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The Influence of Adult Attachment Orientations and Multicultural Competence on Higher Education Faculty Perceptions of ELL Students

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The Influence of Adult Attachment Orientations and Multicultural Competence on Higher Education Faculty Perceptions of ELL Students

A Graduate Thesis

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by

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Abstract

The purpose of this investigation was to explore the influence of adult attachment orientations and multicultural competence on higher education faculty perceptions of ELL (English Language Learner) students. My primary research question is whether difficulty working with ELL students, from the perspective of faculty members, is associated with individual differences in adult attachment orientations or cultural competence. There were 60 faculty members from three Midwestern American universities who completed the survey. Faculty perceptions, the dependent variable, were measured through faculty reports of their attitudes towards ELL students and their perceived adequacy of the English language proficiency of ELL students. The independent variables included adult attachment insecurity (i.e., adult attachment anxiety and adult attachment avoidance) and multicultural competence (i.e., personal sense of cultural awareness and self-efficacy in teaching culturally diverse students). Correlations to assess bivariate relationships among all the primary variables indicated a negative, moderate, and significant relationship between one aspect of multicultural competence, multicultural teaching efficacy, and one aspect of faculty perceptions, faculty attitudes towards ELL students. Limitations and implications of the findings were discussed.
Acknowledgements

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American college students who are English language learners (ELL) are increasing in number (Ignash, 1992). ELL students are students for whom English is either a second or an additional language (English as a second language is known as ESL, but English can be a third, fourth, or fifth language). These students are nonnative English speakers and include both domestic and international students. Little attention has been given to ELL students, despite the increasing culturally diverse population of students in US universities (Halic, Greenberg, & Paulus, 2009; Trice, 2003). Highlighting this phenomenon, Padilla (2012) recently reported that no data on ELL students’ enrollment and retention rates are published by the National Center for Education Statistics. One explanation might be the difficulty in identifying these students (Padilla). In higher education, recent statistics indicated a growing enrollment in universities, which includes growth from 4% to 15% for Latino/a students and from 2% to 6% for Asian and Pacific Islander students (U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics [USDOE, NCES] 2015a). In addition, 4% of American higher education enrollment consists of international students (Institute of International Education [IIS], 2014). These numbers continue to grow each year (IIS). For instance, during the academic year 2013-2014, over 886,000 international students were enrolled in American colleges and universities, which was an increase of 8% from the previous academic year (IIS). By 2026, the proportion of White Anglo-American students is expected to be only around 30%, compared to 70% in 1990 (Latham, 1997).

Although the number of ELL students in American colleges and universities are expected to drastically increase each academic year, about 80% of higher education faculty members are White or European American (USDOE, NCES, 2015a) and so can be assumed to be
predominantly native English speakers. Because this gap (numerical and cultural) can affect the educational settings and ELL students, particular attention should be given to the needs and challenges of non-Anglo-American students (Halic et al., 2009; Padilla, 2012; Trice, 2003). In several studies of their perceptions of their academic experiences, both international and domestic ELL students consistently reported a feeling of being undervalued by faculty (Halic et al.; Pyne & Means, 2013; Torres & Baxter Magolda, 2004). For instance, international students reported feeling out of place: “you know you sound wrong” (Halic et al., p. 79). Domestic Latino students reported feeling less supported by faculty who generally viewed them as intruders or strangers and ignored their academic identities and experiences (Delgado Bernal; Pyne & Means). Thus, among challenges ELL students face are limitations related to higher education faculty perceptions and expectations, which seem to be primarily influenced by faculty perceptions of students’ English language abilities and faculty attitudes towards accents (Halic et al.). However, to date these concerns have not been well studied.

In the United States, only two studies were focused upon specific challenges students face with respect to higher education faculty perceptions (Andrade, 2010; Trice, 2003). In both, faculty reported ELL students’ English language proficiency as a main concern and ELL students as difficult to teach. These authors concluded that faculty members tended to prefer domestic native English speaking students over ELL students, whom they tended to view as only filling enrollment needs (Trice). In addition, faculty expressed no interest in contributing to students’ English language skill improvement (Andrade). However, because both of these studies were qualitative, findings should be tested on larger samples using quantitative methods. The present study was the first quantitative study to explore faculty perceptions of ELL students.
Furthermore, one interpretation of faculty negative attitudes towards ELL students is that faculty who perceive culturally and linguistically different students as not fitting into the academic environment are considered prejudiced and in need of more multicultural education or awareness (Keengwe, 2010; Xu & Drame, 2007). In primary and secondary schools, researchers found that teachers had different expectations of their students, which were based on students’ ethnic and cultural backgrounds (Tenenbaum & Ruck, 2007). Specifically, teachers held lower expectations and more negative perceptions of minority ELL or bilingual students (e.g., Latinos/as) than White European American students, suggesting that teacher perceptions may be due to prejudiced perceptions of cultural differences. Such negative attitudes, perceptions, and expectations detrimentally affected vulnerable ELL students (Hinnant, O’Brien, & Ghazarian, 2009; Sorhagen, 2013). That is, self-fulfilling prophecy effects were associated with poorer academic outcomes (Guyl, Madon, Prieto, & Scherr, 2010; Hill & Craft, 2003) and higher levels of mental health problems (Tummala-Nara & Claudius, 2013), including low self-esteem (Good, 1981), resulting in negative experiences in classrooms for both students and teachers.

Another explanation for teachers’ negative perceptions of ELL students might be that they are ill-prepared to teach students from different cultural backgrounds because of a lack of multicultural teaching training. Recently, elementary school teachers reported the benefits of gaining multicultural competence in cross-cultural teaching settings, which consists of holding more positive perceptions of and providing equal educational opportunities for all students, including ELL students (Keengwe, 2010). In sum, teachers reported that gaining multicultural competence as teachers increased both their positive experiences with diversity and their positive experiences of teaching diverse students. Therefore, it seems worth looking into faculty cultural competence, both their personal sense of cultural awareness and their multicultural teaching
efficacy, as possible cultural influences on faculty perceptions of ELL students. Including this variable is useful as a means to improve faculty experiences with these groups of students as well as students’ academic experiences because additional training can easily be provided.

Prejudice or negatives perceptions might be explained in part by individual differences in adult attachment orientations. Various researchers have indicated that adult attachment orientations contribute to predicting the quality of interpersonal relationships, including the relationships between “in-group” and “out-group” members; such that insecurely attached persons engage in more prejudiced behaviors or negative attitudes towards diversity than securely attached persons (Carnelley & Rowe, 2007; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2001, 2007; Rowe & Carnelley, 2003). However, to date, only some types of prejudiced attitudes towards diversity (e.g., ageism, Bodner & Cohen-Fridel, 2010; homophobia and ethnocentrism (Gormley & Lopez, 2010) have been studied in association with adult attachment orientations. No published study was found linking adult attachment orientations to faculty perceptions, expectations, and/or prejudice towards ELL students. Furthermore, research indicated that people who accept and appreciate people, groups, and cultures that are different from theirs have less prejudice or negative perceptions (Miville et al., 1999), which is characteristic of securely attached individuals (Carnelley & Rowe, 2007; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2001; 2007; Rowe & Carnelley, 2003). Therefore, the present study extended these lines of research to examine adult attachment in higher education faculty-student relations.

The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore whether insecure adult attachment orientations and/or multicultural competence helped us understand faculty perceptions of ELL students. There were two dimensions of adult attachment insecurity (i.e., adult attachment anxiety and
adult attachment avoidance), two components of multicultural competence (i.e., personal sense of cultural awareness and self-efficacy in teaching diverse students), and two components of faculty perceptions of ELL students (i.e., attitudes towards and perceived adequacy of English language skills of ELL students). Because to date no published study has been found linking these variables, the present study was the first to explore these relationships.

Research Question and Hypotheses

Research question. My main research question was:

Were faculty perceptions of ELL students associated with their individual differences in insecure adult attachment orientations or different levels of multicultural competence?

Hypotheses. The main hypothesis of the present study was to expect significant correlations among all primary variables. In particular it was expected that:

1. Adult attachment insecurity (i.e., higher levels of both adult attachment anxiety and adult attachment avoidance) will be associated with more negative faculty attitudes towards ELL students.

2. Adult attachment insecurity (i.e., higher levels of both adult attachment anxiety and adult attachment avoidance) will be correlated with faculty perceptions of ELL students as having less English language skills adequacy.

3. Adult attachment insecurity (i.e., higher levels of both adult attachment anxiety and adult attachment avoidance) will be correlated with less cultural awareness.

4. Adult attachment insecurity (i.e., higher levels of both adult attachment anxiety and adult attachment avoidance) will be correlated with less multicultural teaching efficacy.

5. Less cultural awareness will be correlated with more negative faculty attitudes towards ELL students.
6. Less cultural awareness will be correlated with faculty perceptions of ELL students as having less English language skills adequacy.

7. Less multicultural teaching efficacy will be correlated with more negative faculty attitudes towards ELL students.

8. Less multicultural teaching efficacy will be correlated with faculty perceptions of ELL students as having less English language skills adequacy.

9. Finally, it was planned to explore whether gender differences would account for any of the variability of faculty perceptions.

**Significance of the Study**

It is unknown whether higher education faculty members have lower expectations and more negative perceptions of ELL students than other students, which would be similar to primary and secondary school teachers (Tenenbaum & Ruck, 2007). What is known is that the numerical, cultural, and linguistic gap between faculty (80% White; USDOE, NCES, 2015a) and the ever-increasing population of ELL students have been found to create obstacles for these students (Halic et al., 2009). In qualitative studies (Andrade, 2010; Trice, 2003), faculty negativity towards ELL students’ poor English language skills was problematic for these students. Since negative perceptions and lower expectations can negatively impact student performance and self-esteem, these results are worth testing by quantitative methods to better inform our efforts to improve students’ academic, psychological, emotional, and mental health outcomes.

It is possible that higher education faculty have more difficulty teaching ELL students than native English speakers. What is known is that both international ELL students (Andrade, 2006, 2010; Fox, 1994; Halic et al., 2009; Trice, 2003) and domestic ELL students (Pyne &
Means, 2013; Torres & Baxter Magolda, 2004; Torres & Hernandez, 2007; Zamel, 1995) are having negative experiences with faculty. However, it remains unknown whether this is due to (a) prejudiced and negative attitudes towards diversity held by American faculty, (b) a lack of cultural awareness, or (c) faculty members being ill prepared to provide multiculturally competent teaching. In the present study, both cultural awareness and multicultural teaching efficacy were assessed. It is also possible that individual faculty members vary in how flexible they are to manage out-group members. In particular, individual differences in expectations of others were assessed by including adult attachment insecurity in our independent variables. Thus, both cultural and individual differences were examined as factors related to faculty perceptions of ELL students.

A better understanding of whether individual and/or cultural characteristics contribute to problematic faculty perceptions of ELL students has the potential to inform future interventions designed to improve these faculty-student relationships, which are often cross-cultural in nature. For example, if low levels of teaching efficacy contribute to negative perceptions, we can provide more multicultural competency training to faculty in higher education. Although the intervention would need to be tested, multicultural training efforts could address: (a) prejudice or bias related to accents being perceived as a sign of lower intelligence (Zamel, 1995), (b) how to improve attitudes to be more tolerant and appreciative of diversity (Holcomb McCoy, 2005; Keengwe, 2010; Walter, Shafer, & Liams, 2004; Youngs & Youngs, 2001), and (c) teaching strategies that work to promote more effective cross-cultural interactions (Holcomb McCoy; Walter, Shafer, & Liams; Youngs & Youngs). Expand the current literature on this topic is a first and necessary step in this direction.
Chapter 2: Literature Review

Originally developed by Bowlby (1969), attachment theory is used to describe strong and consistent emotional bonds between children and their primary caregivers that provide children with a sense of security. These attachment relationships affect a child’s social and emotional development throughout life (Bowlby). Attachment theory has been extended to adult development (Collins & Read, 1990; Fraley & Shaver, 2000; Hazan & Shaver, 1987), especially as it is influenced by adult romantic relationships (Hazan & Shaver). Over the past two decades, adult attachment research has also been extended to non-romantic relationships, such as human-God (Tuskenis & Sori, 2006), therapist-client (Farber & Metzger, 2009; Marmarosh et al., 2009; Sauer, Anderson, Gormley, Richmond, & Preacco, 2010; Sauer, Lopez, & Gormley, 2003), case manager-client (Blakely, Chappell, & Dziadosz, 2011; Dozier, Lomax, Tyrrell, & Lee, 2001; Hiles Howard et al., 2013), and mentor-mentee relationships (Farber & Metzer, 2009; Germain, 2011; Gormley, 2008); including relationships between senior faculty mentors and junior faculty mentees (Banerjee-Batist, 2014). Because adult attachment theory has already been extended to examine higher education faculty-student relationships in the mentoring literature, it makes sense to extend it to faculty perceptions of English language learners (ELL) students as was done in the present study.

Insecure Adult Attachment Orientations and Negative Faculty Perceptions

No studies were found linking adult attachment orientations and negative faculty perceptions. However, in general, adult attachment relationships can be relied upon for support in times of distress or stress. Hazan and Shaver (1987) found adult attachment patterns similar to parent-infant attachment styles. These patterns describe internal working models that are mental models or representations of self and others. Mental representations refer to beliefs,
expectations, perceptions, and judgments about oneself and others, which are either positive or negative (Bartholemew & Horowitz, 1991; Collins & Read, 1990; Hazan & Shaver). These mental representations guide, rule, and predict people’s interpretations of relationships, including their perceptions and expectations of others, and contribute to planned behaviors and responses to social interactions (Collins & Read, 1994). In the present study, adult attachment orientations were applied to examine faculty expectations of ELL students. Whether negative faculty perceptions would be associated with insecure attachment orientations was of interest.

Two broad adult attachment orientations are described as “secure” and “insecure” (Bartholemew & Horowitz, 1991; Collins & Read, 1990; Fraley & Shaver, 2000; Hazan & Shaver, 1987). Securely attached adults hold positive internal working models or mental representations of both self and others, which means that they are comfortable with social interactions and with seeking support in times of need (Bartholemew & Horowitz; Collins & Read; Fraley & Shaver; Hazan & Shaver; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2001). Securely attached adults are also able to be self-sufficient, and they are flexible as to whether they rely on others or themselves when stressful situations arise (Bartholemew & Horowitz; Collins & Read; Fraley & Shaver, 1998; Hazan & Shaver; Mikulincer & Shaver). Secure individuals are also found to exhibit positive social behaviors and positive perceptions and expectations of others, compared to their counterparts with insecure adult attachment orientations (Carnelley & Rowe, 2007; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2001; 2007; Rowe & Carnelley, 2003).

Insecure adult attachment orientations have been found to fall into two orthogonal underlying dimensions, “adult attachment anxiety” and “adult attachment avoidance” (Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998; Fraley, Waller, & Brennan, 2000). Adult attachment anxiety consists of worrying about interpersonal rejection and abandonment (Fraley, Waller, & Brennan), which
means that adults with attachment anxiety exhibit negative mental representations, perceptions, expectations, or judgments of themselves but not others (Collins & Read, 1990; Fraley & Shaver, 1998). They are also characterized by a rigid and compulsive overreliance on help seeking (Bartholemew & Horowitz, 1991; Collins & Read; Fraley & Shaver; Hazan & Shaver, 1987). In contrast, adult attachment avoidance refers to being uncomfortable in close or intimate social interactions and preferring emotional distance or independence (Fraley, Waller, & Brennan).

These adults hold negative mental representations, perceptions, and expectations about others but not themselves (Collins & Read; Fraley & Shaver; Mikulincer, 1998b). They are rigidly and compulsively overreliant on self-sufficiency and experience social distance and uneasiness with interpersonal relationships, and they also exhibit fewer prosocial behaviors (Bartholemew & Horowitz; Collins & Read; Fraley & Shaver, 2000; Hazan & Shaver).

These insecure attachment dimensions can also be configured as four adult attachment categories (Bartholemew & Horowitz, 1991). The four categories are secure (low scores on both dimensions), fearful (high scores on both dimensions), dismissing (high scores only on attachment avoidance), and preoccupied (high scores only on attachment anxiety), with the latter three referring to insecure styles. In the present study, a continuous scale of adult attachment insecurity was applied to examine faculty expectations of students.

**Insecure Adult Attachment Orientations and Multicultural Competence**

Insecure Adult Attachment Orientations and Multicultural Competence

There is preliminary evidence linking insecure adult attachment orientations and some forms of prejudice. Prejudice can be defined as having negative beliefs or attitudes about members of a group solely because of their membership in that group (Wright & Taylor, 2003). This is in line with social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). According to this theory, people tend to perceive their own social group (the in-group or “us”) more positively (e.g.,
“better”) than other social groups (the out-group; “them”). In social interactions, one way to assess multicultural competence as one’s level of appreciation or acceptance of other people, groups, or cultures or one’s quality of cross-cultural interactions is to measure one’s prejudiced or negative attitudes towards cultural diversity (Singley & Sedlacek, 2004). In social interactions, prejudice can result in “intergroup bias,” which consists of favoring members of one’s own cultural group over members of the out-group (Tajfel & Turner). Intergroup bias leads to biased perceptions and expectations of social interactions, intergroup relationships, and out-group members (Tajfel & Turner), thus less cross-cultural appreciation or acceptance.

Research evidenced that adult attachment orientations differentiate people with negatively biased beliefs, views, and attitudes towards people in cultural groups to which they don’t belong from those who are not biased (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2001, 2007). Those reporting secure adult attachment orientations are more likely to also report that they are more accepting of and have fewer negative perceptions of different people, groups, and cultures (Carnelley & Rowe, 2007; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2001; 2007; Rowe & Carnelley, 2003). On the other hand, those reporting insecure adult attachment orientations are more likely to also report more prejudice and less tolerance of different people, groups, and cultures (Carnelley & Rowe; Mikulincer & Shaver; Rowe & Carnelley).

Findings have consistently indicated that, compared to insecurely attached adults, securely attached adults have more positive social behaviors and attitudes, less hostility towards others (Brennan & Shaver, 1995; Mikulincer, 1998a) and more positive perceptions and expectations of out-group members (Carnelley & Rowe, 2007; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2001; 2007; Rowe & Carnelley, 2003). Specifically, adults with attachment avoidance may be at highest risk of experiencing negative views or perceptions of others (Brennan & Shaver, 1995;
Collins & Read, 1990), including out-groups and cross-cultural interactions. However, only certain types of prejudice have been studied and linked to adult attachment orientations, and no such studies were found to examine attitudes towards English language learners.

Ageism is a specific form of prejudice that consists of having negative perceptions of people because of their old age, even if that person is oneself (self-ageism). In a recent study exploring the relationship between adult attachment orientations and ageism among the elderly, Bodner and Cohen-Fridel (2010) found that secure elderly people had lower scores on measures of ageism than their insecure (particularly fearful) peers. Specifically, elderly males reported more ageism than elderly females, suggesting that gender differences should be considered when examining the relationship between adult attachment orientations and prejudiced or negative attitudes towards specific groups.

Other researchers found a link between adult attachment orientations and prejudice against lesbians and gay men, and some of these studies found gender differences as well. For instance, Marsh and Brown (2011) examined the relationships among adult attachment orientations, homonegativity, and religiosity. In this case, adult attachment orientations moderated the relationship between religiosity and homonegativity. Specifically, in the religious group, participants with attachment insecurity were more homonegative than securely attached participants, and this relationship was moderated by gender: females with attachment avoidance were more homonegative than males with attachment avoidance, while males with attachment anxiety were more homonegative than females with attachment anxiety. No such relationships were found in the non-religious group, suggesting that religiosity contributed to predicting homonegativity. Both dimensions of adult attachment insecurity (i.e., adult attachment
avoidance and adult attachment anxiety) contributed to prejudiced or negative attitudes towards diversity.

Gormley and Lopez (2010) investigated the influence of gender and adult attachment orientations on a set of authoritarian attitudes, including homophobia and ethnocentrism (a tendency to prefer one’s own culture over other cultures). The only significant relationship found was between adult attachment orientations and homophobia. Participants with higher scores on attachment avoidance (but not attachment anxiety) reported higher levels of homophobia, but this finding was moderated by gender. Specifically, avoidant males reported the highest levels of homophobia, with other males second, other females third, and avoidant females reporting the lowest levels of homophobia. Interestingly, regardless of adult attachment orientations, males demonstrated more homophobia than their female peers. These findings suggest that adult attachment dimensions contribute differently to different types of prejudice, in the sense that they affect people’s level of acceptance and appreciation of other people, groups, or cultures.

The studies reviewed thus far seemed to indicate a possible link between adult attachment orientations and prejudice, especially toward certain out-groups. They also indicate that dimensions of attachment insecurity should be examined separately and gender differences considered when studying prejudice or inter-group bias or level of acceptance or appreciation of differences and similarities among people, groups, or cultures. Surprisingly, no study was found linking adult attachment insecurity to general cultural awareness or multicultural teaching self-efficacy. The present study is the first that examined the relationships between adult attachment orientations and negative attitudes towards ELL students.
Multicultural Competence and Faculty Perceptions of ELL students

Findings on elementary and secondary teachers indicated a relationship between a lack of multicultural competence, including both cultural awareness and multicultural teaching efficacy, and negative teacher perceptions of ELL students. However, although both international and domestic ELL students in higher education reported negative faculty perceptions of them, there is a limited research that explored these concerns from higher education faculty perspectives, particularly factors that affects faculty-ELL student relationships.

Cultural awareness and faculty perceptions. Little research has focused on negative faculty perceptions of ELL students and whether prejudice or a lack of cultural awareness is an educational obstacle for ELL students. Previous studies examining the effects of faculty expectations on ELL students in higher education were based on students’ perspectives (e.g., Halic et al., 2009; Pyne & Means, 2013; Torres & Baxter Magolda, 2004; Torres & Hernandez, 2007). Specifically, students reported perceiving a faculty tendency to ignore and underestimate their presence (Halic et al.), needs (Torres & Baxter Magolda), and skills (Torres & Hernandez) and to hold negative perceptions and expectations of them (Halic et al.), because of their ELL status. In sum, minority students, including ELL students, reported feelings that their identities and experiences were denied by faculty (Pyne & Means), including by viewing them as outsiders or fakers (Delgado Bernal, 2002), less intellectually capable (Zamel, 1995), and “unknowlegeable and non- legitimate contributors to the learning community” (Halic et al., p. 82). For instance, in a study by Halic and associates (2009), a student participant shared his experience:

You start to ask a question and you can hardly finish it because you feel that pressure of other guys who look at you and the professor himself does not understand your
accent….I don’t wanna feel that bad feeling of being some kind of handicapped [person].

(p. 83)

In sum, ELL students reported that faculty members seem to perceive them as not fitting the academic community. In line with social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986), this may suggest possible intergroup bias or less exposure to these groups of students.

One primary influence on faculty perceptions is ELL students’ English language proficiency (Andrade 2010; Padilla, 2012; Trice, 2003; Hali et al., 2009), including whether or not they speak with accents. Researchers have found that language, particularly accent, can serve as a means of social categorization, differentiating between in-group and out-group members (Bresnahan, Ohashi, Nebashi, Liu, & Morinaga Shearman, 2002; Tajfel & Turner, 1986; Hansen & Dovodio, 2016). In contrast to native accents, which are viewed as familiar, a foreign accent is (a) viewed as non-familiar (Bresnahan et al.), (b) perceived as lacking intelligibility and receptivity (Hansen & Dovodio), and c) elicits negative attitudes and perceptions (Bresnahan et al.; Hansen & Dovodio). Language fluency and the ability to speak with a native-like accent are factors that promote in-group membership and more favorable perceptions of ELL speakers (Pinget, Bosker, Quene, & Jong, 2014).

Language attitudes may reflect stereotype-based evaluations, perceptions, and expectations associated with cross-cultural interactions between native and non-native speakers (Cargile, 2002; Cargile & Gilles, 1998; Bresnahan et al., 2002). Difficulties accepting, appreciating, and valuing others and their languages and cultures can create bias in the learning environment. Because of this, the learning environment can be a greater source of threat for ELL students when teachers are native speakers (Guyl et al., 2010; Halic et al., 2009). In the present study, I attempted to collect data that might be related to faculty bias. The present study
examined faculty members’ perceptions of and attitudes towards perceived adequacy of English language skills of ELL students as well as faculty levels of cultural awareness of and effectiveness to teach ELL students.

**Multicultural teaching efficacy and faculty perceptions.** Surprisingly, little is known about whether higher education faculty members feel effective teaching ELL students. In the United States, only two quantitative studies examined specific challenges ELL students are facing, with respect to higher education faculty perceptions (Andrade, 2010; Trice, 2003). For instance, Trice found that ELL international students represented a challenge for faculty (e.g., requiring a greater amount of their time) and that faculty tended to prefer domestic native English speaker students. Furthermore, Andrade found that (a) faculty viewed ELL students’ English language skills as adequate, but, surprisingly, (b) faculty wished students would improve these skills, and (c) faculty showed little interest in contributing to such improvements.

Researchers have examined the impact of elementary and secondary school teachers’ perceptions on ELL students (82% of elementary and secondary school teachers are White European Americans; USDOE, NCES, 2015b). Specifically, teachers held lower expectations and more negative perceptions of minority ESL or bilingual students (e.g., Latinos/as) than White European American students (Tenenbaum & Ruck, 2007). Taken together, early evidence seems to imply that both faculty and teachers’ perceptions of ELL students were biased as influenced by cultural and linguistic differences.

Also similarly to teachers (Walter, Shafer, & Liams, 2004), faculty may be lacking adequate training or skills to teach students from different cultural backgrounds. Various researchers showed that teachers with multicultural competence have knowledge of cultural diversity, adequate teaching skills (Holcomb McCoy, 2005; Keengwe, 2010), and engage in
more positive relationships with culturally diverse students (Bell, 2000; Holcomb McCoy, 2005; Keengwe). Moreover, multiculturally competent teachers are more willing to provide equal educational outcomes for all students (Keengwe) and to address racial and ethnic conflicts, including by being more involved in fighting prejudice at school (Holcomb McCoy, 2005). More recently, elementary school teachers reported the importance and benefits of being multiculturally competent in cross-cultural teaching settings (e.g., less bias, more positive expectations, and more respect skills towards students from different cultural backgrounds), which increased their cross-cultural teaching self-efficacy (Holcomb McCoy; Keengwe). Whether multicultural teaching efficacy is related to negative faculty perceptions of ELL students is unknown.

What is known is that teachers’ negatives attitudes have been found to contribute to self-fulfilling prophecy effects (Guyl et al., 2010). In particular, lower expectations have been found to be most harmful to students viewed as vulnerable (Hinnant, O’Brien, & Ghazarian, 2009; Sorhagen, 2013), such as minority bilingual or ELL children. Negative expectations also have been found to result in lower levels of academic achievement (Guyl et al.; Hill & Craft, 2003; Pellegrini & Blatchford, 2000) and higher levels of mental health problems (Tummala-Nara & Claudius, 2013), such as low self-esteem (Good, 1981), anxiety (Sirin, Ryce, Gupta, & Rogers-Sirin, 2013), and depression (Constantine, Okazaki, & Utsey, 2004; Sirin et al., 2013). Because of the dearth of research in the higher education literature regarding faculty expectations and perceptions of ELL students and the essential role faculty members play in the quality of the academic environment, the present study explored individual and cultural contributions to faculty perceptions of ELL students.
Chapter 3: Method

The current study surveyed faculty members regarding their perceptions of ELL students. In particular, this study examined insecure adult attachment orientations and multicultural competence contributions to explaining faculty perceptions of these students. The main dependent variables were faculty attitudes towards ELL students and their perceived adequacy of the students’ English language proficiency. The main independent variables were adult attachment anxiety, adult attachment avoidance, a personal sense of cultural awareness, and multicultural teaching self-efficacy. This study was the first to explore interrelationships among these variables.

Participants

Participants were faculty members at three Midwestern American universities (two public and one private). Of the 94 attempts the survey, 60 participants completed the entire survey. Of the 60 participants who completed the survey, there were 33 females (55%), 26 males (43%), and 1 transgender (2%). Ages ranged from 27 to 72 (\(M = 51.19, SD = 11.81\)). Four participants did not disclose their age. With respect to race and ethnicity, most participants were European descent/White (\(N = 78; 78\%\)), although other racial and ethnic groups were represented: African descent (\(N = 6; 10\%\)), Hispanic descent (\(N = 2; 3\%\)), Arabic descent (\(N = 2; 3\%\)), and Multiracial/Biracial (\(N = 3; 5\%\)). Most participants were American born (\(N = 54; 90\%\)). The ones born outside the U.S. (\(N = 6; 10\%\)), included France (\(N = 1; 1.66\%\)), Slovenia (\(N = 1; 1.66\%\)), Germany (\(N = 2; 3.33\%\)), and Africa (\(N = 1; 1.66\%\)). Native language representation was predominantly English (\(N = 54; 90\%\)). Other languages representation (\(N = 6; 10\%\)), included French (\(N = 2; 3\%\)), German (\(N = 2; 3\%\)), Spanish (\(N = 1; 2\%\)), and Slovenian (\(N = 1, 2\%\)). Most participants (\(N = 43; 82\%\)) reported not speaking any other language fluently, while
the remaining \((N = 17; 28\%)\) reported speaking other language(s) fluently. Religious affiliation was reported as follows: Christians \((N = 30; 50\%)\), Atheists \((N = 21; 35\%)\), Jews \((N = 4; 7\%)\), Muslims \((N = 2; 3\%)\), and Buddhist \((N = 1; 2\%)\). Two participants \((3\%)\) declined to report their religious affiliation. Highest degree was reported as follows: doctorates \((N = 44; 73.33\%)\), masters \((N = 14; 23.33\%)\), and specialists \((N = 2; 3.33\%)\). The average years of teaching was 17.50 \((SD = 10.99; \text{range} = 1-42 \text{years})\). The majority of participants \((N = 36; 60\%)\) reported teaching primarily undergraduate. Only a few had master's students \((N = 19; 32\%)\), and doctoral students \((N = 5; 8\%)\). Most participants taught in a university with graduate programs \((N = 46; 77\%)\) while the remaining taught in a 4-year university \((N = 14; 23\%)\). None taught in a community college. The majority of participants taught in a public university \((N = 51; 85\%)\), while the remaining taught in a private university \((N = 9; 15\%)\). The average number of ELL students taught per year was 14.75 \((SD = 21.16)\). Many participants \((N = 28; 47\%)\) reported that the numbers of ELL students in their classes were increasing in number, while one reported that the number was decreasing \((N = 1; 2\%)\), and one didn’t answer \((N = 1; 2\%)\). Half of the participants reported being unsure and one participant did not answer \((N = 30; 50\%)\). The recruitment was terminated at 60 participants with the permission of the thesis committee members.

**Procedure**

Following the Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval at Governors State University, faculty members at three Midwestern American universities were recruited by email. All faculty members at these universities, including all instructors, lecturers, and professors who have taught classes in the past two years, were sent a recruitment letter (see Appendix A) and asked to complete an online survey. Data were collected from faculty members by emailing letters to
faculty distribution lists and by individual emails to addresses posted on websites.

To all participants, the letter of invitation included a link to the survey. To keep recruitment consistent, the recruitment letter was sent three different times to all participants at the three universities. The survey began with an informed consent form (see Appendix B), which addressed the topic and the purpose of the study, a voluntary consent to participation, the right to freely decline participation or to withdraw at any time without penalty, the assurance of confidentiality regarding their responses and anonymity regarding their identities and benefits and risks of participation. This electronic consent form ended with a statement that pressing the “Continue” button is an indication of consent to participate. The electronic informed consent was followed by a series of questionnaires, including: A demographic questionnaire (see Appendix C), a Social Desirability Scale in its Short Form (SDS-S; Reynolds, 1982; see Appendix D), the Estimation of ESL students English Language Scale (EELS; Andrade, 2010; see Appendix E), the Multicultural Efficacy Scale (MES; Guyton & Wesche, 2005; see Appendix F), the Miville-Guzman Universality-Diversity Scale in its Short Form (MGUDS-S; Fuertes, Miville, Mohr, Sedlacek, & Gretchen, 2000; see Appendix G), the Revised Experience in Close Relationships Scale (ECR-R; Fraley, Waller, & Brennan, 2000; see Appendix H), and an optional open question (see Appendix I) allowing faculty members to make additional comments at the end of the survey.

Measures

The online survey included the following measures in the order below.

**Demographic questionnaire.** Participants were asked to indicate their gender, age, racial and ethnic background, native language, nationality, religious affiliation, education level, teaching discipline, years of teaching experience, current school and type of school (e.g., public
vs. private), etc. (see Appendix C). In addition, they were asked to estimate the numbers of ELL students in their classes and whether the numbers were increasing or decreasing.

**Social desirability scale, short form c.** The Social Desirability Scale, C Form (SDS-C; Reynolds, 1982; see Appendix D) measured participants’ tendencies to claim favorable attitudes. The scale is a short version of the well known Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale. From the original 33 item true-false scale, three short forms (A, B, and C) of respectively 11, 12, and 13 true-false items were developed using a factor loading criterion analysis. The purpose was to provide reliable, valid, brief, and easy-to-administer measures that assess the influence of social desirability on self-reported responses (Reynolds). Although no validity information was provided, of the three short forms, form C had a higher reliability ($r = .76$) and was highly correlated with the original scale ($r = .94, p < .001$; Reynolds). Reliability of the SDS-C in the present sample was also .76. Participants were instructed to select either “True” or “False” for each of the 13 items (e.g., “It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged” or “No matter who I’m talking to, I’m always a good listener”). After reverse coding items 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 11, and 12, the sum of scores were computed. The mean score was 7.83 ($SD = 3.15$, range = 0-13). Higher scores indicated higher social desirability responses or a participant claiming favorable attitudes. The measure was included in the present study to control for potential social desirability responses.

**Estimation of ESL students English language scale.** The Estimation of ESL students English Language Scale (EELS; Andrade, 2010; see Appendix E) measured faculty perceived English language proficiency and classroom experiences with ESL students. The EELS was adapted from Andrade’s (2010) survey on faculty perspectives on the English language competence of nonnative English speakers, which consisted of six categories, including: (a)
estimation of students’ language abilities (22 items), (b) impact of having students in classes (24 items), (c) faculty efforts to help students improve, (d) future possibilities for faculty support, (e) institutional efforts to help students improve, and (f) future institutional possibilities.

With the permission of the author (M.S. Andrade, personal communication, February 22, 2016), the original scale was modified. In the first two categories, 31 items were considered, respectively 17 items for faculty’s estimation of ESL students’ language abilities and 10 items for the impact of having ESL students in classes. For the purpose of the present study, the two categories or subscales were called, respectively, faculty attitudes towards ELL students’ English language skills, and perceived adequacy of the students’ English language skills. Items 18-31 were scored on either a 5-point Likert scale (1 = almost none, 5 = almost all), and items 1-17 were scored on a 7-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). After reverse coding items 3, 5, 6, and 7 for the attitudes subscale and items 18-22 for the perceived adequacy subscale, the average score for each subscale was computed. Higher scores mean more negative attitudes towards or more negatively perceived adequacy of ELL students’ English language skills.

The original questionnaire was piloted and revised based on feedback from the author’s faculty committee members, but no reliability and validity tests were conducted (M.S. Andrade, personal communication, September 8, 2014). According to the author, no other studies have looked at the reliability or validity of the scale (M.S. Andrade). Andrade’s survey was the only one available on this topic. This was the first time items have been developed as a preliminary effort to quantify faculty perceptions of ESL students (Andrade). In the present study, after deleting items 3, 5, 12, 13, and 15, which reduced the 17 items to 12, the reliability for the attitudes subscale was .78 ($M = 3.36, SD = .78, range = 1.92-5$). Reliability for the perceived
adequacy subscale was .90 ($M = 2.06, SD = .55$, range = 1-3.07), including all 14 items. These subscales were significantly and moderately intercorrelated in the present study ($r = .39, p < .01$), as expected.

**Multicultural efficacy scale.** The Multicultural Efficacy Scale (MES; Guyton & Wesche, 2005; see Appendix F) measured multicultural teaching efficacy, a teacher’s feelings of confidence to effectively teach students from diverse ethnic and cultural backgrounds and to be effective in a multicultural academic setting. According to Gibson and Dembo (1984), efficacy is a powerful factor and a significant teacher characteristic in teaching, which has been found to be especially important when teaching students with low academic achievement.

From the original 160-item MES pilot instrument, the MES was first reduced to 80 items after a pilot study (Guyton & Wesche, 2005). Further pilot study and item analysis was conducted to produce the final MES instrument, which consists of 35 items (Guyton & Wesche). The final 35-item instrument included three subscales: Experience (7 items), Attitude (7 items), and Efficacy (20 items), plus one item that assesses teachers’ conceptions of multicultural teaching. The efficacy subscale (strongly recommended by the authors) assesses teachers’ confidence to teach in a multicultural educational setting.

With the authors’ permission (M.V. Wesche, personal communication, February 24, 2016), the present study used 21 items of the final instrument; including 20 items for the efficacy subscale and the last item that assesses teacher conceptions of multiculturalism. The efficacy subscale (e.g., “I can provide instructional activities to help students to develop strategies for dealing with racial confrontations” or “I can get students from diverse groups to work together”) used a 4-point rating scale (1= “I do not believe I could do this very well” to 4 = “I am quite confident that would be easy to do”). For each item, a score of 1 or 2 is low, 3 is average, and 4
is high (Guyton & Wesche, 2005). It is recommended that missing scores be considered a 3 (Guyton & Wesche).

All scores for the efficacy subscale were summed, with scores ranging from 20 to 54 as low multicultural efficacy, 55 to 66 as average, and 67 to 80 as high multicultural efficacy (Guyton & Wesche). No validity information was provided in the original study. In the current study, scores ranged from 46 to 80 and were slightly negatively skewed, but almost normally distributed. Cronbach’s alpha for the efficacy subscale was .93 in the original study (Guyton & Wesche) and was .92 in the present sample. The mean score for efficacy was 70.45 ($SD = 8.15$).

The final item “Choose the position which most closely reflects your strongest beliefs about teaching” assessed teacher beliefs about multiculturalism, offering five options (1= “If every individual learned to accept and work with every other person, then there would be no intercultural problems” to 5= “some groups need to be helped to achieve equal treatment before we can reach the goals of a democratic society”), which respectively referred to Tolerance, Assimilation, Plurality, Multiculturalism, and Advocacy. Frequency was computed for this question.

**Miville-Guzman universality-diversity scale, short form.** The Miville-Guzman Universality-Diversity Scale, Short Form (M-GUDS-S; Fuertes, Miville, Mohr, Sedlacek, & Gretchen, 2000; see Appendix G) measured general cultural awareness or openness. The scale is a 15-item self-report instrument that measured an “attitude of awareness and acceptance of both similarities (i.e., universal) and differences (i.e., diversity) among people” (Miville et al., 1999, p. 291). The 15 items were measured on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Each of the three subscales consists of 5 items: Behavioral (diversity contact) (e.g., “I am interested in learning about the many cultures that have existed in
this world”), Cognitive (relativistic appreciation) (e.g., “In getting to know someone, I like knowing both how he/she differs from me and is similar to me”), and Affective (comfort with differences) (e.g., “I am only at ease with people of my race”).

Although no validity information was provided in the original study, the M-GUDS-S has been found to have a moderate to high internal consistency of Cronbach’s alpha of .77, an internal consistency strong for both behavioral ($\alpha = .82$) and affective subscales ($\alpha = .92$) but moderate for the cognitive subscale ($\alpha = .59$; Fuertes et al., 2000). The M-GUDS-S also correlated with the M-GUDS, the original 45-item scale from which the Short Form was developed ($r = .77$, $p < .001$; Fuertes et al.). In the present sample, the reliability was acceptable for the total MGUDS-S (.74), but it was very low for the subscales (.35 for behavioral, .32 for affective, and .30 for cognitive. Therefore, only the total scores for the MGUDS-S were used in analyses. After reverse coding items 3, 6, 9, 12, and 15, the sum of scores were computed, with a mean score of 67.78 ($SD = 8.50$). Scores ranged from 15 to 105 for the MGUDS-S and from 5 to 35 for each subscale. Higher scores indicate more cultural awareness or openness or more positive attitudes toward diversity. More recently, the M-GUDS- S and its subscales’ reliability and validity (construct and factorial) by racial and ethnic group have been also reported with both Western and Asian cultures, confirming the Universal-Diverse Orientation as a universal attitude (Kegel & DeBlaere, 2014) and the scale as a comprehensive assessment of attitudes regarding diversity (Singley & Sedlacek, 2004).

The revised experience in close relationships scale. The Revised Experience in Close Relationships Scale (ECR-R; Fraley, Waller, & Brennan, 2000; see Appendix H) measured adult attachment orientations. The scale is a 36-item self-report measure of adult attachment orientations, using a 7-point Likert rating scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly
agree). The instrument assesses individuals on two dimensions. The adult attachment anxiety or fear of rejection and abandonment dimension consisted of items 1-18 (e.g., “I am afraid I will lose my partner’s love”). The adult attachment avoidance or discomfort with closeness, intimacy, or seeking support from others dimension consists of the remaining 18 items (e.g., 19-36; “I prefer not to show a partner how I feel”).

For adult attachment anxiety, scoring consisted of computing the average scores on items 1-18 after items 9 and 11 were reverse scored. For adult attachment avoidance, the average scores of items 19-36 were computed after items 20, 22, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 33, 34, 35, and 36 were reverse scored (Fraley et al., 2000). Self-reported measures of adult attachment orientations indicated that individuals with low scores on both dimensions reflected a secure attachment orientation, whereas individuals with insecure attachment orientations had higher scores on one or both dimensions (Collins & Read, 1990; Fraley & Shaver, 1998; Fraley et al., 2000; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2001; 2007). The ECR-R was found to have a high reliability of Cronbach’s alpha of .90 or higher for each dimension or scale (R. C. Fraley, personal communication, October, 12, 2014). The scale was used with the author’s permission (R. C. Fraley, personal communication, February, 26, 2016). In the present sample, the average score was 2.38 ($SD = 1.16$) for adult attachment anxiety and 2.30 ($SD = 1.04$) for adult attachment avoidance. The two subscales were intercorrelated ($r = .51, p < .01$) as expected, and both had reliability coefficients of .95 in the current sample.

**Optional question.** An optional question (e.g., “Is there anything else you would like to tell us about teaching ELL students?” see Appendix I) ended the survey. This was a means to gather qualitative results that could help provide more understanding of the quantitative data.
Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this study was to explore influences on the perceptions that higher education faculty have of ELL students. More specifically, I explored associations between adult attachment insecurity (i.e., adult attachment anxiety and adult attachment avoidance), multicultural competence (i.e., cultural awareness and multicultural teaching efficacy), and faculty perceptions of ELL students (i.e., attitudes towards ELL students and perceived adequacy of ELL students’ English language skills). Gender differences in the two dependent variables were examined, but no significant differences were found. No further demographic differences were examined due to a small sample.

Correlation Analyses

A series of correlation analyses conducted on the sample ($N = 60$) indicated one significant relationship aligned with the hypotheses (see Table 2). There was a negative, moderate, and significant relationship between multicultural teaching efficacy and attitudes towards ELL students. The less efficacious teachers felt teaching diverse groups of students, the more negative were their attitudes towards ELL students.
Table 2

Summary of Intercorrelations of Participants Scores on the Key Measures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Social Desirability</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Adult Attachment Anxiety</td>
<td>-.260*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Adult Attachment Avoidance</td>
<td>-.066</td>
<td>.508**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. MGUDS-S total Scores</td>
<td>-.086</td>
<td>.178</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Multicultural Efficacy</td>
<td>.131</td>
<td>-.214</td>
<td>-.107</td>
<td>.033</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Attitudes towards ELLs</td>
<td>.039</td>
<td>-.102</td>
<td>-.100</td>
<td>-.054</td>
<td>-.342**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Perceived Adequacy</td>
<td>.076</td>
<td>-.079</td>
<td>-.067</td>
<td>.065</td>
<td>-.208</td>
<td>.389**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .05.   ** p < .01

Social desirability. Social desirability was not significantly associated with either variable in the relationship between multicultural teaching efficacy and faculty attitudes towards ELL students (see Table 2). This variable had only a small, negative, and significant correlation with adult attachment anxiety (see Table 2), which was not significantly associated with either dependent variable. Because of that, there was no need for further multivariate analyses or to control for social desirability.

Adult attachment insecurity and faculty perceptions. The data didn’t support the hypotheses that there would be relationships between adult attachment insecurity dimensions and the two subscales of faculty perceptions of ELL students (Hypotheses 1 and 2). No significant relationships were found between either adult attachment dimension and either subscale of perceptions of ELL (see Table 2). Faculty adult attachment insecurity was not significantly
associated with more negative faculty attitudes towards the students (Hypothesis 1), nor with less faculty perceived adequacy of the students’ English language skills (Hypothesis 2). No individual differences in faculty perceptions of ELL students were found.

**Adult attachment insecurity and multicultural competence.** Data also didn’t support the hypothesized relationships among adult attachment insecurity and multicultural competence variables (Hypotheses 3 and 4). No significant relationships were found between either adult attachment dimension and either component of multicultural competence (see Table 2). Faculty adult attachment insecurity was not significantly associated with less cultural awareness (Hypothesis 3), nor with less multicultural teaching efficacy (Hypothesis 4). This was an unexpected result.

**Multicultural competence and faculty perceptions.** Data supported the relationship between multicultural competence and faculty perceptions. No correlation was found between the two subscales of multicultural components (see table 2).

**Cultural awareness and faculty perceptions.** No significant relationship was found between cultural awareness and faculty perceptions of ELL students (see Table 2). Cultural awareness was not significantly associated with either subscale of perceptions of ELL Students (Hypotheses 5 and 6). Faculty with less personal awareness of cultural diversity did not have more negative perceptions of ELL students, as expected.

**Multicultural teaching efficacy and faculty perceptions.** Data supported the relationship between multicultural teaching efficacy and faculty perceptions of ELL students (see Table 2). Multicultural teaching efficacy was negatively, moderately, and significantly associated with faculty attitudes towards ELL students (Hypothesis 7) but not with faculty perceived adequacy of the students’ English language skills (Hypothesis 8). Faculty who felt less efficacious teaching
diverse groups of students had more negative attitudes towards ELL students (see Figure 1). The effect size was medium ($r = .34$).
Figure 1

Relationship between Multicultural Teaching Efficacy and Negative Faculty Attitudes towards ELL Students

The less multicultural teaching efficacy faculty had, the more negative were their attitudes towards ELL students.

Multivariate Analyses

Because there was only one independent variable significantly associated with a dependent variable, no multivariate analyses were conducted.
Additional Data

Faculty beliefs. Faculty beliefs about teaching are available in Table 3.

Table 3

Faculty Beliefs about Multicultural Teaching

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Beliefs</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>valid %</th>
<th>Cumulative %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Tolerance</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assimilation</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluralism</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiculturalism</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>58.3</td>
<td>58.3</td>
<td>76.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advocacy</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing System</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most faculty selected the response related to multiculturalism (58.3%), but there were almost as many with less diversity valuing beliefs (18.3 %) as advocates (23.3 %).
Chapter 5: Discussion

The present study explored the relationships among insecure adult attachment orientations, multicultural competence, and faculty perceptions of ELL students. The data supported one hypothesis. The multicultural teaching efficacy component of multicultural competence was negatively, moderately, and significantly associated with the faculty attitudes subscale of faculty perceptions of ELL students.

The present finding provides the first evidence of the relationship between multicultural teaching efficacy and faculty attitudes towards ELL students, such that the less efficacious faculty members feel to teach diverse students, the more negative were their attitudes towards ELL students. This finding for higher education is similar to findings in elementary and secondary schools that related negative teacher perceptions of ELL students to lack of adequate skills in teaching diverse students (Walter, Shafer, & Liams, 2004) and positive teacher attitudes with having multicultural teaching training (Youngs & Youngs, 2001). The present finding is notable because it adds empirical evidence that supports the relationship between multicultural teaching skills and teacher attitudes in K-12 schools that could be extended to higher education faculty members.

Research on K-12 mainstream teachers indicated that less multicultural teaching efficacy is more likely to be found among ill-prepared teachers who had no training to teach ELL students (Walter, Shafer, & Liams, 2004). This is not surprising since 88% of these K-12 teachers had no ELL training (Walter, Shafer, & Liams). Further, in qualitative data (Walter, Shafer, & Liams), most teachers justified their unwillingness to have ELL students in their classrooms because of a lack of appropriate training that resulted in feelings of helplessness, inadequacy, and frustration; despite the fact that this leaves ELL students with minimal or no educational opportunities.
Surprisingly, the same teachers also suggested that even a little appropriate training can prevent and improve negative teacher attitudes towards ELL students. Whether higher education faculty would similarly improve attitudes towards teaching ELL students with training remains unknown because that question was beyond the scope of the present study.

My study may be able to help explain past studies (Andrade, 2000; Trice, 2003), in particular faculty unwillingness to help improving the students’ English skills although wishing for more improvements (Andrade, 2000) and their tendency to prefer native English speaker students over ELL students (Trice, 2003). The present study suggests that faculty unwillingness to help improving the students’ English skills although wishing for more improvements (Andrade, 2000) and their tendency to prefer native English speaker students over ELL students (Trice, 2003) might be explained by less multicultural teaching efficacy. In addition, since teachers reported the value of multicultural teaching training, if less multicultural teaching efficacy is due to less training, intervention studies are merited to test whether multicultural teacher training improves both higher education faculty members’ multicultural teaching efficacy and attitudes towards ELL students.

It was surprising that cultural awareness was not related to faculty attitudes towards ELL students because past research with K-12 mainstream teacher on a similar outcome variable (Walter, Shafer, & Liams, 2004; Youngs & Youngs, 2001) found that cultural awareness was associated with more teacher positive attitudes towards ELL students. However, both studies (Walter, Shafer, & Liams, 2004; Youngs & Youngs) measures of cultural awareness were focused more on immersion, in particular, (a) direct exposure to different cultures/ cultural differences (e.g., having taken a foreign language or anthropology course or a course in multicultural education), (b) contact with diverse cultures (e.g., travel abroad, live, travel outside
the US, and/or work with more diverse populations), and (c) prior contact with ESL students (e.g., frequency and intensity).

The inconsistency of the present finding might be that the present study measured only general cultural awareness and was not inclusive of variables used with k-12 teachers. This needs to be considered in future research. For instance, future research could include measures used with k-12 teachers to assess whether the same cultural variables influence higher faculty perceptions of ELL students. It is also possible that relevant issues, such as accents found to predict negative and discriminatory/prejudiced attitudes towards non-native English speakers (Hansen & Dovidio, 2016) were not addressed by my measure, and/or that only cultural variables related to teaching, in particular student accents, not general cultural awareness measured in the present study, contribute to negative faculty perceptions of ELL students. This needs further investigation. For instance, a qualitative study could explore whether higher education with faculty negative attitudes towards ELL students believe them to be less intelligent because of their accents. Including qualitative data in future studies would contribute to in-depth understanding of faculty perceptions of ELL students.

Cultural variables were better at predicting faculty perceptions than individual differences. One explanation of why no evidence was found for the primary relationships related to individual differences is that those relationships do not exist in the population, as not all attachment-prejudice relationships were significant in past research. For example, Gormley and Lopez (2010) found no relationship between adult attachment orientations and ethnocentrism, which is similar to the present findings regarding adult attachment orientations and cultural awareness. Further, it is possible that adult attachment orientations might be associated with negative perceptions of specific cultural out-groups. Alternatively, other individual differences,
such as narcissism, may be related to faculty perceptions of ELL students. This needs to be considered in future research.

The present study also provides the first evidence of validity of one of the subscales (i.e., faculty attitudes) of the outcome measure (i.e., faculty perceptions). As expected, multicultural teaching efficacy and faculty attitudes towards ELL students were significantly related, which provides evidence of validity of one subscale. Taken together, the present study adds a new and reliable scale that assesses faculty perceptions of ELL students and contributes to the lack of research in this area.

Limitations

The main limitation of this study is the small sample size, which had insufficient power to detect additional significant relationships that could exist in the population. It is possible that with a bigger sample, marginal correlations (e.g., multicultural teaching efficacy relationships with adult attachment anxiety and faculty attitudes) may have been significant. These relationships need to be tested in future research. Regardless, the main finding that less faculty multicultural teaching efficacy is associated with more negative faculty attitudes towards ELL students is statistically significant with a medium effect size.

Another limitation is the lack of validity evidence for the outcome measure. In particular, the subscale regarding faculty perceptions of the adequacy of student English language skills was not associated with any independent variables. Although the present study provides preliminary evidence of the validity of the other subscale because of the association between multicultural teaching efficacy and faculty attitudes towards ELL students, further validity studies are warranted.
Finally, as previously stated, it possible that the sample disproportionally favors faculty already interested in working with ELL students. Those who elected to complete the survey may have had more positive attitudes than the general population of higher education faculty. Thus, the present findings need to be considered with caution, and replication with a larger more diverse sample is recommended. Regardless, the present study provides a good starting point as well as a new direction for further investigation.
References


structure and short-form of the Miville-Guzman Universality-Diversity Scale.


Xu, Y., & Drame, E, (2007). Culturally appropriate context: Unlocking the potential of


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**Appendix A**

**Letter of Invitation to Faculty**

Date

Dear Faculty Member,

Have you had experiences in your classrooms with teaching ESL students (those for whom English is a second language) that you would like to share? Or do you have an opinion you would like to express about teaching ESL students?
Please help me gather information about faculty perceptions of teaching ESL students for my Master’s thesis in Psychology at Governors State University. My name is Helene Brou (hbrou@student.govst.edu) and my faculty advisor is Dr. Barbara Gormley (bgormley@govst.edu). You may contact either one of us if you have any questions.

All responses will be completely anonymous, because data will be downloaded from Survey Monkey separately from any identifying information. Only a summary of the data collected will ever be reported, not individual responses.

Follow the link below to take this survey, which will take approximately 15 minutes to complete: https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/6N7LR57

Thank you so much for your cooperation,

Helene Brou

Appendix B

Informed Consent

College and university faculty members, including instructors, lecturers, and professors who have taught classes in the past two years, are eligible to complete this survey. The purpose of this study, which will take 15-20 minutes to complete, is to better understand faculty perceptions of teaching and mentoring ESL (English as a second language) students. Responses
will be kept completely anonymous and secure. No personal information will be requested. No individual responses will be reported.

There are only minimal risks to participating in this survey, such as mild emotional discomfort, but nothing beyond what is experienced in daily life. Participants may benefit from participating through self-reflection about teaching approaches, raised awareness of issues encountered by ESL students, or the opportunity to express one's opinion, but the primary benefit is to society. The benefit to society is that invaluable information on differences among faculty members in their approaches to educating ESL students might be gained through this study.

Participation is voluntary, and you have the right to terminate your participation at any time without penalty. Please address any concerns you might have about this survey to the only two people who will have access to the data, Helene Brou (hbrou@student.govst.edu), a Master's student in Psychology, and Dr. Barbara Gormley (bgormley@govst.edu), an Associate Professor in Psychology.

Thank you for your participation.

By selecting "Agree" below, I acknowledge that I have taught college classes in the past two years and I am participating in this study of my own free will. I understand that I may refuse to participate or stop participating at any time without penalty. If I wish, I may keep a copy of this consent form.
Appendix C

Demographic Questionnaire

Instructions: Please circle the number (or fill in the blank) to describe yourself.

A. Gender: Male _____ Female _____ Transgender ________

B. Age __________

C. Race/ Ethnicity: D. Nationality

(1) African descent (1) American born
(2) Arabic descent (2) Born outside the U.S.
(3) Asian/ Pacific Islands ___________ (Where?)
(4) European descent/ White
(5) Hispanic
(6) Native/ Indian/ Alaska Eskimo
(7) Multiracial/ Biracial
(8) Other (Please Specify): __________

E. What is your native language? ___________

F. Do you speak any other languages (fluently)? No: _____ Yes: _____

If Yes, please indicate all languages spoken fluently: _______

G. How would you describe your religious affiliation? ____________

H. Highest Degree: Masters _____ Specialist _____ Doctorate _____

I. Teaching Discipline: ____________ J. Teaching Department: _______

K. Years of teaching experience: _____

L. Do you teach primarily? (1) Undergraduates: _____

(2) Master’s Students: _____
(3) Doctoral Students: _____

M. Do you work at a: (1) Community college? _____

(2) 4-year University? _____
(3) University with graduate programs? _____
N. What is the name of your current school? ________________

O. Please indicate if your current school is: (1) Public: _______ (2) Private: _______

P. How many ESL students do you teach on average?
   (1) Per class? _____
   (2) Per year? _____

Q. Are numbers of ESL students
   (1) Increasing? _____
   (2) Decreasing? _____
   (3) Unsure? _____
Appendix D

Social Desirability Scale, Short Form C

Instructions: Please select either “True” or “False for each item below:

T  F 1. It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged

T  F 2. I sometimes feel resentful when I don’t get my way

T  F 3. On a few occasions, I have given up doing something because I thought too little of my ability

T  F 4. There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right

T  F 5. No matter who I’m talking to, I’m always a good listener

T  F 6. There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone

T  F 7. I’m always willing to admit it when I make a mistake

T  F 8. I don’t find it particularly difficult to get along with loud mouthed, obnoxious people

T  F 9. I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable

T  F 10. I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own

T  F 11. There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others

T  F 12. I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favors of me

T  F 13. I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone’s feelings.
Appendix E

EELS

**Instructions:** Please rate your ESL students on their English language proficiency skills by filling in the number corresponding to your response.

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<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Somewhat Disagree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Somewhat Agree</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
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___1. I have a lower expectation for ESL students in my classes.

___2. My ESL students earn lower grades than native-speakers in my classes.

___3. We should not expect similar English proficiency from nonnative English speaking students as from native speakers.

___4. Primarily, it is the ESL student's responsibility to seek help with English.

___5. ESL students seem confident in their English language ability in my classes.

___6. The university should be satisfied with the current level of English proficiency of our ESL students.

___7. By the time ESL students get to the upper-division undergraduate courses at my school, their English language skills are generally quite strong.

___8. My ESL students struggle with my course requirements due to their study skills.

___9. My ESL students struggle with my course requirements due to their study habits.

___10. My ESL students struggle with my course requirements due to their cultural background.
11. My ESL students struggle with my course requirements due to their weak English proficiency.

12. Having ESL students in my classes has little effect on the way I teach.

13. Students have to read and understand the course readings to be able to pass my classes.

14. English language teaching to ESL students is primarily the responsibility of English teachers.

15. Some ESL students' unwillingness to participate in class is more of a cultural issue than an English language issue.

16. We should raise the level of English proficiency among our ESL students before they enter general education (GE) and introductory major classes.

17. Because time is limited and material to cover is substantial, I simply do not have time to do much about the English quality of ESL students’ work.

18. My ESL students have adequate English language skills to understand reading assignments.
___19. My ESL students have adequate English language skills to understand and follow class instructions.

___20. My ESL students have adequate English language skills to meaningfully participate in class discussion.

___21. My ESL students have adequate English language skills to produce comprehensible, acceptable work in writing.

___22. My ESL students have adequate English language skills to give comprehensible, acceptable oral presentations.

___23. ESL students in my class have difficulty understanding me when I speak to them.

___24. ESL students in my class have difficulty understanding the reading assignments.

___25. ESL students in my class have difficulty completing the writing assignments.

___26. ESL students in my class have difficulty expressing themselves clearly in class discussions.

___27. ESL students in my class have difficulty grasping complex subjects that I cover in class.

___28. I have difficulty understanding my ESL students when they speak to me.

___29. I have difficulty understanding my ESL students when they read a passage out loud in class.

___30. I have difficulty understanding the writing my ESL students do on exams, such as
short-answer and essay questions.

31. I have difficulty understanding the writing my ESL students do on homework.
Appendix F

MES

Directions: To the best of your knowledge, please self-assess your ability to do the various items below by filling in the number corresponding to your answer.

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<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1 = I do not believe I could do this very well.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2 = I could probably do this if I had to, but it would be different for me.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3 = I believe that I could do this reasonably well if I had time to prepare.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>4 = I am quite confident that this would be easy for me to do.</td>
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____ 1. I can provide instructional activities to help students to develop strategies for dealing with racial confrontations.
____ 2. I can adapt instructional methods to meet the needs of learners from diverse groups.
____ 3. I can develop materials appropriate for the multicultural classroom.
____ 4. I can develop instructional methods that dispel myths about diverse groups.
____ 5. I can analyze instructional materials for potential stereotypical and/or prejudicial content.
____ 6. I can help students to examine their own prejudices.
____ 7. I can present diverse groups in our society in a manner that will build mutual respect.
____ 8. I can provide instruction showing how prejudice affects individuals.
____ 9. I can develop activities that increase the self-confidence of diverse students.
____ 10. I can plan instructional activities to reduce prejudice toward diverse groups.
____ 11. I can identify cultural biases in commercial materials used in teaching.
____ 12. I can help students work through problem situations caused by stereotypical and/or prejudicial attitudes.
INFLUENCES ON FACULTY PERCEPTIONS OF ELL STUDENTS

1 = I do not believe I could do this very well.
2 = I could probably do this if I had to, but it would be different for me.
3 = I believe that I could do this reasonably well if had time to prepare.
4 = I am quite confident that this would be easy for me to do.

____ 13. I can get students from diverse groups to work together.
____ 14. I can identify school practices that may harm diverse students.
____ 15. I can identify solutions to problems that may arise as the result of diversity.
____ 16. I can identify the societal forces which influence opportunities for diverse people.
____ 17. I can identify ways in which various groups contribute to our pluralistic society.
____ 18. I can help students take on the perspective of ethnic and cultural groups different from their own.
____ 19. I can help students view history and current events from diverse perspectives.
____ 20. I can involve students in making decisions and clarifying their values regarding multicultural issues.

Directions: CIRCLE one of the five numbers below.

21. Which position most closely reflects your strongest beliefs about teaching?

1 = If every individual learned to accept and work with every other person, then there would be no intercultural problems.
2 = If all groups could be helped to contribute to the general good and not seek special
recognition, we could create a unified America.

3 = All cultural groups are entitled to maintain their own identity.

4 = All cultural groups should be recognized for their strengths and contributions.

5 = Some groups need to be helped to achieve equal treatment before we can reach the goals of a democratic society.
Appendix G

M-GUDS-S

Instructions: Please indicate how descriptive each statement is of you by filling in the number corresponding to your response. This is not a test, so there is no right or wrong, good or bad answers. All responses are anonymous and confidential.

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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>a little bit</td>
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____1. I am interested in learning about the many cultures that have existed in this world.
____2. I attend events where I might get to know people from different racial backgrounds.
____3. I would like to join an organization that emphasizes getting to know people from different countries.
____4. I would like to go to dances that feature music from other countries.
____5. I often listen to music of other cultures.
____6. In getting to know someone, I like knowing both how he/she differs from me and is similar to me.
____7. I can best understand someone after I get to know how he/she is both similar and different from me.
____8. Knowing how a person differs from me greatly enhances our friendship.
____9. Knowing about the different experiences of other people helps me understand my own problems better.
____10. Persons with disabilities can teach me things I could not learn elsewhere.
11. I am only at ease with people of my race.
12. It is really hard for me to feel close to a person from another race.
13. Getting to know someone of another race is generally an uncomfortable experience for me.
14. I often feel irritated by persons of a different race.
15. It is very important that a friend agrees with me on most issues.
### Appendix H

**ECR-R Questionnaire**

**Instructions:** The statements below concern how you feel in emotionally intimate relationships.

We are interested in how you *generally* experience relationships, not just in what is happening in a current relationship. Respond to each statement by **filling in the number** to indicating how much you agree or disagree with the statement.

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<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
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____1. I'm afraid that I will lose my partner's love.

____2. I often worry that my partner will not want to stay with me.

____3. I often worry that my partner doesn't really love me.

____4. I worry that romantic partners won’t care about me as much as I care about them.

____5. I often wish that my partner's feelings for me were as strong as my feelings for him or her.

____6. I worry a lot about my relationships.

____7. When my partner is out of sight, I worry that he or she might become interested in someone else.

____8. When I show my feelings for romantic partners, I'm afraid they will not feel the same about me.

____9. I rarely worry about my partner leaving me.

____10. My romantic partner makes me doubt myself.
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<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
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11. I do not often worry about being abandoned.
12. I find that my partner(s) don't want to get as close as I would like.
13. Sometimes romantic partners change their feelings about me for no apparent reason.
14. My desire to be very close sometimes scares people away.
15. I'm afraid that once a romantic partner gets to know me, he or she won't like who I really am.
16. It makes me mad that I don't get the affection and support I need from my partner.
17. I worry that I won't measure up to other people.
18. My partner only seems to notice me when I’m angry.
19. I prefer not to show a partner how I feel deep down.
20. I feel comfortable sharing my private thoughts and feelings with my partner.
21. I find it difficult to allow myself to depend on romantic partners.
22. I am very comfortable being close to romantic partners.
23. I don't feel comfortable opening up to romantic partners.
24. I prefer not to be too close to romantic partners.
25. I get uncomfortable when a romantic partner wants to be very close.
26. I find it relatively easy to get close to my partner.
27. It's not difficult for me to get close to my partner.
28. I usually discuss my problems and concerns with my partner.
29. It helps to turn to my romantic partner in times of need.
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</table>

30. I tell my partner just about everything.

31. I talk things over with my partner.

32. I am nervous when partners get too close to me.

33. I feel comfortable depending on romantic partners.

34. I find it easy to depend on romantic partners.

35. It's easy for me to be affectionate with my partner.

36. My partner really understands me and my needs.
Appendix I

Open Question

Is there anything else you would like to tell us about teaching ESL students? (Optional)