name of the primary investigator and faculty research advisor, the purpose, procedures, potential risks and benefits, compensation, confidentiality, participant rights, questions or problems, and a space to collect emails for the

sole purpose of sending survey participants a \$5 Starbucks eGift Card upon submission and completion of the survey.

The second section was a universal statement that acknowledged a teacher's consent to participate in the study. Teachers either agreed or disagreed with the statement by clicking on one of the two choices. Of the number of teachers that completed and submitted the survey, there were no participants that disagreed with the statement.

The third section consisted of the mixed-method survey. It provided five scenarios, followed by two open-ended response opportunities. After these two response opportunities were recorded, there were five Likert Scale questions that proceeded. The scenario introduced elements of perceived disruptions and defiance on behalf of the Hispanic/Latinx students. The scenarios provided several real-life situations in which every teacher sent Hispanic/Latinx students out of their classrooms for certain behaviors. Participants were then asked how they would have reacted if they were the teachers in the scenarios.

The fourth section of the survey included five demographic questions. The five questions asked about teacher gender, age, years in education, credential status, and their racial or ethnic identity.

Trustworthiness

The four criteria for trustworthiness in qualitative research were addressed and met in this study (Greene, 2000). Credibility was met through several strategies including the researcher's familiarity with the context as a former middle school teacher and a current middle school counselor. Credibility was also met through a field-test that served as a member-check. Triangulation of the data also contributed to credibility. Transferability

strategies included a limitation on generalizability and boundaries of the study. Dependability strategies included the research design and implementation. The survey instrument reflected all elements of the cultural awareness framework. Finally, confirmability was met through triangulation of the data in order to reduce potential researcher bias.

Field-Test Procedures

The field test for the survey was conducted in January 2022 by a peer who is a teacher. Feedback noted that the survey was clear. Therefore, no major modifications were made.

Data Collection Procedures

IRB approval was first obtained. Then, data was collected via the CDE website for the seven districts being studied in order to analyze the counties by which these school districts were located. This was done to ensure Hispanic/Latinx students had the highest percentage student population in these counties. When schools were selected randomly within these counties and school districts, archival suspension data was also retrieved. Archival suspension data was collected between October 2021 and December 2021.

Data collection for the scenario-based survey was gathered using Google Forms. This helped centralize survey data collection into a single source Google Sheets document to further analyze the information. Survey data for teachers was collected between January 10, 2022, and March 10, 2022.

To reach participants for this study, an email solicitation campaign was first sent to district office personnel for research approval. A teacher research flyer, created by the researcher, was also attached to the email to district office personnel throughout California. The majority of the email recipients that the researcher emailed were either district

superintendents or assistant superintendents. Turnaround for research approval took anywhere from a few days to a few weeks, depending on the respective district's policies and procedures to allow requests for research to be conducted within their school district.

In certain districts, there were no research request documents to fill out. The San José State University IRB approval document sufficed for most districts. Also, the fact that only teachers (who were adults) were being surveyed, and not students, made the process that much smoother and less complicated. The researcher was not going to physically be on any school campuses either, nor was he conducting teacher interviews. So, the process was fairly straightforward.

For some districts, there were online questionnaires, research applications, written proposals, and Google Form documents that needed to be filled out prior to district office approval. Generally, to be approved, research proposals had to: (a) directly benefit students and the school district, (b) not involve intrusion into students' instructional time or staffs regular work time, (c) not violate student or parent rights to privacy, and (d) must encourage and promote research and data collection which directly benefits the improvement of student achievement, teaching, and learning.

Other school districts required that the researcher provide the following general information in a written proposal: (a) name of researcher(s) and academic credentials, (b) purpose and scope of the project, (c) method of study or investigation to be used, (d) extent of participation expected of students and staff, (e) use to which project results will be put, (f) benefits to the school(s) or the district, and (g) ensure the privacy rights of students is adhered to, those who participate are aware this study is voluntary, and that the researcher

will not use school names in the publication of findings without prior approval of the superintendent or district office personnel.

After the research requests were approved, district office personnel offered one of three decisions regarding the dissemination of the teacher research survey:

1. The survey was sent electronically via email to district office personnel. Then, district office personnel would send the initial email and survey to the teachers at a particular school, in addition to subsequent reminder emails for the teaching staff to participate in the voluntary study on a weekly basis for up to three weeks.
2. District office personnel advised that the researcher contact administrators, e.g., principals and vice principals, regarding dissemination of the survey to their teaching staff. Once the administrators were contacted and notified about the research study approval, either principals, vice principals, learning directors, or counselors agreed to send out the survey on the researcher's behalf.
3. Otherwise, the researcher was given a list of teacher emails to correspond with and send email reminders to as needed.

Data Analysis

Phase 1. District and School Archival Data

Archival three-year average cumulative Hispanic/Latinx enrollment data from 2016-17, 2017-18, and 2018-19 was obtained (see Table 3) from the fourteen California middle schools studied for this research. Cumulative enrollment data, unlike the Census Day Enrollment data, which are recorded in October of each school year and exclude short-term enrollments, counts are collected at the end of the year and consist of the total number of unduplicated primary and short-term enrollments within the academic year. Cumulative enrollment is used to calculate rates for absenteeism, suspension and expulsion (Data from the CDE, retrieved from Ed-Data.org on October, 2021).

Table 3

Three-Year Average of Historical Cumulative Hispanic/Latinx Enrollment Data from Fourteen California Middle Schools, 2016-17, 2017-18, and 2018-2019

California Middle Schools	Total Student Enrollment	Total Hispanic/Latinx Student Enrollment	Hispanic/Latinx Student Enrollment Percentage
A	991	856.3	86%
B	972	876.7	90%
C	1034	870.7	84%
D	619.6	520.3	84%
E	642.3	441.7	69%
F	741.7	670.3	90%
G	685	602.7	88%
H	484.7	301	62%
I	563.7	435.7	77%
J	833	322	39%
K	796	287.7	36%
L	732	260.3	36%
M	590.3	584.7	99%
N	424.3	323.7	76%

Source: Ed-Data.org; This table above displays the average Hispanic/Latinx cumulative enrollment data in fourteen California K-12 public schools. Unlike the **Census Day Enrollment** data, which are recorded in October of each school year and exclude short-term enrollments, **Cumulative Enrollment** counts are collected at the end of the year and consist of the total number of unduplicated primary and short-term enrollments within the academic year. Cumulative enrollment is used to calculate rates for absenteeism, suspension and expulsion.

Archival three-year average Hispanic/Latinx suspension data (see Table 4) from 2016-17, 2017-18, and 2018-19 was also retrieved from the California School Dashboard and Ed-Data.org to analyze average total Hispanic/Latinx suspension percentages and suspension rates. The researcher calculated the percentage of Hispanic/Latinx suspensions relative to their average total enrollment. This data was also acquired to potentially determine the statistical significance of disproportionate discipline of Hispanic/Latinx students relative to a specific schools prevalent educator ethnicity. Schools and districts were compared, and teaching staff ethnicity were examined to determine whether a teacher’s cultural knowledge

Table 4

Three-Year Average of Historical Hispanic/Latinx Suspension Data from Fourteen California Middle Schools, with prevalent teacher ethnicity 2016-17, 2017-18, and 2018-2019

California Middle Schools	Total Student Suspensions	Hispanic/Latinx Student Suspensions	Hispanic/Latinx Student Suspensions Percentage	Hispanic/Latinx Suspension Percentage/Rate	Prevalent Teacher Ethnicity (%)
A	136.5	123.75	91%	16.5%	White (70%)
B	165.7	142	86%	17%	White (71%)
C	95.3	79.1	83%	9.1%	Hispanic (55%)
D	71.3	55.3	78%	10.7%	White (69%)
E	78	51.3	66%	11.6%	White (71%)
F	33	26.7	81%	3.97%	White (57%)
G	40.4	34.1	84%	5.7%	White (60%)
H	23.3	15.7	67%	4.8%	White (83%)
I	39.7	29.7	75%	7.1%	White (77%)
J	69	27.3	40%	8.3%	White (73%)
K	71.7	23	32%	7.8%	White (68%)
L	116.7	37.3	32%	14.4%	White (53%)
M	57.3	56.7	99%	9.83%	Hispanic (53%)
N	67	49.3	74%	15.2%	White (33%)

Source: Ed-Data.org; This table above displays the average suspension data by race/ethnicity in fourteen California K-12 public schools.

had any impact on whether Hispanic/Latinx students were disproportionately disciplined in certain school districts over other school districts. This cross-comparison served to address research questions one and two, which asked whether the cultural knowledge and responsiveness of teachers had any impact on Hispanic/Latinx student disciplinary practices. Aspects of empathy, culture, race, identity, stereotypes, and social and familial capital were addressed in these surveys.

Phase 2. Mixed-Methods Scenario Survey

Creswell's (2012) strategies for analysis was utilized in this study, which included (a) data organization or management; (b) reading and memoing; and (c) describing, classifying, and interpreting data into codes and themes. The first phase included reading the respondents' survey answers in their entirety and summarizing key terms. The next phase

involved describing, sorting, and interpreting the data into codes and themes via a deductive codebook (see Appendix D). The coding process was facilitated through the use of the survey items and respondents' survey answers. Coding was conducted manually, and a detailed analysis was conducted to develop codes and themes relevant to teachers' cultural awareness when disciplining Hispanic/Latinx students.

Limitations

There were several limitations to this study. First and foremost, it was very challenging to get this research approved by several school districts. According to several administrators that were contacted, this study was controversial due to the topic being explored. This presented one major limitation. The topic of teacher cultural knowledge relative to the disciplining of Hispanic/Latinx students did not go over well with certain school districts. In speaking briefly over the phone with an anonymous district administrator after this study had been approved, they commended the research that was being conducted, wished the project good luck, stated that "more light needs to be shed upon this very topic," and "it has to be studied."

Second, completing online district Google surveys, filling out research requests, and writing research proposals was another key limitation. Of the 22 districts that were contacted for this study, half replied to the research requests. Of the 11 that replied, three of the districts had very lengthy research request surveys, forms, and proposals to complete. Needless to say, the researcher did not complete some of these documents due to time limitations.

Out of the eight remaining districts, the research request was denied by one school district. In the end, seven school districts agreed to allow research to be conducted at their

respective school sites. However, even though research was approved at the district level, it did not necessarily mean school site approval. According to one district administrator that was contacted, it was the responsibility of the researcher, not the district, to contact school site administrators and ask permission to conduct research within their school site. However, this point of view was in the minority. Most of the school districts that approved the research were very hands-on and wanted to help the researcher disseminate the survey out to their individual school sites and certificated staff. In the end, there were 14 schools within seven school districts that allowed the research to be conducted. In one particular school district, there were three schools that were sought out for research. Of the three, one school site agreed to allow the surveys to be emailed to their staff, while two opted out. The second school cited teacher burnout concerns, and the third did not respond to the researcher's emails requesting the distribution of surveys to teachers.

This study went through a major vetting process, with some school districts seeking approval from upwards of four district administrators. Although this research study experienced some snags along the way in terms of school district approval, some very relevant and important data was collected. Fortunately, regarding the aforementioned school district, there were no school site administrators that disagreed with research being conducted at their school after district approval.

Another limitation was that teachers who routinely disciplined Hispanic students may not have participated in the survey. Given the fact that this research intended to gauge the thoughts and cultural responsiveness of teachers relative to the disciplining of

Hispanic/Latinx students, some teachers may not have wanted to give honest answers for fear that their information may reflect poorly upon themselves or their school districts.

Despite the survey being advertised in emails as confidential and anonymous, another limitation was that there was a total of (N=351) teachers in 12 middle schools from seven districts that were surveyed, but only (N=39) were completed and submitted. This limitation in data sample size may not have provided enough teacher responses about the Hispanic/Latinx students described in the scenarios to effectively gauge the cultural responsiveness of educators. If a larger number of respondents is gathered, the results of the study will be more accurate.

Lastly, the prevalence of Covid-19 at the forefront of every school district and school site in the country presented another key limitation. The first thing to consider during this pandemic was the health and wellbeing of survey participants. Since teachers and educators have been in the trenches since the start of this pandemic, it was decided that asking teachers to participate in online interviews via Zoom or Skype would not be an instrument that would be used for this study. Putting them under any more stress than what they were already experiencing in the classrooms was not necessary. Hence, sending teachers a voluntary research survey via email seemed like the most efficient and plausible way to conduct research. Furthermore, two schools refused to allow the survey to be distributed to their staff.

Summary

This chapter described the methodology and provided the rationale for this study. The population and sample were described. Phase 1 and Phase 2 were described. Trustworthiness

and Field-Test procedures were explained. Procedures for data analysis were explained.

Limitations of the study were discussed.

Chapter IV presents an analysis of the data and discussion of findings of the study.

Chapter V presents key findings, conclusions, and recommendations for action.

Chapter 4: Data Analysis and Findings of the Study

Introduction

Chapter 4 presents an analysis of the data collected throughout this research. The findings are introduced and discussed under the two research questions and mixed-methods designs that were created for this study.

Statement of the Purpose

The purpose of this mixed-methods and culturally responsive study was three-fold: (a) to determine why Hispanic/Latinx students are disproportionately disciplined in public schools by middle school teachers who have or do not have knowledge and awareness of the Hispanic/Latinx culture; (b) to better understand what factors may contribute to the pattern of student discipline and the extent of disproportionality with a focus on the importance of a teacher's knowledge of Hispanic/Latinx culture; and (c) to understand the extent of the practice of cultural responsiveness by teachers relative to the Hispanic/Latinx students they serve. A special emphasis was placed on Hispanic/Latinx students within California counties who are the majority population. In this study, my purpose was to explore the cultural awareness of California teachers and its impact on disciplining of Hispanic/Latinx students, and to examine what percentage of this student population represent the total number and percentage of students suspended during the 2016-17, 2017-18, and 2018-19 academic school years.

For this study, both quantitative and qualitative data was collected and analyzed as a means to gain a comprehensive view of teacher perspectives via an online scenario-based mixed methods survey. This instrument coupled with a deductive codebook and data

collected from the CDE served to triangulate phenomena in order to confirm or contradict the notion that teacher cultural competency has an impact on the disproportionate discipline of Hispanic/Latinx students.

Research Questions

This study was constructed around two research questions:

RQ1: What are teacher perceptions of knowledge of culture and its application in practice when disciplining middle school Hispanic students?

RQ2: In what ways does knowledge of culture affect discipline practices of teachers?

Sample Profile

The first sample included Hispanic/Latinx student suspension data initially from fourteen middle schools, with twelve middle schools eventually being studied that was obtained from archival CDE databases, collapsing over three school years. The twelve remaining middle schools throughout Northern, Central, and Southern California were from the following counties: Madera, Imperial, Tulare, Fresno, Merced, and San Joaquin Counties. Table 3 data includes the average total enrollment sample of all students, as well as Hispanic/Latinx students from fourteen middle schools during academic years 2016-17, 2017-18, and 2018-2019. Of note in Table 3, school sites J and L opted out of the study due to teacher burnout concerns and email communication snubs, despite district approval. School sites J and L student enrollment and suspension data were still included in Tables 3 and 4 but are highlighted in gray to note that teachers from schools J and L were not surveyed for this study. Data was collected from October 10, 2018, to December 10, 2020. It is important to note that suspension data from academic school years 2019-2020 and 2020-2021 were either not readily available or suspension data was not included during those school years due to the

Covid-19 pandemic. Therefore, the student demographic suspension data that was used for this study was from previous school years, with an emphasis on school years 2016-17, 2017-18 and 2018-19. Archival data was used to illustrate the disparities between Hispanic/Latinx suspension numbers compared to the total number of school suspensions for all students.

The second sample in this study depicted teachers who took the scenario-based mixed methods survey, which was ($N=39$) and were from the twelve school sites being studied. Table 5 presents the initial teacher sample size sought, the total number of teachers from twelve school sites surveyed ($N=351$), the total number of surveys that were emailed ($N=351$), and the total online surveys completed ($N=39$).

Table 5
Teacher Distribution of Surveys

Number of teacher sample size sought	Number of Teachers from Twelve School Sites	Number of Surveys for Teachers Sent Online via Email	Total Online Surveys Completed
419	$N=351$	351	39 (15%)

Note. $N=351$

Survey data for teachers was collected from January 10, 2022, to March 10, 2022. Solicitation for surveys were emailed to 351 teachers from 12 middle schools being studied, for a total sample of 351 teacher surveys ($N=351$). The return rate for teachers was $N=39$ which exceeded the 10% objective of $N=35$ sought. This met the overall required minimum return rate as set forth by the committee chair of this research study.

Demographic Profile of the Sample

Teacher demographic data were captured during the mixed-methods scenario based surveys but were kept anonymous and confidential given the sensitive nature of this study. Demographic race/ethnicity information was also retrieved from the survey to determine the

predominant teacher race/ethnicity percentage in each school, was included in Ch. 3, Table 4, and was readily available for analysis.

Student demographic suspension data was focused primarily on Hispanic/Latinx students as it pertained to this study. This data served to depict a large percentage and number of Hispanic/Latinx total suspensions in comparison to the total number of suspensions given in an academic school year.

Data Analysis

The quantitative and qualitative data analysis was arranged into two phases that aligned with the two research questions and also coincided with the tenets of this study's deductive codebook (see Appendix D). The first phase was created to gather statistical archival three-year average data about California Hispanic/Latinx student enrollment and suspensions in order to determine a possible connection between the two. It was theorized that the total percentage of Hispanic/Latinx student enrollment mirrored and was analogous to the total percentage of Hispanic/Latinx student suspensions, concluding that the higher number of Hispanic/Latinx students in a particular school resulted in a higher number of Hispanic/Latinx student suspensions. The second phase was created to obtain quantitative and qualitative data from the scenario-based mixed-methods survey in order to provide information about middle school teacher cultural awareness and potential reasons for the disproportionate discipline of Hispanic/Latinx students from the twelve middle schools.

Phase 1: Archival Suspension Data Statistical Relevance Findings

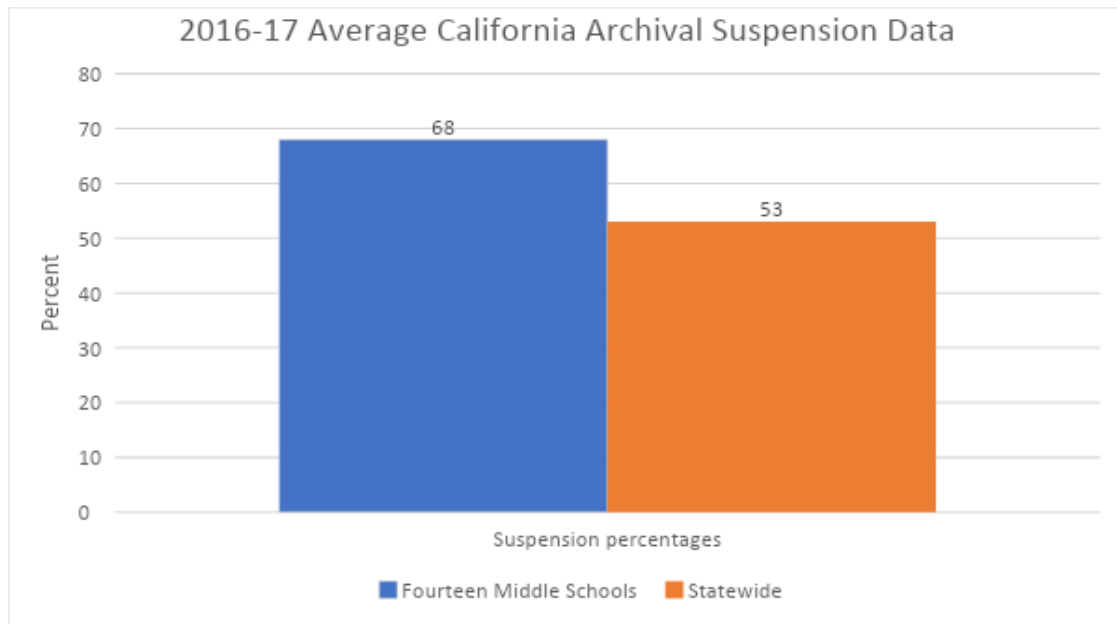
The disproportionately high Hispanic/Latinx average student suspension percentages from Table 4 during the three-year average of historical Hispanic/Latinx Suspension Data for

the middle schools surveyed for this study does not coincide with archival statewide Hispanic/Latinx suspension percentages retrieved from the CDE. Average suspension percentages from the fourteen middle schools were actually 15 percent higher (68%) than statewide percentages (53%). Researchers can infer that Hispanic/Latinx students were suspended from the fourteen middle schools than Hispanic/Latinx students in all other schools across the state (see Figure 1). Figure 1 provides an overarching depiction of the percentages of suspensions based on a three-year average (2016-17, 2017-18, and 2018-19) from the fourteen middle schools that archival data was retrieved, and the 2016-17 statewide percentage average. This illustration of statistically relevant data can provide further evidence of the significant disproportionate discipline of Hispanic/Latinx students in California. Figure 1 provides a graphical representation of these differences.

Phase 2 Research Questions 1: Survey Data Findings and Discussion

The findings in the survey that addressed (RQ1) middle school teacher perceptions of knowledge of culture and its application in practice when disciplining middle school Hispanic/Latinx students were prevalent in items 1b, 3b, and 4b, as well as 1d, 3d, 4d, 1f, 3f, and 4e. Analysis was conducted separately for each item as they related to middle school teacher perceptions of knowledge of culture and exclusionary discipline. Items 1b, 3b, 4b were the open-ended questions that the researcher was able to extract cultural awareness data

Figure 1
2016-2017 Comparison of Fourteen Middle Schools and Statewide Suspension Percentages



of middle school teachers who agreed to take the survey, while items 1c, 3c, 4c, 1f, 3f, and 4e explored the degree to which respondents felt the students in the scenarios were being defiant or disrespectful and should have been given a disciplinary referral or sent to ISS.

Scenario 1: Speaking Spanish Over the Teacher

The first finding of the survey instrument was from Scenario 1, Speaking Spanish Over the Teacher (see Table 6). Question 1b asked respondents: “If you were the educator in the scenario, how would you have responded and why?”

Item 1b was coded based on the LatCrit principle of “language rights” (Delgado & Stefancic, 2012). Negative Language Rights (2NLR) and Positive Language Rights (3PLR) provided a scale to the item. Based on how (N=39) respondents answered open-ended question 1b, key words were coded that led the researcher to infer that respondents were or

Table 6*Scenario 1: Speaking Over the Teacher Survey Results with Deductive Codebook Descriptor*

Scenario	Scenario question	Total number of respondents out of 39 (percentage)	Total number of Hispanic/Latinx respondents out of 18 (number / percentage)
S1. Speaking over the teacher	1b. Negative Language Rights – NLR or Positive Language Rights – PLR (LatCrit)	NLR: 20 (51%) PLR: 19 (49%)	NLR: 11 (61%) PLR: 7 (39%)
	1c. Intentionally disrespectful?	Yes – 24 (62%) No – 15 (38%)	Yes – 11 (61%) No – 7 (39%)
	1d. Disruptive and defiant?	No – 24 (62%) Yes – 15 (38%)	No – 15 (83%) Yes – 3 (17%)
	1e. Should have been sent to the office?	No – 36 (92%) Yes – 3 (8%)	No – 16 (89%) Yes – 2 (11%)
	1f. Disciplinary referral?	No – 37 (95%) Yes – 2 (5%)	No – 17 (94%) Yes – 1 (6%)
	1g. Interested in developing a relationship or rapport with students?	Yes – 39 (100%) No – 0 (0%)	Yes – 18 (100%) No – 0 (0%)

Source: Appendix D – Deductive Codebook; *Note:* Descriptor in bold; Code NLR denotes a lack of cultural awareness and PLR denotes having cultural awareness relative to language rights.

were not culturally aware in this scenario. Key words that were noted from this item included *classroom expectations, given a warning, show respect, send outside, and separate the students*. These key words suggested that the respondents were not very culturally aware.

When respondents answered open-ended question 1b and used any of the key words above, it suggested that they were not culturally aware. A majority of the respondents (51%) used key words in their responses to item 1b that suggested they were not being culturally aware. More interesting was the fact that of the 18 teachers who identified as Hispanic/Latinx, 61 percent were found to not be culturally aware and used similar key words in their responses as their White counterparts. In contrast, *allowed to translate, appreciate translators in my class, and*

not very disruptive or defiant were key words that indicated the teachers were culturally responsive to the students in the scenario.

Respondents were then asked follow-up closed-ended Likert Scale questions to Scenario 1, with choice 1 being “very disrespectful,” choice 2 “somewhat disrespectful,” and choice 3 “not very disrespectful.” Item 1c asked whether respondents believed Oscar was being intentionally disrespectful to Mr. Lewis by yelling out. A majority of respondents believed that Oscar was being somewhat or very disrespectful (62%). Of the 18 teachers who identified as Hispanic/Latinx, a majority (61%) also agreed with their White counterparts and believed Oscar was being somewhat or very disrespectful.

Furthermore, when respondents were asked item 1d, which asked whether Juan and Oscar were being disruptive or defiant in Mr. Lewis’s classroom, a majority (62%) believed they were not being disruptive or defiant. However, 15 respondents (38%) believed they were being disruptive or defiant. Yet, when respondents were asked question 1f whether they believed Mr. Lewis should have given Juan and Oscar a disciplinary referral, a majority of the respondents (95%) either disagreed or strongly disagreed. Furthermore, a majority of Hispanic/Latinx teachers (94%) agreed that both Juan and Oscar should not have been given a disciplinary referral. These findings suggest that although the respondents did not exhibit cultural responsiveness and exhibited Negative Language Rights awareness in this scenario, their lack of cultural awareness did not contribute to the disproportionate discipline of Hispanic/Latinx students.

Scenario 2: Student Interrupts Class

The second finding of the survey instrument was from Scenario 2, Student Interrupts Class. Question 2b asked respondents: “If you were the educator in the scenario, how would you have responded and why?”

Of note, scenario 2 survey responses did not yield any significant results from respondents that addressed the lack of cultural awareness relative to the disproportionate disciplining of Hispanic/Latinx students (see Table 7). Most of the respondents answered in similar ways that discussed Acceptable Classroom Behavior (15ACB). Despite the majority of both Hispanic/Latinx and White respondents agreeing that Alma was being disrespectful, defiant, and disruptive, they also agreed that she not be sent to the office for her behavior. They also felt she should not receive a disciplinary referral, and believed that if they established a relationship and rapport with the student, the unacceptable classroom behavior would not be prevalent.

Scenario 3: Caldo de Pollo and Sprite

The third finding of the survey instrument was from Scenario 3, Caldo de Pollo and Sprite (see Table 8). Question 3b asked respondents: “If you were the educator in the scenario, how would you have responded and why?”

Item 3b was coded based on Cunningham’s (2019) description of “cultural noticing” and cultural responding.” This scenario gauged a teacher’s ability to notice details about cultural context and then acts or responds based on the context (Cunningham, 2019). Negative Classroom Expectations/Policy (11NCEP) and Positive Classroom Expectations/Policy

Table 7*Scenario 2: Student Interrupts the Class Survey Results with Deductive Codebook Descriptor*

Scenario	Scenario question	Total number of respondents out of 39 (percentage)	Total number of Hispanic / Latinx respondents out of 18 (number / percentage)
S2. Student Interrupts the Class	2b. Appropriate Classroom Behavior – ACB	Yes – 21 (54%) No – 18 (46%)	Yes – 10 (56%) No – 7 (44%)
	2c. Intentionally disrespectful?	Yes – 34 (87%) No – 5 (13%)	Yes – 16 (89%) No – 2 (11%)
	2d. Disruptive and defiant?	Yes – 28 (72%) No – 11 (28%)	Yes – 15 (83%) No – 3 (17%)
	2e. Should have been sent to the office?	No – 35 (90%) Yes – 4 (10%)	No – 15 (83%) Yes – 3 (17%)
	2f. Disciplinary referral?	No – 32 (82%) Yes – 7 (18%)	No – 15 (83%) Yes – 3 (17%)
	2g. Interested in developing a relationship or rapport with student?	Yes – 38 (97%) No – 1 (3%)	Yes – 17 (94%) No – 1 (6%)

Source. Appendix D – Deductive Codebook; *Note.* Descriptor in bold

(12PCEP) provided a scale to the item. The codes NCEP and PCEP were created based on Cunningham’s (2019) description of cultural noticing and cultural responding. Teachers notice or do not notice cultural language, cues, or context in their classrooms and then create policies and expectations that either negatively or positively impact Students of Color. Based on how (N=39) respondents answered open-ended question 3b, key words were coded that led the researcher to believe that respondents were or were not culturally aware in this scenario. Key words that were noted from this item included *classroom expectations and policy, put away, no eating in class, sent to the nurse, sent outside, and sent home*. These key words suggest that the respondents were not very culturally aware. *Brought some for everyone, eat quietly, allowed to eat, and adjustments to rules* were key words that suggested respondents were being culturally responsive to the student in the scenario. When

Table 8*Scenario 3: Caldo de Pollo and Sprite Survey Results with Deductive Codebook Descriptor*

Scenario	Scenario question	Total number of respondents out of 39 (percentage)	Total number of Hispanic / Latinx respondents out of 18 (number / percentage)
S3. Caldo de Pollo and Sprite	3b. Negative Classroom Expectations / Policy – NCEP or Positive Classroom Expectations / Policy - PCEP	NCEP – 27 (69%) PCEP – 12 (31%)	NCEP – 11 (61%) PCEP – 7 (39%)
	3c. Intentionally disrespectful?	No – 31 (79%) Yes – 8 (21%)	No – 14 (78%) Yes – 4 (22%)
	3d. Disruptive and defiant?	No – 28 (72%) Yes – 11 (28%)	No – 12 (67%) Yes – 6 (33%)
	3e. Should have been sent to in-school suspension?	No – 38 (97%) Yes – 1 (3%)	No – 17 (94%) Yes – 1 (6%)
	3f. Disciplinary referral?	No – 36 (92%) Yes – 3 (8%)	No – 16 (89%) Yes – 2 (11%)
	3g. Interested in developing a relationship or rapport with student?	Yes – 39 (100%) No – 0 (0%)	Yes – 18 (100%) No – 0 (0%)

Source. Appendix D – Deductive Codebook; *Note:* Descriptor in bold; Code NCEP denotes a lack of cultural awareness and PCEP denotes having cultural awareness relative to classroom policies and expectations for Students of Color.

respondents answered open-ended question 3b and used any of the key words above, it was suggested that they were or were not culturally aware. A majority of the respondents (69%) used key words in their responses to item 3b that suggested they were not culturally aware. Of the 18 teachers who identified as Hispanic/Latinx, a majority (61%) were found to not be culturally aware and used similar key words in their responses as their White counterparts.

Respondents were then asked follow-up closed-ended Likert Scale questions to Scenario 3, with choice 1 being “very disrespectful,” choice 2 “somewhat disrespectful,” and choice 3 “not very disrespectful.” Item 3c asked whether respondents believed Ramiro was being intentionally disrespectful to Mr. Martinez by eating food in his class without asking

permission? A majority of respondents believed that Ramiro was not being disrespectful (79%). Of the 18 teachers who identified as Hispanic/Latinx, a majority (78%) agreed with their White counterparts and believed Oscar was not being disrespectful, while four (22%) suggested he was being disrespectful.

When respondents were asked item 3d, which asked whether Ramiro was being disruptive or defiant in Mr. Martinez's classroom, a majority (72%) believed he was not being disruptive or defiant. However, 11 respondents (28%) believed he was being disruptive or defiant.

Furthermore, when respondents were asked item 3f whether they believed Mr. Martinez should have given Ramiro a disciplinary referral, a majority of the respondents (92%) either disagreed or strongly disagreed. Furthermore, a majority of Hispanic/Latinx teachers (89%) agreed that both Juan and Oscar should not have been given a disciplinary referral as well. These findings suggest that although the respondents did not exhibit cultural awareness and Positive Classroom Expectations/Policy in this scenario, their lack of cultural awareness did not contribute to the disproportionate discipline of this particular Hispanic/Latinx student.

Scenario 4: Vicks in the Classroom

The fourth finding of the survey instrument was from Scenario 4, Vicks in the Classroom (see Table 9). Question 4b asked respondents: "If you were the educator in the scenario, how would you have responded and why?"

Table 9*Scenario 4: Vicks in the Classroom Survey Results with Deductive Codebook Descriptor*

Scenario	Scenario question	Total number of respondents out of 39 (percentage)	Total number of Hispanic / Latinx respondents out of 18 (number / percentage)
S4. Vicks in the Classroom	4b. Negative Classroom Expectations / Policy – NCEP or Positive Classroom Expectations / Policy - PCEP	NCEP – 26 (67%) PCEP – 13 (33%)	NCEP – 12 (67%) PCEP – 6 (33%)
	4c. Intentionally disrespectful?	No – 39 (100%) Yes – 0 (0%)	No – 18 (100%) Yes – 0 (0%)
	4d. Disruptive and defiant?	No – 37 (95%) Yes – 2 (5%)	No – 17 (94%) Yes – 1 (6%)
	4e. Should have been sent to in-school suspension?	No – 39 (100%) Yes – 0 (0%)	No – 18 (100%) Yes – 0 (0%)

Source. Appendix D – Deductive Codebook; *Note:* Descriptor in bold; Code NCEP denotes a lack of cultural awareness and PCEP denotes having cultural awareness relative to classroom policies and expectations for Students of Color.

Item 4b was also coded based on Cunningham’s (2019) description of “cultural noticing” and “cultural responding.” This scenario also gauged a teacher’s ability to notice details about cultural context and then acts or responds based on the context (Cunningham, 2019). Negative Classroom Expectations/Policy (11NCEP) and Positive Classroom Expectations/Policy (12PCEP) provided a scale to the item. Based on how (N=39) respondents answered open-ended question 4b, key words were coded that led the researcher to believe that respondents were or were not culturally aware in this scenario. Key words that were noted from this item included *classroom expectations and policy, put away, see the nurse, allergic reaction, and sent home*. These key words suggested that the respondents were not very culturally aware. In contrast, the following key words such as *Vicks smells good, Vicks is helping them, grandma used Vicks on them, and still carry Vicks around* were

key words that suggested respondents were culturally responsive to the student in the scenario. When respondents answered open-ended question 4b and used any of the key words above, it was suggested that they were or were not culturally aware. The majority of respondents (67%) used key words in their responses to item 4b that suggested they were not culturally aware, while 33 percent responded in a culturally competent way. Similarly, of the 18 teachers who identified as Hispanic/Latinx, a majority (67%) were found to not be culturally aware and used similar key words in their responses as their White counterparts, while 33 percent of Hispanic/Latinx respondents were found to be culturally responsive.

Respondents were then asked follow-up closed-ended Likert Scale questions to Scenario 4, with choices being “very disrespectful,” “somewhat disrespectful,” and “not very disrespectful.” Item 4c asked whether respondents believed Jorge and Pablo were being intentionally disrespectful to Ms. Gamby for using Vicks in her classroom without permission? We see that a majority of respondents, both Hispanic (18), White (18), and other (3) believed that Jorge and Pablo were not being disrespectful (100%).

When respondents were asked item 4d, which asked whether Jorge and Pablo were being disruptive or defiant in Ms. Gamby’s classroom, a majority (95%) believed he was not being disruptive or defiant, while two respondents (5%) believed he was being disruptive or defiant. When respondents were asked question 4e whether they believed Ms. Gamby should have given Jorge and Pablo a disciplinary referral, a majority of the respondents (100%) either disagreed or strongly disagreed. These findings suggest that although the majority of respondents did not exhibit cultural awareness and Positive Classroom Expectations/Policy in

this scenario, their lack of cultural awareness did not contribute to the disproportionate discipline of Hispanic/Latinx students.

Scenario 5: The Sleepy Student

The fifth finding of the survey instrument was from Scenario 5, The Sleepy Student. Question 5b asked respondents: “If you were the educator in the scenario, how would you have responded and why?” (see Table 10).

Table 10
Scenario 5: The Sleepy Student Survey Results with Deductive Codebook Descriptor

Scenario	Scenario question	Total number of respondents out of 39 (percentage)	Total number of Hispanic / Latinx respondents out of 18 (number / percentage)
S5. The Sleepy Student	5b. Well-being and Caring – WC	Yes – 30 (54%) No – 9 (46%)	Yes – 13 (56%) No – 4 (44%)
	5c. Intentionally disrespectful?	No – 32 (82%) Yes – 7 (18%)	No – 15 (83%) Yes – 3 (17%)
	5d. Disruptive and defiant for being irritable in class and falling asleep?	No – 27 (69%) Yes – 12 (31%)	No – 11 (61%) Yes – 7 (39%)
	5e. Should have been sent to in-school suspension?	No – 28 (72%) Yes – 11 (28%)	No – 12 (67%) Yes – 6 (33%)

Source. Appendix D – Deductive Codebook; *Note:* Descriptor in bold

Of note, scenario 5 survey responses yielded some interesting results from Hispanic/Latinx respondents. While most of the respondents, both Hispanic/Latinx and White, answered in similar ways that discussed caring for the student (19WC) in the scenario, it did not seem like the Hispanic/Latinx respondents were very sympathetic or caring towards her. In items 5d and 5e, Hispanic/Latinx respondents were the majority of respondents who believed the student in this scenario should not only be labeled as disruptive and defiant, but she should be sent to ISS as well.

What Attributes to Student Misbehavior

The last finding within the survey data that addressed the lack of cultural awareness relative to the disproportionate disciplining of Hispanic/Latinx students was a closed-ended question. Respondents were asked, “In your opinion, to what do teachers attribute to student misbehavior?” (see Table 11). The choices were parents and family upbringing, students who misbehave do not care about their education, language barrier, and their school is not responsive to their needs. Respondents also had the option of adding another reason. A largest percentage of respondents attributed student misbehavior to parents and family upbringing (87%). This suggests that implicit bias and Hispanic/Latinx stereotypes and perceptions of culture leads to interactions with educators that may influence disproportionate disciplinary behavior. A typical Hispanic/Latinx stereotype or perception from teachers is that parents are not involved in their student’s education. The blame falls on the parents when students misbehave, which is a common stereotype, but one that is still pervasive in society. If blaming the parent was not enough, a student’s language barrier (48%) became another reason why Hispanic/Latinx students misbehaved in the classroom.

Another reason that was mentioned by respondents as to what they attribute to student misbehavior was students who misbehave do not care about their education (77%). Like the responses above, teachers are blaming the students and their families. These first three findings are significant in the fact that of the teachers surveyed (N=39), the majority placed the blame of Hispanic/Latinx student misbehavior on the students and their families. What is even more striking is the fact that Hispanic/Latinx respondent answers mirrored their White

Table 11*Closed-Ended Question: Reasons for Student Misbehavior*

Scenario	Closed-ended question choices	Total number of respondents out of 39 (percentage)	Total number of Hispanic / Latinx respondents out of 18 (number / percentage)
Reasons for student misbehavior?	Parents and family upbringing	34 (87%)	15 (83%)
	Students who misbehave do not care about their education	30 (77%)	13 (72%)
	Language barrier	19 (48%)	9 (50%)
	Their school is not responsive to their needs	20 (51%)	7 (39%)

counterparts in this closed-ended question, similar to how they answered the scenarios above. This was a significant finding in the fact that these Hispanic/Latinx teachers hailed from different parts of the state of California, but answered similarly to one another and their White colleagues.

Research Question 2 Phase I and II: Convergent Findings and Discussion

Statement of Research Question 2: In what ways does knowledge of culture affect discipline practices of teachers?

The quantitative and qualitative data that were analyzed from the survey responses presented many findings that when converged provide further details into how knowledge of culture may influence the disproportionate disciplining of Hispanic/Latinx students. Convergent findings for research question two were analyzed through the following questions: survey question 1e (whether respondents believed Mr. Lewis should have sent Oscar to the office for yelling out and talking back), survey question 1g (whether respondents would be interested in developing a relationship and rapport with Juan and Oscar), survey question 3e (whether respondents believed Mr. Martinez should have sent Ramiro to ISS),

and survey question 3g (whether respondents would be interested in building rapport with Ramiro). It was found that nearly all (92%) of respondents believed Mr. Lewis should not have sent Oscar to the office for yelling out and talking back. Additionally, a high majority (97%) of teachers reported that they would be interested in building a relationship and rapport with Juan and Oscar.

Similarly, for question 3e, it was found that a high majority (97%) of teachers reported that Mr. Martinez should not have sent Ramiro to ISS. All of the teachers surveyed (100%) were either somewhat or very interested in building rapport with Ramiro.

These findings, while positive, are interesting. It may be reasonable to suspect that teachers, while lacking cultural awareness, are not only reluctant to send these students out of class for defiance and disruption, but they are also willing to build rapport with them. It can be inferred that teachers would eventually send the students to the office if this simple act of defiance and disruption occurred multiple times. This dichotomous relationship of refraining from exclusionary discipline coupled with a lack of cultural awareness may influence the learning behaviors of these Hispanic/Latinx students who choose to misbehave in class due to the negative cultural noticing and responding they may encounter from their teachers (Cunningham, 2019; Moll, 2014).

When triangulating these findings, we see that teachers perceived that the two main reasons for Hispanic students being disproportionately disciplined was due to parents and family upbringing and students not caring about their education. We know that the findings for suspension reasons show that the majority of Hispanic student suspensions were due to defiance. Therefore, if teachers believe that disproportionate discipline is due to family

upbringing and students not caring about their education, where does that fit into the suspension data? One may infer that many negative perceptions occur between faculty and Hispanic/Latinx students when they, their names, their families, and their culture are not treated with respect due to their differences. This coincides with Castro (2010) and Sleeter's (2001) notion that many U.S. teachers may have little understanding of those culturally or racially different than themselves.

Summary

This chapter reported the quantitative and qualitative data that was collected and analyzed as a means of gaining a holistic view of middle school teacher perceptions of Hispanic/Latinx culture. The online scenario-based mixed-method survey coupled with a deductive codebook served to triangulate phenomena in order to confirm or deny associations of perceptions of culture relative to the disciplinary actions. Quantitative demographic suspension data was also utilized to provide further triangulation of phenomena. The next and final chapter summarizes key findings, discussions, and conclusions, and recommendations for this study.

Chapter 5: Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations for Future Research and Action

Introduction

Chapter 5 contains the purpose of this study and the research questions that helped guide this study. It encapsulates the key findings and offers conclusions resulting from these findings and includes recommendations for further research and suggestions for action.

Statement of the Purpose

The purpose of this mixed-methods and culturally responsive study was three-fold: (a) to determine why Hispanic students are disproportionately disciplined in public schools by middle school teachers who have or do not have knowledge of the Hispanic/Latinx culture; (b) to better understand what factors may contribute to the pattern of student discipline and the extent of disproportionality with a focus on the importance of a teacher's knowledge of Hispanic/Latinx culture; and (c) to understand the extent of the practice of cultural responsiveness by teachers relative to the Hispanic/Latinx students they serve. A special emphasis was placed on Hispanic/Latinx students within California counties who are the majority population. In this study, the purpose was to explore the cultural awareness of California teachers and its impact on the disciplining of Hispanic/Latinx students.

Research Questions

The research questions for this study were as follows:

RQ1: What are middle school teacher perceptions of knowledge of culture and its application in practice when disciplining middle school Hispanic/Latinx students?

RQ2: In what ways does knowledge of culture affect discipline practices of teachers?

Summary of Key Findings Research Question 1

Statement of Research Question 1: What are middle school teacher perceptions of knowledge of culture and its application in practice when disciplining middle school Hispanic/Latinx students?

The summary of key findings for research question one describes middle school teacher perceptions of knowledge of culture and how that knowledge or lack thereof constitutes the disproportionate disciplining of middle school Hispanic/Latinx students. The key findings were important in several ways: (a) to determine the level of cultural awareness that teachers may or may not have when disciplining Hispanic/Latinx students, (b) frequency of responses of no less than (50%) of respondents to questions in the survey, and (c) the relationship between respondents answers to the reasons why Hispanic/Latinx students misbehave compared to the reasons from the research and archival data.

1. Archival data findings showed three years of disproportionate discipline of Hispanic/Latinx students in counties where they were the majority population.
2. Three of five scenarios from the survey in which cultural awareness data was collected determined that a majority of teachers (1-51%, 3-69%, and 4-67%), as well as those teachers who identified as Hispanic/Latinx (1-61%, 3-61%, and 4-67%), were found to lack cultural awareness of Hispanic/Latinx culture
3. Convergent parallel findings of research and survey data state that a lack of cultural awareness from teachers is one significant reason for exclusionary discipline. Survey responses to the closed-ended item of why respondents think Hispanic/Latinx students misbehave had four main categorical themes. The most frequency of occurrences out of (N=39) respondents were as follows: (N=34) parents and family upbringing, (N=30) students who misbehave do not care about their education, (N=20) their school is not responsive to their needs, and (N=19) language barrier.

Summary of Key Findings Research Question 2

Statement of Research Question 2: In what ways does knowledge of culture affect discipline practices of teachers?

The summary of key findings for research question two served to ascertain that even if teachers have knowledge of or share Hispanic/Latinx student culture, does it ultimately play a factor in determining whether they discipline these students or not? The key findings were important in several ways:

1. To determine the level of cultural awareness that teachers may or may not have when disciplining Hispanic/Latinx students.
2. Despite convergent parallel findings of research and survey data indication that a lack of cultural awareness constitutes exclusionary discipline, according to this study, a lack of cultural awareness did not necessarily establish a motive for punitive punishment.

Conclusions and Discussion

The findings from the archival suspension data and surveys of thirty-nine middle school teachers suggest the following conclusions:

Complexity of Cultural Awareness and Discipline

The results of this study provide insight into how middle school teachers surveyed from Northern, Central and Southern California did not exhibit cultural awareness of Hispanic/Latinx students. A lack of cultural awareness did not affect exclusionary discipline measures. That is, while teachers did not always understand or approve the cultural norms of students, it did not appear to affect discipline practices. This presents a complex statistic given the fact that Hispanic/Latinx students have made up the majority of public school students in California since the 2009-10 school year (Buenrostro, 2018); and, while suspension numbers have declined over the last decade, Hispanic/Latinx students still represent the largest group of students in terms of numbers that are disproportionately disciplined and dropout of high school (Losen & Martin, 2018). They also represent the

largest group in terms of numbers that are disproportionately disciplined for minor infractions such as defiance (CDE, 2017).

Settler Teacher Syndrome

The findings from this study suggest further exploration of settler teacher syndrome. Results from Hispanic/Latinx teachers' cultural awareness mirrored that of White teachers. Hispanic/Latinx teachers' responses to scenario questions were similar to the responses of their White counterparts. Both Hispanic/Latinx and White teachers gave disciplinary or pedagogical responses to the scenarios that were similar to one another. It may be that these findings reflect a settler teacher syndrome.

Disproportionality of Discipline Remains Highest with Hispanic/Latinx Students

Phase 1 of this study revealed through statistically relevant archival data that the disproportionate discipline of Hispanic/Latinx students is a continuous problem. This pattern of disproportionate disciplining of minority students has continued to persist in California, particularly at the middle school level (Losen & Martin, 2018). California students lost over 760,000 days of instructional time during the 2016-17 academic school year alone (Losen & Martin, 2018). Most notably, these suspensions had the greatest impact on students in grades seven and eight, and were one of the highest amongst Hispanic/Latinx student populations (Losen & Martin, 2018).

Pervasiveness of a Deficit Perspective of Hispanic/Latinx Students

In this study, teachers attribute reasons for classroom discipline referrals largely to students and families exacerbating a deficit perspective (Valencia & Black, 2002). One of the last closed-ended questions in the survey asked middle school teachers the reasons they

believed contributed to misbehavior amongst Hispanic/Latinx students. Of the 39 teachers surveyed, a majority attributed Hispanic/Latinx student misbehavior first to parents and family upbringing (34), then students not caring about their education (30), followed by schools not being responsive to student needs (20), and finally language barrier (19). This finding was significant in the fact that three of the four reasons for classroom misbehavior stemmed from students and their families.

Lack of Critical Consciousness and Need for Ideological Clarity

At the same time that teachers in this study exhibited low levels of cultural awareness of Hispanic/Latinx students, this did not affect discipline practices. However, when asked to name factors that contribute to student misbehavior, teachers placed blame directly on students and families. These seemingly contradictory findings suggest a lack of critical consciousness or ideological clarity of teachers. Bartolome (2006) called for the need to expose the invisible (yet pervasive) oppressive dominant ideologies. Mendoza-Reis and Flores (2014) note, “engaging in ideological clarity is necessary in order to acknowledge how one’s beliefs, assumptions, and attitudes govern leaders’ actions, especially regarding the teaching/learning and assessment of the children/students that schools are entrusted with” (p. 197).

Recommendations for Further Research Studies

The findings from this study suggest the following for further research:

1. More studies be conducted on the disproportionate discipline of middle school Hispanic/Latinx students and how this phenomenon contributes to elevated high school dropout rates and the school-to-prison pipeline.
2. This study be replicated with a larger sample of teachers from across Northern, Central, and Southern California.

3. The study be replicated using scenario-based, mixed-method instruments for teachers.
4. Interviews be conducted to further strengthen middle school teacher perceptions of Hispanic/Latinx culture.

Implications for Action

1. Provide professional development on cultural awareness and ethical caring of Hispanic/Latinx cultures.
2. Provide a short-term, cost-effective option for International Student Teaching (IST) to pre-service and in-service teachers in order to immerse them into another culture apart from their own.
3. Implement culturally responsive pedagogy into classroom curriculums.

Epilogue

Though the professors, books, peer-reviewed articles, researcher dissertations, and journals that were cited in this study were the result of decades of collective learning, the actual process of conducting one's own research is much more difficult than any professor, book, or academic journal can convey. The research was arduous, but the process and reward of finishing such an endeavor made the journey worth the madness. To add insult to injury, throw in a worldwide pandemic and you have the recipe for a classic sprint to the finish. As an administrator once stated at one point during this journey, "more light needs to be shed upon this very topic." The work needed to be done and more work needs to be done in order to combat the continued disproportionate representation of high Hispanic/Latinx suspension numbers and dropout rates throughout California.

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APPENDIX A

Administrator Email

Date:

Dear administrators,

My name is Art Maldonado, and I am a doctoral student with the Educational Leadership Program at San José State University. I'm emailing to ask for your assistance in helping me complete my doctoral dissertation.

I'd like to send out an email and survey to the teachers at (middle school name) in order to examine their cultural knowledge relative to the disciplining of Hispanic/Latinx students. However, before I proceed, I would like to know who I need to submit this request through in your district for approval. Any assistance you can provide will be greatly appreciated.

Of note, my university has approved this research study. A copy of my IRB approval letter is attached to this email, along with my research flyer. When you open the flyer and click the link titled "Teacher Research Survey," you will be able to view the actual survey and read through the Purpose, Procedures, Participants Rights, Confidentiality, and so forth. Please feel free to click through the survey as well.

This is a multi-district research study being conducted throughout California. Your school district was chosen at random, along with several other school districts and middle schools from Northern, Central and Southern California. My aim is to obtain a large sample size because this tends to be associated with a smaller margin of error. So, in order to get an accurate picture of the effects of teacher cultural awareness on Hispanic/Latinx student discipline, we need plenty of examples from throughout California to look at and compare. I hope you are able to assist me with this request.

My contact information is below, so please let me know if you have any questions or concerns. Thank you in advance for your time and consideration. I look forward to hearing from you.

Respectfully,

Art Maldonado

APPENDIX B

Teacher Email

Date

Dear Middle School Teachers,

My name is Art Maldonado, and I am writing to you today as a doctoral student with the Educational Leadership Program at San José State University. As leading authorities in your field, I am asking for your assistance in helping me complete my dissertation. You are invited to participate in a multi-district research study being administered throughout California to examine teacher cultural knowledge and awareness relative to the disciplining of Hispanic/Latinx students. The data collected during this field of study will help drive professional development and intervention programs that will be most effective for school leaders, teachers, and students at all levels.

In order to conduct this study with fidelity, a mixed-method survey will be used that will provide confidentiality of all participants. Should you choose to participate, a \$5 Starbucks e-gift card will be emailed to you upon completion and submission of the survey. The mixed-method survey, created using Google Forms, is composed of 5 scenarios and 33 questions with both closed and open-ended response opportunities. There are also 5 demographic questions at the end of the survey. It is estimated to take approximately 30 minutes, depending on your response to open-ended questions.

No employees or facilities will be revealed in any reports related to the study. Furthermore, completion of the survey will provide consent for your participation. Participation in this survey is completely voluntary, and you may opt out at any time. To begin the survey, click the link below or open the attached flyer and click the link titled, “Teacher Research Survey.”

If you have any questions or concerns, please feel free to email me. Thank you in advance for your time and assistance in helping empower teachers, administrators, and Hispanic/Latinx students within your district and throughout California. I look forward to your responses.

Respectfully,

Art Maldonado

APPENDIX C

Survey Instrument and Consent Form

REQUEST FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION IN RESEARCH

Section 1 of 4

TITLE OF THE STUDY

Vicks in the Classroom: Examining the Effect of Teacher Cultural Awareness on Hispanic/Latinx Student Discipline

NAME OF THE PRIMARY INVESTIGATOR (PI)

Art Maldonado, Ed.D. Candidate
San Jose State University

NAME OF THE FACULTY RESEARCH ADVISOR (RA)

Senorina (Noni) Reis, Ed.D.
Department of Educational Leadership
San Jose State University

PURPOSE

The purpose of this study is to examine the cultural knowledge and awareness of educators relative to the disciplining of Hispanic students. Using the data collected during this field of study may help to drive professional development and intervention programs that will be most effective for school leaders, teachers, and students at all levels within your respective district.

PROCEDURES

If you participate in this study, it will last approximately 30 minutes, depending on your responses to the open-ended questions. Names and other identifiable information will not be known.

POTENTIAL RISKS

This study poses minimum risk to you. Participants will be asked questions regarding cultural knowledge and to reflect on classroom incidents. Some participants may find reflecting on these topics uncomfortable. If the experience of recalling instances of such behavior is stressful, you may opt to stop at any time.

POTENTIAL BENEFITS

Participants may feel positive about helping the field improve professional development and disciplinary practices.

COMPENSATION

Participants will receive a \$5 Starbucks e-gift certificate.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Security measures will be employed to ensure confidentiality of study participants. No names, positions, or schools of staff will be revealed in any reports related to the study. Indirect data such as gender, age, and other data related to participants' experiences will be coded. No identifying information will be included in publication or dissemination. To protect anonymity, all information will be assigned a code number that is unique to this study. The list connecting your name to this number will be kept in a password-protected computer with access only by the primary investigator (PI) and faculty advisor (FA). No one at your district or San Jose State University will be able to see your survey or even know whether you participated in this study. When the study is completed and the data have been analyzed, the list linking participant's names and emails to study numbers will be deleted/destroyed. Study findings will be presented only in summary form and your name will not be used in any report. While the investigator(s) will keep your information confidential, there are some risks of data breaches when sending information over the internet that are beyond the control of the investigator(s).

PARTICIPANT RIGHTS

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You may refuse to participate in the entire study or any part of the study without any negative effect on your relations with San Jose State University. This consent form is not a contract. It is a written explanation of what will happen during the study if you decide to participate. You will not waive any rights if you choose to participate and there is no penalty for stopping your participation in the study. Any data collected at that time will be used as part of the study's analysis. The data may be used in future research after identifiers are removed. The district may benefit from the findings of this study. The information collected from this study will be used for chapter four of the primary investigator's doctoral dissertation. All school districts in the state of California, as well as throughout the nation who desire to improve the educational outcomes of Hispanic/Latinx students, may benefit from this study. The data may be used in presentations and the writing of subsequent papers and publications.

QUESTIONS OR PROBLEMS

You are encouraged to ask any questions at any time during this study.

- For further information about the study, please contact Art Maldonado at arthur.maldonado@sjsu.edu.
- Complaints about the research may be presented to Dr. Bradley Porfilio at bradley.porfilio@sjsu.edu.
- For questions about participants' rights or if you feel you have been harmed in any way by your participation in this study, please contact Dr. Mohamed Abousalem, Vice President for Research & Innovation, San Jose State University, at 408-924-2479 or irb@sjsu.edu. To contact Dr. Reis, research advisor, please email noni.mendoza@sjsu.edu.

Section 2 of 4

Consent To Participate

By completing and submitting this survey, you are giving consent to participate in this study.

Agree

Disagree

Section 3 of 4

Mixed-Method Survey

Directions: Below are 5 scenarios and 33 questions for which your answers are important to our understanding of how educators apply cultural knowledge in practice. Please read each of the scenarios and then respond to the questions that follow.

Part 1 - Scenario: Speaking Spanish Over the Teacher

Juan and Oscar walk into Mr. Lewis's classroom and sit in their assigned seats right next to each other. After Mr. Lewis takes attendance and begins classroom instruction, Juan and Oscar begin a conversation in Spanish. The conversation is not loud, but just loud enough so that Mr. Lewis can hear the two talking while he is speaking. Mr. Lewis gestures with his hand and says "shhhh" for the students to be quiet. They initially adhere to his command. After a few minutes, Mr. Lewis notices that Juan and Oscar begin a conversation in Spanish again. Frustrated, Mr. Lewis asks them politely not to talk while he is trying to explain the classroom lesson. After Mr. Lewis reminds Juan and Oscar not to disrupt his lesson again, Oscar yells out in a loud and irritated tone of voice, "Aye perdon, le estoy ayudando! (Oh, I am sorry, I am helping him!)" Mr. Lewis referred Juan and Oscar to the office for defiance and disrespectful behavior.

1a. What is happening in the scenario?

1b. If you were the educator in the scenario, how would you have responded and why?

1c. Do you believe Oscar was being intentionally disrespectful to Mr. Lewis by yelling out?

1. Very disrespectful
2. Somewhat disrespectful
3. Not very disrespectful

1d. Do you believe Juan and Oscar were being disruptive and defiant in Mr. Lewis's classroom?

1. Very disruptive and defiant
2. Somewhat disruptive and defiant
3. Not very disruptive and defiant

1e. Do you believe Mr. Lewis should have sent Oscar to the office for yelling and talking back?

1. Strongly disagree
2. Disagree
3. Agree
4. Strongly agree

1f. Do you believe Mr. Lewis should give Juan and Oscar a disciplinary referral?

1. Strongly disagree
2. Disagree
3. Agree
4. Strongly agree

1g. If you were Mr. Lewis, how interested would you be in developing a relationship and rapport with Juan and Oscar?

1. Very interested
2. Somewhat interested
3. Not very interested

Part 2 - Scenario: Student Interrupts Class

The bell rings and Ms. Villa takes attendance and begins her classroom lesson. She explains to her class that today is catch-up day and an opportunity for students to make up any work they have missed or may not have completed. Ms. Villa expects her students to sit quietly in their seats, do their work, not be disruptive or talk in excess, and raise their hands if they need help with an assignment. While Ms. Villa is explaining this, Alma raises her hand. She's had some defiance issues with Ms. Villa in the past. Ms. Villa sees her hand, but gestures for her to put her hand down until she's finished explaining the day's assignment. Soon thereafter, Alma gets up out of her seat without asking permission while Ms. Villa is speaking. Alma walks to the trash to throw away what looks like a piece of paper and casually strolls back to her seat with a smug look on her face. Ms. Villa referred Alma to the office for not asking permission to get up out of her seat and making faces at her.

2a. What is happening in the scenario?

2b. If you were the educator in the scenario, how would you have responded and why?

2c. Do you believe Alma was being intentionally disrespectful to Ms. Villa by getting up out of her seat without asking permission?

1. Very disrespectful
2. Somewhat disrespectful
3. Not very disrespectful

2d. Do you believe Alma was being disruptive and defiant in Ms. Villa's classroom?

1. Very disruptive and defiant
2. Somewhat disruptive and defiant
3. Not very disruptive and defiant

2e. Do you believe Ms. Villa should send Alma to the office for this behavior?

1. Strongly disagree
2. Disagree
3. Agree
4. Strongly agree

2f. Do you believe Ms. Villa should give Alma a disciplinary referral for this behavior?

1. Strongly disagree
2. Disagree
3. Agree
4. Strongly disagree

2g. If you were Ms. Villa, how interested would you be in developing a relationship or rapport with Alma?

1. Very interested
2. Somewhat interested
3. Not very interested

Part 3 - Scenario: Caldo de Pollo and Sprite

Ramiro walks into Mr. Martinez's classroom with a thermos he brought from home containing a soup called "Caldo de Pollo" (Chicken Soup). Ramiro had not been feeling well, so his mother sent him to school with the container of soup and a Sprite. Mr. Martinez calmly observes as Ramiro sits down and prepares for his class. Mr. Martinez knows Ramiro is not feeling well by the look on his face. He also knows no food is allowed in his classroom. Additionally, Ramiro has been in Mr. Martinez's classroom long enough to know that his teacher does not allow food to be consumed while in class.

Historically, Ramiro has not exhibited any behavioral issues. As Mr. Martinez begins his classroom instruction, he sees Ramiro nonchalantly eating his soup and drinking a Sprite at his desk. Worried that other students will complain that it is not fair that Ramiro gets to eat in class, Mr. Martinez sends Ramiro to in-school suspension (ISS) for being defiant and disobeying classroom food policies.

3a. What is happening in the scenario?

3b. If you were the educator in the scenario, how would you have responded and why?

3c. Do you believe Ramiro was being intentionally disrespectful to Mr. Martinez by eating food in his class without asking permission?

1. Very disrespectful
2. Somewhat disrespectful
3. Not very disrespectful

3d. Do you believe Ramiro was being disruptive and defiant in Mr. Martinez's classroom?

1. Very disruptive and defiant
2. Somewhat disruptive and defiant
3. Not very disruptive and defiant

3e. Do you believe Mr. Martinez should send Ramiro to in-school suspension for this behavior?

1. Strongly disagree
2. Disagree
3. Agree
4. Strongly agree

3f. Do you believe Mr. Martinez should give Ramiro a disciplinary referral?

1. Strongly disagree
2. Disagree
3. Agree
4. Strongly agree

3g. If you were Mr. Martinez, how interested would you be in developing a relationship or rapport with Ramiro?

1. Very interested
2. Somewhat interested
3. Not very interested

Part 4 - Scenario: Vicks VapoRub

It's a cold, windy, and gray afternoon at Central Middle School. Ms. Gamby's door slams shut by the wind as students filter into her classroom after lunch. The tardy bell rings and the last few students scurry inside. As the final few take their seats and she begins to take attendance, she notices a very strong scent of menthol. In fact, it is so strong, other students begin to notice the smell. Just then, she notices that Jorge and Pablo have small Vicks VapoRub containers on their desks. Annoyed by the scent, Ms. Gamby asks them if they are the ones responsible for the smell. Jorge and Pablo, struck with a mild case of the sniffles, both nod their heads in agreement. Ms. Gamby sends Jorge and Pablo to in-school suspension (ISS) because of the pungent smell of Vicks and for disrupting her classroom learning environment while she was taking attendance.

4a. What is happening in the scenario?

4b. If you were the educator in the scenario, how would you have responded and why?

4c. Do you believe Jorge and Pablo were being intentionally disrespectful to Ms. Gamby for using Vicks VapoRub in her class?

1. Very disrespectful
2. Somewhat disrespectful
3. Not very disrespectful

4d. Do you believe Jorge and Pablo were being disruptive and defiant in Ms. Gamby's classroom?

1. Very disruptive and defiant
2. Somewhat disruptive and defiant
3. Not very disruptive and defiant

4e. Do you believe Ms. Gamby should have sent Jorge and Pablo to in-school suspension (ISS) for disrupting the classroom learning environment?

1. Strongly disagree
2. Disagree
3. Agree
4. Strongly agree

Part 5 - Scenario: The Sleepy Student

Mr. Rodgers notices that Marisol has not been her usual self lately in class. Typically, she is a very attentive and respectful young lady. Recently, Marisol has been quite irritable, puts her head down on her desk, and falls asleep constantly. Up until now, she has been doing well academically in his class. However, her sleepiness and irritable behaviors are clearly affecting her classwork and grade. After several attempted phone calls home to inform her parents of the sudden switch in behavior, Mr. Rodgers cannot reach anyone. Marisol's change in behavior is happening so frequently, Mr. Rodgers sends her to see the school counselor to find out what the issue is. Despite the best efforts of the counselor, she does not disclose any information. Frustrated and unable to muster up the energy to continuously deal with Marisol, Mr. Rodgers sends her to in-school suspension as a temporary solution. One of Marisol's friends ends up requesting a meeting with a counselor to discuss the recent change in Marisol's behavior. The reason why Marisol has been acting different lately is because her father has given her added responsibilities at home due to her mother's recent death.

5a. What is happening in the scenario?

5b. If you were the educator in the scenario, how would you have responded and why?

5c. Do you believe Marisol was being intentionally disrespectful to Mr. Rodgers by falling asleep in his class?

1. Very disrespectful
2. Somewhat disrespectful
3. Not very disrespectful

5d. Do you believe Marisol was being disruptive and defiant in Mr. Rodgers's class by being irritable, putting her head down and falling asleep?

1. Very disruptive and defiant
2. Somewhat disruptive and defiant
3. Not very disruptive and defiant

5e. Do you believe Mr. Rodgers should have sent Marisol to in-school suspension for her behavior in his classroom?

1. Strongly disagree
2. Disagree
3. Agree
4. Strongly agree

In your opinion, to what do teachers attribute to student misbehavior? (check all that apply)

Parents and family upbringing

Students who misbehave do not care about their education

Language barrier

Their school is not responsive to their needs

Other...

Are there any additional comments that you would like to add, either to your responses above or in general?

Section 4 of 4

Demographics

INSTRUCTIONS: Complete the following 5 demographic questions. Please note that all personal information will be kept completely confidential and none of the responses you provide will be connected to your name, email address, or other identifying information.

6. What is your gender?

Female

Male

Other...

7. Which of the following best describes your age range?

22 - 34

35 - 44

45 - 54

55 - 64

65 or Above

Other...

8. How many years have you been an educator/teacher?

1 - 4 years

5 - 9 years

10 - 14 years

15 - 19 years

20 years and Above

Other...

9. Are you a credentialed teacher (e.g., single or multiple subject)?

Yes

No

Other...

10. Which of the following best represents your racial or ethnic identity? (Select all that apply)

Asian

Native-American or Alaska native

White

Middle Eastern

Black or African-American

Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander

Hispanic, Latino, or Spanish origin

Other...

APPENDIX D

Deductive Code Book

Deductive Code Book			
*Some codes are based off literature and design theories and will be used to analyze the instrumental data.			
Code #	Code Label	Definition and meaning of Code	Teacher Survey Question #
1 SDD	Simple disruption and defiance	When a student unknowingly or unintentionally disrupts the classroom learning environment	Scenarios 2: Questions 2a, 2b
2 NLR	Negative Language Rights (LatCrit)	When a student's language rights are not acknowledged by a teacher or administrator	Scenario 1: Question 1b
3 PLR	Positive Language Rights (LatCrit)	When a student's language rights are acknowledged by a teacher or administrator	Scenario 1: Question 1b
4 NCAR	Negative cultural awareness/responsiveness	Educator lack of cultural context, cues, language, appearance, and family upbringing of their students	Scenarios 1, 3, 4: Questions 1b, 3b, 4b
5 PCAR	Positive cultural awareness/responsiveness	Educator awareness of cultural context, cues, language, appearance, and family upbringing of their students	Scenario 1, 3, 4: Questions 1b, 3b, 4b
6 TD	Teacher disrespect	Student intentional or unintentional lack of respect for teachers or other educational authority	Scenario 2: Question 2b
7 MAS	Microaggressions or slights	Indirect, subtle or unintentional discrimination by individuals against Hispanic/Latinx students and other races/ethnicities	Scenario 1-5: N/A
8 HLS	Hispanic/Latinx Stereotyping	Pervasive beliefs about Hispanic/Latinx people perpetuated by racist historical narratives	Scenario 1-5: N/A
9 SC	Settler Colonialism	A distinct type of colonialism whose purpose is to remove and replace indigenous people, to claim and exploit the land while developing a distinct culture, and establishing and maintaining ideological, material and economic sovereignty	Scenario 1, 3, 4: Questions 1b, 3b, 4b
10 STS	Settler Teacher Syndrome	A condition in which classroom teachers make instructional, pedagogical, and disciplinary decisions that support settler colonialism	Scenario 1, 3, 4: Questions 1b, 3b, 4b

11 NCEP	Negative Classroom Expectations/Policy	A teacher's policies and procedures that governs student behavior in the classroom that are not culturally sensitive	Scenario 3, 4: Questions 3b, 4b
12 PCEP	Positive Classroom Expectations/Policy expectations	A teacher's policies and procedures that governs student behavior in the classroom that are culturally sensitive	Scenario 3, 4: Questions 3b, 4b
13 CN	Cultural noticing	A person's ability to notice details about cultural context, such as the cultural practices, values, and behaviors that a group of individuals engage in within a particular social context at a particular point in time	Scenarios 1, 3, 4: Questions 1b, 3b, 4b
14 CR	Cultural responding	Actions a person takes or adapts as a result of cultural noticing	Scenarios 1, 3, 4: Questions 1b, 3b, 4b
15 ACB	Appropriate classroom behavior	Student behavior that is subjective and deemed acceptable by the teacher of record	Scenario 2: Questions 2a, 2b
16 ER	Empathetic response	A teacher's ability to empathize with a Hispanic/Latinx student as a result of cultural noticing and cultural responding	Scenarios 1, 3, 4: Questions 1b, 3b, 4b
17 ESC	Exclusion/separation from classroom	When teacher's send students out of the classroom to in-school suspension, the office, the nurse, to see an administrator, or outside the classroom for minor behavioral infractions	Scenarios 1, 3, 4: Questions 1b, 3b, 4b
18 LCS	Language/Cultural Shaming	A student's native tongue, family, dress, cuisine, or appearance is called out by a teacher or administrator	Scenarios 1, 3, 4: Questions 1b, 3b, 4b
19 WC	Well-being and caring	Educators going above and beyond to make sure the physical, emotional and mental well-being of the student is a priority	Scenario 5: Questions 5a, 5b, 5c, 5d, 5e