Columbus State University

CSU ePress

Theses and Dissertations

Student Publications

5-2019

Teacher Perceptions of Intercultural Sensitivity and Their Classroom Management Practices: An Empirical Study Among Middle and High School Teachers in a Georgia School System

Nigel Lavar Walker

Follow this and additional works at: https://csuepress.columbusstate.edu/theses_dissertations

Part of the Curriculum and Instruction Commons, and the Educational Leadership Commons

TEACHER PERCEPTIONS OF INTERCULTURAL SENSITIVITY AND THEIR

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT PRACTICES: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY AMONG

MIDDLE AND HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS IN A GEORGIA SCHOOL SYSTEM

By
Nigel Lavar Walker

A Dissertation
Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for
the Degree of Doctor of Education
in Curriculum and Leadership
(CURRICULUM)

Columbus State University
Columbus, Georgia

May 2019

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to the village of people who have helped me transform from a poor project kid in Alabama to a professional educator and community activist. First, to my mother Jacqueline Walker, who raised eight kids on her own and always said we could be doctors or lawyers.

To my wife Irene, my daughters, Emily and Claudia. To Christina and James Harris, and my local family who have endured this journey with me.

To my siblings, Jared, Robin, Roberta, Earlona, Aisha (rest in heaven), Anwar, Cecilia, and Dominique who challenged me throughout life to be successful.

To Ms. Lisa, Sheneka, and family and Ms. Teresa, Mia, and family, who gave me a home away from home. To Mr. Tucker (rest in heaven), Claudette, and family as well as Mr. Paradis, D.J., and family, whose generosity started me on my journey as an educator. To the Michael Thomas and family as well as Thomas Roach and family, who opened their homes to me on holidays. To my professors at Andrew College, LaGrange College, and Columbus State University, who saw my potential and my doubts, and challenged me to strive for excellence.

To the countless other family and friends who supported when I had nothing and helped me reach the heights that I have reached. Thank you all.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ABSTRACT

Researchers have reported the existence of an achievement and discipline gap between Black and White students and examined factors that potentially influenced the outcomes. The researcher conducted a causal comparative study to determine if there were differences in teacher perceptions of intercultural sensitivity and classroom management practices based on gender, ethnicity, years of experience, and grade level. The present study was also designed to determine if there were differences in classroom practices based on levels of intercultural sensitivity. The data were collected using a survey instrument comprised of the following three parts: four preliminary questions to gather demographic information, the 24-item Intercultural Sensitivity Scale (ISS), and the 12-item version of the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale (BIMS). The survey was administered to 386 middle and high school teachers in a small school system in central Georgia, and 153 participants responded to the survey. The ISS scores were analyzed with a factorial ANOVA, and the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale scores were analyzed with a Kruskal-Wallis test. The mean of ISS scores fell in the high sensitivity range, and the mean of the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale scores fell in the less controlling range. The results revealed that there was no significant difference in perceptions of intercultural sensitivity or classroom management practices based on gender, ethnicity, years of experience, and grade level. The results also revealed that there was no significant difference in perceptions of classroom management for participants with high levels of intercultural sensitivity versus participants with average levels of intercultural sensitivity. Implications of the study were that factors other factor s than teacher beliefs and classroom practices potentially contributed to the achievement and discipline gaps.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Problem

As American education has increased in diversity in student population, the

ethnicity of educators has remained stagnant (Douglas, Lewis, Douglas, Scott, &

Garrison-Wade, 2008). The gap in shared culture led to questions on whether the makeup

affected the gap in academic success and discipline outcomes. Research revealed an

academic and discipline gap among Black students and their counterparts (Gregory,

Cornell, & Fan, 2011; Gregory, Hafen, Ruzek, Mikami, Allen, & Pianta, 2016; Gregory,

Skiba, & Noguera, 2010; National Center for Educational Statistics, 2016a, 2016b). The

contributing factors of the gaps have been debated as to whether they exist externally or

internally with regard to teacher approaches in diverse classrooms.

Teachers' approaches to the classroom environment that were reported to

contribute to gaps between Black students and their counterparts were described in terms

of cultural misunderstandings or indifference that led to negative attitudes towards Black

students (Douglas et al., 2008). White teachers were found to possess low expectations of

Black students as well as a lack of respect for their families and culture. The failure to

address the lack of value to Black students' culture was seen as an influence on the

achievement of Black students (Douglas et al., 2008). The critical race theory addressed

the theoretical underpinnings of teacher attitudes towards Black students. The critical

race theory assumed that race was a social experience understood in different ways; racial

experiences of minorities were subordinate to White experiences, yet appeared neutral;

and subordination was embraced as the norm (Vargas, 2003). The disconnectedness of Black students in education was linked to the teacher attitudes and beliefs in the classroom (Harper & Davis, 2012).

Researchers found that teachers' beliefs and attitudes on classroom management played a role in determining teacher behavior (Martin & Sass, 2010). Researchers maintained that teachers had created an oxymoron: a curriculum that urged problem-solving and critical thinking and a management system that required compliance and narrow obedience (Martin & Sass, 2010). There was a lack of connection between how teachers thought about instruction versus their behavior management. The researchers investigated the stability of other attributes along with beliefs of their approach to behavior and instructional management to determine if the outcomes were implications of the characteristics of teachers, workplace setting, or both (Martin & Sass, 2010).

A contingency of one's beliefs system considered in determining the approach is intercultural sensitivity. Intercultural sensitivity is described as how one construes cultural differences in his or her worldview (Hammer, Bennet, & Wiseman, 2003). The more sophisticated the cultural experiences becomes, the higher the cultural sensitivity. Bennett's Developmental Model of Intercultural frames the construal of cultural experiences on a continuum of less sensitive to more sensitive, encapsulating the experiences into two main stages and six subcategories (Hammer et al., 2003). The category furthest to the end of the spectrum of less sensitive is an ethnocentric stage. The ethnocentric stage exists where one's own worldview is at the center of reality. The subcategories of the ethnocentric stage are denial, defense, and minimization of difference. The second stage, the ethnorelative stage, exists where one experienced

multiple, equally complex worldviews. The subcategories of the ethnorelative stage are acceptance, adaptation, and integration. The stages are not fixed stages; instead, there is room to move with increased cultural experiences (Hammer et al., 2003). To measure intercultural sensitivity, several scales, including the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale, were created and validated to analyze individuals' construal of cultural experiences (Chen & Starosta, 2000).

A facet of classroom management involves the interactions between the teacher and student. The interactions are placed on a continuum that ranged from a teacher-centered model to a student-centered model, with a balance in the middle (Glickman & Tamashiro, 1980). The humanistic model takes a student-centered approach of self-motivation and goal-setting (Huitt, 2009). The behaviorist model takes a teacher-centered approach of classical conditioning and response to stimuli (Burton, Moore, & Magliaro, 2008). The social learning model uses a balanced approach of observational learning and reciprocal determination (Grusec, 1992). Researchers take the stated theoretical frameworks to categorize teacher-student interactions on a continuum of control.

Student-teacher interactions are analyzed as a component of classroom management—defined as actions teacher took to establish order or engage students (Emmer & Stough, 2001). The interactions between students and teachers are analyzed on a continuum based on levels of control (Glickman & Tamashiro, 1980; Sokal, Smith, & Mowat, 2003). Non-interventionists involves a student-centered view of classroom control. Interventionists are believers of a teacher-centered view of control. Interactionists believe in a balance of control between the teacher and the student (Sokal et al., 2003). The subcategories of classroom management are also studied to determine

internal relationships between behavior and instruction. Results indicated instructional management was influenced by behavior (Sutherland, Lewis-Palmer, Stichter, & Morgan, 2008). Several behavior management models also fall into the continuum of control that mirrors the conceptual framework of student-teacher interactions. The spectrum ranges from the teacher-centered model of assertive discipline to the student-centered model of positive behavior interventions and supports, with cooperative discipline in the center (Albert, 1989; Canter, 1989; Canter & Canter, 2001; Swain-Bradway, Pinkney, & Flannery, 2015). Assertive discipline is led by the teacher to build relationships with students and provides explicit and persistent expectations for students (Canter, 1989; Canter & Canter, 2001). Cooperative behavior is a collaborative approach to behavior based on a balance of teacher-student interactions (Albert, 1989). Positive behavior interventions and supports provides students with a wealth of supports that reached individualized, person-centered interventions (Swain-Bradway et al., 2015). Early instruments that measured behavior and instructional management included the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale (Martin & Sass, 2010). The Behavior and Instructional Management Scale was created and extensively analyzed to test the instrument's psychometric properties. Much data from the empirical research revealed psychometric considerations that yielded construct validity of the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale in subcategories of behavior management and instructional management (Martin & Sass, 2010).

Statement of the Problem

Researchers have documented an achievement gap among African-American students and their peers as well as a disproportionate representation of Black students in

discipline outcomes with minority students receiving two to three times more disciplinary referrals and office suspensions (Gregory et al., 2011; Gregory et al., 2010). The disproportionate disciplinary actions led to increased academic underperformance (Gregory et al., 2011; Gregory et al., 2010). Researchers have continued to explore internal and external factors related to student outcomes to determine the major influences.

Varying external factors have been reported as contributors to the trend, such as academic access and preparation and a lack of family support (Douglas et al., 2008; Whitaker, Graham, Severtson, Furr-Holden, & Latimer, 2011). Cultural and family background and beliefs have also been reported as contributing factors for the achievement and discipline gaps (Whitaker et al., 2011). The perception of Black students of experiencing discrimination in the educational system added to the list of potential causes (Dotterer, McHale, & Crouter, 2009; O'Neel, Ruble, & Fuligni 2011). Researchers noted that internal factors, such as, teachers' beliefs and classroom practices also needed consideration (Douglas et al., 2008; Whitaker et al., 2011). Teachers' beliefs played a role in professional development (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 2009). Student achievement was a result of good instruction, which was determined by teachers' beliefs and attention to background factors in a social context (Freiberg, 2013; OECD, 2009). Much research was done to analyze perceptions of classroom management but less has been conducted on teachers' level of intercultural sensitivity. The present study examined teacher perceptions of intercultural sensitivity based on demographic factors as well as perceptions of classroom management practices based on demographic factors. The study also examined the classroom management

practices of teachers based on their level of intercultural sensitivity to assess if there were differences in the perceptions of the internal factors.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to measure teachers' intercultural sensitivity and perceptions of classroom management to determine if differences existed in scores based on demographic variables gender, ethnicity, years of experience, and grade level. The purpose was also to determine if there were differences in perceptions of classroom management based on levels of intercultural sensitivity. The analyses were administered to determine if there were any effects of the demographic variables on teacher perceptions and if there were any interactions between the variables that had an effect on teacher perceptions.

Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework was described as a map of a study, which presented the rationale for the development of hypotheses or research questions (Green, 2014). The conceptual framework identified variables and clarified relationships among the variables (McGaghie, Bordage, & Shea, 2001). The conceptual framework of the present study diagramed the investigation into the teachers' perceptions of intercultural sensitivity and classroom management practices by demographic factors (See Figure 1). The study also sought to determine if there is a relationship in classroom management practices when controlled for levels of intercultural sensitivity.
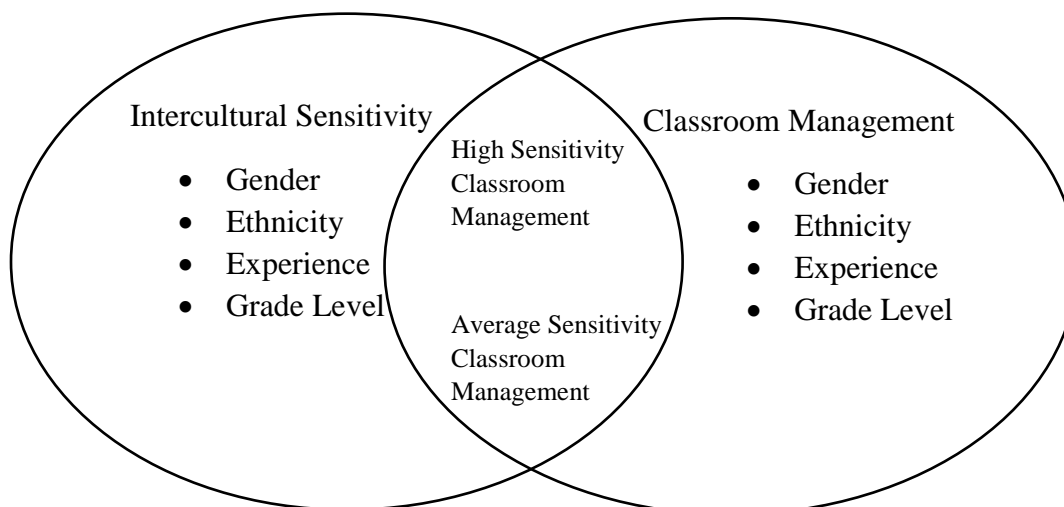
Figure 1. The conceptual framework diagrams the study's purpose of examining intercultural sensitivity and classroom management based on demographic variables, and examining if there are differences in classroom management based on levels of intercultural sensitivity.

Definition of Terms

Behavior and Instructional Management Scale – 24 item survey scale used to examine teacher perceptions of classroom management on the subscales of behavior management and instructional management (Martin & Sass, 2010).

Behavior Management - proactive efforts to prevent behavior problems and the teacher's response to misbehavior (Martin & Sass, 2010).

Classroom management - actions that a teacher took to establish order, engage students, or prompt cooperation (Emmer & Stough, 2001).

Ethnicity – the teacher were classified according to the ethnicity of which they associate, including Black, White, Hispanic, Asian, American Indian, and Mixed.

Ethnocentric – one's own worldview was central to all reality (Mahoney & Schamber, 2004).

Ethnorelative – the difference was non-threatening when attempts were made to construe new categories of cultural difference (Mahoney & Schamber, 2004).

Gender – teachers will be classified as male or female.

Grade level – teachers will be classified as middle school teachers or high school teachers.

Instructional Management – instructional aims, methodologies, and other approaches to instruction by the teacher (Martin & Sass, 2010).

I*nteractionist* - model of classroom management that demonstrated shared levels of control by teacher and student (Sokal et al., 2003).

Intercultural Sensitivity Scale – a 24 item survey scale used to examine the level of intercultural sensitivity through five factors of interaction engagement, respect for cultural differences, interaction confidence, interaction enjoyment, and interaction attentiveness (Chen & Starosta, 2000).

Interventionists –a model of classroom management that demonstrated high levels of teacher control (Sokal et al., 2003).

*Non-interventionists—*a model of classroom management that demonstrated low levels of teacher control (Sokal et al., 2003).

Years of Experience – teachers were classified into two groups: teachers with 15 years of experience or less and teacher with 16+ years of experience.

Significance of the Study

Conducting the present study was significant for the researcher, the participants, and to the field of education. For the researcher, the study provided experience in professional development to investigate potential factors behind the achievement and

discipline gap from a teacher perspective. Being in an administrative position, the researcher attained the responsibility to provide leadership to educators on how to address issues related to achievement and discipline. Educators were represented as the participants of the study. The instruments used in the study were self-report instruments that provided self-reflective professional learning opportunities for the participants of the study. The prior research of the instruments provided further evidence of the instruments being valid, self-report measures. The data gathered from the instruments provided information for the participants to improve classroom practices if needed. The significance of the study on the field of education included adding empirical research on contributing factors of the achievement and discipline gaps that exist between Black students and their counterparts. The results can have implications for teacher training programs.

<div align="center">Research Questions/Hypotheses</div>

Researchers predicted that teacher beliefs would become an increased focus because beliefs have proven to be a valuable construct to teacher education (Pajares, 1992). The present study considered teacher perceptions of intercultural sensitivity and classroom management practices. The following research questions were devised to explore teacher perceptions:

1. Are there differences in the intercultural sensitivity of teachers with different genders, ethnicities, years of experience, or grade levels (middle, high school)?

    H_0: There are no statistically significant differences in the intercultural sensitivity of teachers with different genders, ethnicities, years of experience, or grade levels (middle, high   school).

H_1: There are statistically significant differences in the intercultural sensitivity of teachers with different genders, ethnicities, years of experience, or grade levels (middle, high school).

2. Are there differences in the classroom management (on a continuum of control) of teachers with different genders, ethnicities, years of experience, or grade levels (middle, high school)?

   H_0: There are no statistically significant differences in the classroom management (on a continuum of control) of teachers with different genders, ethnicities, years of experience, or grade levels (middle, high school).

   H_1: There are statistically significant differences in the classroom management (on a continuum of control) of teachers with different genders, ethnicities, years of experience, or grade levels (middle, high school).

3. Are there differences between teacher perceptions of classroom management practices of teachers with high levels of cultural sensitivity and average levels of intercultural sensitivity?

   H_0: There are no statistically significant differences between teacher perceptions of classroom management practices of teachers with high levels of cultural sensitivity and average levels of intercultural sensitivity.

   H_1: There are statistically significant differences between teacher perceptions of classroom management practices of teachers with high levels of cultural sensitivity and average levels of intercultural sensitivity.

Methodology Overview

To conduct the present study, the quantitative methodology was utilized. The descriptive approach to quantitative methodology was chosen to measure the perceptions of the participants as they existed at the present time of the study. The survey design was used to collect the data. The survey instrument was composed of three parts: four items created to gather demographic data, the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale, and the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale. Upon approval to use the scales, the survey instrument was administered electronically to a sample of middle and high school teachers in a small Georgia school system. From a sample of 386 teachers, 153 participants responded to the survey. The data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, tested for assumptions of normality, and analyzed for variance in the outcomes.

Assumptions/Limitations/Delimitations

Leedy and Ormrod (2010) described an assumption as "a condition that is taken for granted, without which the research project would be pointless" (p. 6). To prevent misunderstandings, researchers should openly set forth all assumptions that have a bearing on the problem in an attempt to leave nothing to chance. When others are aware of the researchers' assumptions, they can better evaluate the conclusions. There were several assumptions associated with the present research based on design, participants, and methodology. The researcher assumed that intercultural sensitivity was a clearly defined and measurable construct. The researcher assumed that participants' responses were honest and free of social desirability bias. The researcher assumed that demographic characteristics, such as, gender, ethnicity, years of service, and grade level, did not impact participants' responses to survey instruments. The researcher also assumed the

reliability of the survey instruments. Furthermore, the researcher assumed that the study results were generalizable to a similar population.

Limitations were described as uncontrollable conditions as identified by the researcher that threatened the internal validity of the study (Ellis & Levy, 2009). The importance of stating limitations was to help other researchers judge the extent to which the study could or could not be generalized to other populations or situations; thus, presenting the ability of researchers to replicate or expand the study (Ellis & Levy, 2009). The limitations of this study reflected the understanding of selecting the sample and methodology of the research. One limitation of the study was that completing the surveys was voluntary and participants could refuse to complete the instruments. The participants who completed the survey may not have been representative of the general population. An additional limitation was that correlation does not mean causality. Even if a significant relationship is established between the variables, it does not mean that one variable causes another variable to happen. Further limitations were the time constraint placed on the survey instruments and the limited range of responses. Survey research did not allow respondents to ask clarifying questions in times of confusion. Furthermore, the potential of respondents not answering the questions honestly was associated with self-report instruments.

Delimitations described what the researchers did not do in order to establish boundaries of the study (Ellis & Levy, 2009). They were considered as the factors, constructs, or variables that were intentionally left out of the study. The importance of delimitations was to make the study more manageable; however, they did have an impact on the external validity and generalization of the study (Ellis & Levy, 2009).

Delimitations to the study included sample size, data collection, and the geographic location. The study was concentrated in one rural school district in Georgia, so the results were not generalizable. An additional limitation was that the study focused only on classroom management and intercultural sensitivity as factors that potentially affect student outcomes. Researchers have focused on several other factors that influenced student outcomes.

Summary

The experience of discrimination by minority students was reported to result in emotional, physiological, and psychological effects that researches expressed contributed to lower student success in academic outcomes, such as achievement gaps and disproportionate discipline outcomes. Of the list of external and internal factors reported to influence the problem, the present study focused on the internal factors of teacher beliefs in the constructs of intercultural sensitivity and perceptions of classroom management. Intercultural sensitivity was described as an individual's construal of cultural experiences. The framework of the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity created a continuum of less sensitive to more sensitive under two distinct stages of ethnocentric and ethnorelative. Classroom management encompassed the combination of behavioral management and instructional management on levels of teacher control versus student control on a continuum that included three classifications: interventionist, interactionists, and noninterventionists. The present study used instruments developed to analyze intercultural sensitivity and teachers' perceptions of classroom management to investigate if there was a difference between two constructs.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

As the American educational system progressed into the 21st century, the student population became increasingly diverse, yet the teacher population remained predominantly White (Cushner, McClelland, & Safford, 2015; Douglas et al., 2008; National Center for Educational Statistics [NCES], 2016a; 2016b). Researchers documented that experiences of minority students were affected by the relationship between them and their teachers and thus impacted student outcomes (Barber & Torney-Purta, 2008; Irving & Hudley, 2008). External factors, such as academic performance, preparation, and a lack of family support, were found to affect the experiences of minority students; however, the impact of internal factors, such as White teachers' approach to teaching minority students, needed consideration, also (Douglas et al., 2008; Whitaker et al., 2012). Considerations for the present study included teachers' intercultural sensitivity and perceptions of classroom management.

The framework for intercultural sensitivity was based on a continuum created by experiences of cultural differences. The Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity ranged from low sensitivity, ethnocentric perspective to high sensitivity, ethnorelative perspective (Hammer et al., 2003). Each perspective contained three subcategories of cultural experiences. The framework for classroom management was based on a continuum of control that ranged from a less-controlled humanistic perspective to a more controlled behaviorist perspective (Glickman & Tamashiro, 1980). The middle ground of

the framework aligned with the social learning theory (Glickman & Tamashiro, 1980).

The three learning theories led to the three categories based on a continuum of control:

interventionists, non-interventionists, and interactionists (Sokal et al., 2003). From a

continuum of control perspective, classroom management evolved into approaches that

included assertive discipline, cooperative discipline, and teacher effectiveness training.

Instruments to examine teacher perspectives of intercultural sensitivity and

classroom management were developed, tested, and reported as being valid measures.

The Intercultural Sensitivity Scale started as a 73-item scale that was reduced to its

present 24-item scale through testing and revision (Chen & Starosta, 2000). The Behavior

and Instructional Management Scale was the result of testing and revisions of other

instruments including the Pupil Control Ideology, Beliefs on Discipline Inventory, the

Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control Inventory, and the Inventory of Classroom

Management Style (Martin & Sass, 2010). The empirical research revealed trends in

teacher perceptions of intercultural sensitivity and classroom management of which are

the standards of comparison for the present study.

Background/Context

The social structures in the U.S. education system created roles assigned to

students and educators based on ideas, beliefs, and values that were facilitated by the

dominant culture of the school (Cushner et al., 2015; Douglas et al., 2008). As U.S.

education progressed into the 21st century, it encountered a greater diversity in the

population of minority students; however, the teachers and administrators

overwhelmingly remained predominantly White (Cushner et al., 2015; Douglas et al.,

2008). The most recent report from the NCES (NCES, 2016a; NCES, 2016b) showed that

81.9% of teachers in elementary and secondary school were White and 6.8% were Black teachers. The student population was reported as 49.3% White students and 15.6% Black students nationally. It was projected that by 2040 over half of the students in the classrooms in the United States would be comprised of students of color (Cushner et al., 2015). Ethnic and racial diversity also brought linguistic diversity. In 2015, approximately 20% of U.S. citizens age 5 and older spoke a language other than English. Though trends showed an increased diversity among the student population, nearly 85% of the U.S. teachers were European American and middle class female in 2015 (Cushner et al., 2015). The impact of a lack of diversity in the teacher population was far reaching as a considerable amount of minority students lacked role models who represented their background, and students of the majority lacked role models who represented backgrounds other than their own. Furthermore, teachers were often culturally bound, spending more time with people of their own racial or ethnic background (Cushner et al., 2015).

O'Neel et al. (2011) reported an association between the awareness of ethnic stigmatization (described as one's devalued social identity) and higher academic anxiety, including lower intrinsic motivation. Though research added that lower socioeconomic status, inadequate school resources, and lack of parental involvement were additional underlying issues to academic achievement in school, literature expressed that the failure to address and the lack of value to Black students' culture were potentially significant factors in their achievement (Douglas et al., 2008).

Fan, Williams, and Corkin (2011) noted that students' academic learning and school experiences were impacted by their perceptions. Positive student perceptions of

school climate were associated with less student risky behavior (Hopson & Lee, 2011).

Predictors of less favorable school climate perceptions were tied to retention, single-parent households, and behavior problems at school (Fan, Williams, & Corkin, 2011).

Researchers found more prevalent rates of risk behavior in poor and minority males than in other ethnicities and genders. (Hopson & Lee, 2011). Griffin (2014) found that the degree of achievement of Black students was related to race-specific experiences in the school setting. A school environment categorized as a hostile racial environment was found to affect school engagement and reduce Black students' connectedness with school (Griffin, 2014). Engagement referred to how students feel, behave, and think about school experiences and was deemed critical to the achievement of Black students (Dotterer et al., 2009). Researchers have documented that issues with experiences of Black students were related to racial/ethnic discrimination (Dotterer et al., 2009).

Microaggression, the subtle, cumulative, mini-assaults, was found to affect the racial and societal experiences of Black students (Allen, 2010). Smith, Hung, and Franklin (2011) reported that gendered racism has produced "racial battle fatigue" (p. 64) that affected the emotional, physiological, and psychological well-being of Black males. The choice of Black students to disengage in education and develop apathy was also linked to teachers that halted efforts to nurture and promote achievement for the particular group (Harper & Davis III, 2012). Caucasian teachers were found to have dispositions that lowered expectations for Black students and lacked respect for culture (Douglas et al., 2008).

McNulty and Quaglia (2007) reported that the unwelcomed, disconnected, and lost feeling of Black students led to achievement and participation gaps.

The National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) is the largest continuing national assessment of student achievement in subjects such as mathematics, reading, science, and writing (NCES, 2017a; Reardon, Valentino, Kalogrides, Shores, & Greenberg, 2013). Standardized practices were implemented to create a common measure of assessment (NCES, 2017a). The 2015 NAEP scores revealed a significant gap between White eighth grade students and Black students in mathematics (NCES, 2017b). White students scored 32 points higher than their Black peers. The trend followed a 31 point difference in 2013 and 2011. The range of scores dating back to 1990 was anywhere between a 31 to 41 point difference. The 12th-grade NAEP scores showed a 30-point difference between White students and Black students in 2009, 2013, and 2015 (NCES, 2017b). Overall, mathematics scores showed a consistent gap between Black and White students over the years. The NAEP scores in reading also revealed a significant gap between White eighth-grade students and Black students. White students scored 26 points higher than their Black peers in both 2013 and 2015 (NCES, 2017b). The range of scores showed a difference between 25 and 30 points dating back to 1990. Twelfth-grade White students scored 30 points higher than Black students in both 2013 and 2015. The trend followed a range of differences between 24 to 30 points dating back to 1992 (NCES, 2017b). The results showed that on average, the White-Black reading gap was approximately 0.71 standard deviations and the White-Black math gap was approximately 0.84 standard deviations (NCES, 2017b; Reardon et al., 2013). The results also showed that between states, the achievement gaps ranged from 0.45 to 1.10 standard deviations. Overall, White-Black gaps were quite large across all 50 states. Though the

gaps seemed to shrink, the rate of change was very slow (NCES, 2017; Reardon et al., 2013).

The achievement gap was further seen in the NAEP scores in science. In 2015, eighth-grade White students scored 34 points higher than Black students and 35 points higher in 2013 (NCES, 2017b). Eighth-grade White students also scored 36 points higher than Black students in science in 2009. Twelfth-grade White students scored 36 points higher than Black students in 2015 and 34 points higher than Black students in 2009 (NCES, 2017b). The science scores also reinforced the achievement gap trend seen in student assessments.

A large body of evidence was gathered to show that not only did there exist a gap in achievement between Black students and their counterparts, but there also existed a disproportionate amount of Black student discipline; two to three times overrepresented in disciplinary referrals and office suspensions (Gregory et al,, 2011; Gregory et al., 2016; Gregory et al., 2010; NCES, 2016c; NCES, 2017b; Skiba et al., 2011). Disparities in school discipline and achievement by race/ethnicity have continued to receive national attention from various agencies. Though the attention increased, the disparities persisted over a span of decades (Gregory et al., 2016). Researchers documented that over 25 years, data on suspension rates of students of color showed a two to three time higher rate of suspension, office referrals, corporal punishment, or expulsion (Skiba et al., 2011). Data revealed that the out-of-school suspension rate of Black students increased from twice the rate to nearly triple as great as White students following the turn of the 21st century (Skiba et al., 2011). Researchers used data from the National Assessment of Educational Progress and state accountability tests to examine the existence of

achievement gaps among minority students and White students (Gregory et al., 2016; NCES, 2017b; Reardon et al., 2013). The most recent report from the NCES revealed a discipline gap nationally among Black and White students receiving suspensions and expulsions. The percentage of students receiving one or more in-school suspensions nationally was 13.43% for Black students compared to 5.49% for White students; nearly two and a half times as many suspensions for Black students (NCES, 2016c). An in-school suspension referred to an instance in which a student was temporarily removed from the regular classroom setting for at least half a day but remained under the direct supervision of school personnel. The percentage of out-of-school suspensions nationally was 15.43% for Black students compared to 4.31% for White students; nearly 3.75 times as many for Black students. An out-of-school suspension referred to an instance in which a student was removed from the entire school setting for one full school day or longer for disciplinary reasons (NCES, 2016c).

The disproportionate disciplinary actions led to increased academic underperformance (Gregory et al., 2010). Increased disciplinary actions increased truancy, missed instructional time, and dropouts (Gregory et al., 2011). Black students trailed White students in aspects, such as educational access, educational achievement, and educational attainment (Douglas et al., 2008). Researchers of effective teaching of Black students reported a collective belief that Black students did not reach their full potential in a climate where there was a deficit perspective of the teacher's view. The deficit point of view presumed to compensate what students were missing from their background and neglected to build on the strengths of students' cultural characteristics or preferences in learning (Douglas et al., 2008).

School climate was defined as the schools' character, shaped by the organizational structure and overall values, objectives, and customs (Gumuseli & Eryilmaz, 2011; Klein, Cornell, & Konold, 2012). Five essential areas of focus for school climate were identified as (a) safety, (b) relationships, (c) teaching and learning, (d) institutional environment, and (e) the school improvement process (Thapa, Cohen, Guffey, & Higgins-D'Alessandro, 2013). The single most important predictor of school climate that led to school satisfaction among students was to feel secure, respected, nurtured and supported (Zullig, Huebner, & Patton, 2011). Positive climates were characterized by supportive relationships (Hopson & Lee, 2011). Researchers found that the values of students' friends and student relationships with teachers influenced a student's motivation to succeed (Barber & Torney-Purta, 2008). Motivation was found to affect how students approach school from relating to teachers, their devotion to studies, seeking support, engaging peers in academics, and performing on assessments (Usher & Kober, 2012). Researchers found that students' beliefs of their capacity to learn affected their motivation and there was a correlation between effort and success (Swinton et al., 2011; Woolley et al., 2010). Individuals who felt supported experienced positive academic, health and behavioral outcomes (Hopson & Lee, 2011). Fan et al. (2011) reported that academic, health and behavioral outcomes included adaptive psychosocial adjustment, satisfaction with school, academic value and self-concept, and motivation to learn. Researchers reported that building student-teacher relationships and providing engaging instruction was especially important to students in groups who were seen as being vulnerable to negative interactions with their teachers (Gregory et al., 2016).

Studies have shown that teachers reported less warmth with Black students than their

White counterparts. Such trends were attributed to a sense of misunderstanding and

mistrust caused by a lack of cultural sensitivity or responsiveness (Gregory et al., 2016).

<div align="center">Theoretical Framework</div>

The present study addressed teachers' perceptions of intercultural sensitivity and

examined classroom practices to determine whether a relationship existed between one's

belief in the context of culture and if the beliefs impact practice. Intercultural sensitivity

was examined through Bennett's Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity

(Hammer et al., 2003). Classroom management was examined using a continuum of

control developed by Glickman and Tamashiro (1980). Bennett employed the grounded

theory approach in his observations of intercultural adaption to examine how individuals

construed cultural experiences, employing concepts of constructivism (Bennett, 2004;

Hammer et al., 2003). The continuum of control was based on three schools of thought

developed from the paradigms of humanism and behaviorism, and the social learning

theory (Glickman & Tamashiro, 1980; Wolfgang & Glickman, 1986).

Paradigms/Theories of Learning

Grounded Theory. Grounded theory originated from the sociological perspective

of symbolic interactionism, which suggested that meaning was negotiated through

interactions in social processes (Creswell, 2013; Kelsey, Weeks, & Terry, 2002; Starks &

Trinidad, 2007). The social processes contained implicit or explicit codes and procedures

that controlled how the interactions unfolded shaped the meaning of such interactions.

Grounded theory proposed to study social processes in the environment of which they

took place (Starks & Trinidad, 2007). The six elements of grounded theory (i.e., causes,

contexts, contingencies, consequences, covariance, and conditions) guided the observations of behavior and speech practices to gain knowledge of social realities (Starks & Trinidad, 2007). Researchers used the grounded theory approach to better understand participants' awareness of issues that influenced their lifestyle and community (Kelsey et al., 2002). The emphasis of grounded theory was building theory rather than testing theory (Kelsey et al., 2002). The DMIS was created through the grounded theory approach using theoretical concepts to explain patterns that emerged during systematic observations made by Milton J. Bennett (2004).

Constructivism. The basic theoretical concept behind the DMIS was cognitive constructivism, a concept based on the idea that experiences are constructed (Bennett, 2004). The main tenant of cognitive constructivism was that events were not experienced directly, but through templates or categories used to organize the perceptions of phenomena (Bennett, 2004). The DMIS was also based on another constructivist idea, cognitive complexity, which described how "more cognitively complex individuals are able to organize their perceptions of events into more differentiated categories" (p. 73). Cognitive complexity supported the assumption of the DMIS that individuals could be more or less "sensitive" to cultural differences (Bennett, 2004). More cognitively complex individuals observed subtle differences, while less cognitively complex individuals are less likely to do so (Bennett, 2004). The more complex and sophisticated the categories become, the more "interculturally sensitive" the perceptions become. The behavior exhibited by intercultural competence was explained by the concept of communicative constructivism (Bennett, 2004). Researchers reported that individuals with more cognitively complex perceptions tended to see a culturally different person as

equal to one's self and were capable of having a culturally different perception (Bennett, 2004). Another important dimension of the model was described through experiential constructivism. The concepts explained how experiences can be "co-created" through interactions with natural and human environments, establishing a model for intercultural adaptation (Bennett, 2004). Intercultural adaptation was defined as the "ability to have an alternative cultural experience" (Bennett, 2004, p. 74). Individuals who have monocultural experiences are able to see beyond their own worldview. However, the development of intercultural sensitivity described the individual's ability to create an alternative experience and develop an intercultural worldview (Bennett, 2004).

Humanism. Humanism was a belief that humans were different from other species and possessed unique capacities to behave out of intentionality and values (Huitt, 2009). Humanists believed in the study of the whole person, which included self, motivation, and goal-setting (Huitt, 2009). Humanistic education placed emphasis on the regulatory system and the affective/emotional system (Huitt, 2009). The regulatory system connected the environment to internal thoughts and knowledge to feelings. The affective/emotional system modified information gained through the regulatory system (Huitt, 2009). The basic objectives of the humanistic view were to promote self-direction and independence; take responsibility for learning; and develop creativity, curiosity, and interest in the arts (Huitt, 2009). The objectives were based on the following principles: a) students learned what they wanted or needed to know, b) how to learn took precedence over a wealth of knowledge, c) self-evaluation was the single necessary evaluation of student work, d) feelings were equally important as facts, and e) non-threatening environments were most conducive to learning (Huitt, 2009).

Behaviorism. Behavioral theorists were concerned with the relationship between behavior and consequences (Burton et al., 2008; Slavin, 2003). Two major processes under the theory of behaviorism included classical and operant conditioning; both of which were dependent upon the building of association through contiguity and repetition (Burton et al., 2008). Classical conditioning was derived from Pavlov's work of classical conditioning where an organism learned to respond to a stimulus that at one point did not evoke a response (Burton et al., 2008; Slavin, 2003). While studying the digestive process of dogs, Pavlov and other scientists noticed a change in timing of and rate of salivation of dogs (Slavin, 2003). Pavlov observed that meat powder caused an automatic response of salivation from the dogs without prior training. The meat powder was known as an unconditional stimulus, and the salivation was known as an unconditional response. Pavlov experimented with pairing a neutral stimulus (i.e., a stimulus that had no effect on a response) and an unconditional stimulus to create a conditioned stimulus. In the experiments, a bell was used as the neutral stimulus and was paired with the meat powder. The pairing of the bell and meat powder began to produce a response of salivation from the dogs from the bell. The process of creating a response by changing a neutral stimulus to a conditioned stimulus became known as classical conditioning. Pavlov and the other scientists "showed how learning could affect what were once thought to be involuntary, reflexive behaviors…" (Slavin, 2003, p. 140). Classical conditioning is viewed as a tool for training physiological responses and emotive responses and serve as an underlying theory to the formation of biases and stereotypes. Incidental learning of such responses is an important emphasis in designing instructional material (Burton et al., 2008).

Operant conditioning is based on the principle of the three-component functional relationship between a stimulus, response, and consequence (Burton et al., 2008; Slavin, 2003). B. F. Skinner and other scientists studied "the use of pleasant and unpleasant consequences to change behavior" (Slavin, 2003, p. 142). Skinner used an apparatus coined as the Skinner box to set up a controlled environment to observe changes in behavior through the use of systematic changes in consequences for behavior (Slavin, 2003). To control behavior is to control the environment so that the contingent relationships are in line with desired outcomes (Burton et al., 2008; Slavin, 2003). Behavior is thought to be the deliberate operations of the person on their environment to produce a desired consequence (Burton et al., 2008). Behavior modification is an example of applied conditioning to which positive or negative reinforcements are utilized to produce the desired behavior (Burton et al., 2008; Slavin, 2003). The patterns of reinforcements are described as schedules of reinforcement (Burton et al., 2008).

Major components of the behaviorism paradigm, as related to education, were organized into three assumptions based on the following: "the role of the learner, the nature of learning, and the generality of the learning processes…" (Burton et al., 2008, p. 8). According to behaviorists, the learner learns through active experiences and engaging in trial and error. Learning is a combination of stimulus events that provided the occasion for the behavior to occur, the response event as described as the behavior itself, and the consequences that resulted (Burton et al., 2008). The strengthening of responses is contingent upon the continued pairing of stimulus, response, and paired consequences. Learning is understood to be observable, measurable, and scientifically verified. The material learned is ordered in sequences (Burton et al., 2008).

Social Learning Theory. The components of the social learning theory are mainly taken from the ideas of Albert Bandura (Grusec, 1992; Slavin, 2003). Bandura's emphasis is on observational learning, self-regulation, self-efficacy, and reciprocal determination (Grusec, 1992; Slavin, 2003). The premise of observational learning is that it involved external interactions with the environment and direct experience (Grusec, 1992; Slavin, 2003). Four components that are associated with observational learning are attentional processes, retentional processes, motor production (reproduction) processes, and motivation (Grusec, 1992; Slavin, 2003). Attentional processes are described as what influenced the quality of the attention paid to stimuli. The observer pays attention to an event that was modeled—determined by such variables as power, attractiveness, and viewing conditions of the model. Retentional processes are representative of what attended stimuli were remembered (Grusec, 1992; Slavin, 2003). The observed behavior has to be retained in memory through an imaginal or verbal representation system. The reproduction processes involve the behavior being performed for cues to be learned, which required a system of initiation, monitoring, and refinement based on feedback. The observer converts the symbolic representation into the appropriate actions that were similar to the originally modeled behavior. The final component, motivation, echoes the idea that humans adopt behavior they value and reject behavior they see as punishment. Incentives must be given to motivate performance of the modeled behavior (Grusec, 1992; Slavin, 2003).

Bandura's self-regulation involves the explanation of shifting control over behavior from external sources to the individual (Grusec, 1992). Bandura maintains that the mechanism for internalization lies in identification. As children observe adults apply

self-evaluative standards to behavior, they take such considerations in their own personal standards. As the students imitate the evaluative behavior of others, they reinforce the agency of self-regulation. Bandura adds that standards of behavior are selected by weight of such factors as disparities between individual and model, the value of a specific behavior, and the extent to which the individual sees behavior as a function of personal effort as opposed to factors to which they have little control (Grusec, 1992).

The evaluation of the aforementioned factors leads to Bandura's third component of his social learning approach, self-efficacy (Grusec, 1992). Self-efficacy is described as a person's beliefs in his or her own abilities and attributes that guide behavior by determining what is achieved and how much effort is placed in performance in a particular event. Bandura affirmed that when individuals had negative self-concepts, they were distracted by themselves and emotionally aroused, which led to ineffective performance. The self-perceptions, along with expectations and physical structures directed behavior. The result had impacts on cognition and biological properties that formalized a triadic relationship, which Bandura termed reciprocal determinism—the fourth emphasis in his social learning theory. Grusec (1992) explained:

> Environmental events in the form of modeling, instruction, and social persuasion affect the person, and the person, in turn, evokes different reactions from the environment depending on his or her personality and physical features. Finally, behavior determines aspects of the environment to which the individual is exposed, and behavior is, in turn, modified by that environment. (pp.782-783)

The major theories of behavior led to the development of alternative approaches that could be deployed when working with individual students (Wolfgang & Glickman, 1980).

Through the grounded theory approach to intercultural sensitivity, Bennett identified six orientations (i.e., denial, defense, minimization, acceptance, adaptation, and integration) of which people were observed to move through during their acquisition of intercultural competence (Hammer et al., 2003). The six orientations created the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity. From the three theoretical orientations of humanism, behaviorism, and the social learning theory came three hypothesized approaches to classroom interactions—noninterventionists, interventionists, and interactionists. The three approaches were categorized as the continuum of control. The importance of examining both concepts is explained by researchers' recommendation to view student learning as academic and social emotional, especially in diverse classrooms (Van Tartwijk, den Brok, Veldman, & Webbels, 2009). Starting with intercultural competence (sensitivity) in the classroom context is further supported as Yang and Montgomery (2013) expressed, "In order to cultivate attitudinal change toward a given diversity issue, existing attitudes need to be determined" (p. 28).

Intercultural Sensitivity

The term *intercultural sensitivity* has manifested in many forms in the literature. Similar definitions have been used for terms, such as intercultural sensitivity, cultural sensitivity, cross-cultural sensitivity, intercultural awareness, intercultural competence, cross-cultural competence, cultural intelligence, and cultural proficient (Bayles, 2009; Ridley, Mendoza, Kanitz, Angermeier, & Zenk, 1994; Whaley, 2008). The terms

intercultural sensitivity and *intercultural competence* are often used interchangeably; however, some scholars make distinctions between the two terms (Bayles, 2009; Bhawuk & Brislin, 1992; Chen, 1997; Cushner et al., 2015; Hammer et al., 2003; Kahn, Lindstrom, & Murray, 2014; Kapoor, Blue, Konsky, & Drager, 2000; Ridley et al., 1994; Whaley, 2008).

Though different terms have been used, many focused on "skills and attributes needed in order to interact effectively with someone from another culture" (Bayles, 2009, p. 22). Chen (1997) further deciphered between terms as he related intercultural sensitivity to "cognitive, affective, and behavioral aspects of interactional situation" (p. 5). Chen (1997) further explained that though each term was related, intercultural sensitivity was situated more on the affective; intercultural awareness was cognitive; and intercultural competence was behavioral. Hammer, Bennett, and Wiseman (2003) defined intercultural competence as the "ability to think and act in interculturally appropriate ways" and intercultural sensitivity as "the ability to discriminate and experience relevant cultural differences" (p. 422). Bhawuk and Brislin (1992) discussed how it is important to "be interested in other cultures, be sensitive enough to notice cultural differences, and then also be willing to modify their behavior as an indication of respect for people of other cultures" (p. 416). Intercultural sensitivity is a term that summarized the aforementioned qualities (Bhawuk & Brislin, 1992). Kapoor et al. (2000) explained that intercultural sensitivity was in the "discussion of cross cultural adjustment…and the development and maintenance of good interpersonal relationships with culturally diverse others" (p. 216). Kahn et al. (2014) discussed that though the operational definition of cultural competence varied, its basic tenets included a continuous development of one's

beliefs and knowledge of power and privilege. The researchers further explained that

cultural competence varied according to environmental contexts and the individual's

level of comfort (Kahn et al., 2014). Researchers discussed that successful integration of

the affective and cognitive processes of intercultural sensitivity enabled individuals to

understand their own feelings and behaviors as well as others (Chen, 1997). In order to

develop such understanding and appreciation for cultural differences and thus promoting

intercultural sensitivity and competence, individuals must possess the following

elements: self-esteem, self-monitoring, open-mindedness, empathy, interaction

involvement, and non-judgment (Chen, 1997). The previously stated elements have been

found in the frameworks of the models created by scholars of intercultural sensitivity and

competence.

Models of Intercultural Sensitivity/Competence

Leung, Ang, and Tan (2014) reviewed models of intercultural competence that

attracted attention in organizational research in recent years. The models differed in

attributes of trait-based, attitude/worldview-based, capacity-based, and mixed models.

The models included the global leadership competency model, the global mindset model,

the multicultural personality model, and the Developmental Model of Intercultural

Sensitivity. Each model was investigated to determine which model best aligned to

address the purpose of the present study.

Global Leadership Competency Model. Bird, Mendenhall, Stevens, and Oddou

(2010) composed the global leadership competency model in an effort to define cultural

competence in relation to global leadership effectiveness. Global leadership was

described as the ability to influence the global community's thinking, attitudes, and

beliefs to work toward a common goal or vision (Bird, Mendenhall, Stevens, & Oddou, 2010). The researchers synthesized literature on global leadership and expatriation competencies, which was defined as "the ability to adjust to the work, social, and general culture dimensions of a new culture" (Bird et al., 2010, p. 813). A comprehensive formulation of intercultural competence was created that consisted of a three-factor framework with 17 dimensions (Bird et al., 2010).

The first factor of the global leadership competency model is perception management (Bird et al., 2010). Perception management addresses the cognitive approach to cultural differences (Bird et al., 2010). It assesses mental flexibility to confrontations with cultural differences, tendencies to make rash judgments, their ability to assess perceptions, and interest in other cultures. Perception management is comprised of five dimensions: nonjudgmentalness, inquisitiveness, tolerance of ambiguity, cosmopolitanism, and category inclusiveness (Bird et al., 2010). *Nonjudgmentalness* refers to a person's inclination to suspend judgment about new or unfamiliar persons or experiences. *Inquisitiveness* reflects an active pursuit of new and different understanding, ideas, and norms as well as understanding cultural differences and avoiding stereotyping others (Bird et al., 2010). *Tolerance of ambiguity* involves managing new and complex situations where there is not exactly a "right" interpretation. *Cosmopolitanism* refers to an innate interest in other cultures as well as the degree of interest in international events. *Category inclusiveness* involves cognitively including and accepting things based on commonalities rather than dividing them into categories (Bird et al., 2010).

The second factor of the global leadership competency model is relationship management (Bird et al., 2010). It addresses how aware individuals are of others and the

level of awareness of themselves and his or her impact on others as well (Bird et al., 2010). Relationship management is comprised of five dimensions: relationship interest, interpersonal engagement, emotional sensitivity, self-awareness, and social flexibility. *Relationship interest* refers to an individual's interest and awareness of his or her social environment. *Interpersonal engagement* involves an individual's desire and willingness to sustain relationships with people of different cultures. *Emotional sensitivity* is the degree to which people are aware of and sensitive to the feelings of others. *Self-awareness* refers to an individual's awareness of one's own interpersonal skills, philosophies and values, the personal impact of one's past experiences, and the impact of the values and behaviors on one's relationships with others. *Social flexibility* involves how individuals presented themselves to others in order to create favorable impressions and build relationships (Bird et al., 2010).

The third factor of the global leadership competency model is self-management (Bird et al., 2010). Self-management accounts for an individual's strength to manage emotions and stress through a clear sense of self and a clear understanding of fundamental values (Bird et al., 2010). The third and final factor consists of seven dimensions that served as seven competencies; three related to a sense of self and four related to managing emotions and stress. The seven dimensions included optimism, self-confidence, self-identity, emotional resilience, non-stress tendency, stress management, and interest flexibility. *Optimism* refers to an individual's positive outlook toward other people, events, and outcomes. *Self-confidence* involves the tendency to contain the confidence to take action, overcome obstacles, and master challenges. *Self-identity* involves the degree to which an individual held personal values independent to situational

factors and exhibits a high sense of personal identity. *Emotional resilience* is the ability

to cope with challenging cross-cultural situations and maintain emotional strength. The

non-stress tendency is the scope of stressors that influenced the individual's daily

intercultural situations; the greater the tendency, the more difficult it is to deploy

intercultural competencies. *Stress management* involves the ability to use stress reduction

techniques in an individual's personal life and the willingness to use new techniques in

the future. *Interest flexibility* refers to an individual's willingness to substitute personal

interests with similar, yet different interests of the host culture (Bird et al., 2010).

Global Mindset. Many scholars have independently explored the concept of a

global mindset. However, in an attempt to consolidate extensive literature and empirical

research on the construct, Levy, Taylor, Boyacigiller, and Beechler (2007) offered the

following definition based on their extensive review of decades of literature:

> We define global mindset as a highly complex cognitive structure characterized
>
> by an openness to and articulation of multiple cultural and strategic realities on
>
> both global and local levels, and the cognitive ability to mediate and integrate
>
> across this multiplicity. More specifically, global mindset is typified by three
>
> corresponding aspects: (1) an openness and attentiveness to multiple realms of
>
> action and meaning, (2) a complex representation and articulation of cultural and
>
> strategic dynamics, and (3) a mediation and integration of ideals and actions
>
> oriented toward both global and local levels. (pp. 27-28)

Out of the global mindset literature, scholars identify two fundamental themes to develop

an integrative approach to a global mindset—cosmopolitanism and cognitive complexity.

Cosmopolitanism is identified as an underlying theme to the cultural perspective of the

global mindset. Cognitive complexity is an underlying theme to the strategic perspective of the global mindset. A third, multidimensional perspective that integrated both cultural and strategic terms was also discussed through the work of early scholar Rhinesmith (1992).

The cultural perspective focuses on cultural diversity within the process of globalization. The concept suggests that to manage challenges associated with cultural boundaries, one must overcome an ethnocentric mindset (home-country orientation) and cultivate a geocentric (world orientation) or a global mindset. The cultural perspective of a global mindset includes cultural self-awareness, understanding and openness to other cultures, and selective integration of foreign practices and values. The underlying dimension of the cultural perspective is cosmopolitanism, described as openness or willingness to engage in divergent cultural experiences. Cosmopolitanism is further described as the capacity to make one's way into other cultures.

The strategic perspective focuses on the complexities created by globalization. It involves overcoming environmental and strategic challenges to incorporate geographically distant operations while responding to local demands. The strategic perspective of the global mindset involves high cognitive and information-processing abilities to understand complex global dynamics. The underlying dimension of the strategic perspective is cognitive complexity, described as the propensity seek extensive and original information, extended time of interpretation, and the ability to employ opposing and complementary explanations. Cognitive complexity also refers to tolerance of ambiguity, capacity to reframe problems and balance contradictions, and consider alternative points of view.

The multidimensional perspective integrates the ideas of both the cultural and strategic perspective of the global mindset. Early scholar Rhinesmith (1992) proposed that the global mindset is a "way of being, not a set of skills" (p. 63). He further expressed that people with global mindsets utilizes six approaches, of which contemporary scholars contended that the approaches blended the previously discussed perspectives. Rhinesmith (1992) employed the following approaches to global mindset:

> 1) People with global mindsets drive for the bigger, broader picture; (2) people with global mindsets accept life as a balance of contradictory forces that must be appreciated, pondered, and managed; (3) people with global mindsets trust organizational processes rather than structure to deal with the unexpected; (4) people with global mindsets value diversity and multicultural teamwork and team play as the basic form within which to accomplish their personal, professional, and organizational goal; (5) people with global mindsets flow with change as opportunity and are comfortable with surprises and ambiguity; and (6) people with global mindsets continuously seek to be open to themselves and others by rethinking boundaries, finding new meanings, and changing their directions and behavior. (p. 64)

The Multicultural Personality Model. The multicultural personality model is shaped through the work of Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven (2000). The researchers worked to define multicultural effectiveness in the global business environment and establish criteria based on previous personality research. The researchers identified six factors associated with multicultural effectiveness, which was further used to create the

Multicultural Personality Questionnaire, a research instrument used by contemporary

scholars of the multiple personality model (Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000).

Multicultural effectiveness refers to the successful operation within a new cultural

environment (Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000). Also described as a feeling of

well-being, multicultural effectiveness pertains to professional effectiveness; described as

adequate work performance and contentment to the new cultural environment (Van der

Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000). Personal adjustment and intercultural interactions are

also included as dimensions of multicultural effectiveness. After reviewing the literature

to define multicultural effectiveness, researchers identified seven factors that appeared to

frame the definition: cultural empathy, open-mindedness, emotional stability, orientation

to action, adventurousness/curiosity, flexibility, and extraversion (Van der Zee & Van

Oudenhoven, 2000).

Cultural empathy is described as the ability to project interest in others and obtain

an accurate sense of the thoughts, feelings, and experiences of members of different

cultural groups (Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000). *Open-mindedness* refers to an

unprejudiced attitude towards the norms or values of different cultural groups.

Emotionally stability is defined as the ability to such challenges as stress and anxiety,

social pressure or alienation, financial problems, or interpersonal conflict. Emotional

stability is further described as having the ability to remain calm in stressful situations.

Orientation to action is simply put as the courage to take action. Qualities of action

oriented individuals includes the tendency to take initiative, know what they want to

achieve, and strive for results. The dimension of *adventurousness/curiosity* refers to the

wish to experience different culture. Individuals in the aforementioned dimension

actively seeks out new situations and take on challenges. The *flexibility* dimension involves the ability to learn from new experiences or mistakes and adjust behavior. The final dimension, *extraversion*, refers to the ability to stand out in a different cultural environment (Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000).

Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity. The Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity is a conceptual framework for the construal of cultural differences (Hammer et al., 2003; Mahoney & Schamber, 2004). The assumption is that as experiences of cultural differences became more sophisticated, one's intercultural competence increased (Hammer et al., 2003). In the context of the constructivist view, experience is not simply witnessing an event but is a product of how one construes the event. The deeper the perception, the more complex construction is made of the event, which brings about a richer experience. With intercultural relations, the event is the cultural difference. The conceptualization of cultural difference is dependent upon the complexity it has construed (Hammer et al., 2003).

Cultural worldview is defined as "the set of distinctions that is appropriate to a particular culture" (Hammer et al., 2003, p. 423). Individuals who have access to his or her own cultural worldview are unable to understand the difference between his or her own perception and that of individuals who are culturally different. The development of intercultural sensitivity is gauged through the ability to understand and experience cultural difference in complex ways. The DMIS assumes that understanding cultural differences become part of one's worldview and increased competence in intercultural relations. It exists as a model of changes in worldview structure, and each orientation of the model represents a worldview structure indicated by specific observable behaviors

and attitudes. Each change in structure generates complex issues that were resolved through intercultural encounters. The resolutions give rise to the emergence of the next structure. Movement through each orientation is unidirectional, which means that an individual does not regress back to less complex experiences of cultural differences once more complex experiences are encountered.

According to the framework of the DIMS, cultural differences are experienced in predictable stages (Mahoney & Schamber, 2004). The first three stages are identified as the ethnocentric stages. The term *ethnocentric* means that one's own worldview is central to all reality. The three stages include denial of difference, defense of difference, and minimization of difference. Denial of difference is an orientation in which one's own culture is experienced as the only real culture; others are understood in vague ways. As a result, difference is either not experienced at all or associated with others as being "foreigners." Individuals in the denial structure are generally disinterred in cultural difference. In extreme cases, individuals perceive people of their own culture as being the only real "humans," and others are tolerated, exploited, or even eliminated if need be. Denial is a result of monocultural primary socialization. Defense of difference is an orientation where individuals experience their own culture as the only viable one. They experience cultural differences as more real but do not generate an equally "human" experience of others. Individuals in the defense orientation are more threatened by cultural differences as their world is divided into an "us" and "them" perspective. Individuals also perceive their own culture as superior and others as inferior. People of dominant cultures are more likely to experience the defense orientation as attack on what they understand as being values but what others perceive as privileges. Minimization of

difference is an orientation in which individuals experience their own cultural worldview as being universal. With minimization, cultural differences are trivialized by the similarities of natural physical processes or cross-cultural application of religious, economic, or philosophical concepts. Minimization has the tendency of masking recognition of the individual's own culture and privilege afforded to its members. The remaining three stages are identified as the ethnorelative stages (Mahoney & Schamber, 2004). The term *ethnorelative* explains that difference is non-threatening when attempts are made to construe new categories instead perceiving the existing ones. Acceptance of difference is an orientation in which individuals experience their own culture of just one of many equally complex worldviews (Hammer et al., 2003). People in the acceptance structure are able to experience others as being different but equally human. Individuals construct a range of cultural contrasts and cultural-general categories. Acceptance is not agreement but does not withhold humanity. However, individuals in the acceptance orientation are not experts in any one culture but are adept in understanding how general cultural differences operate in human interaction. Adaption of difference is the next of the ethnorelative stages. In the adaptation structure, one's worldview is expanded as perception and behavior appropriate to that culture are constructed. Individuals in the adaptation orientation experience *empathy*—the ability to shift one's frame of reference to other cultures. As the frame shifted, it creates biculturalism or multiculturalism. The last of the ethnorelative stages is integration of difference. Integration involves the ability to move in and out of different cultural worldviews. Individuals view their identities on the margins of two or more cultures, not centered on one. Cultural marginality is identified in two forms: the encapsulated form where alienation *was* experienced and

constructive form where movement about cultures was a part of one's identity. In summary, the progression through the stages is not fixed, but a move through a continuum of increased sophistication (Mahoney & Schamber, 2004). The ethnocentric orientations are viewed as avoiding cultural difference while the ethnorelative orientations are viewed as seeking cultural difference.

The models of intercultural sensitivity and competence span a global view of intercultural sensitivity and competence, as researchers explained, "An intercultural interaction can be domestic—that is, between two (or more) people within the same nation that come from different backgrounds—or it can be international, between two (or more) people from different countries" (Cushner et al., 2015, p. 23). The domestic definition accurately describe the mode of intercultural interaction possible in the U.S. education system and helps determine a model to structure the current study. The model chosen as the framework for the present study was the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity. The study uses the DMIS as part of the framework as it describes a domestic intercultural interaction and stands as the framework of which the instrument to measure intercultural sensitivity was developed.

Classroom Management

Researchers of classroom management analyzed both behavior and instructional management to understand the complexities of establishing a cooperative and orderly approach to student engagement within the classroom (Chandra, 2015; Emmer & Stough, 2001). Researchers have argued that educators approach instructional management differently from behavior management (Darch & Kame'enui, 2004). When a student makes a persistent error on an academic skill, educators apply a range of instructional

strategies to address the issue. After the given assistance, educators provide more practice and review of the skill. If the problem persists more, then more corrective actions are taken to diagnose the underlying issue and the educator would rearrange instructional presentations to allow the student to succeed. The practice shows the error to be one of learning, not of management. In contrast, when a classroom rule is broken, the initial reaction is "punishment." The assumption is that the consequence has future implications on student behavior; the behavior changes. If the consequence is unsuccessful, the educator increases the level of consequences. Responses vary; as some educators ignore behaviors, some praise behavior that was of opposite display than the misbehavior, and others glare at a bewildered offender. The commonality of all responses is the following: a) reactive, b) predicted on the assumption that the learner already knows how to respond appropriately, c) predicted on the assumption that the learner is capable of responding appropriately, and d) confident that the negative consequence will increase the probability the inappropriate behavior will decrease in the future (p. 7). Approaching social behavior from an instructional standpoint guards against misdiagnosis, which increases the potential of behavior problems (Darch & Kame'enui, 2004).

Banks (2014) conducted a literature review to discuss strategies for managing the classroom environment and student behavior. The strategies were described as antecedent approaches used to prevent problem behavior (Banks, 2014). Themes derived from the literature on antecedent strategies included active supervision, clearly stated rules, teaching expectations, and monitoring student progress. The physical arrangement and seating arrangements of the classroom were critical. Advanced and strategic planning for routines and activities impacted instruction and interactions. Clear expectations from

classroom schedules and rules were also important components to managing the

classroom environment. Teachers sought input from students on classroom schedules and

classroom rules. Schedules and rules were also prominently displayed in the classroom.

The length of activity reflected student ability. The schedule stayed consistent and

motivated students, using the Premack Principle (Banks, 2014). The idea was that it gave

students activities to which to look forward and work towards. The strategies allowed

negotiable events and placed high probability events behind low probability events.

Classroom rules were stated positively and were relatively small. Rules were modeled

and consistently monitored. Positive student-teacher interactions took place through

appropriate relationships. Interactions involved a balance of praise and corrective

feedback. The teacher helped students identify alternative behaviors and understood

cultural and linguistic impacts in classroom settings (Banks, 2014).

Researchers extensively studied learning and behavior to determine to what extent

a relationship existed between the two (Sutherland, Lewis-Palmer, Stichter, & Morgan,

2008). They have found significant associations with learning and behavior problems

over time, with reciprocal qualities being influenced by the child's environment. The

results implied a bidirectional relationship between learning and behavior problems.

Students and teachers both reported experiences of adverse environments in the

classroom contexts. The perceptions of an adverse environment led to negative patterns

of interaction between teachers and students and low rates of instructional engagement. A

concluding analysis of the research explained how "teachers' behavior had strong

associations with students' behavior" (p. 226). Academic and behavior problems were

also linked to troubled relationships between teachers and students (Sutherland et al.,

2008). The negative relationships were also associated with lowered rates of positive teacher attention, such as academic interaction and praise. The teacher-student interaction was described as negative reinforcement. Researchers denoted a likelihood that challenges with behavior problems led to inconsistent rates of desired instructional outcomes (Sutherland et al., 2008). The feeling of distress led to the examination of teacher beliefs and placed them on a continuum of control that exposed teachers to opposing models of classroom management.

Continuum of Control

Out of the overarching theoretical frameworks of study came several categorizations of approaches to teacher/student interaction that described classroom management. Classroom management was explained as a multi-faceted construct; it went beyond behavior management, but teachers also implemented instruction in ways that optimized student engagement (Chandra, 2015). Researchers developed categories of classroom management based on a continuum according to levels of control, which they labeled as non-interventionists, interventionists, and interactionists (Glickman & Tamashiro, 1980; Sokal et al., 2003).

Non-interventionists. The non-interventionist believes that misbehavior was a product of inner conflict (Sokal et al., 2003). With opportunity and appropriate support, students who misbehaved could reconcile those inner difficulties, thus being able to solve their own misbehaviors. Non-interventionists believe that students control their own destiny and could solve their own problems; teachers do not impose rules but allowed students to engage in their own reasoning. The model for non-interventionist classrooms is high student control and low teacher control. The underlying belief in the non-

interventionist perspective is that students possess innate needs that require expression. The focus is on what the students do to modify their own environments (Sokal et al., 2003).

Interventionist. The interventionist model focuses on the environment's effect on the individual (Glickman & Tamashiro, 1980; Sokal et al., 2003). Interventionists believe that human action is dependent upon external conditioning (Sokal et al., 2003). They believe that students behave as they are reinforced, so misbehavior is due to inadequate rewards or punishments. The teacher establishes efficient and consistent standards to shape appropriate behavior. The students learn behavior through the teacher systematically teaching the standards of behavior. The model for interventionist classrooms is high teacher control and low student control (Sokal et al., 2003).

Interactionist. The interactionist model of classroom management balances the individual's effects on the environment with the environment's effects on the individual (Glickman & Tamashiro, 1980; Sokal et al., 2003). Interactionists believe that students behaved through encounters with the outside world. Students learn to accommodate to others and vice versa. The solution to misbehavior is a reciprocal relationship between the involved participants (i.e., teacher to student or student to student). Interactionists believe that solutions are created through the realization of living with others and abiding by rules that satisfied all parties. The model for interactionist classrooms is a shared control by both student and teacher (Sokal et al., 2003).

Models of Classroom Management

Several models of classroom management have evolved from the combination of behavior and instructional techniques (Albert, 1989; Canter, 1989; Canter & Canter,

2001; Talvio, Lonka, Komulainen, Kuusela, & Lintunen, 2015). Popular approaches include Assertive Discipline, Cooperative Discipline, and Teacher Effectiveness Training (Martin & Sass, 2010). Canter's model of Assertive Discipline typifies the interventionist school of thought; Cooperative Discipline was developed from the interactionist ideology. Gordon's Teacher Effectiveness Training is an example of the non-interventionists (Martin & Sass, 2010).

Assertive Discipline. Assertive discipline calls for a systematic discipline plan with explicit consequences when students choose to misbehave (Canter, 1989; Canter & Canter, 2001). Teachers explain the expectations at the beginning of the year, which ensures that all students knew exactly what to expect. An affective plan is fair to all students; every student who misbehave will suffer the same consequence. The assertive discipline plan suggests a maximum of five consequences for misbehavior, based on the teacher's needs and the best interest of the students (Canter, 1989).

Assertive discipline was created to achieve behavior management led by the teacher to build personal, trusting relationships with students (Canter & Canter, 2001). The framework is based on the assumption that students have not been prepared socially or academically from home to meet the current conditions from society and increasing demands of school. The developers of assertive discipline ascertain that good curriculum is not always enough because teachers have to gain students' attention and interest first. In order to achieve a well-managed classroom, the developers of assertive discipline generate several principles based on students and teachers needs in order to enjoy an environment conducive to learning (Canter & Canter, 2001).

The first principle is that students needed to know exactly what behavioral expectations the teacher has for them (Canter & Canter, 2001). Also, the students need the teacher to take the time to teach them how responsible behavior looks. Student success rests on their ability to see the appropriate behavior and then independently and responsibly choose the behavior on their own. The third principle is that students need limits to be set and that they understand the consequences of noncompliance. Disruptive behavior is sometimes seen as an effort of the student to see if someone who cares for them would stop them. The fourth principle is that students need to be recognized for positive behavior and receive the teacher's support. Honest feedback fosters mutual trust and respect. In all, the teacher sets consistent, positive limits to behavior as well as provided warmth and support for appropriate behavior. The assertive teacher communicates behavior expectations clearly and positively to students (Canter & Canter, 2001).

Cooperative Disciple. Cooperative discipline take a "hands-joined" approach to behavior (Albert, 1989). Teachers guide students by offering choices, setting parameters, and including students in the process. Teachers are encouraged to also include colleagues and parents in the process. Through cooperative discipline, two outcomes are achieved: a pleasant classroom environment and increased student self-esteem, which is a prerequisite for improved behavior and achievement. Teacher-student interaction is key to creating positive behavior in the classroom. Cooperative discipline equips teachers with the skills to recognize the purpose of a particular behavior and intervention techniques at the time of misbehavior. The program also extends to advising strategies for

positive interactions to build student self-esteem. Cooperative discipline is both corrective and supportive (Albert, 1989).

The framework for cooperative discipline is centered on three understandings: "students choose behavior, the ultimate goal of student behavior is to fulfill the need to belong, and students misbehave to achieve one of four immediate goals" (Albert, 1989, p. 7). First, understanding that students' chosen behaviors helps gain leverage in coping with misbehavior. Though conditions invited a particular behavior, the choice still exists whether to accept or reject. The understanding of the dynamics of choice fosters the idea that student's decisions could be influenced. It starts with interacting with students so that they would choose to behave and comply with rules (Albert, 1989).

Cooperative discipline also functions through the premise that the need to belong is the ultimate goal of behavior (Albert, 1989). Proponents argue that we live in a social world, grouped by home, school, and workplace, and that we could not survive without each other. With the amount of time students spent in school, it makes classroom groups a major importance to them. The idea behind belonging expresses a need to satisfy three feelings: "They need to feel capable of completing tasks to meet the standards of the school…they need to connect successfully with teachers and classmates…they need to know that they contribute in a significant way to the group" (p. 9). The factors that regulate the necessity to belong involve "the quality of the teacher-student relationship, the strength of the classroom climate for success, and the appropriateness of the classroom structure" (p. 9). The dynamics of belonging often explain why behavior was different at school and at home. When the need to belong is recognized, it helps students choose appropriate behaviors to satisfy the need (Albert).

There are also four immediate goals that creators of the cooperative discipline approach employ as reasons students choose particular behaviors (Albert, 1989). Those goals are attention, power, revenge, and avoidance of failure. Oftentimes, students use distractions in the classroom to gain extra attention either from the teacher or from classmates. Some students misbehave to "be the boss" (p. 10). Students attempt to disrupt the natural order to show that they have power of the situation. Students have also lashed out from perceived or existing hurt in a show of revenge. Still, other students have acted out to escape situations of repeated failure when they believe that they could not live up to expectations. Cooperative discipline holds the idea that for any of the sources for misbehavior, the teacher has to respond, and the best response is interaction with the student. The teacher identifies the behavior and works with the student to eliminate the misbehavior through encouragement techniques that built self-esteem. Cooperative discipline hangs on the notion that interaction goes beyond intervention in order to make positive behavior the choice (Albert, 1989).

Intercultural Sensitivity and Classroom Management Practices

Teachers' beliefs, practices, and attitudes are vital to professional understanding and development (Cushner et al., 2015; Leutwyler & Mantel, 2014; Moule, 2012; OECD, 2009; Yang & Montgomery, 2013). They have been linked to teachers' strategies to overcome challenges in their professional lives and shape the students' learning environment to promote student motivation and achievement. Many studies have uncovered the aspects of practices that are related to effective learning and student outcomes (Cushner et al., 2015; Leutwyler & Mantel, 2014; Moule, 2012; OECD, 2009; Yang & Montgomery, 2013). Good instruction is not only determined by teachers'

attitudes, beliefs, and background, but also teachers' responsiveness to various background factors of the students, classroom, and school (OECD, 2009). One's level of intercultural sensitivity is germane to one acting in intercultural competence (Leutwyler & Mantel, 2014). Moule (2012) defined cultural competence in terms of education as he expressed, "it is the ability to successfully teach students who come from cultures other than your own" (p. 5). Moule (2012) described cultural competence as a development of "…personal and interpersonal awareness and sensitivities, learning specific bodies of cultural knowledge, and mastering a set of skills…" (p. 5). In teacher education, cultural competence is also defined as effective employment of skills and practices to teach culturally diverse students (Kahn et al., 2014).

Though empirical evidence has shown that effective classroom management varies in technique and personal characteristics, researchers consistently report the importance of classroom environment in which teachers care for their students and attend to their needs (Brophy, 2000). Makarova and Herzog (2013) summarized effective classroom management as a teacher's ability to function with respect to maintaining order as well as the attending to social dynamics of the classroom. The definition includes establishing rules, reacting to behavior, and diagnosing social tensions. Cushner et al. (2015) described the teachers' role of intercultural sensitivity in relation to classroom practices as the following:

> They should respond to others in a nonjudgmental manner; attempt to propose
> more than one culturally interpretation for behavior (in other words, generate
> multiple attributions, and check them out); learn to mediate conflicts and solve
> problems in culturally appropriate and effective ways; motivate others in the

context of their cultural values; promote effective intercultural interaction through

mutual adaptation to style differences; respect cultural differences through the

analysis of strengths and limits of different perspectives, skills, and knowledge;

mode culturally sensitive behaviors and attitudes; seek out new learning about

cultural differences; and institutionalize an intercultural perspective in their

personal and professional practice. (p. 145)

The previously described attributes of teacher beliefs and classroom practices describe

another model of classroom management that incorporates the concept of intercultural

sensitivity, known as culturally responsive classroom management. Culturally responsive

classroom management (CRCM) is a pedagogical approach to running classrooms where

teachers recognized their biases and values and reflected upon how those biases and

values influenced the expectations for behavior and their interactions with students

(Weinstein, Tomlinson-Clark, & Curran, 2004).

Culturally Responsive Classroom Management. The goal of CRCM is classroom

management in the service of social justice. To guide the efforts towards creating cultural

diversity within the frame of classroom management, Weinstein et al. (2004)

conceptualized the following five components necessary for CRCM: recognition of one's

own ethnocentrism and biases; knowledge of students' cultural backgrounds; awareness

of the broader, social, economic and political context; ability and willingness to use

culturally appropriate management strategies; and commitment to building caring

classroom communities.

Weinstein et al. (2004) believed that the understanding of one's own values,

beliefs, biases, and assumptions were directly related to cultural competence. Yet most

European Americans were often unaware of the pervasiveness of "Whiteness" in their cultural norms and thought of their culture as neutral and universal. The researchers believed that teacher programs for CRCM needed to help prospective teachers explore the histories and facets of "Whiteness." CRCM programs brought to the forefront cultural biases that led to the misinterpretation of behaviors and inequitable treatment of culturally diverse students. However, all teachers needed to be aware of their own unconscious assumptions. In a safe learning climate, personal and professional biases were challenged, and cultural competence explored.

The awareness of ethnocentrism was also followed up by cultural content knowledge. Researchers expressed how cultural characteristics were "influenced by variables, such as gender, education, social class, and degrees of cultural affiliation" (Weinstein et al., 2004, p. 30). Cross-cultural interactions required teachers to have knowledge of students' cultural background. Researchers stated that with large cultures represented in the educational environment, teacher programs did not provide all of the cultural content knowledge, but appreciation of consulting with parents and community members were developed. Knowledge about cultures and ethnic groups gave teachers insight about behavior, decorum and etiquette, communication, and learning styles (Metropolitan Center, 2008). Teachers developed such understandings as cultural emphasis on collective versus the individual (Weinstein et al., 2004). Cultural content knowledge counteracted inappropriate referral to special education programs (Metropolitan Center, 2008). Such knowledge was also important in avoiding stereotypes as education enterprises sometimes reflected discriminatory practices on a larger scale.

Weinstein et al. (2004) brought forth the third component of CRCM as awareness of the broader social, economic, and political context. CRCM called for awareness of how prejudices and norms of the dominant group became institutionalized. Such created privilege for a select group of students and marginalized others. The researchers expressed how "we must understand how differences in race, social class, gender, language background, and sexual orientation are linked to power" (Weinstein et al., 2004, p. 31). Researchers also added that we needed to analyze ways that current practices and policies in education reinforced institutional discrimination. As they explained, "if we look at which are being disciplined most often…, we can determine if there are patterns of racial or gender profiling" (Weinstein et al., 2004, p. 31). Student resistance was a determinant of behavior being an expression of voice for students who may have been denied opportunities for expression in a particular social institution. Critical reflection on culturally influenced contexts was important to reduce resistance and build connections. Reflection of contexts also was reported to lead to assumptions regarding classroom management being questioned.

The fourth component of CRCM is the ability and willingness to use culturally appropriate management strategies (Weinstein et al., 2004). Researchers expressed how classroom management practices either promoted or obstructed equal access to learning. Weinstein et al. (2004) gave the following explanation on the process of classroom management through the lens of cultural diversity:

> This is an ongoing, possibly uncomfortable process, in which cultural diversity becomes a lens through which we view the tasks of classroom management. These tasks include creating a physical setting that supports academic and social

goals, establishing and maintaining expectations for behavior, enhancing students'

motivation, organizing and managing instructional formats, working with

families, and using appropriate interventions to assist students with behavior

problems. (p. 32)

However, there were challenges to understanding cultural diversity. One challenge was

monitoring behavior with regard to equitable treatment. The second challenge was to

question traditional ideas of what worked in order to be aware of mismatches with

students' background. The third challenge was to determine when to accommodate and

when we expect students to accommodate. Culturally appropriate management strategies

were devised to help students articulate their own cultural assumptions and values

compared to the dominant culture so that they became proficient and critical at the same

time.

The fifth component of the CRCM model is the commitment to building caring

classroom communities (Weinstein et al., 2004). Researchers stated that classroom order

can be achieved only if both parties cooperate. The researchers explained that students

influenced classroom settings just as they were influenced by them according to their

perception of the teacher's caring (Weinstein et al., 2004). Weinstein et al. (2004)

expressed that critical need in teacher education was for teachers who cared for and about

students. Culturally responsive discipline is a concept formulated to create relationships

based on collaboration and reciprocity between teacher and student, instead of student-

controlling compliance models. Researchers found that students were motivated when

they believed that teachers cared for them, and a lack of caring produced inequitable

outcomes for ethnically different students. Relationships between teachers and students

of diverse racial and ethnic backgrounds were often found to be strained, as students perceived that their teachers failed to accept them, respect them, or honor their cultural background. Though other contributing factors included class size, tracking, standardized testing, or pressure to cover curriculum, teacher perceptions of having to be mean also led to adversarial relationships. Weinstein et al. (2004) described effective teachers as being "strong, yet compassionate, authoritative, yet loving, firm yet respectful" (p. 34). CRCM strategies were geared at creating a community of learners where students felt supported, respected, and trusted.

Culturally Responsive Classroom Management (CRCM) was an extension of culturally responsive teaching, created as a pedagogical approach to reach all students. (Metropolitan Center, 2008). It influenced management decisions of teachers based on students' backgrounds, social experiences, prior knowledge, and learning styles. Teachers recognized their own biases and values to reflect on how it influenced their expectations and interactions with students (Metropolitan Center, 2008). Teachers also strived to learn about the cultures and communities of their student population (Weinstein et al., 2003). CRCM is a management system with the ultimate goal to further the cause of social justice (Weinstein et al., 2003). The present study reflected an investigation into the existence of a CRCM model with a comparison of teachers' beliefs of intercultural sensitivity and classroom management practices. Researchers have reported that teachers do not always value cultural heterogeneity of their classrooms. However, research on how teachers' attitudes of cultural diversity impact classroom management in diverse classrooms is scarce (Leutwyler & Mantel, 2014; Makarova & Herzog, 2013). The present study sought to measure teachers' perceptions of student differences in terms of

intercultural sensitivity and to examine if their beliefs have any bearings on their

classroom management practices, with implications of assessing a need for professional

development in culturally responsive classroom management.

Development of Instruments for Intercultural Sensitivity and Classroom Management

The Intercultural Sensitivity Scale. The initial Intercultural Sensitivity Scale

consisted of 73 items measured on a five-point Likert scale, administered to 168

freshman students in a basic communications studies course (Chen & Starosta, 2000).

The items were reduced 44 items with a greater than .50 loading, which were then used in

a study to determine the factor structure (Chen & Starosta, 2000). Four hundred, fourteen

participants were administered the 44-item version. Five factors containing an eigenvalue

of 1.00 or higher were extracted from the 44-item version. The factors were labeled

interaction engagement, respect for cultural differences, interaction confidence,

interaction enjoyment, and interaction attentiveness. A second study was created to

evaluate the concurrent validity of the scale with related measures. The study was

comprised of 162 participants who completed a revised 24-item version of the scale. The

results yielded a .86 Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient, which set the scale at its most

updated version (Chen & Starosta, 2000).

The Behavioral and Instructional Management Scale. Through the years,

researchers analyzed several instruments that measured teacher perceptions of classroom

management on the continuum of control, such as the Pupil Control Ideology and the

Beliefs on Discipline Inventory (Martin & Sass, 2010). The initial observation was that

each measure focused on the concept of discipline as opposed to the more general topic

of classroom management as a whole. In a similar effort to broaden the scope,

instruments, such as the Classroom Management/Discipline Efficacy and the Ohio State

Teacher Efficacy Scale, were utilized; however, each instrument focused on teachers'

perception of their ability to maintain order, not their approach; though similar, they were

not one in the same. The Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control Inventory (ABCC),

formerly the Inventory of Classroom Management Style (ICMS), was developed from the

BDI. Though the ABCC and revisions to it (ABCC-R) focused on the broader construct

of classroom management, it did not contain psychometric considerations; a more refined

instrument was needed (Martin & Sass, 2010; Martin, Yin, & Mayall, 2008). The

researchers on the psychometric analysis of the Behavior and Instructional Management

Scale suggested that the instrument was a useful tool for research and practical purposes

(Sass, Lopes, Olivera, & Martin, 2016).

Researchers described five stages that led to the development of the Behavior and

Instructional Management Scale in their effort to create subscales for both the behavior

management and the instructional management components (Martin & Sass, 2010). First,

operational definitions for the hypothesized dimensions were developed. Behavior

management included "pre-planned efforts to prevent misbehavior as well as the

teacher's response to it" (p. 3). It involved established rules, a reward structure, and

student input. Instructional management addressed instructional aims and methodologies

of the teacher. It involved such aspects as "monitoring seatwork and structuring daily

routines as well as the teacher's use of lecture and student practice versus interactive,

participatory approaches to instruction" (p. 3). Second, a large set of items was generated

based on these operational definitions and existing literature, as well as classroom

expertise and observations. Third, students enrolled in a graduate course titled Classroom

Management and Motivation were surveyed and asked to determine the clarity and

content validity of each item on a six-point scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 6 (*very*

well/very clear). In addition to the operational definitions to rate content validity, students

were also asked to supply written feedback for any items that were either unclear or

unrelated to the constructs. Fourth, items were revised based on student feedback and

pilot tested using a small sample of K-12 teachers enrolled in a variety of graduate level

courses. Using this small sample, preliminary exploratory factor analyses and reliability

analyses were conducted. This information was used to modify those items with poor

estimated factor pattern loadings or those items that reduced the measure's internal

consistency. Items that exhibited limited variability were either revised or removed from

the instrument. Finally, to re-evaluate those items with limited variability, the instrument

was pilot tested again with a small sample of K-12 classroom teachers. The concluding

result of the five stages yielded the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale that

consisted of 24 items divided into two subscales of behavior management and

instructional management. The instrument was scored on a six-point scale that reflected

the degree of control a teacher exerted over the students; a high subscale score indicated a

more controlling approach, and a lower subscale represented a less controlling approach

(Martin & Sass, 2010). Although the functions of teacher beliefs with regard to

intercultural sensitivity and classroom management have been empirically documented,

research on how teacher beliefs of intercultural sensitivity influences classroom practice

has been scarcely investigated (Leutwyler & Mantel, 2014; Makarova & Herzog, 2013).

Empirical Research

A large body of research was conducted to analyze the teachers' belief of classroom management practices, but less research has been conducted on intercultural sensitivity. Little of the research sought a relationship with student outcomes in discipline or achievement. The following studies reported the findings based on intercultural sensitivity and classroom management practices.

Intercultural Sensitivity

Chen and Starosta (2000) conducted a series of studies to develop and assess validity of an instrument used to measure intercultural sensitivity, the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale. The results yielded a significant correlation with five related measures at the $p < .05$ level, with a range of $r = .17$ to $r = .52$. The predictive validity of the measure as related to measures of intercultural effectiveness and intercultural communication was also evaluated. The results yielded a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of .88. The study resulted in significant positive relationships between the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale and the measures of intercultural effectiveness and communication with correlation coefficients of .57, $p < .001$, and .74, $p < .001$ (Chen & Starosta, 2000).

Yu and Chen (2008) conducted a study to examine the relationship between intercultural sensitivity and conflict management styles using the intercultural sensitivity scale and the Rahim's Organizational Conflict Inventories II (ROCI-II). The study involved 253 undergraduate students enrolled in an introductory communication course. The 24-item Intercultural Sensitivity Scale was comprised of five factors: interaction engagement, respect for cultural differences, interaction confidence, interaction

enjoyment, and interaction attentiveness. The results of Intercultural Sensitivity Scale

yielded satisfactory alpha coefficients, including an alpha coefficient of .79 for respect

for cultural differences, .72 for interaction confidence, and .78 for interaction

engagement. The alpha coefficients for interaction enjoyment and interaction

attentiveness were .57 and .48, respectively (Yu & Chen, 2008).

Han Yu (2012) conducted a study to examine the levels of intercultural awareness

and sensitivity to a group of engineering undergraduates at a Midwestern public

university. To analyze intercultural sensitivity, the inventory of cross-cultural sensitivity

(ICCS) and the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale both were administered. The study

involved 120 students who completed the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale. A scoring level

was developed by the researcher based on the lowest to highest total score possible to

create three equal levels identified as low, average and high levels of sensitivity.

According to the scale, the mean average of the participants was 92.6 with a *SD* of 9.7.

The results also suggested that 40% of the participants fell under average sensitivity and

60% fell under high sensitivity (Yu, 2012).

Yilmaz and Göçen (2013) conducted a study to examine the levels of intercultural

sensitivity for prospective teachers according to gender, grade level, type of education,

and settlement place. The study involved 400 primary teacher candidates as a Turkish

university (Yilmaz & Göçen, 2013). The researchers conducted a quantitative study using

the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale developed by Chen and Starosta (2000). The results of

the study yielded a mean score of 207.60 for female candidates and 197.45 for male

candidates (Yilmaz & Göçen, 2013). Though female scores were higher, there was no

significant difference between the means. The results also showed that as grade level

increased so did intercultural sensitivity levels with one exception. The scores were as follows: third-grade level 223.40, second-grade 193.18, and first-grade 177.33. However, the fourth-grade level scored lower than third-grade at 194.36. The research findings revealed that only type of education yielded a significant difference; there was no significant difference in terms of gender, grade level, or settlement place (Yilmaz & Göçen, 2013).

Von Behren (2015) conducted a study to examine the impact of intercultural training on the intercultural competency development of a group of new teachers. The study collected quantitative data through the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) to measure the intercultural competency of new teachers before and after intercultural training. The theoretical framework of the IDI was Bennett's Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity which measured individuals' levels of intercultural sensitivity (competence) on continuum ranging in scores from 55 to 145 (Hammer et al., 2003; von Behren, 2015). The scores placed individuals into five orientations similar to the six orientations of DMIS: denial, defense, minimization, acceptance, adaptation, and integration (Hammer et al., 2003; von Behren, 2015). The five orientations of the IDI by von Behren (2015) included denial (55-69.9), polarization (70-84.9), minimization (85-114.9), acceptance (115-129.9), and adaptation (130-145). Denial, polarization, and minimization fell under the ethnocentric developmental stage according to the DMIS (Hammer et al., 2003; von Behren, 2015). Acceptance and adaptation fell under the ethnorelative developmental stage according to the DMIS (Hammer et al., 2003; von Behren, 2015). The sample included 58 volunteers, newly hired certified K-8 teachers (von Behren, 2015). The sample was divided into two groups, 27 teachers who received

intercultural training and 31 teachers who did not. Each group was administered the IDI and received three scores: a perceived orientation score (PO), developmental orientation score (DO), and an orientation gap score (OG). The PO score reflected the participant's beliefs about where they fell on the DMIS continuum. The DO score reflected the participant's primary orientation towards cultural differences. The OG score was the difference between the PO and the DO score; whereas, an OG of 7 points or higher meant an overestimation of one's orientation. The pretest survey yielded a mean PO score of 122.69, DO score of 96.39, and OG score of 26.29 for the Intercultural Training group. The control group received a mean PO score of 124.31, DO score of 100.80, and OG score of 23.52. In general, both groups estimated themselves in the acceptance orientation and scored in the minimization orientation. Both groups also showed an over estimation of their orientation. The posttest survey for the Intercultural Training group yielded a PO score of 132.36, a DO score of 115.97, and an OG score of 16.39. The scores revealed that the group members estimated themselves in the adaptation orientation, scored in the acceptance orientation, with an overestimation of orientation. The posttest survey scores for the control group were a PO score of 123.77, DO score of 99.77, and OG score of 24. The scores revealed that the control group members estimated themselves in the acceptance group and scored in the minimization orientation, with an overestimation of orientation. There was a significant difference between the pretest and posttest OG scores for the Intercultural Training group, indicating a significant drop in the gap between what the orientation of which the group estimated and where the group actually scored. There was no significant difference in the control group scores (von Behren, 2015).

Makarova and Herzog (2013) conducted a study to investigate the acculturation attitudes of 180 fifth-grade primary school teachers in Switzerland and how their attitudes related to their classroom management. The participants completed a self-reported questionnaire measured on a five-point scale. Teachers' attitudes towards acculturation were measured by five items on two dimensions: the maintenance of the culture of ethnic origin and adoption of culture of host society. Each dimension was split into dichotomous values, creating the following four acculturation strategies: integration, assimilation, separation, and marginalization. Classroom management was measured in terms of teachers' diagnostic expertise in social areas, teachers' reaction to students' misbehavior, and teachers' perceptions of disruptive behavior; each dimension being measured by five items, three items, and six items, respectfully. The data were analyzed using a generalized linear model. The results of the study on teachers' attitudes towards acculturation revealed that 55.2% of the teachers favored the separation strategy, 36% favored the integration strategy, 8.1% favored the assimilation strategy, and one teacher (0.6%) favored a marginalization strategy. The researchers reported that teachers who favored integration paid more attention to rule compliance and diagnosis of social tensions as opposed to teachers who favored separation; such teachers paid less attention to rule compliance and diagnosis of social tensions. Teachers who favored assimilation demanded conformity and applied high levels of punishment for misbehavior.

Classroom Management Practices

Lopez and Santos (2013) conducted a study that examined the beliefs about teaching, classroom goals, and classroom practices of primary school teachers. The participants included 279 primary school teachers from a Portuguese public school

district from first grade to fourth grade. The data were collected through a mixed methodology. Quantitative data were collected from the Classroom Practices Inventory, and qualitative data were collected from the Beliefs Questionnaire and the Teaching Goals Questionnaire. The results of the Classroom Practices Inventory showed that 38.4% of the teachers measured to be teacher-centered, 38% measured to be student-centered, and 23.7% of the teachers held inconsistent beliefs about classroom practices. The data were separated by those three attributes and the results of the Teaching Goals Questionnaire were compared among the three groups. The results showed that the student-centered teachers shared four out of six goals with the teacher-centered teachers. The teacher-centered teachers and the teachers with inconsistent beliefs shared five out of the six goals. The student-centered teachers and the teachers with inconsistent beliefs shared two out of the six goals. The results of the Beliefs Questionnaire revealed that the student-centered teachers and teacher-centered teachers were consistent in their beliefs of interactions, instructions, and discipline (Lopez & Santos, 2001).

Chambers, Henson, and Sienty (2001) conducted a study that examined the predictive relationship between personality types and teachers' beliefs of control in classroom management. The participants included 120 teachers in an emergency permit teacher education program in Texas. The data collected were quantitative data retrieved from the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, Form G (MBTI), the Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control Inventory, and the Teacher Efficacy Scale. The data from the ABCC Inventory were analyzed according to the three subscales, people management, instructional management, and behavior management. The results showed very spread out and inconsistent scoring across the 16 MBTI classifications by the teachers in the

emergency permit education program, but slightly favored Extraversion, Sensing, and Thinking in the scaled scores. The ABCC Inventory results revealed that teachers on average were more controlling in the people (PM) and instructional management (IM) subscales (PM, $M = 2.22$; IM, $M = 2.98$). The results were interpreted that the teachers scored more as interventionists; and a positive relationship also existed between teacher efficacy and tendencies towards being more controlling in the instructional management subscale. The results indicated that teachers who scored more as interventionists also had higher teacher efficacy (Chambers, Henson, & Sienty, 2001).

Martin et al. (2008) conducted a study to examine teachers' attributes as they affected classroom management styles. The study assessed the effects of management training on classroom management style, the attitudes toward classroom management of novice teachers versus experienced teachers, and beliefs of classroom management styles of male versus female teachers. The participants included 163 certified teachers from public school districts in the southwest United States. The data were collected through a mixed methodology. Quantitative data were retrieved from the Attitudes and Beliefs of Classroom Control Inventory. The data were then analyzed according to the three subscales of the ABCC Inventory: people management, instructional management, and behavior management. Qualitative data were retrieved from a demographic questionnaire. The results revealed that there were significant differences between male and female teachers' scores in the instructional management subscale of the ABCC Inventory. There were also significant differences in scores between novice teachers and experienced teachers in the instructional management subscale. Female teachers were more controlling than males and experienced teachers were more controlling than novice

teachers. The data indicated that female teachers and experienced teachers both fall under the interventionist category. Further results also indicated that there were significant differences between novice and experienced teachers in the people management subscale of the ABCC inventory. Likewise, there were significant differences between teachers with and without management training in the aforementioned subscale. Novice teachers were found to be less controlling in the people management. For the results of management training versus no management training in the people management subscale, only the male participants yielded significant differences. Males with no training were found to be more controlling than males with management training. The results indicated that the instances of controlling in each of the respective outcomes classified the particular group as interventionist according to the literature (Martin et al., 2006).

Martin and Sass (2010) conducted a series of studies to examine a revised instrument to assess teacher beliefs of classroom management styles. The purpose of Study 1 was to provide evidence of psychometric properties of the 24-item Behavior and Instructional Management Scale and create a 12-item abbreviated version of the instrument with acceptable properties. The purpose of Study 2 was to examine the psychometric properties of the abbreviated Behavior and Instructional Management Scale. The purpose of Study 3 was to evaluate the construct validity of the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale based on the entire sample. The participants of the series of studies were 550 certified teachers from two urban and one rural public school district in southwest United States. Quantitative data were retrieved from the extended version of the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale, a revised version of the instrument, and the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale (OSTES). The data from the Behavior and

Instructional Management Scale were analyzed according to two subscales, behavior management and instructional management. The results of Study 1 revealed that the estimated factor patterns yielded a large effect, with small cross-loading, which provided good evidence for construct validity for the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale. In Study 2, each indicator in the 12-item instrument yielded high correlation with its corresponding factor, which resulted in strong factorial validity. In Study 3, the two subscales indicated independent relationships, which provided discriminate validity. There was an inverse correlation between the instructional management subscale of the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale and teacher efficacy measured by the OSTES. The results were interpreted that higher teacher confidence resulted in lower beliefs in directive instructional strategies. However, the relationship between teacher efficacy and behavior management was relatively small (Martin & Sass, 2010).

Djigic and Stojiljkovic (2012) conducted a study that examined the relationship among classroom management style, classroom climate, and student achievement. The participants were 237 teachers from eight schools located in large cities, small towns, and rural areas of Serbia. Qualitative data were collected through observations and quantified using the Protocol for Classroom Management Styles Assessment (PCMSA). Quantitative data were collected from the Scale of Satisfaction with Class Climate (SSCC) and school records. The results of the management styles were that 59.5% of the teachers were categorized as being interactionists, 24.2% were interventionists, and 16.4% were non-interventionists. In terms of class climate, students and teachers were most satisfied with classroom climate of the interactionist style. The interventionist style received the least satisfaction. Student and teacher satisfaction with classroom climate

had a significant positive correlation with class grade average (Djigic & Stojiljkovic, 2012).

Santiago (2012) conducted a study that examined whether a relationship existed between behavior and instructional management practices and demographic variables. The demographic variables involved were years of experience, highest degree obtained, and gender. The participants included 213 middle and high school teachers from two rural school districts in Georgia. Data were collected through a mixed methodology. Quantitative data were retrieved from the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale. The data from the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale were further analyzed according to two subscales, behavior management and instructional management. Qualitative data were collected from a demographic questionnaire. The results showed no significant relationship between the perceptions of behavior management and instructional management and years of experience or highest degree obtained for the middle and high school teachers. There was also no significant relationship between behavior management and gender for the middle and high school teachers. Furthermore, demographic characteristics were not predictive measures of behavior management or instructional management in the middle school teacher data. Gender, the number of years of teaching, and the highest degree obtained were found to have predictable relationships with behavior management and instructional management in the high school teacher data. There were no significant differences in the behavior management or instructional management scores between middle and high school teachers (Santiago, 2012).

Unal and Unal (2012) conducted a study that investigated the differences in beliefs of classroom management of elementary teachers based on years of experience.

The participants included 268 certified elementary teachers from Turkey. The participants were divided into groups according to the number of years of experience. The participants were grouped in 0-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years, 16-20 years, and 21 or more years. The data were collected using a mixed methodology. Quantitative data were retrieved from the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale. The data were further analyzed according to the two subscales of behavior management and instructional management. Qualitative data were retrieved from a demographic questionnaire. The results yielded a significant difference in attitudes in both the behavior and instructional management subscales among all groups, except group 4 (16-20 years) and group 5 (21 or more years). Overall, there was a positive relationship between the number of years of experience and more controlling attitudes towards behavior management and instructional management. The data indicated that more teachers with a greater number of years of experience were classified as interventionists. The data also revealed that the teachers were more controlling in behavior management than instructional management (Unal & Unal, 2012).

Summary

Despite an increase in diversity of the student population, the teacher population of the U.S. educational system has remained predominantly White (Douglas et al., 2008). Experiences of minority students were perceived to be affected by the relationship between them and their teachers (Barber & Torney-Purta, 2008). However, researchers have also found other risk factors to affect the experiences of minority students as well (Douglas et al., 2008; Whitaker et al., 2012).

Researchers discussed how cultural misunderstandings led negative attitudes of teachers. Attitudes and beliefs have been studied through the lens of intercultural sensitivity and perceptions of classroom management in terms of teacher-student interaction. Intercultural sensitivity was defined as the understanding of the impact of one's cultural experiences on his or her worldview (Bennett et al., 2003). Classroom management was described as the combination of behavioral management and instructional management on levels of teacher control versus student control (Glickman & Tamashiro, 1980; Sokal et al., 2003). Glickman and Tamashiro (1980) created a continuum of control that included three classifications that ranged from more controlling to less controlling: interventionist, interactionists, and noninterventionists. The three classifications mirrored three paradigms: behaviorism, the social learning theory, and humanism (Grusec, 1992; Huitt, 2009). The continuum was also based on three models of classroom management: assertive discipline, cooperative discipline, and positive behavior interventions and supports (Canter, 1989; Swain-Bradway et al., 2015). After multiple empirical research studies, the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale and the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale were created and found to have significant construct

validity and psychometric properties (Chen & Starosta, 2000; Martin & Sass, 2010;

Santiago, 2012; Unal & Unal, 2012; Yu, 2012; Yu & Chen, 2008). The present study

used the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale and the Behavior and Instructional Management

Scale to add to the limited empirical research on how intercultural sensitivity manifests in

classroom management practices. The results were compared to the empirical research of

a similar purpose (see Figure 2).

STUDY	PURPOSE	PARTICIPANTS	DESIGN/ ANALYSIS	OUTCOMES
Chen & Starosta (2000)	Develop and assess the reliability and validity of the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale.	Study 1: 168 freshmen in basic communications course; revised instrument administered to 414 participants; Study 2: revised instrument administered to 162 participants; Study 3: instrument administered to 174 participants.	Quantitative: Intercultural Sensitivity Scale	Results of Study 2 revealed a .86 Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient and a significant correlation to five related measures ranging from $r=.17$ to $r=.52$, at the $p<.05$ level. Study 3 resulted in a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .88 with correlation coefficients on two related scales of .57 ($p<.001$) and .74 ($p<.001$).
Chambers, Henson, & Sienty (2001)	Examine the predictive relationship between personality types and teacher's beliefs concerning control in classroom management	120 teachers in an emergency permit teacher education program in Texas	Quantitative: Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, Form G Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control Inventory Teacher Efficacy Scale	Teachers score were sporadic across 16 MBTI classifications but favored Extraversion, Sensing, and Thinking in scale scores; ABCC scores showed that teachers on average were

				interventionists (IM, $M = 2.98$; PM, $M = 2.22$); a positive relationship existed between teacher confidence (efficacy) and tendencies toward interventionist beliefs in instructional management.
Martin, Yin, & Mayall (2008)	Examine the effects of management training on classroom management style; attitudes toward classroom management between novice teachers and experienced teachers; difference in beliefs of classroom management between male and female teachers	163 certified teachers from public school districts in the southwest	Quantitative: Attitudes and Beliefs of Classroom Control Inventory; Qualitative: Demographic questionnaire	There were significant differences between male and female teachers and novice and experienced teachers on the instructional management subscale; females scored more interventionist males; and experienced teachers scored more controlling than novice teachers; there were significant differences between novice and experienced teachers and teachers with and without training on the people management subscale; novice were more controlling; males with no training

				scored more interventionist than males with training.
Lopez & Santos (2013)	Examine primary teacher beliefs about teaching, classroom goals, and classroom practices	279 primary teachers from Portuguese public school (first to fourth grade)	Qualitative: Beliefs Questionnaire; Teaching Goals Questionnaire; Quantitative: Classroom Practices Inventory	38.4% were measured to be teacher-centered (TC); 38% measured as student-centered (SC); 23.7% showed inconsistent beliefs (IB) about teaching and classroom practices; SC and TC shared 4 out of 6 goals; TC and IB shared 5 goals; SC and IB shared 2 goals; TC and SC are consistent in their respective beliefs on interactions, instructions, and discipline.
Martin & Sass (2010)	Study 1: provide evidence of psychometric properties of 24-item BIMS and create a 12-item BIMS with acceptable properties; Study 2: examine the psychometric properties of	550 certified teachers from two urban and one rural public school district in southwest United States	Quantitative: Behavior and Instructional Management Scale ; Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale	Study 1: the estimated factor patterns yielded a large effect, with small cross-loading, which provided a good validity evidence. Study 2: each indicator in the 12-item BIMS yielded high correlation with its corresponding factor and not the other factor,

	12-item measure; Study 3: evaluate the construct validity of the BIMS based on the entire sample			resulting in strong factorial validity. Study 3: The two subscales indicated independent relationships, which provided discriminate validity. There was an inverse relationship between instructional management and teacher efficacy; higher efficacy resulted in lower beliefs in directive instructional strategies. The relationship with teacher efficacy and behavior management was relatively small.
Yu & Chen (2008)	Examine the relationship between intercultural sensitivity and conflict management styles	253 undergraduate students enrolled in an introductory communication course	Quantitative: Intercultural Sensitivity Scale and Rahim's Organizational Conflict Inventories II	Results of Intercultural Sensitivity Scale yielded satisfactory alpha coefficients, including an alpha coefficient of .79 for respect for cultural differences, .72 for interaction confidence, and .78 for interaction engagement. The alpha coefficients for interaction enjoyment and interaction

				attentiveness were .57 and .48, respectively.
Djigic & Stojiljkovic (2011)	Examine the relationship between classroom management style, classroom climate, and student achievement.	237 primary school teachers from eight schools located in large cities, small towns, and rural areas in Serbia	Qualitative: protocol for classroom management styles assessment Quantitative: Scale of satisfaction with classroom climate; School records	59.5% of teachers observed were interactionists, 24.2% interventionists, and 16.4% non-interventionists. Students and teachers are most satisfied with interactionist style; interventionists are least satisfied with climate; student and teacher satisfaction with classroom climate had a significant positive correlation with class grade average.
Santiago (2012)	Identify whether relationships exist between behavior and instructional management practices and demographic variables	213 middle and high school teachers from two rural school districts in Georgia	Qualitative: demographic questionnaire; Quantitative: Behavior and Instructional Management Scale	No significant relationship between perceptions of behavior (BM) and instructional (IM) management and years of experience or highest degree obtained for middle and high; No significant relationship between BM and gender in middle and high;

				significant relationship between IM and gender middle and high; No demographic characteristics are predictive of BM or IM in middle; gender, numbers of years of teaching, and highest degree obtained could significantly predict BI and IM in high. There was no significant different between BI and IM scores of middle and high teachers;
Unal & Unal (2012)	Investigate differences in classroom management perceptions of elementary teachers based on years of experience	268 certified elementary teachers from Turkey; grouped 0-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years; 16-20 years; 21+ years	Qualitative: demographic questionnaire; Quantitative: Behavior and Instructional Management Scale	Significant different attitudes in BM and IM among all groups except group 4 and 5; Overall, teachers registered as more controlling (interventionist); more specifically, more controlling in BM than IM; there was a positive relationship between years of experience and more controlling attitudes towards BM and IM.

Yu (2012)	Examine the levels of intercultural awareness and sensitivity of a group of engineering undergrads.	120 engineering undergrads at a Midwestern public university.	Quantitative: Inventory of Cross-Cultural Sensitivity and Intercultural Sensitivity Scale	Results yielded a mean of 92.6 with a SD=9.7. 40% of participants fell under category of average sensitivity and 60% under high sensitivity.
Yilmaz & Göçen (2013)	Examine the levels of intercultural sensitivity for prospective teachers according to gender, grade level, type of education, and settlement place.	400 primary school teacher candidates at a Turkish university	Quantitative: Intercultural Sensitivity Scale	The results of the study yielded a mean score of 207.60 for female candidates and 197.45 for male candidates. The grade level scores were scores were third-grade level 223.40, second-grade 193. 18, first-grade 177.33, and the fourth-grade level at 194.36.
Makarova & Herzog (2014)	Examine the influences of attitudes towards acculturation on the classroom management practices	180 primary school teachers in Switzerland	Quantitative: self-reported questionnaire	Teachers' attitudes towards acculturation and their perception of disruptive behavior was a significant predictor to teachers' reaction to misbehavior (Wald χ^2 [2, 170] = 6.52, p < .05, and Wald χ^2 [1, 170] = 11.08, p < .01, respectively). Teachers' gender and years of experience were not significant

				predictors (Wald χ^2 [1, 170] = 2.68, p = .101, and Wald χ^2 [4, 170] = 4.64, p = .326, respectively).
Von Behren (2015)	Examine the impact of an intercultural training program on the intercultural competence of a group of new teachers.	58 newly hired certified K-8 teachers	Quantitative: Intercultural Development Inventory	The pre-test survey yielded a mean PO score 122.69, DO score of 96.39, and OG score of 26.29 for the Intercultural Training group. The control group received a mean PO score 124.31, DO score of 100.80, and OG score of 23.52. The posttest survey for the Intercultural Training group yielded a PO score of 132. 36, a DO score of 115.97, and an OG score of 16.39. The posttest survey scores for the control group were a PO score of 123.77, DO score of 99.77, and OG score 24.

Figure 2. Concept Analysis Chart for studies related to perceptions of intercultural

sensitivity and classroom management practices.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

In this chapter, the researcher discussed the research methodology of the study. The chapter begins with a discussion of the research questions and research design. The population and participants were described as well. The instrumentation and validation of the instruments used in the study were reviewed and the data collection process was detailed. The details of the response rate and method of data analysis followed, and the chapter concluded with the methods for reporting the data.

Research Questions/Hypotheses

The purpose of the study was to measure teachers' intercultural sensitivity and perceptions of classroom management to determine if differences existed in scores based on demographic variables. The purpose was also to Furthermore, the study has been conducted to determine if there were differences in perceptions of classroom management based on levels of intercultural sensitivity. To carry out the research, the following research questions were examined:

1. Are there differences in the intercultural sensitivity of teachers with different genders, ethnicities, years of experience, or grade levels (middle, high school)?

   H_0: There are no statistically significant differences in the intercultural sensitivity of teachers with different genders, ethnicities, years of experience, or grade levels (middle, high school).

H_1: There are statistically significant differences in the intercultural sensitivity of teachers with different genders, ethnicities, years of experience, or grade levels (middle, high school).

2. Are there differences in the classroom management (on a continuum of control) of teachers with different genders, ethnicities, years of experience, or grade levels (middle, high school)?

H_0: There are no statistically significant differences in the classroom management (on a continuum of control) of teachers with different genders, ethnicities, years of experience, or grade levels (middle, high school).

H_1: There are statistically significant differences in the classroom management (on a continuum of control) of teachers with different genders, ethnicities, years of experience, or grade levels (middle, high school).

3. Are there differences between teacher perceptions of classroom management practices of teachers with high levels of cultural sensitivity and average levels of intercultural sensitivity?

H_0: There are no statistically significant differences between teacher perceptions of classroom management practices of teachers with high levels of cultural sensitivity and average levels of intercultural sensitivity.

H_1: There are statistically significant differences between teacher perceptions of classroom management practices of teachers with high levels of cultural sensitivity and average levels of intercultural sensitivity.

To answer the research questions, the study was designed to align with the purpose of the research.

Research Design

Determining the methodology of the present research involved deciding the plan

of study ranging from the broad approach to more detailed procedures of inquiry

(research design) and methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation (Creswell,

2013). To conduct the research, the investigator decided on a quantitative approach in

order to measure teachers' perceptions of intercultural sensitivity and classroom

management practices. Creswell (2013) asserts that the quantitative approach is the best

approach if the research problem calls for "(a) the identification of factors that influence

an outcome, (b) the utility of an intervention, or (c) understanding the best predictors of

outcome" (p. 23). The quantitative research approach is typically selected to respond to

research questions that require numerical data (Williams, 2007). Researchers seek

explanations or predictions that can be generalized to other persons, places or

phenomenon (Williams, 2007). Quantitative research employs strategies such as

experiments or surveys and collects data on predetermined instruments, which produces

statistical data (Williams, 2007). The results of quantitative data can be predictive,

explanatory, or confirmatory findings. The designs of quantitative research are

descriptive, experimental, causal-comparative, and correlational (Creswell, 2013;

Williams, 2007). The research design chosen for the study was the causal-comparative

design. The particular design was chosen to study the degree to which there was a

difference between teachers' perception of intercultural sensitivity and their classroom

management practices with no manipulation to the variables. The experimental design

was not used due to the fact that no manipulation would be made to the variables

(Williams, 2007). The present study examined intercultural sensitivity based on

demographic variables, classroom management practices based on demographic variables, as well as, intercultural sensitivity and classroom management practices simultaneously. The present study employed the survey method, which "provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population" (Creswell, 2013, p. 15). A survey instrument was used to collect data on teacher perceptions of intercultural sensitivity and classroom management practices, and the data were analyzed to determine if differences existed based on demographic variables. The data were also analyzed to determine if differences existed in classroom management practices based on different levels of intercultural sensitivity.

Population

The setting and target population of the study were chosen after finding gaps in achievement outcomes and discipline outcomes of a particular school system. The setting of the study took place in a small school system of a rural county in West Central Georgia. The system consisted of approximately 12,000 students from grades PK – 12. The system had 11 elementary schools, three middle schools, three high schools, one alternative school, and one college and career academy. The student population was composed of 45.1% Caucasian, 42.9% African American, 5.8% Hispanic, 2.3% Asian, and 3.9% multi-ethnic students (Georgia Department of Education [GADOE], 2017). The school system consisted of 786 teachers. The ethnicities of the teachers included 79% Caucasian, 20% African American, 0.01% multi-ethnic, 0.006% Asian, and 0.006% Hispanic, and 0.001% Native American. The teachers were also 83% female and 17% male. Seventy-seven percent of the teachers had advanced degrees. Eighty-five percent of

the teachers had 4 or more years of experience, while 15% had 3 or fewer years of

experience (GADOE, 2017). The teachers of the school system served as the target

population.

Participants

From the target population of the study, a sample consisting of 386 certified

middle school and high school teachers of the aforementioned Georgia school system was

selected to participate in the study (Governor's Office of Student Achievement [GOSA],

2017a). The participants were selected after an achievement and discipline gap was

discovered in student data. A gap in achievement scores between Black students and

White students was identified in the Georgia Milestones End of Grade Assessment

(EOG) scores for the 2015-2016 school year of the particular Georgia County. The EOG

assesses Grades 3 through 8 in English, mathematics, science and social studies

(GADOE, 2015). The percentage of Black students falling under the "Beginners"

category was 46.9%, 33.8%, 43.4% and 35%, respectfully (GOSA, 2017b). The

percentage of White students falling under the "Beginner" category was 20%, 13.7%,

15.8%, and 14.5%, respectfully (GOSA, 2017b). An achievement gap between Black

students and White students were also seen on the Georgia Milestones End of Course

assessments (EOC) for the 2015-2016 school year of the particular Georgia County. The

EOC assesses high school courses in Grades 9 through 12 in ninth-grade literature,

algebra 1, American literature, geometry, biology, economics, physical science, and U.S.

history (GADOE, 2015). The percentage of Black students falling under the "Beginners"

category were 37.7%, 49%, 44.2%, 35.6%, 52.3%, 35.7%, 48.9%, and 49.2%,

respectfully (GOSA, 2017b). The percentage of White students falling under the

"Beginners" category were 21.2%, 28.5%, 15.8%, 19.5%, 27.7%, 15%, 21.5%, and 34.5%, respectfully (GOSA, 2017b). The percentage of Black students who received a consequence of in-school suspension was 28% compared to White students at 14% (GOSA, 2017c). The percentage of Black students who received the consequence of out-of-school suspension was 23% compared to White students at 7%. The setting and population was a good fit to investigate the claims in the research about how teacher perceptions of culture potentially impact classroom management practices.

<div align="center">Instrumentation</div>

To answer research question 1, the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale was selected as the survey instrument (Appendix A). The Intercultural Sensitivity Scale was created by Guo-Ming Chen and William S. Starosta (2000) to provide a valid instrument to measure the affective element of intercultural communication, as the researchers explained, "…successful intercultural communication demands interactants' ability of intercultural awareness by learning cultural similarities and differences, while the process of achieving awareness of cultural similarities and differences is enhanced and buffered by the ability of intercultural sensitivity" (p. 5). The instrument consisted of 24 items with five subscales that included intercultural engagement, respect for cultural differences, interaction confidence, interaction enjoyment, and interaction attentiveness. Each item of the instrument was scored on a five-point Likert scale, and the points were totaled to reflect the degree of sensitivity towards other cultures; high scores indicated high sensitivity and lower scores indicated low sensitivity (Chen & Starosta, 2000; Wu, 2015). Permission to use the instrument was obtained from Dr. Guo-Ming Chen via email (Appendix B).

To answer research question 2, The Behavioral and Instructional Management Scale (Appendix C) was selected as the survey instrument. The Behavior and Instructional Management Scale instrument was created by Nancy K. Martin and Daniel A. Sass (2010) as a more refined instrument that provided a critical study of "differences that may exist between one's beliefs and the ability to execute them within the classroom" (p. 2). Behavior and Instructional Management Scale instrument consisted of 24 items divided into two subscales of behavior management and instructional management. Each item of the instrument was scored on a six-point scale, and the points were totaled to reflect the degree of control a teacher exerted over the students; a high subscale score indicated a more controlling approach, and a lower subscale represented a less controlling approach (Martin & Sass, 2010). The present study used the abbreviated 12-item instrument. Permission to use the instrument was obtained from Dr. Nancy Martin and Dr. Daniel Sass via email (Appendix D).

<div align="center">Validation</div>

Martin and Sass (2010) conducted a series of studies to assess teacher beliefs about classroom management styles. The purpose of Martin and Sass's Study 1 provided evidence of psychometric properties of the 24-item Behavior and Instructional Management Scale and created a 12-item abbreviated version of the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale with acceptable properties. Study 2 examined the psychometric properties of the abbreviated Behavior and Instructional Management Scale. Study 3 evaluated the construct validity of the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale based on the entire sample. The results of Study 1 revealed that the estimated factor patterns yielded a large effect, with small cross-loading, which provided

good evidence for construct validity for the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale. In Study 2, each indicator in the 12-item Behavior and Instructional Management Scale yielded a high correlation with its corresponding factor, which resulted in strong factorial validity. In Study 3, the two subscales indicated independent relationships, which provided discriminate validity (Martin & Sass, 2010).

Chen and Starosta (2000) conducted a series of studies to assess the validity and reliability of the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale. After creating the original 73-item instrument, it was reduced to 44 items with a greater than .50 loading. The 44-item instrument was then reduced to 24 items containing an eigenvalue of 1.00 or higher. A study of the 24-item scale was then conducted to evaluate the concurrent validity with five related measures. The results yielded a .86 Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient and a significant correlation with the five measures, ranging from $r=.17$ to $r=.52$ at the $p<.05$ level. A third study was conducted to assess the predictive validity of the 24-item instrument as related to measures of intercultural effectiveness and intercultural communication. The results yielded a .88 Cronbach alpha coefficient and significant positive relationships with the two related measures with correlation coefficients of .57 ($p<.001$) and .74 ($p<.001$), respectively. After extensive research on the development and the piloting of the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale and the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale, the use for the present study was further supported.

Survey research has become common in education to collect data in a relatively convenient manner; however, it has also raised questions of quality of response (Miller, 2012). When surveys contain particularly sensitive matter, there comes a potential tendency for respondents to give untruthful answers that they might consider to be more

socially appropriate, creating what scholars have coined social desirability bias (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960; Miller, 2012; Nederhof, 1985). Several methods have been employed to reduce or prevent social desirability bias, including forced-choice items, neutral questions, the randomized response technique, self-administered questionnaires, the bogus pipeline, selecting interviewers, and proxy subjects (Nederhof, 1985). Forced-choice items involved presenting two items that possessed an equal degree of social desirability, which makes respondents choice free from the influence of social desirability (Nederhof, 1985). Posing questions as *neutral* required the restructuring of questions to make them less socially desirable. The randomized response technique allowed respondents to answer one of two randomly selected items without the interviewer knowing which item was answered. Self-administered questionnaires placed the respondents in isolation. The bogus pipeline involved respondents being placed on a device that they believe can detect whether or not they are being truthful. Selecting interviewers was thought to improve rapport and to generate more free and frank answers. Proxy subjects called for the questioning of a person who knows the target person of a study (Nederhof, 1985). A descriptive statistical analysis was conducted on the instrument results to summarize and present the data in an abbreviated fashion (Lomax & Hans-Vaughn, 2012). To reduce the potential of social desirability bias in the present study, the survey questions were restructured as neutral questions and the surveys were self-administered. For example, the first item of the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale was changed from "I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures" to "People should enjoy interacting with people from different cultures." Internal consistency

reliability was examined on the survey data using Cronbach's Alpha. It is the most common measure for assessing scale reliability (Field, 2013).

Data Collection

The researcher used two quantitative surveys, the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale and the Behavioral and Instructional Management Scale to collect the data. The two instruments were combined into one survey instrument (Appendix E). Survey research investigates trends, attitudes, or opinions of a sample, with the intent to generalize from a sample to a population (Creswell, 2004). There were both advantages and disadvantages associated with the data collection strategies that were decided upon; however, the overall usefulness of the strategies supported the purpose and scope of the study. The strengths of a questionnaire were that they were good for measuring attitudes, inexpensive, and a quick turnaround (Teddie & Tashakkori, 2009). The weaknesses were they had to be kept short, might have missing data, and response rates could be low (Teddie & Tashakkori, 2009).

The survey instrument was administered using a mixed-mode that consisted of an online version of the survey and a follow-up paper copy for non-respondents and was analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The convenience sampling method was utilized to produce the participants for the study. The convenience sampling method is a non-probability sampling method based on ease of access (Kathari, 2004). The survey instrument was distributed to the 386 middle school and high school teachers of the participating Georgia school system. The survey instrument began with four demographic questions and then continues with items from the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale and the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale questionnaires.

The purpose of Intercultural Sensitivity Scale is to measure their level of intercultural sensitivity. After each item is scored on a five-point Likert scale, the scores were totaled to classify participants in categories of low sensitivity, average sensitivity, or high sensitivity. The Behavior and Instructional Management Scale was also administered to measure their level of control in classroom management in the subcategories of behavioral and instructional management. After each item of the instrument is scored on a six-point Likert scale, the scores were totaled to place teachers on a continuum of being interventionists, non-interventionists, or interactionists. A lower score would indicate that teachers are non-interventionists, a higher score would indicate that teachers are interventionists, and scores in the middle would indicate interactionists.

Procedures

The implementation of the research study began upon approval (Appendix F) from the Columbus State University Institutional Review Board (IRB). Permission to use the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale was obtained through email contact with the authors Nancy Martin and Daniel Sass at the University of Texas at San Antonio. Permission to use the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale was obtained through email contact with the author Guo-Ming Chen of the University of Rhode Island. Permission to do the study from the school district level was obtained through a research request application (Appendix G) that was sent to the Director of School Improvement and Assessment of the participating Georgia school system. A letter of permission to conduct the study was sent to principals of the proposed school explaining the study and the expectations of the participants (Appendix H). The researcher also obtained permission to send letters to the teachers (Appendix H). The data collection and analysis process was completed over a

period of 1 month. An email was sent to teachers explaining the study with a letter to provide informed consent (Appendix I) and a link to the online survey to complete within a two-week time frame. Demographic information about the participants' age, ethnicity, years of experience, and grade level was also collected in the survey. Confidentiality was protected by the fact that the researcher and authorized members of the dissertation committee were the only individuals with access to the results. The results were password protected on a password-protected computer. Results will be destroyed within six months of the successful defense of the dissertation. Teachers were directed not to discuss the results of the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale or the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale until after the deadline. To improve the likelihood of participation, teachers received the incentive of having their name placed in a drawing for one of the forty $5 Chick-fil-a gift cards. The following steps were employed:

Day 1: Send an email asking teachers to respond to survey over the web with a letter describing the study and expectations, the incentive for participating, and the web link. Participants were asked to email the signed consent form and a screenshot of the survey completed message in order to qualify for gift card drawing.

Day 5: Sent a follow-up email with web link.

Day 15: Delivered a paper copy of informed consent letter in person to campuses with low responses to offer a second mode of response. Participants were asked to return the signed consent form via currier or scanned and emailed in order qualify for the gift card drawing.

Day 20: Sent a final email with a reminder of paper copy mode.

Day 25: Sent email thanking participants and notifying winners of incentive.

Data Analysis

To answer research question 1, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine if there were differences in perceptions of intercultural sensitivity and classroom management practices among demographic variables (Field, 2013). An ANOVA compared the mean of a dependent variable containing two or more categories (Field, 2013). In research question 1, an independent factorial ANOVA was used to analyze the dependent variable of intercultural sensitivity in categories of ethnicity, gender, years of service, and grade level—middle/high. An independent factorial designed is used when there are several independent variables and each has been measured using different entities between groups (Field, 2013). In research question 2, a Kruskal-Wallis test was used to analyze the dependent variable of classroom management practices in categories of ethnicity, gender, years of service, and grade level—middle/high. To answer research question 3, a Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted. For research question 3, the dependent variable was the classroom management scores and the independent variable was intercultural sensitivity. The independent variable contained two categories consisting of high sensitivity and average sensitivity.

To check for potential sources of bias in the study, assumptions of the data analyses were tested. An assumption is referred to as a condition confirms that statistical test of which the researcher is attempting to use will work (Field, 2013). The assumptions also relate to the quality of the research model (Field, 2013). The present study used ANOVAs to analyze the data for each research questions 1 and 3. The assumptions associated with ANOVAs included normality, homogeneity of variance, and independence (Field, 2013). Normality assumed that data were normally distributed

(Field, 2013). Testing of the assumption of normality was carried out through the use of a histogram. The assumption of homogeneity of variance meant that the variance of a variable was relatively similar to that of another variable at all levels. The assumption of homogeneity of variance was tested using Levene's test. Levene's test was used to determine if the variances were the same, which was testing the null hypothesis. If the assumption of homogeneity was violated when tested using the Levene's test, a Kruskal-Wallis test was used to analyze the data. A Kruskal-Wallis test served as the nonparametric version of an ANOVA (Field, 2013). The third assumption associated with ANOVAs was independence. The assumption of independence meant that one data point did not have the influence of another data point (Field, 2013).

<div align="center">Response Rate</div>

The response rate was important in drawing statistically significant conclusions from the data (Medway & Tourangeau, 2015; Nulty, 2008). Higher response rates led to increased statistical power and smaller confidence intervals around the sample. Response rates also resulted in greater credibility among stakeholders in the research. Historically, researchers have yielded response rates from 48.4% to 64.4%. In order to identify an acceptable response rate needed for the present study, an a priori power analysis was performed to determine an approximate sample size needed. An a priori power analysis provides an efficient method to predict sample size and control statistical power before a study is done (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007). The G*Power calculator was used to perform the a priori power analysis based on effect size, confidence interval, and margin of error (Heinrich-Heine University, 2017). The confidence interval is the range of values that contained the true value of the population (Field, 2013). At a medium

effect size of .25, 95% confidence interval, and 5% margin of error, the a priori power

analysis for a one-way ANOVA with 2 groups revealed a need for a sample size of 210.

To reach the required sample size would require an acceptable response rate of

approximately 54%. To improve response rate, incentives were offered in the form of a

lottery and reminder emails were sent to non-respondents, as researchers found that such

strategies did not significantly decrease the quality of responses (Medway & Tourangeau,

2015; Nulty, 2008).

Summary

The purpose of the study was to measure teachers' intercultural sensitivity and

perceptions of classroom management to determine if differences existed in scores based

on demographic variables. The purpose was also to determine if there were differences in

perceptions of classroom management based on levels of intercultural sensitivity. The

research design chosen for the study was the descriptive design, which focused on

specific predictions, narration of the facts, and characteristics of a particular individual,

group, or situation. The data collection approach was quantitative by way of two survey

instruments, the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale and the Intercultural

Sensitivity Scale. The participants of the study were a sample of teachers from a small

school system in west-central Georgia. To increase the response rate, incentives through a

lottery system were utilized, and follow-up emails to non-respondents were sent. The data

were analyzed using a descriptive statistical analysis, and analyses of variation. The

results of the study were reported in the following chapter.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Introduction

The purpose of the study was to measure teachers' intercultural sensitivity and

perceptions of classroom management to determine if differences existed in scores based

on demographic variables gender, ethnicity, years of experience, and grade level. The

purpose was also to determine if there were differences in perceptions of classroom

management based on levels of intercultural sensitivity. The researcher investigated

whether or not certain demographic characteristics played a role in their levels of

intercultural sensitivity and their levels of classroom management practices with regard

to classroom control. The research also investigated whether or not there were differences

in perceptions of classroom management practices based on levels of intercultural

sensitivity. The study was conducted using the survey research design (Creswell, 2013).

The data were collected using a survey instrument that consisted of four questions about

the participants' gender, ethnicity, years of experience, and grade level; and a two-part

survey instrument. Part one of the survey was composed of the 24-item Intercultural

Sensitivity Scale to assess teachers' perceptions of intercultural sensitivity and Part 2 was

composed of the 12-item Behavior and Instructional Management Scale to assess the

teachers' perceptions of classroom management practices.

The surveys contained negatively stated items, which were reverse coded in order

to get a summative score. Also, before analysis, the data were recoded in order to

collapse the size of the independent variables race and experience. The recoding process

was done to ensure that all groups had a large enough sample size to meet the criteria of the central limit theorem. The central limit theorem stated that for samples sizes larger than 30, the distribution takes the shape of a normal distribution (Fields, 2013). The ethnicity variable was originally divided into the following six categories: American Indian/Alaskan Native, Asian, African American, Hispanic, Caucasian, and Multiple/Other. The categories were collapsed into two groups, White and Non-White. The experience variable was originally divided into the following five categories: 0-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years, 16-20 years, and 21+ years. The categories were collapsed into two groups, ≤15 years and 16+ years. Descriptive statistics were analyzed to check for normality of data, and a Levene's test was administered to check for homogeneity of variances between groups. To check for reliability, a Cronbach's Alpha was administered on the survey items for each part of the survey instrument. After the pre-analysis, research question 1 and 3 were answered by administering an ANOVA. A Kruskal-Wallis test was administered to answer research question 2, as homogeneity was violated for the classroom management data. Effect size was analyzed using partial eta squared ($\eta_p{}^2$).

<div align="center">Research Questions/Hypotheses</div>

The following research questions were composed to further explore the teacher perceptions of intercultural sensitivity and classroom management practices:

1. Are there differences in the intercultural sensitivity of teachers with different genders, ethnicities, years of experience, or grade levels (middle, high school)?

H_0: There are no statistically significant differences in the intercultural sensitivity of teachers with different genders, ethnicities, years of experience, or grade levels (middle, high school).

H_1: There are statistically significant differences in the intercultural sensitivity of teachers with different genders, ethnicities, years of experience, or grade levels (middle, high school).

2. Are there differences in the classroom management (on a continuum of control) of teachers with different genders, ethnicities, years of experience, or grade levels (middle, high school)?

H_0: There are no statistically significant differences in the classroom management (on a continuum of control) of teachers with different genders, ethnicities, years of experience, or grade levels (middle, high school).

H_1: There are statistically significant differences in the classroom management (on a continuum of control) of teachers with different genders, ethnicities, years of experience, or grade levels (middle, high school).

3. Are there differences between teacher perceptions of classroom management practices of teachers with high levels of cultural sensitivity and average levels of intercultural sensitivity?

H_0: There are no statistically significant differences between teacher perceptions of classroom management practices of teachers with high levels of cultural sensitivity and average levels of intercultural sensitivity.

H$_1$: There are statistically significant differences between teacher perceptions of

classroom management practices of teachers with high levels of cultural

sensitivity and average levels of intercultural sensitivity.

Participants

The instrument was administered to 153 certified middle and high school teachers

from a small school system in West Central Georgia. The response rate was 39.6% of the

targeted population of 386 total middle and high school teachers in the system. The

response rate was broken down by demographic characteristics (see Table 1).

Table 1

Response Rate by Demographic Characteristics

	Demographic	Response Rate
Gender	Female	70%
	Male	30%
Ethnicity	American Indian or Alaskan Native	2%
	Asian or Pacific Islander	1%
	Black or African American	24%
	Hispanic	2%
	White or Caucasian	70%
	Multiracial	2%
Years of Experience	0-5 years	20%
	6-10 years	16%
	11-15 years	25%
	16-20 years	11%
	21+ years	27%
Grade Level	Middle	38%
	High	62%

Although 153 gave informed consent to participate in the study, only the data of the

completed surveys were included in the analysis. Of the 153 respondents, 148

participants completed the intercultural sensitivity portion of the survey instrument, and

146 participants completed the classroom management portion of the instrument. The

results of the analyses were reported in the following section.

Findings

Summative Analyses

The measures of central tendencies for summative scores of the Intercultural

Sensitivity Scale revealed a mean of 91.01 and standard deviation of 11.24 (see Table 2).

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics of Intercultural Sensitivity Scale and Behavior and Instructional Management Scale Instruments

	N	*Mean*	*Std. Dev.*	*Skewness*	*Kurtosis*
ISS	148	91.0068	11.24223	-.869	1.356
BIMS	146	40.1918	4.98316	-.194	-.223

The research of Yu (2012) divided Intercultural Sensitivity Scale scores into three

equal intervals. Scores from 24 to 55 indicated low sensitivity, 56 to 88 indicated average

sensitivity, and 89 to 120 indicated high sensitivity. According to the intervals in the Yu

(2012) study, the average participant in the present study exhibited high sensitivity. The

results of the demographic data were also broken down into intervals of low, average, and

high sensitivity (See Table 3).

Table 3

Intercultural Sensitivity Intervals by Demographic Variables

	Demographic	*Low*	*Average*	*High*
Gender	Female	1%	32%	67%
	Male	0%	36%	54%
Ethnicity	Non-White	0%	26%	74%
	White	1%	36%	63%
Years of	≤15 years	1%	35%	64%
Experience	16+ years	0%	30%	70%
Grade	Middle	1%	29%	70%
Level	High	0%	36%	64%

The descriptive statistics for the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale

were $M = 40.19$ and $SD = 4.98$ (see Table 2). The Behavior and Instructional

Management Scale scores reflected a location on a continuum of control. A score in the range of 12 to 36 indicated all negative responses to survey items, which revealed a less controlling perception of classroom management practices. The research of Martin and Sass (2010) categorized the less controlling perceptions as non-interventionists. A score in the range of 48 to 72 indicated all affirmative responses to survey items, which revealed a more controlling perception of classroom management practices. The research of Martin and Sass (2010) categorized the controlling perception as interventionists. The midrange of 37 to 47 indicated a balance between negative and affirmative responses. The research of Martin and Sass (2010) categorized the balanced perception as interactionists. With the midpoint of the range of scores being 42, scores above 42 indicated more controlling classroom management and scores below 42 indicated less controlling classroom management. The mean of the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale scores showed that on average, the participants were slightly less controlling fell under the interactionist category. Overall, eight participants fell under the interventionist category, 106 fell under interactionist, and 32 fell under non-interactionists. The Behavior and Instructional Management Scale scores were broken down into categories by demographic variables (see Table 4).

Table 4

Continuum of Control Categories by Demographic Variables

	Demographic	Non-interventionist	Interactionist	Interventionist
Gender	Female	27%	63%	10%
	Male	14%	80%	7%
Ethnicity	Non-White	16%	77%	7%
	White	24%	71%	5%
Years of	≤15 years	21%	73%	7%
Experience	16+ years	26%	70%	4%

Grade	Middle	24%	71%	5%
Level	High	22%	74%	4%

The histogram of the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale scores (see Figure 3) appeared to show a slight negatively skewed distribution of intercultural sensitivity scores. Further analyses of the symmetry of the distribution were measured by skewness (Sk = -.869) and Kurtosis (K = 1.356). A perfectly symmetric distribution contained a value of zero; however, rule of thumb was that a value of ±2 was considered relatively normal; ±3 for more conservative researchers; and ± 1 for more strenuous researchers (Lomax & Hans-Vaughn, 2012). The results showed that the distribution fell within the range of relatively normal distribution.
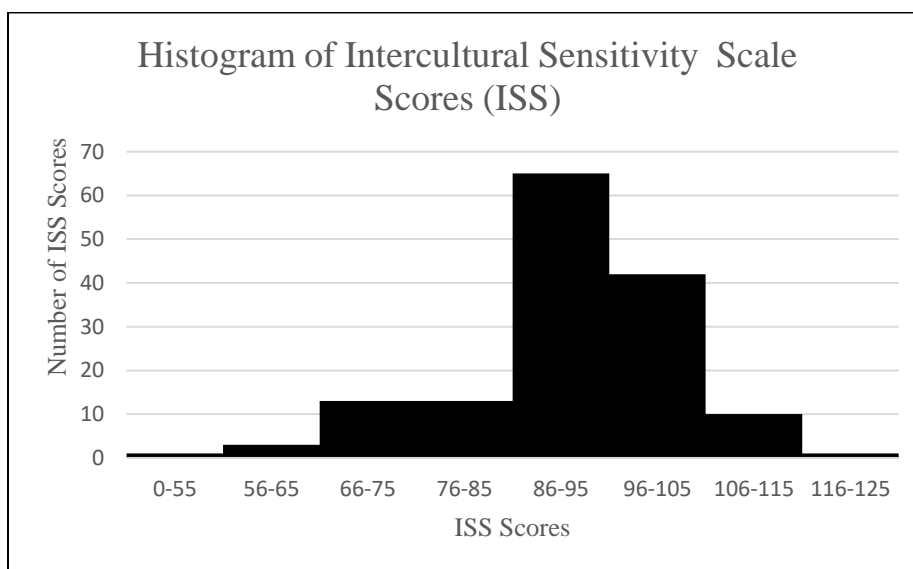
Figure 3. The histogram of Intercultural Sensitivity Scale scores showed a negatively skewed distribution.

The histogram of the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale scores (see Figure 4) appeared to show normal distribution for classroom management scores. Further analyses of skewness (Sk = -.194) and Kurtosis (K = -.223) also showed that the distribution of scores fell within the range of a relatively normal distribution.
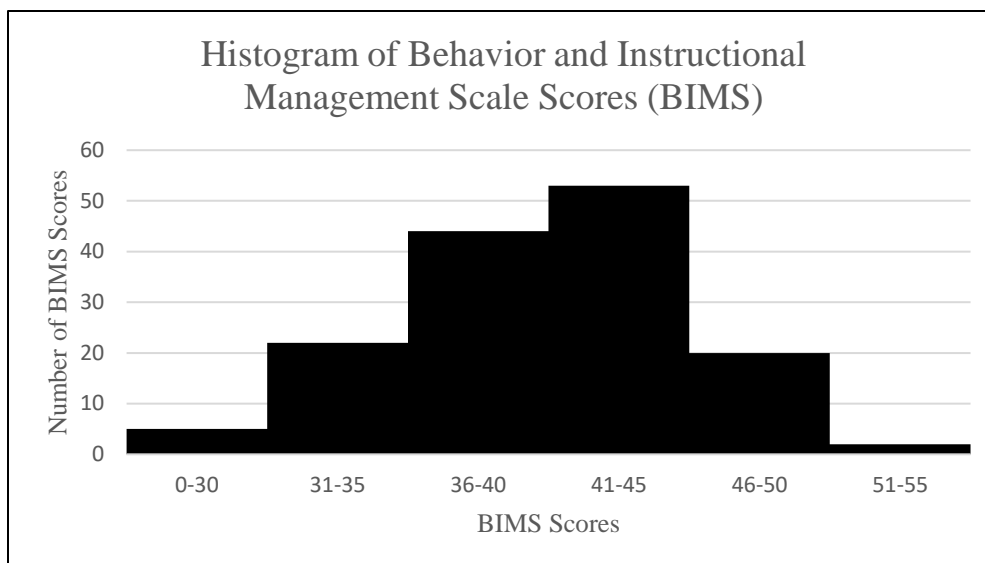
Figure 4. The histogram of Behavior and Instructional Management Scale results showed a slightly skewed distribution.

A Cronbach's alpha was also administered on the survey instruments to test for reliability. An alpha value of .7 or .8 was considered an acceptable value (Fields, 2013). The test for reliability on the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale yielded a Cronbach's alpha of .867, and the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale yielded a Cronbach's alpha of .525. The results showed acceptable reliability for Intercultural Sensitivity Scale scores; however, the results of the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale scores should be interpreted with caution. After the descriptive analyses and assumption testing were completed, the statistical analyses for each research question were administered.

Research Question 1

Research question 1 asked if there were differences in the intercultural sensitivity of teachers with different genders, ethnicities, years of experience, or grade levels (middle, high school). A descriptive analysis of the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale was broken down by demographic variables (see Table 5).

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics of Intercultural Sensitivity Scale by Demographic Characteristics

	Demographic	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Gender	Female	103	90.79	1.19
	Male	45	91.51	1.38
Ethnicity	Non-White	43	91.88	1.90
	White	105	90.65	1.05
Years of	≤15 years	91	90.54	1.15
Experience	16+ years	57	91.75	1.55
Grade	Middle	56	92.05	1.48
Level	High	92	90.37	1.18

　　　The mean of each demographic variable indicated that on average the participants were categorized as high sensitivity according to the research of Yu (2012). A Levene's test for equality of variances was administered on the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale summative scores. A Levene's test assessed the assumption that the variances in different groups were equal (Fields, 2013). If the Levene's test is violated, there is a significant difference in the variances of the groups, and therefore the data are nonparametric (Fields, 2013). The Levene's test for equality of variances revealed that equal variances of intercultural sensitivity scores could be assumed ($F_{(13,133)} = 1.010$, $p=.445$). The Levene's test was followed up with a factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA). The advantage of a factorial ANOVA was that it allowed the researcher to look at the effects of more than one independent variable on a dependent variable and interaction between the independent variables (Fields, 2013). The researcher used independent variables of gender (Female/Male), ethnicity (NonWhite/White), years of experience (≤15 years/ 16+ years), and grade level (Middle/High) to see the effect each variable had on Intercultural Sensitivity Scale scores and the interactions between groups and answer research question 1:

1. Are there differences in the intercultural sensitivity of teachers with different

   genders, ethnicities, years of experience, or grade levels (middle, high school)?

   H_0: There are no statistically significant differences in the intercultural sensitivity

   of teachers with different genders, ethnicities, years of experience, or grade levels

   (middle, high school).

   H_1: There are statistically significant differences in the intercultural sensitivity of

   teachers with different genders, ethnicities, years of experience, or grade levels

   (middle, high school).

The following table summarized the results by main effect and interaction, F statistic,

significance and effect size with the partial eta squared (see Table 6).

Table 6

Factorial ANOVA Results

Source	df	F	η_p^2	p
gender	1	0.308	.002	.580
race	1	0.328	.002	.568
experience	1	0.483	.004	.488
grade level	1	0.767	.006	.383
gender * race	1	0.336	.003	.563
gender * experience	1	0.139	.001	.710
gender * grade level	1	0.003	.000	.959
race * experience	1	0.001	.000	.982
race * grade level	1	0.881	.007	.350
experience * grade level	1	0.758	.006	.385
gender * race * experience	1	0.000	.000	1.000
gender * race * grade level	1	1.732	.013	.190
gender * experience * grade level	1	0.718	.005	.398
race * experience * grade level	1	0.069	.001	.793
gender * race * experience * grade level		.	.000	.

The results of the ANOVA yielded no significant main effects between the independent variables and the dependent variable, nor were there any significant interactions between the independent variables, and H_0 was failed to be rejected. The effect size ($\eta_p{}^2$) indicated the strength of effects and interactions between the independent variables and the dependent variables (Lomax & Hans-Vaughn, 2012). The range of $\eta_p{}^2$ was from 0 to 1.00; 0 indicated that none of total variance was due to differences between groups, and 1.00 indicated that all of the total variance was due to the differences between groups (Lomax & Hans-Vaughn, 2012). The effect size results showed that for all the effects and interactions, very little of the total variance was due to differences between the groups.

Research Question 2

Research question 2 asked if there were differences in the classroom management (on a continuum of control) of teachers with different genders, ethnicities, years of experience, or grade levels (middle, high school). A descriptive analysis of the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale was broken down by demographic variables (see Table 7).

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics of Behavior and Instructional Management Scale by Demographic Characteristic

	Demographic	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Gender	Female	102	39.70	0.49
	Male	44	41.34	0.75
Ethnicity	Non-White	43	40.72	0.61
	White	103	39.97	0.53
Years of Experience	≤15 years	92	40.28	0.51
	16+ years	54	40.04	0.70
Grade Level	Middle	55	40.33	0.68
	High	91	40.11	0.52

The mean of each demographic variable fell below the midpoint of 42, which indicated that on average each participant were categorized as having less controlling classroom management no matter the gender, ethnicity, years of experience, or grade level. The mean scores also all fell under the interactionist category. A Levene's test for equality of variances was administered on the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale summative scores. The Levene's test for equality of variances revealed that equal variances of classroom management scores could not be assumed ($F_{(12,131)} = 2.245$, $p=.013$). The Levene's test for homogeneity showed the scores of the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale to be nonparametric, so the data analysis was followed-up with the Kruskal-Wallis test (Fields, 2013). The Kruskal-Wallis test was used to answer research question 2:

2. Are there differences in the classroom management (on a continuum of control) of teachers with different genders, ethnicities, years of experience, or grade levels (middle, high school)?

    H_0: There are no statistically significant differences in the classroom management (on a continuum of control) of teachers with different genders, ethnicities, years of experience, or grade levels (middle, high school).

    H_1: There are statistically significant differences in the classroom management (on a continuum of control) of teachers with different genders, ethnicities, years of experience, or grade levels (middle, high school).

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test showed that there was no significant difference in Behavior and Instructional Management Scale scores based on gender ($H(1) = 2.556$, $p = .110$, $\eta_p^2 = .011$), ethnicity ($H(1) = .115$, $p = .694$, $\eta_p^2 = .006$), years of experience ($H(1) =$

.000, p = .990, $\eta_p{}^2$= .000), or grade level ($H(1)$ = .479, p = .489, $\eta_p{}^2$= .004). The H_0 was

failed to be rejected. The effect size for each test also showed that very little of the total

variance was due to differences between groups.

Research Question 3

Research question 3 asked if there were differences between the perceptions of

classroom management of participants based on their levels of intercultural sensitivity.

The participants were categorized as low sensitivity, average sensitivity, and high

sensitivity according to summative Intercultural Sensitivity Scale scores. No participants

fell into the low sensitivity category; therefore, there were no results to share. A

descriptive analysis was administered and broken down by intercultural sensitivity

categories (see Table 8). The mean for both groups fell below the midpoint of 42, which

indicated that both groups fell on the continuum of control as less controlling.

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics of Average and High Sensitivity Classroom Management Scores

Sensitivity	Mean	Standard Deviation
High	39.72	4.81
Average	41.11	5.46

A Levene's test for equality of variances was administered on the recoded Behavior and

Instructional Management Scale scores and results revealed that equality of variance

between the groups could be assumed ($F_{(1,138)}$ = 1.297, p=.257). A follow-up one-way

ANOVA was administered for Behavior and Instructional Management Scale scores

based on levels of intercultural sensitivity, high and average (See Table 9). The ANOVA

was used to answer research question 3:

3. Are there differences between teacher perceptions of classroom management
    practices of teachers with high levels of cultural sensitivity and average levels of
    intercultural sensitivity?

    H_0: There are no statistically significant differences between teacher perceptions
    of classroom management practices of teachers with high levels of cultural
    sensitivity and average levels of intercultural sensitivity.

    H_1: There are statistically significant differences between teacher perceptions of
    classroom management practices of teachers with high levels of cultural
    sensitivity and average levels of intercultural sensitivity.

Table 9

One-way ANOVA Results

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p	η_p^2
Between groups	62.565	2	31.282	1.237	.294	.018
Within Groups	3491.265	138	25.299			
Total	231319.000	141				

      The results of the ANOVA revealed that there was no significant difference in
Behavior and Instructional Management Scale scores for participants with high and
average sensitivity, and the H_0 was failed to be rejected. The effect size for each test also
showed that very little of the total variance was due to differences between groups (see
Table 9). Behavior and Instructional Management Scale scores were also categorized on
the continuum of control according to level of intercultural sensitivity (see Table 10).

Table 10

Continuum of Control Categories by Level of Intercultural Sensitivity

Intercultural Sensitivity	Non-interventionist	Interactionist	Interventionist
Average	24%	72%	4%
High	20%	70%	10%

The results showed that percentage of non-interventionists, interactionists, and interventionists are very similar for participants with average sensitivity and high sensitivity. In both groups, approximately 70% were interactionists.

<div align="center">Summary</div>

The present study analyzed teacher perceptions of intercultural sensitivity and classroom management practices on a continuum of control. The results also showed that on average, the participants exhibited high sensitivity and less controlling classroom management practices. The results of research question 1 revealed that on average, the participants exhibited high sensitivity regardless of gender, ethnicity, years of experience, or grade level. The results of the ANOVA revealed that the main effects of gender, ethnicity, years of experience, and grade level were not significant and there were no significant interactions between the main effects. The results of research question 2 revealed that on average, the participants exhibited less controlling classroom management practices regardless of gender, ethnicity, years of experience, or grade level. A Kruskal-Wallis test was run for each of the four demographic variables, and the results showed that there was no significant difference in Behavior and Instructional Management Scale scores based on gender, ethnicity, years of experience, nor grade level. The results of research question 3 revealed that on average, the participants fell on

the less controlling side of the continuum of control whether they exhibited high

sensitivity or average sensitivity. The Kruskal-Wallis test revealed that there were no

significant differences in Behavior and Instructional Management Scale scores between

sensitivity groups. A further discussion of the results was presented in Chapter V.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Summary of the Study

The purpose of the study was to measure teachers' intercultural sensitivity and

perceptions of classroom management to determine if differences existed in scores based

on demographic variables gender, ethnicity, years of experience, and grade level. The

purpose was also to determine if there were differences in perceptions of classroom

management based on levels of intercultural sensitivity. The purpose stemmed from the

problem that existed in education involving gaps in achievement and discipline between

Black students and their counterparts. The problem led to the research of factors that

attributed to the gaps, which included external resources and internal beliefs of teachers

and students. Teachers' beliefs became the focus as research reported that the beliefs

shaped classroom management practices. Research question 1 analyzed differences in the

perceptions of intercultural sensitivity of teachers by gender, ethnicity, years of

experience, and grade level. Research question 2 analyzed differences in perceptions of

classroom management of teachers by gender, ethnicity, years of experience, and grade

level. Research question 3 analyzed the relationship in the perceptions of classroom

management between teachers with average levels of intercultural sensitivity and teachers

with high levels of intercultural sensitivity. To answer the research questions, data were

collected through survey research design in which the researcher administered a survey

instrument composed of four demographic questions and a two-part questionnaire. The

demographic questions were posed to gather data on the participants' gender, ethnicity,

years of experience, and grade level. Part one of the questionnaire was comprised of the

Intercultural Sensitivity Scale, a 24 an-item instrument on intercultural sensitivity. Part

two of the questionnaire was comprised of the Behavior and Instructional Management

Scale, a 12-item instrument on classroom management practices. The survey was

administered to 153 certified middle and high school teachers in a rural and a small

school system in West Central Georgia. Of those teachers, 148 completed the

Intercultural Sensitivity Scale, and 146 completed the Behavior and Instructional

Management Scale. The data were examined through several statistical analyses

including descriptive analyses, assumption testing, and reliability testing. To answer

question 1, a factorial analysis of variance was administered on the Intercultural

Sensitivity Scale scores. To answer question 2, a Kruskal-Wallis test was administered on

the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale scores. To answer question 3, a

Kruskal-Wallis test was administered on Behavior and Instructional Management Scale

scores with classroom management being the dependent variable and intercultural

sensitivity being the independent variable. The results were reported in the previous

chapter and further analysis and discussion of the results followed.

<center>Analysis of Research Findings</center>

To answer research question 1, data collected from the preliminary demographic

questions, and Part 1 of the survey were analyzed. The data were first analyzed with

descriptive statistics and assumption testing, which showed that the distribution of data

fell within the range of normal distribution and equality in variance could be assumed.

The results of the factorial ANOVA showed that there were no significant differences in

the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale scores of teachers with different genders, ethnicities,

years of experience, or grade level. The overall mean of the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale at 91.01 revealed that the average response fell in the range of high sensitivity. When broken down by demographics, the means still remained close to the overall mean of the responses. The mean of male respondents at 91.51 was slightly higher than the female mean of 90.79. The mean of non-White respondents at 91.88 was slightly higher than the mean of White respondents at 90.65. The mean of teachers with 16 or more years of experience at 91.75 was slightly higher than the mean of teachers with 15 or fewer years of experience at 90.54. Lastly, the mean of the middle school grade level at 92.05 was slightly higher the mean of high school grade level at 90.37.

To answer research question 2, data collected from the preliminary demographic questions, and Part 2 of the survey were analyzed. Part 2 was comprised of the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale, utilized to assess teacher perceptions of classroom management practices. The data were first analyzed with descriptive statistics and assumption testing, which showed that the distribution of data fell within the range of normal distribution. The overall mean for the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale at 40.19 revealed that the average responses fell in the range of less controlling classroom management. Categorically, 5% of participants fell under interventionists, 73% fell under interactionists, and 22% fell under non-interventionist. When broken down into demographic characteristics, the mean scores still remained fairly close together. The mean for male respondents at 41.34 was slightly higher than the mean of female respondents at 39.70. The mean of non-White respondents at 40.72 was slightly higher than the mean of White respondents at 39.97. The mean of teachers with 16 or more years of experience at 40.04 was almost equal to the mean of teachers with 15 or fewer years of

experience at 40.28. The means of middle and high school grade levels were almost equal at 40.33 and 40.11 respectively. The results of the Levene's test of equality of variance showed that equal variance could not be assumed, so the analyses were followed up with a Kruskal-Wallis test of nonparametric data. The Kruskal-Wallis test was administered on the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale scores with each of the demographic variables (i.e., gender, ethnicity, years of experience, and grade level) being the independent variable. The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test showed that there was no significant difference in Behavior and Instructional Management Scale scores in any of the four demographic variables.

To answer research question 3, a Kruskal-Wallis test was administered using the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale scores as the dependent variable, grouped into two independent categories of high sensitivity and average sensitivity based on Intercultural Sensitivity Scale scores. The mean score for respondents with high sensitivity was slightly lower than the mean score for respondents with average sensitivity at 39.72 and 41.11, respectively. The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test showed that there was not a significant difference among classroom management scores for teachers with average sensitivity versus teachers with high sensitivity. Further discussion of the results in relation to previous research was reported in the following section.

<center>Discussion of Research Findings</center>

Research question 1 was answered with statistical analysis of the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale scores. The results of the reliability test of Intercultural Sensitivity Scale scores supported the findings of Chen and Starosta (2000) that the instrument measured at high reliability. The analysis of variance revealed that there were no significant effects

of gender, ethnicity, years of experience, nor grade level on Intercultural Sensitivity Scale

scores. There also were no significant interactions between the demographic variables.

Contrary to parts of the results of present study, previous research that looked at

demographic variables in association with Intercultural Sensitivity Scale scores showed

that there were significant differences when it came to gender and grade level. The

research of Yilmaz and Göçen (2013) resulted in a higher intercultural sensitivity mean

score for female candidates than male candidates. Also, with the exception of the fourth-

grade level, the mean score for intercultural sensitivity by grade level increased as the

grade level increased. In the present study, the trend was the opposite though not

significant. Female scores were very slightly lower than male scores; and as grade level

increased from middle to high, the mean scores decreased. However, the scores were too

similar to report significance. In the case of overall scores for the Intercultural Sensitivity

Scale, the breakdown of scores according to the categories of low, average, and high

sensitivity was similar in the present study as they were in the study done by Yu (2012).

In the research of Yu (2012), the score ranges were divided into three equal intervals

from 24 to 55, 56 to 88, and 89 to 120, suggesting low, average, and high sensitivity,

respectively. Using those intervals, the results of the Yu (2012) study showed that 60% of

the teachers fell into the category of high sensitivity and 40% of the teachers fell into the

category of average sensitivity. In a similar result, the present study resulted in 67% of

the teachers falling into the high sensitivity category and 33% falling into the average

sensitivity category.

Research question 2 was answered by the results of the analyses administered for

data gathered from the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale. Much research

existed on the use of the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale, and the analyses

of the present study showed similar trends as the data analyses in the present study. The

overall mean score of 40.19 showed a less controlling perception of classroom

management practices for the average participants. Similar to the study of Djigic and

Stojiljkovic (2011), which reported 59.5% interactionist, the majority of the participants

in the present study fell under the interactionist category. The breakdown of the present

study was 73% interactionist, 5% interventionist, and 22% interventionist. The

demographic breakdown of Behavior and Instructional Management Scale scores, though

not significant, still reflected the results of previous research. Male teachers were seen as

slightly more controlling than females, and Non-White participants were seen as slightly

more controlling than White participants. However, the means of years of experience and

grade level scores were nearly the same in the present study. The research of Unal and

Unal (2012) did see a relationship between years of experience and a more controlling

perceptions of classroom management practices. Martin et al. (2006) reported significant

differences between male teachers and female teachers as well as novice and experienced

teachers. However, the female teachers scored as more controlling and experienced

teachers scored as more controlling than the novice teachers in the Martin et al. (2006)

study. Santiago (2012) also examined the relationship between demographic variables,

such as gender, grade level, and number of years of experience and classroom

management practices as reported by Behavior and Instructional Management Scale

scores. Similar to the present study, Santiago (2012) reported no significant relationships

between Behavior and Instructional Management Scale scores and demographic

characteristics.

To answer research question 3, participants' Behavior and Instructional Management Scale scores were grouped according to their levels of intercultural sensitivity. Makarova and Herzog (2013) also investigated the relationship between intercultural sensitivity and classroom management as posed in research question 3 of the present study. The Makarova and Herzog (2013) study examined the concepts on an international context of acculturation attitudes as related to their classroom management. In comparison to the range of high sensitivity to low sensitivity, the acculturation attitudes ranged from strategies of integration, assimilation, separation, to marginalization (Makarova & Herzog, 2013). Classroom management was measured in terms of teachers' reaction to misbehavior, perceptions of disruptive behavior, and social diagnostic expertise (Makarova & Herzog, 2013). The results of the present study showed that though there was no significant difference in Behavior and Instructional Management Scale scores between teachers with high sensitivity and average sensitivity, in general teachers with higher levels of Intercultural sensitivity tended to have less controlling perceptions of classroom management. In a less similar result, participants in the Makarova and Herzog (2013) study who favored integration paid more attention to rule compliance than participants who favored separation. Teachers who favored assimilation also favored conformity. The results suggested that the categories associated with high sensitivity also called for more control, contrary to the results of the present study.

Conclusions

The context of which the present study was conducted originated in the research of the achievement and discipline gaps between Black students and their counterparts. The research indicated a difference upwards of 30 points nationally in NAEP scores in

mathematics and reading among Black and White students in both high school and middle school. The research also indicated that Black students were suspended nearly two and a half times as much as White students. The setting of the study with chosen due to an existence of an achievement gap between Black and White students in Georgia milestones assessment scores and discipline outcomes of Black student suspensions doubling White students in in-school suspension and tripling in out-of-school suspension. The potential factors of the discipline and achievement gaps as reported by research included external factors and internal factors. The present study focused on the internal factors of teacher beliefs and classroom practices as research linked the two factors to student motivation and achievement. The purpose of the study was to measure teacher perceptions of intercultural sensitivity and classroom management practices. The study assessed whether there were differences in each concept based on demographic variables of gender, ethnicity, years of experience, and grade level. Additionally, the study investigated whether there were differences in classroom management practices based on levels of intercultural sensitivity. The overall purpose was to see if teacher practices were based on their beliefs as well as analyze their beliefs based on sensitivity to cultures other than their own. The results of the study showed that there was no statistical difference in beliefs of intercultural sensitivity nor classroom management practices based demographics. The average participant exhibited high levels of intercultural sensitivity and less controlling classroom management practices. The results also showed that there was no difference in classroom management practices based on the participants' level of intercultural sensitivity. The findings revealed that the teachers contained similar beliefs of intercultural sensitivity, ruling it out as a potential factor to the gaps between Black

and White students. The findings also ruled out classroom management practices as a potential factor to the gaps between Black and White students. In general, the results of the findings showed that intercultural sensitivity and classroom practice management did not have an effect on student outcomes in the participating school system, leaving the external factors as the potential reason of the achievement and discipline gaps.

After the statistical analyses and the analyses of variance were ran on the data, trends similar to previous studies were found though no significance was found in intercultural sensitivity scores, classroom management scores, nor for classroom management scored between participants with average and high sensitivity. Similar to the study of Djigic and Stojiljkovic (2011), the majority of the participants were scored under the interactionist category. Additionally, the majority of participants scored under the high sensitivity category much like the Yu (2012) study. However, the studies of Martin et al. (2006) and Unal and Unal (2012) reported significant differences in the demographic variables of years of experience and gender. As previously stated, there was no significance difference in demographic variables in the present study. The Makarova and Herzog (2014) reported that students with higher sensitivity also believed in higher levels of control in the classroom, contrary to the results of the present study where participants with higher sensitivity also believed in a lesser control. The lack of significance could be accounted for due to the small sample size. The number of respondents did not reach the threshold establish through the power analysis. The reliability measure of the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale instrument also reported low reliability, so a lack of significance could be accounted for due to the lack of the instrument to measure the desired concept. However, slight differences, though not

statistical, aligned with trends found in previous research, which had implications on involved parties and uncovered a need for future research.

<center>Implications</center>

Teachers' beliefs were reported to influence teacher practices in the classroom. Results of research revealed that teachers' practices affected student-teacher relationships with Black students, contributed to the decline in achievement outcomes, and contributed to the overrepresentation of Black students in discipline outcomes. The present study analyzed teachers' beliefs of intercultural sensitivity and classroom practices. The implications of the finding had an impact on the field of education, the participants, and the researcher. An implication of the findings on the field of education was that the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale was maintained as being a reliable assessment instrument to use to analyze teachers' beliefs of intercultural sensitivity. The scale reinforced one of the characteristics of culturally responsive instruction, which expressed that instruction was sensitive to student differences. However, caution should be taken when using the 12-item version of the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale the instrument used to analyze classroom management practices. An implication of the findings on the participants was that the results potentially ruled out teachers' beliefs of intercultural sensitivity as a possible contributing factor to the discipline gaps. The findings showed that the participants fell in the average or high sensitivity category; none were classified as low sensitivity. One would infer that the teachers' beliefs that influenced their practices were culturally sensitive. Another implication on the participants was that the beliefs were not isolated to a certain demographic group. There were no significant variations of beliefs of intercultural sensitivity or classroom practices among teachers of

different genders, ethnicities, years of experience, or grade levels. The participants shared

similar ideas on intercultural sensitivity and classroom management practices. Therefore,

the participating school system can alter focus of closing achievement and discipline gaps

on external forces as mentioned in the research as academic access, family support, and

family background and beliefs. The implications of the findings for the researcher were

that the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale was reliable and measured the concept of which

the researcher sought to measure according to the results of the reliability test. The

purpose to seek a reliable instrument to measure intercultural sensitivity was found with

the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale. The researcher concluded to seek a different

instrument for future research on teachers' beliefs of classroom management practices

due to the lack of reliability of the 12-item version of the Behavior and Instructional

Management Scale.

<div align="center">Limitations</div>

There were limitations associated with conducting the research study that

involved the sampling design and statistical analysis that were worth reporting in order to

provide context for generalization for future research. The data were collected through a

voluntary response method in which participants had the option to refuse. Of the 153

respondents who consented and started answering the survey items, 146 completed the

Intercultural Sensitivity Scale in its entirety, and 148 completed the Behavior and

Instructional Management Scale in its entirety. For the purpose of grouping Behavior and

Instructional Management Scale score into levels of intercultural sensitivity, 140

respondents completed the entire survey instrument, which included the four

demographic questions, the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale, and the Behavior and

Instructional Management Scale instrument altogether. The power analysis for reliability

revealed the necessity of 210 respondents; however, the response rate was 153

participants, 36.3% of the targeted population of middle and high school teachers of the

participating school system.

An additional limitation to the study was the mode of survey administration. The

informed consent was obtained separately than the survey responses in the initial

administration. The mode was adjusted when the researcher learned how to attach the

informed consent to the survey instrument to make it one simple administration.

The limitations in the statistical analysis were also associated with administration

and responses. There were no statistically significant differences found in the analysis of

variance of Intercultural Sensitivity Scale scores nor Behavior and Instructional

Management Scale scores based on demographic variables and the effect sizes was very

small in every account. Another limitation to study was the small sample size, which

limited the size of the variable groups. Additionally, equal variance could not be assumed

in Behavior and Instructional Management Scale scores data, making the data

nonparametric.

<div align="center">Recommendations</div>

Research revealed gaps between Black students and their counterparts in

achievement and discipline outcomes. Various internal and external factors were

identified as having effects on the outcomes, but the focus of the study was placed only

on the internal factor of teacher beliefs. The purpose of the study was to measure teacher

perceptions of intercultural sensitivity and classroom management practices in order to

gather information about how to address teacher-student interactions. The results of the

present study showed that there were trends similar to previous studies of teacher

perceptions of intercultural sensitivity and teacher perceptions of classroom management though no statistical significance was found. The alignment of the trends with previous research was the basis for recommendations to increase the reliability, transferability, and suggestions for future research. The following recommendations were suggested:

1. It is recommended that instead of using the abbreviated version of the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale the 24 item version of the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale could improve the reliability of the overall instrument. The Cronbach's alpha for Intercultural Sensitivity Scale showed high reliability, but the Cronbach's alpha for classroom management was not as high.

2. It is recommended to increase the sample size in order for the results to be more generalizable. The power analysis based on the sample size revealed the need of 210 respondents. With the result of 140 respondents completing the entire survey instrument, the results cannot be generalized to the population. The sample could expand to include additional grade levels instead of just middle and high school teachers.

3. The lack of significance can also be associated with social desirability bias, so another recommendation would be to further modify items and questions to be more neutral.

4. It is recommended to administer the survey towards the beginning of the school year to get an initial idea of teacher perceptions of intercultural sensitivity and classroom management. The administration of the survey instrument for the present study took place near the ending of the school year, which could have impacted response rate and reliability of responses.

5. It is recommended to use more qualitative measures to include interviews, observations, or focus groups to gain more specific information on classroom management practices. The interview process would also corroborate responses to the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale instrument, being that the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale is a self-reported survey.

6. It is recommended to analyze the student perceptions of student-teacher interactions as the third characteristic to culturally responsive instruction. The comparison could be used to assess the need for professional development to improve student-interactions and engagement.

Concluding Thoughts

The research project originated from personal experiences of being a member of a student subgroup that was considered at-risk, a Black male from a low socioeconomic status. Finding success for myself, I sought out research on how to help other Black students find success. During my research, I discovered the critical theory, which stated that Black students had the perception of experiencing racial discrimination in their educational environment. Reflecting on my own personal experiences, I decided to explore critical theory more in-depth, thus constructing the background of my research study. The literature review led me to analyze teachers' beliefs as the research reported to impact student-teacher interactions, and those interactions were reported to affect the achievement and discipline outcomes of Black students. After completing the dissertation research, my interest in the topic has increased. The data analyses indicated trends that took place; however, no significance was found in the study. Nonetheless, I felt that with future deeper investigation, more significant outcomes may present themselves. I had

concerns about the self-reported survey and whether or not participants would be 100% honest in their responses and how to assure them anonymity. Even after providing an anonymous method of responding, I still had a few reservations about the reliability of the data. The reliability of the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale was high, but I would encourage corroboration through observation or interview of the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale.

I was pleasantly surprised overall with the results of the research. The results of the present study indicated that participants exhibited average to high intercultural sensitivity that they brought into the classrooms as part of their belief system; however, the findings from the present study showed a less controlling classroom management practices, which does not often translate into the most effective method of engagement to increase motivation for all students. Research reported that a balance of control is the most effective. The data collected for the study did not get specific enough to truly show balance. More research is needed to show how the data can be interpreted to show a balance of power. The research study overall had value that will be shared at a future administrative meeting as support for a need to assess intercultural sensitivity on our campus and to focus future professional development on classroom management practices. I also plan to submit the study for publishing and presentation at future conferences.

REFERENCES

Albert, L. (1989). *A teacher's guide to cooperative discipline: How to manage your classroom and promote self-esteem*. Circle Pines, MN: American Guidance Service.

Allen, Q. (2010). Racial microaggressions: The schooling experiences of Black middle-class males in Arizona's secondary schools. *Journal of African American Males in Education, 1*(2), 125-143.

Banks, T. (2014). Creating positive learning environments: antecedent strategies for managing the classroom environment & student behavior. *Creative Education, 5*(2014), 519-524. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.4236/ce.2014.57061.

Barber, C. & Torney-Purta, J. (2008). The relation of high-achieving adolescents' social perceptions and motivation to teachers' nominations for advanced programs. *Journal of Advanced Academics, 19*(5), 412-443.

Bayles, P. P. (2009). *Assessing the intercultural sensitivity of elementary teachers in bilingual schools in a Texas school district* (*Doctoral dissertation*). Retrieved from University of Minnesota Digital Conservancy.

Bennett, M. J. (2004). From ethnocentrism to ethnorelativism. In J. Wurzel (Ed.), *Toward multiculturalism: A reader in multicultural education* (4th ed.) (pp. 62-79). Newton, MA: Intercultural Resource Corporation.

Bhawuk, D. P. S., & Brislin, R. (1992). The measurement of intercultural sensitivity using the concepts of individualism and collectivism. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 16*(1992), 413-436.

Bird, A., Mendenhall, M., Stevens, M. J., & Oddou, G. (2010). Defining the content

domain of intercultural competency for global leaders. *Journal of Managerial

Psychology, 25*(8), 810-828.

Brophy, J. (2000). *Teaching*. Geneva, Switzerland: The International Bureau of

Education. Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED440066.pdf.

Burton, J. K., Moore, D. M., & Magliaro, S. G. (2008). Behaviorism and instructional

technology. In D. Jonassen (Ed), *Handbook of research for educational

communications and technology* (2nd ed.) (pp. 3-36). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence

Erlbaum Associates.

Canter, L. (1989). Assertive discipline: More than names on the board and marbles in a

jar. *The Phi Delta Kappan, 71*(1), 57-61.

Canter, L., & Canter, M. (2001). *Assertive discipline: Positive behavior management for

today's classroom* (3rd ed.). Bloomington, IL: Solution Tree.

Chambers, S. M., Henson, R. K., & Sienty, S. F. (2001). *Personality types and teaching

efficacy as predictors of classroom control orientation in beginning teachers*.

Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Southwest Educational Research

Association, New Orleans, LA.

Chandra, R. (2015). Classroom management for effective teaching. *International Journal

of Education and Psychological Research, 4*(4), 13-15.

Chen, G. M. (1997, January). *A review of the concept of intercultural sensitivity*. Paper

presented at the Biennial Convention of the Pacific and Asian Communication

Association, Honolulu, HI.

Chen, G. M., & Starosta, W. J. (2000). The development and validation of the intercultural sensitivity scale. *Human Communication, 3*, 1-15.

Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed method approaches*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

Crowne, D. P., & Marlowe, D. (1960). A new scale of social desirability independent of psychopathology. *Journal of Consulting Psychology, 24*(4), 349-354.

Cushner, K. H., McClelland, A., & Safford, P. (2015). *Human diversity in education: An intercultural approach* (8th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Darch, C. B., & Kame'enui, E. J. (2004). *Instructional classroom management: A proactive approach to behavior management.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson, Merrill, Prentice Hall.

Djigic, G., & Stojiljkovic, S. (2011). Classroom management styles, classroom climate and school achievement. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 29*, 819-828. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.11.310.

Dotterer, A. M., McHale, S. M., & Crouter, A. C. (2009). Sociocultural factors and school engagement among African American youth: The roles of racial discrimination, racial socialization, and ethnic identity. *Applied Developmental Science, 13*(2), 61-73.

Douglas, B., Lewis, C. W., Douglas, A., Scott, M. E., & Garrison-Wade, D. (2008). The impact of White teachers on the academic achievement of Black students: An exploratory qualitative analysis. *Educational Foundations*, *22*(1-2), 47-62.

Ellis, T. J., & Levy, Y. (2009). Towards a guide for novice researchers on research methodology: Review and proposed methods. *Issues in Informing Science and*

Information Technology, 6(2009), 323-337. Retrieved from

http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.362.5929&rep=

rep1&type=pdf.

Emmer, E. T., & Stough, L. M. (2001). Classroom management: A critical part of

educational psychology, with implications for teacher education. *Educational*

Psychologist, 36(2), 103-112.

Fan, W., Williams, C. M., & Corkin, D. M. (2011). A multilevel analysis of student

perceptions of school climate: The effect of social and academic risk

factors. *Psychology in the Schools*, *48*(6), 632-647.

Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Lang, A., & Buchner, A. (2007). G*Power 3: A flexible statistical

power analysis program for the social, behavioral, and biomedical sciences.

Behavior Research Methods, 39(2), 175-191.

Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics* (4th ed.). Los Angeles,

CA: Sage.

Freiberg, H. J. (2013). Classroom management and student achievement. In J. Hattie, &

E. Anderman (Eds.), *International guide to student achievement* (pp. 228-230).

New York, NY: Routledge.

Georgia Department of Education. (2015). Georgia Milestones Assessment

System. *Online Submission*. Retrieved July 6, 2017 from

http://www.gadoe.org/Curriculum-Instruction-and-Assessment/

Assessment/Pages/Georgia-Milestones-Assessment-System.aspx.

Georgia Department of Education. (2017). Student enrollment by ethnicity/race and

    gender. *Online Submission*. Retrieved July 17, 2017 from

    https://oraapp.doe.k12.ga.us/ows-bin/owa/fte_pack_ethnicsex_pub.entry_form.

Glickman, C. D., & Tamashiro, R. T. (1980). Clarifying teachers' beliefs about

    discipline. *Educational Leadership*, *37*(6), 459-464.

Governor's Office of Student Achievement. (2017a). Certified personnel data. *Online*

    Submission. Retrieved July 17, 2017 from

    https://gaawards.gosa.ga.gov/analytics/saw.dll?dashboard.

Governor's Office of Student Achievement. (2017b). Consolidated student

    performance comparison summary – by subgroup. *Online Submission*. Retrieved

    July 17, 2017 from https://gaawards.gosa.ga.gov/analytics/saw.dll?dashboard.

Governor's Office of Student Achievement. (2017c). K-12 student discipline

    dashboard. *Online Submission*. Retrieved July 17, 2017 from

    https://public.gosa.ga.gov/noauth/extensions/DisciplineDASHV1/

    DisciplineDASHV1.html#.

Green, H. E. (2014). Use of theoretical and conceptual frameworks in qualitative

    research. *Nurse Researcher, 21*(6), 34-38.

Gregory, A., Cornell, D., & Fan, X. (2011). The relationship of school structure and

    support to suspension rates for Black and White high school students. *American*

    Educational Research Journal, *48*(4), 904-934.

Gregory, A., Hafen, C. A., Ruzek, E., Mikami, A. Y., Allen, J. P., & Pianta, R. C. (2016).

    Closing the racial discipline gap in classrooms by changing teacher practice.

    School Psych Review, 45(2), 171-191.

Gregory, A., Skiba, R. J., & Noguera, P. A. (2010). The achievement gap and the discipline gap: Two sides of the same coin? *Educational Researcher*, *39*(1), 59-68.

Griffin, C. B. (2014). School racial climate and the academic achievement of African American high school students: The mediating role of school engagement. (Columbia, The University of South Carolina). Retrieved from Scholar Commons (2602).

Grusec, J. E. (1992). Social learning theory and developmental psychology: The legacies of Robert Sears and Albert Bandura. *Developmental Psychology*, *28*(5), 776-786.

Gumuseli, A. I., & Eryilmaz, A. (2011). The measurement of collaborative school culture (CSC) on Turkish schools. *New Horizons in Education*, *59*(2), 13-26.

Hammer, M. R., Bennett, M. J., & Wiseman, R. (2003). Measuring intercultural sensitivity: The intercultural development inventory. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, *27*(4), 421-443.

Harper, S. R., & Davis III, C. H. (2012). They (don't) care about education: A counternarrative on Black male students' responses to inequitable schooling. *Educational Foundations*, *26*(1-2), 103-120.

Heinrich-Heine University. (2017). G*Power statistical power analyses for Windows and Mac. Retrieved from http://www.gpower.hhu.de/.

Hopson, L. M., & Lee, E. (2011). Mitigating the effect of family poverty on academic and behavioral outcomes: The role of school climate in middle and high school. *Children and Youth Services Review*, *33*(11), 2221-2229.

Huitt, W. (2009). Humanism and open education. *Educational Psychology Interactive*.

Valdosta, GA: Valdosta State University. Retrieved

from http://www.edpsycinteractive.org/topics/affect/humed.html.

Irvin, L. K., Horner, R. H., Ingram, K., Todd, A. W., Sugai, G., Sampson, N. K., &

Boland, J. B. (2006). Using office discipline referral data for decision making

about student behavior in elementary and middle schools: An empirical evaluation

of validity. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions, 8*(1), 10-23.

Irving, M. A., & Hudley, C. (2008). Cultural identification and academic achievement

among African American males. *Journal of Advanced Academics, 19*(4), 676-698.

Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ822326.pdf.

Johnson, R. B. (2001). Toward a new classification of nonexperimental quantitative

research. *Educational Researcher, 30*(2), 3-13.

Kahn, L. G., Lindstrom, L., & Murray, C. (2014). Factors contributing to preservice

teachers' beliefs about diversity. *Teacher Education Quarterly, 41*(4), 53.

Kapoor, S., Blue, J., Konsky, C., & Drager, M. (2001). Intercultural sensitivity: A

comparison of American and Japanese value preference. *Intercultural

Communication Studies, 10*(2), 215-234.

Kelsey, K. D., W. Weeks, & R. Terry, Sr. (2002). Important issues facing agriculture in

Oklahoma: An analysis of agricultural leaders' perspectives. *Journal of Southern

Agricultural Education Research, 52(1)*, 52-61.

Klein, J., Cornell, D., & Konold, T. (2012). Relationships between bullying, school

climate, and student risk behaviors. *School Psychology Quarterly*, *27*(3), 154-169.

Kothari, C. R. (2004). *Research methodology: Methods and techniques*. Daryaganj, New
  Delhi: New Age International.

Leedy, P. D., & Ormrod, J. E. (2010). *Practical research planning and design* (9th ed).
  Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.

Leung, K., Ang, S., & Tan, M. L. (2014). Intercultural competence. *The Annual Review
  of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior, 1*(1), 489-519.
  Leutwyler, B., & Mantel, C. (2014). Teachers' beliefs and intercultural
  sensitivity. In G. Mészáros & F. Körtvélyesi (Eds.), *Social Justice and Diversity
  in Teacher Education. Proceedings of the ATEE Winter Conference 2014* (pp.
  145-156). Budapest, India: Association for Teacher Education in Europe.

Levy, O., Taylor, S., Boyacigiller, N. A., & Beechler, S. (2007). Global mindset: A
  review and proposed extensions. *The Global Mindset: Advances in International
  Management, 19*(2007), 13-52.

Lomax, R. G., & Hans-Vaughn, D. L. (2012). *An introduction to statistical concepts*
  (3rd ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.

Lopes, J., & Santos, M. (2013). Teachers' beliefs, teachers' goals and teachers'
  classroom management: A study of primary teachers. *Revista de Psicodidactica,
  18*(1), 5-24.

Mahoney, S. L., & Schamber, J. F. (2004). Exploring the application of a developmental
  model of intercultural sensitivity to a general education curriculum on diversity.
  The Journal of General Education, 53(3-4), 311-334.

Makarova, E., & Herzog, W. (2013). Teachers' acculturation attitudes and their
  classroom management: An empirical study among fifth-grade primary school

teachers in Switzerland. *European Educational Research Journal*, *12*(2), 256–269.

Martin, N. K., & Sass, D. A. (2010). Construct validation of the behavior and instructional management scale. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *26*(5), 1124-1135.

Martin, N. K., Yin, Z., & Mayall, H. (2008). The attitudes & beliefs on classroom control inventory-revised and revisited: A continuation of construct validation. *Journal of Classroom Interaction, 42*(2), 11-20.

McGaghie, W. C., Bordage, G., & Shea, J. A. (2001). Manuscript introduction: Problem statement, conceptual framework, and research question. *Academic Medicine, 76*(9), 923-924.

McNulty, R. J., & Quaglia, R. J. (2007). Rigor, relevance, and relationships. *School Administrator*, *64*(8), 18-23.

Medway, R. L., & Tourangeau, R. (2015). Response quality in telephone surveys. Do prepaid cash incentives make a difference? *Public Opinion Quarterly, 79*(2), 524-543.

Metropolitan Center for Urban Education. (2008). Culturally responsive classroom management strategies. New York, NY: NYU Steinhardt. Retrieved from http://steinhardt.nyu.edu/scmsAdmin/uploads/005/121/Culturally%20Responsive%20Classroom%20Mgmt%20Strat2.pdf.

Miller, A. L. (2012). Investigating social desirability bias in student self-report surveys. *Educational Research Quarterly, 36*(1), 30-47.

Moule, J. (2012). *Cultural competence: A primer for educators* (2nd ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

National Center for Educational Statistics. (2016a). *Teacher trends*. Washington, DC: Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education. Retrieved from http://nces.ed.gov/fastfacts/display.asp?id=28

National Center for Educational Statistics. (2016b). *Enrollment and percentage distribution of enrollment in public elementary and secondary schools, by race/ethnicity and region: Selected years, fall 1995 through fall 2023.* Washington, DC: Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education. Retrieved from http://nces.ed.gov/programs/digest/d13/tables/dt13_203.50.asp.

National Center for Educational Statistics. (2017a). About NAEP. Retrieved from https://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/about/.

National Center for Educational Statistics. (2017b). NAEP mathematics and reading assessments. Retrieved from https://www.nationsreportcard.gov/reading_math_2017_highlights/.

Nederhof, A. J. (1985). Methods of coping with social desirability bias: A review. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 15*(3), 263-280.

Nulty, D. D. (2008). The adequacy of response rates to online and paper surveys: what can be done? *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 33*(3), 301-314.

O'Neel, C. G., Ruble, D. N., & Fuligni, A. J. (2011). Ethnic stigma, academic anxiety, and intrinsic motivation in middle childhood. *Child Development, 82*(5), 1470-1485.

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. (2009) *Creating effective teaching and learning environments: First results from TALIS*. Paris, France: OECD Publishing.

Pajares, M. F. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research, 62*(3), 307-332.

Reardon, S. F., Valentino, R., Kalogrides, D., Shores, K. A., & Greenberg, E. H. (2013). Patterns and trends in racial academic achievement gaps among states, 1999-2011. Unpublished Working Paper. Center for Education Policy Analysis, Stanford University.

Rhinesmith, S. H. (1992). Global mindsets for global managers. *Training & Development, 46*(10), 63-69.

Ridley, C. R., Mendoza, D. W., Kanitz, B. E., Angermeier, L., & Zenk, R. (1994). Cultural sensitivity in multicultural counseling: A perceptual schema model. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 41*(2), 125-136.

Santiago, D. (2012). A Study of the relationship between middle school and high school teachers instructional and behavior management practices and demographic variables. (Doctoral dissertation). *Doctoral Dissertations and Projects.* Paper 616. Retrieved from http://digitalcommons.liberty.edu/doctoral/616.

Sass, D.A., Lopes, J., Olivera, C., & Martin, N. K. (2016). An evaluation of the behavior and instructional management scale's psychometric properties using Portuguese teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 55*, 279-290.

Skiba, R. J., Horner, R. H., Chung, C., Rausch, M. K., May, S. L., & Tobin, T. (2011). Race is not neutral: A national investigation of African American and Latino disproportionality in school discipline. *School Psychology Review, 40*(1), 85-107.

Slavin, R. E. (2003). *Educational Psychology: Theory and Practice* (3rd ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Smith, W. A., Hung, M., & Franklin, J. D. (2011). Racial battle fatigue and the miseducation of Black men: Racial microaggressions, societal problems, and environmental stress. *The Journal of Negro Education, 80*(1), 63-82.

Sokal, L., Smith, D. G., & Mowat, H. (2003). Alternative certification teachers' attitude toward classroom management. *The High School Journal, 86*(3), 8-16.

Starks, H., & Trinidad, S. B. (2007). Choose your method: A comparison of phenomenology, discourse analysis, and grounded theory. *Qualitative Health Research, 17*(10), 1372-1380.

Sutherland, K. S., Lewis-Palmer, T., Stichter, J., & Morgan, P. L. (2008). Examining the influence of behavior and classroom context on the behavioral and academic outcomes for students with emotional or behavior disorders. *The Journal of Special Education, 41*(4), 223-233.

Swain-Bradway, J., Pinkney, C., & Flannery, K. B. (2015). Implementing schoolwide positive behavior interventions and supports in high schools: Contextual factors and stages of implementation. *Teaching Exceptional Children, 47*(5), 245–255.

Swinton, A. D., Kurtz-Costes, B., Rowley, S. J., & Okeke-Adeyanju, N. (2011). A longitudinal examination of African American adolescents' attributions about achievement outcomes. *Child Development*, *82*(5), 1486-1500.

Talvio, M., Lonka, K., Komulainen, E., Kuusela, M., & Lintunen, T. (2015). Revisiting Gordon's teacher effectiveness training: An intervention study on teachers' social and emotional learning. *Electronic Journal of Research in Educational Psychology, 11*(3), 693-716. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.14204/ejrep.31.13073.

Teddie, C., & Tashakkori, A. (2009). *Foundations of mixed methods research: Integrating quantitative and qualitative approaches in the social and behavioral sciences.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Thapa, A., Cohen, J., Guffey, S., & Higgins-D'Alessandro, A. (2013). A review of school climate research. *Review of Educational Research*, *83*(3), 357-385.

Unal, Z., & Unal, A. (2012). The impact of years of teaching experience on the classroom management approaches of elementary school teachers. *International Journal of Instruction, 5*(2), 41-60.

Usher, A., & Kober, N. (2012). *What is motivation and why does it matter?* Washington, DC: Center on Education Policy.

Van Der Zee, K. I., & Van Oudenhoven, J. P. (2000). The Multicultural Personality Questionnaire: A multidimensional instrument of multicultural effectiveness. *European Journal of Personality*, *14*(4), 291-309.

Van Tartwijk, J., den Brok, P., Veldman, I., & Webbels, T. (2009). Teachers' practical knowledge about classroom management in multicultural classrooms. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 25*(3), 453-460.

Vargas, S. (2003). Critical race theory in education: Theory, praxis and recommendations. In: G. Lopez, & L. Parker (Eds.). *Interrogating racism in qualitative research methodology* (pp. 1-18). New York, NY: Peter Lang.

Von Behren, D. (2015). A study of the impact of intercultural competency training on new teachers in response to changing student demographics. (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. 3739756)

Weinstein, C., Curran, M., & Tomlinson-Clark, S. (2003). Culturally responsive classroom management: Awareness into action. *Theory into Practice, 42*(2), 269-276.

Weinstein, C. S., Tomlinson-Clarke, S., & Curran, M. (2004). Toward a conception of culturally responsive classroom management. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *55*(1), 25-38.

Whaley, A. L. (2008). Cultural sensitivity and cultural competence: Toward clarity of definitions in cross-cultural counselling and psychotherapy. *Counselling Psychology Quarterly, 21*(3), 215-222.

Whitaker, D., Graham, C., Severtson, S. G., Furr-Holden, C. D., & Latimer, W. (2011). Neighborhood & family effects on learning motivation among urban African American middle school youth. *Journal of Child and Family Studies, 21*, 131-138.

Williams, C. (2007). Research methods. *Journal of Business & Economic Research, 5*(3), 65-72.

Wolfgang, C. H., & Glickman, C. D. (1980). *Solving discipline problems: strategies for classroom teachers* (2nd ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Woolley, M. E., Strutchens, M. E., Gilber, M. C., & Martin, W. G. (2010). Mathematics success of Black middle school students: Direct and indirect effects of teacher expectations and reform practices. *The Negro Educational Review, 61*(1-4), 41-59.

Wu, J. F. (2015). Examining Chen and Starosta's model of intercultural sensitivity in the Taiwanese cultural context. *International Journal of Modern Education and Computer Science, 7*(6), 1-8.

Yang, Y., & Montgomery, D. (2013). Gaps or bridges in multicultural teacher education: A Q study of attitudes towards student diversity. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 30*(2013), 27-37.

Yilmaz, F., & Göçen, S. (2013). Investigation of the prospective primary teachers' intercultural sensitivity levels in terms of certain variables. *Adiyaman University Journal of Social Sciences, 6*(15), 373-392.

Yu, H. (2012). A study of engineering students' intercultural competence and its implications for teaching. *IEEE Transactions on Professional Communication*, *55*(2), 185-201.

Yu, T., & Chen, G. M. (2008). Intercultural sensitivity and conflict management styles in cross-cultural organizational situations. *Intercultural Communication Studies, 17*(20), 149-161.

Zullig, K. J., Huebner, E. S., & Patton, J. M. (2011). Relationships among school climate domains and school satisfaction. *Psychology in the Schools*, *48*(2), 133-145.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

INTERCULTURAL SENSITIVITY SCALE

Directions: For each statement below, please mark the response that best describes your thoughts on cultural interactions. There are no right or wrong answers, so please respond as honestly as possible.	
5=strongly agree, 4=agree, 3=uncertain,2=disagree, 1=strongly disagree	Please score each item from 1-5.
1. People should enjoy interacting with people from different cultures.	
2. People should think that people from other cultures are narrow-minded.	
3. People should be pretty sure of themselves in interacting with people from different cultures.	
4. People should find it very hard to talk in front of people from different cultures.	
5. People should always know what to say when interacting with people from different cultures.	
6. People can be as sociable as they want to be when interacting with people from different cultures.	
7. People should not like to be with people from different cultures.	
8. People should respect the values of people from different cultures.	
9. People get upset easily when interacting with people from different cultures.	
10. People should feel confident when interacting with people from different cultures.	
11. People tend to wait before forming an impression of culturally-distinct counterparts.	
12. People often get discouraged when they are with people from different cultures.	
13. People should be open-minded to people from different cultures.	
14. People should be very observant when interacting with people from different cultures.	
15. People often feel useless when interacting with people from different cultures.	
16. People should respect the ways people from different cultures behave.	
17. People should try to obtain as much information as they can when interacting with people from different cultures.	

18. People should not accept the opinions of people from different cultures.	
19. People should be sensitive to their culturally-distinct counterpart's subtle meanings during our interaction.	
20. People should think their culture is better than other cultures.	
21. People should give positive responses to their culturally different counterpart during our interaction.	
22. People try avoid those situations where they will have to deal with culturally-distinct persons.	
23. People often show their culturally-distinct counterpart their understanding through verbal or nonverbal cues.	
24. People should have a feeling of enjoyment towards differences between my culturally-distinct counterpart and me.	

APPENDIX B

PERMISSION TO USE THE INTERCULTURAL SENSITIVITY SURVEY (ISS)

from:	**Nigel Walker**<walker_nigel@columbusstate.edu>
to:	gmchen@uri.edu
date:	Sun, Apr 9, 2017 at 6:12 PM
subject:	Permission to use the ISS
mailed-by:	columbusstate.edu

Dr. Chen,
I have been reading all of the research done using the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale (ISS) and have become interested in using it for my research. I have been looking for an instrument for my dissertation topic, Analyzing Teacher Perceptions of Classroom Management and Intercultural Sensitivity. It is a descriptive study focusing on internal factors that potentially influence academic and discipline gaps that exist between minority students and their peers.
If granted permission to do the study, I would like to survey a sample of high school and middle school teachers using the ISS along with a classroom management scale to describe trends that exist in a rural school system in Georgia. Being labeled as at-risk in my youth and rising to ranks of leadership in education and being on the urge of obtaining a doctoral degree, I seek to use this as an opportunity to contribute to the understanding of creating learning environments that are conducive to achievement for all students. I also hope to add to the research of closing achievement and discipline gaps among minority students and their peers.
Thank you for your consideration of allowing me to use the ISS as part of my research. I hope to hear from you soon.

Nigel L. Walker

from:	**Guo-Ming Chen** <gmchen@uri.edu>
to:	Nigel Walker <walker_nigel@columbusstate.edu>
date:	Tue, Apr 11, 2017 at 11:44 AM
subject:	Re: Permission to use the ISS

mailed-by:	uri.edu
signed-by:	uri.edu

Hi Nigel, thanks for the request. Yes, you have our permission to use the ISS for non-profit research purpose.

Best wishes to your research.

guo-ming
--
****
Guo-Ming Chen, Professor
IAICS President/CMR Co-Editor
Department of Communication Studies
University of Rhode Island
10 Lippitt Road, 310 Davis Hall
Kingston, RI 02881, USA
Tel: 401-874-4731/Fax: 401-874-4722
URL: http://web.uri.edu/gmchen/
URL: http://www.uri.edu/iaics/
URL: http://www.chinamediaresearch.net/
****

APPENDIX C

BEHAVIORAL AND INSTRUCTIONAL MANAGEMENT SCALE

Directions: For each statement below, please mark the response that best describes what you do in the classroom. There are no right or wrong answers, so please respond as honestly as possible.

6=strongly agree, 5=agree, 4=slightly agre,3=slightly disagree, 2=disagree, 1=strongly disagree

	Please score each item from 1 - 6.
Teachers should nearly always intervene when students talk at inappropriate times during class.	
Teachers should strongly limit student chatter in the classroom.	
Teachers should nearly always use collaborative learning to explore questions in the classroom.	
Teachers should engage students in active discussions about issues related to real world applications.	
Teachers should nearly always use group work in the classroom.	
Teachers should use student input when creating student projects.	
Teachers should firmly redirect students back to the topic when they get off task.	
Teachers should insist that students in their class follow the rules at all times.	
Teachers should nearly always adjust instruction in response to individual student needs.	
Teachers should strictly enforce rules to control student behavior.	
If a student's behavior is defiant, teachers should demand that they comply with my classroom rules.	
Teachers should nearly always use a teaching approach that encourages interaction among students.	

APPENDIX D

PERMISSION TO USE BEHAVIORAL AND
INSTRUCTION MANAGEMENT SCALE (BIMS)

Nigel Walker

Apr 7, 2017

Dr. Sass,
I have been reading all of the research done using the Behavioral and
Instructional Management Scale (BIMS) and am encouraged by its construct
validity. I have been looking for an instrument for my dissertation topic,
Analyzing Teacher Perceptions of Classroom Management and Intercultural
Sensitivity. It is a descriptive study focusing on internal factors that potentially
influence academic and discipline gaps that exist between minority students
and their peers.
If granted permission to do the study, I would like to survey a sample of high
school and middle school teachers using the 12-item BIMS and an instrument
on intercultural sensitivity to describe trends that exist in a rural school system
in Georgia. Being labeled as at-risk in my youth and rising to ranks of
leadership in education and being on the urge of obtaining a doctoral degree, I
seek to use this as an opportunity to contribute to the understanding of
creating learning environments that are conducive to achievement for all
students. I also hope to add to the research of closing achievement and
discipline gaps among minority students and their peers.
Thank you for your consideration of allowing me to use the BIMS as part of my
research. I hope to hear from you soon.

Nigel L. Walker

Daniel A. Sass to you

Apr 7, 2017

Hello,

You are welcome to use the measure, but you might consider using the 24- or
14-item measure. The reason is provided in the Sass et al. (2016) paper in
teaching and teacher education.

Dan

Nigel Walker

Apr 7, 2017

Dr. Martin,
I have been reading all of the research done using the Behavioral and Instructional Management Scale (BIMS) and am encouraged by its construct validity. I have been looking for an instrument for my dissertation topic, Analyzing Teacher Perceptions of Classroom Management and Intercultural Sensitivity. It is a descriptive study focusing on internal factors that potentially influence academic and discipline gaps that exist between minority students and their peers.
If granted permission to do the study, I would like to survey a sample of high school and middle school teachers using the 12-item BIMS and an instrument on intercultural sensitivity to describe trends that exist in a rural school system in Georgia. Being labeled as at-risk in my youth and rising to ranks of leadership in education and being on the urge of obtaining a doctoral degree, I seek to use this as an opportunity to contribute to the understanding of creating learning environments that are conducive to achievement for all students. I also hope to add to the research of closing achievement and discipline gaps among minority students and their peers.
Thank you for your consideration of allowing me to use the BIMS as part of my research. I hope to hear from you soon.

Nigel L. Walker

Nancy K. Martin to you

Apr 10, 2017

Nigel,
You definitely have my permission to use the BIMS in your research. The final version of the paper is attached. I wish you the best of luck with your study.
Nancy

APPENDIX E

INTERCULTURAL SENSITIVITY AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT SCALE SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Intercultural Sensitivity and Classroom Management

Demographic Information

* 1. What is your gender?

- ○ Female
- ○ Male

* 2. Which race/ethnicity best describes you? (Please choose only one.)

- ○ American Indian or Alaskan Native
- ○ Asian / Pacific Islander
- ○ Black or African American
- ○ Multiple ethnicity / Other (please specify)

- ○ Hispanic
- ○ White / Caucasian

* 3. Please select your years of experience.

- ○ 0 - 5 years
- ○ 6 - 10 years
- ○ 11 - 15 years

- ○ 16 - 20 years
- ○ 21+ years

* 4. Please select your grade level.

- ○ Middle school
- ○ High school

Intercultural Sensitivity and Classroom Management

Intercultural Sensitivity (ISS)

* 5. Please mark the item that best describes your belief for each statement. There are no right or wrong answers, so please answer honestly.

	strongly agree	agree	uncertain	disagree	strongly disagree
People should enjoy interacting with people from different cultures.	○	○	○	○	○
People should think that people from other cultures are narrow-minded.	○	○	○	○	○
People should be pretty sure of themselves in interacting with people from different cultures.	○	○	○	○	○
People should find it very hard to talk in front of people from different cultures.	○	○	○	○	○
People should always know what to say when interacting with people from different cultures.	○	○	○	○	○
People can be as sociable as they want to be when interacting with people from different cultures.	○	○	○	○	○
People should not like to be with people from different cultures.	○	○	○	○	○
People should respect the values of people from different cultures.	○	○	○	○	○
People get upset easily when interacting with people from different cultures.	○	○	○	○	○
People should feel confident when interacting with people from different cultures.	○	○	○	○	○
People tend to wait before forming an impression of culturally-distinct counterparts.	○	○	○	○	○
People often get discouraged when they are with people from different cultures.	○	○	○	○	○

	strongly agree	agree	uncertain	disagree	strongly disagree
People should be open-minded to people from different cultures.	○	○	○	○	○
People should be very observant when interacting with people from different cultures.	○	○	○	○	○
People often feel useless when interacting with people from different cultures.	○	○	○	○	○
People should respect the ways people from different cultures behave.	○	○	○	○	○
People should try to obtain as much information as they can when interacting with people from different cultures.	○	○	○	○	○
People should not accept the opinions of people from different cultures.	○	○	○	○	○
People should be sensitive to their culturally-distinct counterpart's subtle meanings during our interaction.	○	○	○	○	○
People should think their culture is better than other cultures.	○	○	○	○	○
People should give positive responses to their culturally different counterpart during our interaction.	○	○	○	○	○
People try avoid those situations where they will have to deal with culturally-distinct persons.	○	○	○	○	○

	strongly agree	agree	uncertain	disagree	strongly disagree
People often show their culturally-distinct counterpart their understanding through verbal or nonverbal cues.	○	○	○	○	○
People should have a feeling of enjoyment towards differences between my culturally-distinct counterpart and me.	○	○	○	○	○

Intercultural Sensitivity and Classroom Management

Classroom Management Practices (BIMS)

* 6. Please mark the item that best describes your belief for each statement. There are no right or wrong answers, so please answer honestly.

	strongly agree	agree	slightly agree	slightly disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
Teachers should nearly always intervene when students talk at inappropriate times during class.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Teachers should strongly limit student chatter in the classroom.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Teachers should nearly always use collaborative learning to explore questions in the classroom.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Teachers should engage students in active discussions about issues related to real world applications.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Teachers should nearly always use group work in the classroom.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Teachers should use student input when creating student projects.	○	○	○	○	○	○

	strongly agree	agree	slightly agree	slightly disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
Teachers should firmly redirect students back to the topic when they get off task.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Teachers should insist that students in their class follow the rules at all times.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Teachers should nearly always adjust instruction in response to individual student needs.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Teachers should strictly enforce rules to control student behavior.	○	○	○	○	○	○
If a student's behavior is defiant, teachers should demand that they comply with my classroom rules.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Teachers should nearly always use a teaching approach that encourages interaction among students.	○	○	○	○	○	○

APPENDIX F

COLUMBUS STATE UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD (IRB) APPROVAL

Exempt Approval Protocol 18-088

CSU IRB <irb@columbusstate.edu>   Wed, May 2, 2018, 11:24
                                                                          AM

to me, Marguerite, CSU, Institutional

Institutional Review Board
Columbus State University

Date: 5/2/18
Protocol Number: 18-088
Protocol Title: Teacher Perceptions of Intercultural Sensitivity and Their Classroom
Management Practices: An Empirical Study among Middle and High School Teachers
in a Georgia School System
Principal Investigator: Nigel Walker
Co-Principal Investigator: Margie Yates

Dear Nigel Walker:

The Columbus State University Institutional Review Board or representative(s) has
reviewed your research proposal identified above. It has been determined that the
project is classified as exempt under 45 CFR 46.101(b) of the federal regulations and
has been approved. You may begin your research project immediately.

Please note any changes to the protocol must be submitted in writing to
the IRB before implementing the change(s). Any adverse events, unexpected
problems, and/or incidents that involve risks to participants and/or others must be
reported to the Institutional Review Board at irb@columbusstate.edu or (706) 507-
8634.

If you have further questions, please feel free to contact the IRB.

Sincerely,

Amber Dees, IRB Coordinator

Institutional Review Board
Columbus State University

APPENDIX G

PARTICIPATING SCHOOL SYSTEM APPROVAL

APPLICANT AGREEMENT/CONDITIONS
FOR CONDUCTING RESEARCH IN TROUP COUNTY SCHOOLS

I understand that no participant(s) or school(s) will be identifiable through this research project. I recognize that the research is not completed until a copy of the results is sent to the address listed below:

Please attach a copy of all correspondence (cover letter, questionnaire(s), etc.) that you intend to send to Troup County staff. Please send this completed application with requested materials to:

Jo Beth Lanier
Director of School Improvement & Assessment
Troup County Schools
100 North Davis Road, Building C
LaGrange, GA. 30241

No students will be surveyed as part of this study. I realize that I will be notified in writing concerning the status of this research.

_____   3/12/18
Signature of Applicant   Date

FOR SYSTEM'S USE ONLY:

Date application received: 3/12/18

Date applicant notified: 3/16/18

Approved ✓   Not Approved _____

Authorized Signature _____   Date 3/16/18

3

APPENDIX H

PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS LETTERS

Principal and Participant E-mails

Dear Principal,

My name is Nigel L. Walker and I am a doctoral candidate at Columbus State University in Columbus, GA. I am conducting a study entitled: Teacher Perceptions of Intercultural Sensitivity and Their Classroom Management Practices: An Empirical Study among Middle and High School Teachers in a Georgia School System. I am asking for your permission to solicit your certified teachers for participation in this study by filling out a brief survey on Intercultural Sensitivity and Classroom Management Practices. A letter explaining the study and expectations of participation is attached. Please read the letter, and if you consent, send me the group email name that I can used to contact all of your certified personnel. For non-respondents, I would also like to do a follow up in person to deliver paper copies of the survey. I will contact you for advice on the best way to carry out the follow up, if necessary. Thank you in advance for your participation. If you have questions, please contact me walker_nigel@columbusstate.edu or call me at 404-307-2092.

To all Certified Teachers:

My name is Nigel L. Walker and I am a doctoral candidate at Columbus State University in Columbus, GA. I am conducting a study entitled: Teacher Perceptions of Intercultural Sensitivity and Their Classroom Management Practices: An Empirical Study among Middle and High School Teachers in a Georgia School System. I am asking for your participation in this study by filling out a brief survey on Intercultural Sensitivity and Classroom Management Practices. Participation is totally voluntary and responses will remain anonymous. A letter explaining the study and expectations of participation is attached. Please read the letter, and if you consent to participate, print and sign. Once you have returned the informed consent form, a follow-up email will be sent with the link to the survey and the password. Please fill out the brief survey at your earliest convenience. You will have 10 days to complete. Please do not share or discuss the questions with other teachers until after the deadline. You may refuse to participate at any time without penalty. Refusing to participate will in no way affect you or your standing as an educator. Thank you in advance for your participation. If you have questions, please contact me walker_nigel@columbusstate.edu or call me at 404-307-2092.

APPENDIX I

INFORMED CONSENT LETTER

COLUMBUS STATE
UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
Informed Consent Form

You are being asked to participate in a research project conducted by Nigel L. Walker, a doctoral student in the Department of Counseling, Foundations, and Leadership at Columbus State University. The project is being supervised by Dr. Marguerite Yates, Assistant Director of the Graduate School and Associate Professor of Education.

I. Purpose:
The purpose of this project is to determine if there is a relationship between the teachers' perceptions of intercultural sensitivity and classroom management practices.

II. Procedures:
As a participant, you are being asked to complete a questionnaire designed specifically to evaluate your attitudes and beliefs about intercultural sensitivity and behavior and instructional management techniques, as well as a few demographic questions. Completing the questionnaires should take no longer than 5 minutes. Data is not expected to be used in any further research projects.

III. Possible Risks or Discomforts:
There are no known risks associated with participating in this study. No identifying information will be shared with any individuals and the results will be reported only in aggregate form so that no individual can be identified. Online questionnaires will be collected by the researcher upon completion and no other identifiable information (IP address) will be obtained in the process.

IV. Potential Benefits:
Although you will receive no direct benefit from your participation in this study, your participation will help us better understand if intercultural sensitivity is related to teachers' classroom management practices and to determine if the survey instrument can be used as a needs assessment tool for professional development in the particular area.

V. Costs and Compensation:
There are no costs associated with participation in this study. Compensation will be granted in the form of a drawing. Each participant will be entered into drawing for one of forty $5 Chick-fil-a gift cards.

VI. Confidentiality:
To protect the identification of the participants who participate in this study, Survey Monkey will be used to turn off the option of Saving the IP addresses. The survey will also be password encrypted to protect from unauthorized access. Completed surveys will be kept secure on a password protected file on the researcher's password protected computer. Paper surveys will be kept in a locked filing cabinet of which only the

Revised 10/01/2017

researcher has access. All information gained from individual questionnaires will be kept confidential, seen by no one other than the researcher and Dr. Dawn Frazier, methodology member of dissertation committee. No identifiable information will be published in the dissertation. All data will be securely destroyed six months after the successful completion of the study.

VII. Withdrawal:

Your participation in this research study is voluntary. You may withdraw from the study at any time, and your withdrawal will not involve penalty or loss of benefits.

For additional information about this research project, you may contact the Principal Investigator, Nigel L. Walker at 404-307-2092 or walker_nigel@columbusstate.edu. If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact Columbus State University Institutional Review Board at irb@columbusstate.edu.

I have read this informed consent form. If I had any questions, they have been answered. By signing this form, I agree to participate in this research project.

_____   _____
Signature of Participant   Date