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Subtle Messages: An Examination of Diversity in the Illustrations of Secondary Level One French Textbooks

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SUBTLE MESSAGES:
AN EXAMINATION OF DIVERSITY IN THE ILLUSTRATIONS OF SECONDARY LEVEL ONE FRENCH TEXTBOOKS
SUBTLE MESSAGES:
AN EXAMINATION OF DIVERSITY IN THE ILLUSTRATIONS OF SECONDARY LEVEL ONE FRENCH TEXTBOOKS

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy in Curriculum and Instruction

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ABSTRACT

Textbooks in all content areas have been criticized for the hidden curriculum that subtly teaches messages, which elevate some cultural groups while diminishing the efforts and contributions of other cultural groups. Research into the hidden curriculum and inclusion of diversity in French textbooks has been limited. The present study focused on the inclusion of diversity in terms of race/ethnicity, gender, socioeconomic status, disability, and body size present in the illustrations of the three newest French One textbooks. Results indicate that diversity has increased but the diversity within the illustrations does not always mirror the actual demographics of the United States public school classrooms.
This dissertation is approved for recommendation to the Graduate Council.

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I would like to thank Dr. Freddie Bowles for her encouragement, advice, and patience as I completed my Ph.D. courses and my dissertation. Without her feedback and support, I would not have made it to this point.

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I also would like to thank my mom, Brenda Adamson, for her unconditional love, encouragement, and example throughout my life. She has always encouraged me to follow my dreams and to hold on to faith even in the darkest of valleys. When I have been on top of a mountain and down in a valley, my mom has always been my fortress and my rock.

Finally, I am thankful to God for the opportunities He has put in my path. Through Him all things are possible.
DEDICATION

This project is the culmination of an interest and love of foreign languages that began in eighth grade. As one of only 15 students selected to enroll in an introductory French class, I had the opportunity to explore, learn, and love the French language before the majority of my classmates. Ms. Els Cranor, my first French teacher, selected me as one of her French students for that introductory class. Throughout that year, her teaching, stories of her experiences, and her belief in me, fueled a love of language learning which led me on the path of foreign language education.

Ms. Mary Jeffers, my second French teacher, holds an equally important place in my life. She cultivated my love of French in high school, encouraged me, cheered for me, and helped me, as I followed my dream to become a French teacher. When my dream of becoming a French teacher was realized, Ms. Jeffers became both my mentor and friend. Throughout my career in the classroom, Ms. Jeffers advised me and helped me to understand the bigger picture. Her care and belief in me has left an indelible stamp on my life. Ms. Jeffers did not live to see me attain this degree but I would be remiss not to honor her for her contributions to my life.

Additionally, I dedicate this dissertation to the two teachers who took time to love me, teach me, and encourage me when I was painfully timid and scared: Mrs. Wilkinson and Ms. Kunz. From Mrs. Wilkinson’s kindergarten class to Ms. Kunz’ first grade class, they showed the love, encouragement, and patience needed to teach a little boy that did not fit into the traditional mold. Without them, I could have easily been turned off by school rather than turned on to a love of learning and teaching.
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PROLOGUE

My interest in teaching and textbooks began at an early age. I remember looking intently and closely at the images and illustrations in my first grade reading and math textbooks, often envious of Miss Kunz and all of those teacher’s editions that she had on the shelf. As time passed, my interest in education and what constituted a “good” textbook increased. Teachers began letting me look at the sample textbooks that arrived for them to consider during textbook adoption. Some teachers even valued my opinion in choosing the textbooks, wanting a student perspective since the students would be most affected by the choice of textbook. It never occurred to me that as I examined these textbooks, what I considered a good textbook might not be considered “good” by other students. I easily saw myself in the pages of the textbooks through the illustrations and activities that filled the pages. Other students did not always have that perspective.

As time passed and my formative school years ended, I followed the path meant for me: teacher. After gaining a love of French in middle school and high school, I knew that is where my talents as a teacher would best be served. Upon graduation, my teaching career began and I had the opportunity to choose and integrate these textbooks into the curriculum. Although I was well educated, it still never occurred to me to analyze their contents to ensure that all of my students would see themselves within the covers of their books. After examining textbooks—both professionally and as a student—for many years, I was a victim of only viewing the books through my own cultural lens.

Over the course of a 14-year career teaching French in rural, urban, and suburban settings, it became evident that all students, regardless of geographical location, were
unaware of the diversity that exists throughout the French-speaking world. Class
discussions often included students asking if there were Black people in France or who
spoke French. This begs the question as to whether all students see themselves reflected
within the French textbook and what messages students were learning from their books.
From my experiences teaching a diverse student population, I wanted to find out if the
textbooks accurately represented students using the textbooks according to race/ethnicity,
gender, socio-economic status, disability, and body size.
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Statement of Problem

Diversity in the United States as it relates to race and ethnicity has shifted in the last 20 years. In 1990, the general student population was 67% White, 17% Black, and 4% Other. By 2010 the population was 54% White, 15% Black, and 8% Other, reflecting a more diverse student population. These statistics do not take into account the Hispanic population, which is considered part of the White race (National Center for Education Statistics, 2011). The question remains as to whether foreign language textbooks reflect these changing demographics.

Most foreign language study in the United States begins during high school. Recent statistics from the U.S. Department of Education National Center for Education Statistics (2011) indicates that in the fall of 2012, an estimated 14.5 million students attended grades 9 to 12 in the public schools across the nation. The question of whether these students see themselves reflected in their textbooks is the focus of this study.

In the public school system of the United States, textbooks are as commonplace as the teachers, students, and desks. According to Gay (2010), the textbook is the most commonly used curriculum. Based on informal conversations with foreign language teachers, many educators and students assume that French textbooks are multicultural and diverse in the sense that they represent an increasingly diverse society.

Demographics of the U.S. Public School System

According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2011), the most recent statistics reflecting the school population from the 2010-2011 school year reported a total
of 49,402,385 students in the public school systems of the United States. Of that total number, 564,949 (1.14%) were American Indian/Alaska Native. Two of the categories of race used by schools, Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander and Asian, were combined in the data for a total of 2,457,341 (4.97%) students. The number of Black/African American students numbered 7,911,927 (16.02%). The total number of Hispanic students was 11,399,633 (23.02%). White students in the public school systems totaled 25,907,184 (52.44%). Students reporting two or more races numbered 1,161,351 (2.35%).

Race and ethnicity are not the only indicators of diversity in the classroom. Socio-economic status is another indicator of diversity. The National Center for Education Statistics (2011) reports that 21% of the population aged 5 to 17 live in poverty. This begs the question as to whether French textbooks accurately represent this sub-population both in terms of French speaking cultures and students in the United States learning French language and culture. If students of poverty do not see their experiences reflected in the textbook, do they begin to believe that the study of French is for the more affluent?

Students in U.S. classrooms today represent a variety of multicultural characteristics (National Center for Education Statistics, 2011). These students may sense their place within the school-wide curriculum through the representations and placement of various cultural characteristics in the curriculum materials that are used (Banks, 2008). Foreign language is no exception. Should a student not see himself reflected in the foreign language textbook, he may feel disconnected and less motivated to learn (Wirtenberg, 1980).
Background of the Study

According to Golden (2006), contemporary textbook publishers have indicated that their products are intended to reflect the demographics of either the national or school population. In order to ensure a balance of diverse images, publishers have set quotas within the images of the textbooks to reflect a diverse society. However, some of these images may not be accurate. For example, students pictured with disabilities requiring wheelchairs and crutches do not seem to reflect actual disabilities often seen within the school setting, such as cerebral palsy or muscular dystrophy. Golden points out that the representations in images of persons with disabilities are often able-bodied models that have been hired and placed in wheelchairs or crutches. Golden found that for publishers such as Houghton Mifflin®, an estimation of as many as three-fourths of persons portrayed as disabled are, in actuality, not disabled (2006).

Students remember the images they encounter in their textbooks (Allen, 2010). Knowing this, the message being sent to a diverse student population may be mixed. Does the message accurately depict all groups’ contributions and involvement in the content area being studied?

Textbook publishers, such as Macmillan®, have noted that students learn much more than academic content in textbooks. They also learn subtly how certain groups in society are perceived (Evans & Davies, 2000). Other publishers have readily admitted that textbooks teach more than learning skills. Ginn and Company® noted that students are unconsciously taught either positive or negative attitudes concerning, among other things, race, gender, and other ethnicities, for example (Britton & Lumpkin, 1977).
According to Apple (1986), the textbook wields considerable power and influence to teach messages about society not only in the United States but also worldwide. It is, as he states, “…the textbook which establishes so much of the material conditions for teaching and learning in classrooms in many countries throughout the world…the textbook often defines what is elite and legitimate culture to pass on…” (p. 81). Textbooks, regardless of the content area, contain and subsequently transmit what is considered to be “legitimate knowledge,” representing the values of those who have the most control within a society. In some instances, however, these textbooks may provide progressive values according to the opinions and views of the authors (Apple, 1989).

French textbooks are not exempt from these allegations, and if the publishers’ efforts to be more diverse are correct, these textbooks deserve a closer examination. Students in French classes are being taught from textbooks, which may or may not send unwritten messages concerning the value and contributions of different cultural groups rather than celebrating and acknowledging the diversity that exists (Chapelle, 2009). Language textbooks often play a central and dominant role in the classroom. They often contain what is considered a “hidden curriculum” (Chapelle, 2009). This hidden curriculum may not be overt, but the students and teachers who use these textbooks subconsciously learn messages based on the content and the images, suggesting that learning a language is for those who can afford to travel. It is important that the images and illustrations promote an understanding that will lessen the idea that learning French or any other language is only for those who will use it for pleasurable purposes, such as traveling (Boyer & Baptiste, 1996). Theisen (2014) notes that learning French opens doors of opportunity in many organizations, may be useful in college, and will
allow them to make connections between the United States and the French-speaking world.

Prior to 1970, images of diversity were rarely found in textbooks (Britton & Lumpkin, 1976). With changes in attitudes, spurred by the passing of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, images of diversity began to appear, including the inclusion of minorities and females (Butterfield, Demos, Grant, Moy, and Perez, 1979; Marshall, 2002).

In addition to a lack of diversity, textbooks have been criticized for the stereotypic views they portray (Good, Woodzicka, & Wingfield, 2010). To compound the problem, Bazler and Simonis (as cited in Good, et al., 2010) cautioned that the images in textbooks might promote the hidden curriculum of what constitutes a perfect society. This has a possibility of having an effect on children’s academic or career interests (Good, et al., 2010). The influence of the textbook on the curriculum cannot be overlooked, as these texts are influential in developing or stifling multicultural awareness (Ilett, 2009).

Banks (2008) asserts that textbook content of ethnic and cultural groups should be included as part of the textbook rather than as an “add-on or appendage.” When presented as an addition rather than an integral part of the textbook, ethnic content is not seen as part of the mainstream American “meta-narrative” (p. 119). Students may perceive certain groups, with which many may identify, as outsiders on the periphery rather than productive, essential members of society.

Race and ethnicity are not the only demographics associated with the school population. Class, socio-economic status, and disability are also factors in the student population. According to Gollnick and Chin (2013), almost half of the population is not reflected in the curriculum of most schools or textbooks. Both have a tendency to reflect
the values and lifestyles of the middle class while generally neglecting students of poverty.

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study focuses on how images in current secondary level one French textbooks reflect multicultural content. Level one was chosen for two reasons: 1) this is the first year that students take French, and 2) students begin forming attitudes and beliefs about their importance and inclusion in the French-speaking world. By examining level one French textbooks, the results will be generalizable to more advanced levels of each series while also allowing a comparison of multicultural diversity between different textbooks.

According to Gollnick and Chin (2013), multicultural education is “an educational strategy in which students’ cultures are used to develop effective classroom instruction and school environments” (p. 3). Teachers of the twenty-first century are met with classrooms of diverse students of many different backgrounds. The question remains as to whether the instructional materials used portray all students without promoting a hidden curriculum that diminishes some and elevates others. To that end, the three most recent textbooks from Holt-McDougal ® and EMC Publishing ® were examined for multicultural representation in the images and illustrations using content analysis. Glencoe has been excluded due to the age of the textbook and the improbability of it being revised in the future. The illustrations presented in each of the included student textbooks were analyzed with an emphasis on diversity rather than uniformity. Only images and illustrations in color were analyzed. Black and white images and
illustrations were not examined due to the inability to accurately determine characteristics such as race and ethnicity. Those textbooks and publishers include the following:


**Research Questions**

Three research questions guide the examination of diversity in level one French textbooks:

1. To what extent do the illustrations in three level one French textbooks reflect the demographics of the U.S. school population in regards to
   a. race/ethnicity,
   b. gender, and
   c. socio-economic status

2. To what extent do the illustrations in three level one French textbooks represent persons with identifiable disabilities?

3. To what extent do the illustrations in three level one French textbooks represent body size?

**Definition of Terms**

The following terms and definitions are used throughout this study. Their inclusion is intended to provide consistency and background while at the same time highlighting important concepts underlying the present study.
**American Indian/Alaska Native**—“a person having origins in any of the original peoples of North and South America (including Central America) and who maintains tribal affiliation or community attachment” (Office of Management and Budget, 1997).

**Asian**—“a person having origins in any of the original peoples of the Far East, Southeast Asia, or the Indian subcontinent including, for example, Cambodia, China, India, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Pakistan, the Philippine Islands, Thailand, and Vietnam” (Office of Management and Budget, 1997).

**Black**—“a person having origins in any of the Black racial groups of Africa” (Office of Management and Budget, 1997).

**Body Size**—an individual’s physical characteristics, including physique and body build (Zinn, 1990).

**Disability**—also termed exceptionality; “encompasses learning and/or behavior problems, physical or sensory disabilities” (Gollnick & Chin, 2013, p. 381)

**Diversity**—“All aspects of peoples identities that help define who they are. Aspects of identity include ethnicity, social class, race, gender, sexual identity, age, and ability, among others” (Amburgy, 2011, p. 6).

**Ethnicity**—“An ethnic group that has unique behavioral and/or racial characteristics that enable other groups to easily identify its members” (Banks, 2008, p. 134).

**Excess weight**—preferred over terms such as obesity or overweight (Volger et al., 2012).

**Gender**—socially constructed; varies between cultures (Rothenberg, 2001); for purposes of this study, the traditional masculine or feminine characteristics of American culture as viewed through the researcher’s cultural lens.
**Hidden Curriculum**—“Norms and values that are implicitly, but effectively taught in schools and that are not usually talked about in teachers’ statements of end goals” (Apple, 2004, p. 78).

**Hispanic/Latino**—“a person of Cuban, Mexican, Puerto Rican, South or Central American, or other Spanish culture or origin, regardless of race” (Office of Management and Budget, 1997).

**Middle Class**—“A group whose members earn annual incomes that allow them to have a standard of living that includes owning a home and a car. Members include blue-collar workers, white-collar workers, professionals, and managers” (Gollnick & Chin, 2013, p. 385).

**Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander**—“A person having origins in any of the original peoples of Hawaii, Guam, Samoa, or other Pacific Islands.” (Office of Management and Budget, 1997).

**Upper Class**—“A group whose members earns the highest annual incomes and has the greatest wealth.” (Gollnick & Chin, 2013, p. 389).

**Upper Middle Class**—“An affluent group in the Middle Class whose members are highly educated professionals, managers, and administrators” (Gollnick & Chin, 2013, p. 389).

**White**—“A person having origins in any of the original people of Europe, the Middle East, or North Africa.” (Office of Management and Budget, 1997).

**Working Class**—“A group whose members hold manual jobs that do not generally require postsecondary education, except for the skilled jobs” (Gollnick & Chin, 2013, p. 390).
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Textbooks in all content areas provide a rich source for research on visual imagery that depicts various characteristics, such as race/ethnicity, gender, and the inclusion of students with special needs. Using the search engines EbscoHost, ProQuest, and JStor, a search was conducted to identify studies of foreign language textbooks, specifically French. The search results for “content analysis” and “French textbooks” yielded limited sources. To expand the search, the terms “illustrations,” “visual imagery,” “diversity,” and “multicultural content” were combined with the search word “textbooks.” This expanded search yielded many studies outside the field of foreign languages but applicable to the purposes of this study. Further research led to a search for “hidden curriculum,” “culturally relevant pedagogy,” and “textbooks.” The search results included examinations into the hidden curriculum of university textbooks and multicultural representations in international textbooks. The additional studies found concerning the hidden curriculum, race/ethnicity, gender, socio-economic status, disabilities, and body image help support the research questions:

1. To what extent do the illustrations in three level one French textbooks reflect the demographics of the U.S. school population in regards to:
   a. race/ethnicity
   b. gender
   c. socio-economic status

2. To what extent do the illustrations in the three level one French textbooks represent persons with identifiable disabilities?
3. To what extent do the illustrations in the three level one French textbooks represent body size?

**Influences of the textbook**

**Influences of Textbooks Within the Classroom**

Textbooks may wield considerable influence both on content and student beliefs. The content of textbooks is presented in ways that influence learners and their beliefs about the world (Brunner, 2006). Textbooks are an important part of the education of students in the United States. According to Kern-Foxworth (1989), it is possible that a student reads between 25,000 and 30,000 pages from textbooks as part of his or her elementary and secondary school education (as cited in Brunner, 2006, p. 44).

According to Valverde, Bianchi, Wolfe, Schmidt, and Houang (2002) the textbook has a “strong impact” on what takes place in classrooms (p. 2). For many students, 75% of time in class is spent using the textbook and related materials (Apple, 1986). Not only does the textbook influence the content of the curriculum, but it also guides the experiences that students have with that particular content area. Textbooks transmit information that helps form attitudes in students, with textbook authors being the “informants” that provide this information to students (Schulz, 1987, p. 97).

As a tool for learning, textbooks generally contain the skills and knowledge that society has determined to be important, supported by the authors and editors of the textbook. The finished product of those editorial decisions contains not only content but also the vision of the authors in regards to that subject. In essence, students are experiencing the content through the lens of the author, which may lead the textbook to
gain considerable political relevance in addition to the subject area content (Valverde et al., 2002).

Textbooks also play an influential role in the experiences of the classroom. Directly and indirectly, textbooks exert power in the classroom through the amount of time students spend with the information included in the textbook. In many instances, the content of the textbook drives instruction in the classroom, with teachers allowing the textbook to determine the content to be covered, the instructional approach to be used, and the amount of time devoted to each (Reys, Reys, and Chavez, 2004; Valverde et al., 2002). The many lessons within the textbook influence students both directly and indirectly. Students have direct contact with the textbook and the lessons included. Indirectly, the instructional time devoted to the lessons in the textbook affects students. The textbook often determines the amount of instructional time devoted to a particular concept or skill (Valverde et al., 2002).

**External Influences of the Textbook**

Influences on the textbook can also be seen through the content of the textbook. A careful analysis of textbooks reveals that they teach much more than content knowledge. Woven within the content are societal influences such as race, gender, and class (Apple, 1989). As previously mentioned, the textbook influences how students view the world and other people. When there is a disproportionate representation of some cultural groups over other cultural groups, this may lead to stereotypes and misconceptions of underrepresented people groups (Brunner, 2006).

The subtle influences that permeate textbooks may be better understood by examining who controls decisions regarding content. Editors and decision makers in the
world of textbook publishing are often males, while women are often copy editors or delegated to working within departments as secretaries, assistants, and publicists (Apple, 1986; Apple, 1989). As the finished product is completed, the textbook includes those “ideological leanings of some authors and editors” with a focus on the European-American experience (Apple, 1989, p. 286; Marshall, 2002).

Another undue influence may be linked to pressure from outside sources on the textbook publishing industry. To make a profit, publishers must please the public in order to sell the textbooks. In the United States, many states follow a process of state adoption, where textbooks are replaced every few years and a state committee approves new textbooks available for purchase. For any given textbook, the timeline of influence ranges from five to seven years, in most cases, due to the nature of textbook adoption. This translates to a textbook influencing many students over the span of the adoption. During this period, each particular textbook in use has the power to “define and delimit the possible experiences afforded to students for learning” (Valverde et al., 2002, p. 6).

**Negative Influences of the Textbook in the Content Area Classroom**

The exclusion of cultural groups in textbooks negatively affects members of those groups (Wirtenberg, 1980). This negative effect can be found in groups based on ethnicity, gender, exceptionality, and socio-economic status. The influence of the textbook permeates many content areas, so the quality and content of the textbook is an important factor to be considered (Gay, 2010). In most classrooms, including foreign language, the textbook plays a prominent role. Time constraints, language fluency of the teachers, and a visual way of measuring progress have all been listed as factors for the use of the textbook in language classrooms (Askildson, 2008; Roberts, 1996). The
factors may be justifiable but inevitably, the textbook continues to hold influence for impressionable students. For many teachers, the textbook is viewed with an element of trust in those who wrote and produced the textbook. The underlying premise is that publishers and writers know and publish what is best for teachers and learners, leading to teachers and learners who become dependent on the textbook (Hutchinson and Torres, 1994).

Dependence on textbook content and the trust given to the authors may influence student beliefs about society. Textbooks provide a “snapshot” of the intricate workings of the greater society and culture (Yamada, 2010). The curricula, and subsequently the textbooks, are shaped by cultural and social beliefs (Lee, 2011). Students assume that all of the content of textbooks are correct and truthful and authentic (Gay, 2010). The content of the textbook includes photographs and illustrations, which students see as “objective slices of reality.” This assumption allows the photographs in the textbooks to influence users, which leads the students to take these false assumptions and possible prejudices gained from the textbook and internalize them (Allen & Wallace, 2010; Marmer, Marmer, Hitomi, & Sow, 2010).

Porreca (1984) discussed a correlation between the content of the textbooks and the attitude of students. Young students using a reading program that contained noticeable sexist bias exhibited differing levels of bias. For students using the program for a longer period of time, a correlation was found between the amount of time used with the program and their attitudes towards males and females. The danger in the influence of the textbook and possible bias is greater for younger learners, who are often more impressionable than adults, trusting that the content of the textbook is truth
(Porreca, 1984; Yamada, 2010). Students take theses subtle messages of sexism and consequently become biased (Porreca, 1984).

In other situations, the effect on students is not one of reinforcement of biases, but one that emotionally damages students (Gay, 2010). Gay continues to explain that students whose cultural groups are portrayed negatively or only included minimally within the textbooks may feel insulted, embarrased, and ashamed. The absence of information subtly teaches students about which groups are relevant and which groups are irrelevant in society (2010).

For students of the dominant group, emotional effects are also felt as they encounter information about other groups that were not included in textbook content. For White students, after learning of the situation of Japanese Americans in Internment camps during World War II, a feeling of being shortchanged persisted. This effect occurred because of the lack of information regarding Japanese Americans that students had learned based on studies of World War II (Gay, 2010).

Students may not realize the level of influence that textbooks exert. Because the textbook has been published, Askildson (2008) found that students perceive all of the content to be both accurate and valid. In a study of foreign language students, Askildson also found that students believed the writers and authors of the textbooks to be experts, thereby putting their trust in them. Askildson recommends that textbook authors should consider the influences they pass to students through the printed page.

These influences of the textbooks can alter students’ perceptions of their abilities and subsequent career goals. The absence of positive role models in textbooks for
minority students may influence their decisions not to follow their career goals and dreams, leading to non-achievement and disengagement with school (Wirtenberg, 1980).

Rifkin (1998) noted that in terms of gender, even one offensive inclusion of sexism has the ability to counteract what could be seen as an equitable presentation. The exclusion of females in curriculum materials inhibits the learning process.

**Positive Influences of the Textbook in the Content Area Classroom**

The influences of the textbook do not have to be negative. With time, consideration, and careful planning, these influences can have a positive effect on students and the greater society. In reference to students with disabilities, by including accurate portrayals of these students in textbooks, students without disabilities will gain a greater appreciation for their peers (Cheng & Beigi, 2011).

The same phenomenon is true in regards to portrayals of other cultures. Students often have a skewed perception of the African continent. Textbooks can alter this perception by providing positive, accurate photographs and content of the African continent and the people groups who live there. Instead of taking the negative stereotypes gained from textbooks into society, students could arguably gain an appreciation of Africa that would benefit society (Marmer, et al., 2010).

Wirtenberg (1980) cited several studies that indicated the positive influences for students who have used multi-ethnic textbooks with balanced representations. Litcher and Johnson (as cited in Wirtenberg, 1980, p. 14) conducted a study of the effects of the presence or absence of multi-ethnic reading textbooks. Two groups of students were examined during this study, with 34 of the students using a multi-ethnic reading textbook while 34 other students used an all-white reading textbook. After several months of
using these textbooks, four measures of racial attitudes were administered to both groups of students. Results of all four measures indicated that white students who used the multi-ethnic reading textbooks held more positive attitudes towards black students than the group of students using the all-white textbook.

The racial attitudes of Black students also improve with the use of more representative textbooks. Roth (as cited in Wirtenberg, 1980, p, 15) examined the attitudes of black students using a textbook for black studies in the social studies curriculum. Two groups of students were grouped for this study. One group used a black studies textbook for three months while another group used the traditional curriculum. At the culmination of the study, black students who used the black studies textbook had more positive attitudes towards both black and white students.

Attitudes towards other ethnic groups improve with representative textbooks as does the academic achievement of students. Wirtenberg (1980) noted the improved achievement levels of students using diverse multicultural textbooks. All students who used diverse reading textbooks had greater academic reading achievement. The population of students experiencing more academic achievement with these textbooks included White males and females and minority males and females. Achievement also increased for students that used a multicultural social studies textbook.

The Hidden Curriculum of Textbooks

Textbooks promote a hidden curriculum that reinforces the beliefs that students have of other cultural groups. This hidden curriculum promotes the experiences of the dominant group at the expense of minorities and social class groups (Allen & Wallace, 2010; Lee, 2011; Marshall, 2002). This hidden curriculum has been criticized for the
messages that students receive about learning (Chapelle, 2009). The content of the textbooks, both illustrations and the printed word, impacts perceptions that students have of the target culture(s). For that reason, educators must be aware of the hidden content of the materials used in the classroom (Joiner, 1974).

Most textbooks, as mentioned previously, promote the European-American perspective and those dominant ideologies of this cultural group (Allen & Wallace, 2010; Lee, 2011; Marshall, 2002). Textbooks reinforce the values of the dominant group and often stereotype other groups. The textbooks are hegemonic and promote the hidden curriculum favoring white European Americans (Allen & Wallace, 2010). Other cultural groups within the United States are often omitted, indicating the imbalance of textbook content and the prejudice and stereotypes aimed at certain cultural groups. The impression that students receive from their textbooks is of upper-middle class Whites, confirming the dominant status, contributions, and culture of one cultural group while excluding the same information about minorities and social class (Gay, 2010; Lee, 2011).

The experiences of white Americans, although subjective, are interpreted as objective in textbooks. By promoting the experiences and status of white Americans at the expense of other minority groups, textbooks render these groups irrelevant to students using the textbooks. (Gay, 2010). The exclusion of other minorities unconsciously teaches students that those groups do not deserve to be included and are not welcome in more lucrative career fields (Marshall, 2002).

Textbooks, both implicitly and explicitly, also teach social order and cultural values through the hidden curriculum. The cultural lens and worldview promoted by the textbooks have a domino effect on the lives of impressionable students. What is learned
in the classroom impacts students’ roles and lives outside the classroom. Students begin to learn through the textbook’s hidden curriculum about their perceived place in society, leading to a subtle message of how they should act and what they should be (Auerbach & Burgess, 1985).

**Hidden Curriculum at the University Level**

In a study of university psychology students, Hogben & Waterman (1997) noted an absence of minorities in upper level psychology courses. They posited that this could be due to the exclusion of minorities in curriculum content. Being excluded from the content is a negative experience that may influence students’ decisions on continuing studies in psychology or any content area where they are excluded from the curriculum. The promotion of the dominant group at the expense of minorities has an effect on society. Students do not gain experiences from the textbooks that allow them to interact in a diverse society (1997).

Negative effects of omitting people groups from textbooks are not only based on race and ethnicity. When women are not portrayed as often as men, the textbooks subtly teach that women are not as important as men (Porreca, 1984).

Askildson (2008) noted the importance of the textbook for relaying cultural content to students. In many instances, the textbook is the source of cultural information for foreign language students. The foreign language textbook, both implicitly and explicitly, promotes a certain set of cultural values. This hidden curriculum may be more effective with students than the official curriculum because students, as mentioned previously, believe the textbooks to be inerrant and valid.
In discussing the experience of Black Americans in foreign language classes, Moore (2005) noted the tendency of foreign language study in the United States to be associated with White Americans. This leads to what is termed “cultural discontinuity.” Levine (1982) contends that students whose personal culture is similar to the school culture are at an advantage for attaining success (as cited in Moore, 2005).

The disconnect between school and personal culture combined with the skewed perspective of the textbooks has had negative effects on Black Americans, who are often omitted in the textbooks. There are lower enrollments of Black Americans in college foreign language classes than White Americans. It is assumed that enrollments in foreign language courses, where students had a negative attitude about the curricula, would be greater for Black Americans if they had encountered positive experiences with an Afro-centric perspective in previous language study (Anya, 2011; Moore, 2005).

The lack of Black Americans in foreign language classes may also be attributed to the subtle message often received about learning a foreign language. Not explicitly stated, but implicitly learned, is the idea of language learning being only for the culturally advantaged (Kubota, Austin, & Saito-Abbott, 2003).

Even within the dominant group, some sub-groups are given preferential treatment. In French language classrooms, this hidden curriculum often promotes the culture and experiences of the French at the expense of other French-speaking countries, such as Canada (Chapelle, 2009). French textbooks have been criticized for their lack of content focusing on Canada. In many textbooks, Canada is mentioned as part of the French-speaking world; however only one textbook emphasized Canada. For the other
textbooks, subtle messages are being learned through the hidden curriculum, which
deephasizes Canada and emphasized other French speaking regions (Chapelle, 2009).

**The Hidden Curriculum Abroad**

Textbooks in the United States are not the only textbooks that have been
criticized for promoting a hidden curriculum that influences students. Textbooks in
Germany have been studied for the subtle messages of racism that exist within the
textbooks. These messages reflect the racism that exists in society, which could
contribute to racism in students (Marmer, Marmer, Hitomi, & Sow, 2010).

Although the textbooks take a stance of being anti-racist, the content of the
textbooks contain a hidden curriculum that may be unintentional but serves to promote
racist thinking and prejudice. An analysis of the treatment of Africa in German textbooks
reveals the subtle messages that students learn about Africa. By analyzing grammar and
geography textbooks, the researchers found a Eurocentric approach in discussing Africa.
From the textbooks, students gained the impression of a gloomy, frightening, and
hopeless continent (Marmer et al., 2010).

The researchers of the German textbook study not only wanted to know the status
of Africa in textbooks, but they also wanted to know the impression that the treatment of
Africa left with students at different levels. Two categories were found in this study:
Afro-romantic and Afro-pessimistic. An Afro-romantic view is one of wildlife,
landscapes, and a carefree life of an ideal natural world. An Afro-pessimistic view is
characterized by the impression of agony and deprivation (Marmer et al., 2010, p. 6).

German students using these textbooks have a lack of accurate information about
Africa. For these students, Africa is still considered exotic and suffering. However, as
students matured and entered higher grades, Marmer et al. (2010) indicated that skin color lost importance. The impression that students had of Africa is one that parallels the racist colonial portrayal of textbooks and mass media (2010).

In a study of the implicit and explicit themes present in textbooks, Lee (2011) found that textbooks used in South Korea promoted a curriculum focused on the perceived achievements of developed Western countries. Within the textbooks, the United States and Japan were shown as socially responsible, environmentally responsible, willing helpers with no expectation of compensation. This same perspective is not presented of Africa and Asia, where the cultural groups are seen as environmentally irresponsible, with little incentive to complete work.

Lee (2011) found that the positive portrayal of students in the United States as considerate and enjoying school life to be important factors for South Koreans using the textbooks. The idea of small class sizes, where everyone is eager to learn and responsible, has led many South Koreans to choose study abroad in the United States over study abroad in other countries.

The Power of Visual Images

Students readily remember visual images found in textbooks and other curricula more easily than the content of the textbook (Allen, 2010). The primary form of visual imagery found in textbooks is the photograph. According to Allen (2010), textbook photographs should be viewed as carrying subtle messages influencing how students view others. These images may present a false yet easily believable view of reality that stereotypes some groups and renders other groups invisible. These images and illustrations that populate the pages of textbooks are easily accessible to students. They
have the power to wield influence because memory construction is primarily symbolic and many events are remembered through visualization (Green, 2004; Marshall, 2002).

**Influences and Impact**

Illustrations in textbooks have the ability to influence students in a variety of ways. They may lead to certain sentiments and emotions being felt by students. They may also cause attitudes and beliefs to be formed or altered while developing thought processes. Furthermore, these illustrations communicate in a subtle yet powerful way certain beliefs and ideals, which leads to the construction of a social mentality (Arikan, 2005; Badanelli, 2012). These images have a direct influence on motivation, attitude, and emotional responses for students, especially in the beginning years of education. During this stage of education, students are vulnerable and sensitive to these images and illustrations (Badanelli, 2012).

Textbooks exert a subtle influence that teaches how society rewards certain groups of people. According to Marshall (2002), the images that students encounter in their textbooks also have an impact on student learning. Traditionally from a Eurocentric perspective, the textbooks present content (and illustrations) through a cultural lens that subtly teaches lessons about society. From these images and illustrations, students may learn more than was intended through the subtle messages. They may be learning social beliefs and attitudes that reinforce preferences and prejudices found in society (Amburgy, 2011; Marshall, 2002). They may learn lessons about how larger society perceives “self, race, religion, sex, ethnic, and social class groups” (Marshall, 2002, p. 22). Publishers are aware of this phenomenon, admitting that much more is learned through textbooks than just content (Evans and Davies, 2000).
Marshall (2002) continues to explain how the images of textbooks influence identity. The images contained in textbooks influence students by the way group identity is portrayed, which subsequently influences individual identity. For Black Americans, the images may undermine a feeling of self-worth, thus affecting academic performance. To test the influence of images in textbooks, Marshall (2002) conducted a study partially focused on the images contained in 35 textbooks sold in the campus bookstore of a community college. The content analysis of images was to determine the number of images containing Black Americans as compared to White Americans. After tabulating the results, Marshall (2002) found that representation ranged from none to adequate. The most noticeable offenders were textbooks of math, science, technology, law, and history. Psychology and sociology textbooks tended to have more positive portrayals of Black Americans.

In speaking with minority students about the lack of representation in their textbooks, Marshall (2002) found that students wondered why more books portraying Black protagonists were not used in class. Students indicated an inability to identify with books used that portrayed other Black people as being sex objects, servants, or in service sector jobs. When given a text with stereotypical treatment of Black people, the students did not believe that it should be used in classes. Marshall (2002) also indicated that the choice of books read in class had a direct influence on the career choice of students.

When presented with results, teachers were surprised by the lack of minority representation found in textbooks. Students, however, clarified why teachers seemed to be unaware of the issue of representation in the images: Most teachers are White and are adequately represented in the textbooks. As a result, the teachers are unaware of the
problems that minority students may face due to a lack of representation (Marshall, 2002).

In a discussion focusing on diversity and visual imagery, Amburgy (2011) notes that visual representations are constructed versions of reality not objective reflections of what is truly real. They originate from an individual’s or a particular group’s point of view. In many cases, the publisher determines this point of view, and constructs images for purposes of the textbooks, but stages the images in an effort to be diverse (Golden, 2006).

Amburgy (2011) details the subtle messages contained in visual imagery. Within visual representations, elements of diversity such as social class, race, ethnicity, gender, sexual identity, ability, and age, are either protected or challenged. Visual representations provide a specific lens that may be gendered, raced, or classed through which viewers see these representations of diversity. Viewers may see through several different lenses: heterosexual, male, ability, or White. These lenses leave other groups disadvantaged. The stories portrayed through these visual representations may be teaching students about diversity, such as gender, ethnicity, and social class (2011).

When visual representations in textbooks recur, norms are established for the learners. These norms unintentionally teach students to praise some people and blame others, to trust some people and distrust others, and to consider what should be normal versus abnormal (Amburgy, 2011). Those cultural groups who are often represented as being abnormal or worthy of blame are at a disadvantage because this often misleads the viewers (Green, 2004). When viewers use a lens of dominance and accept the message, they are also accepting those positions (Amburgy, 2011).
In a study of visual representations in psychology textbooks, Hogben and Waterman (1997) noted that how a group is represented in illustrations is just as important as the number of times they are represented. Dominance in visual representations, such as being in the foreground or background and standing or sitting, is quickly processed in the brain, as are gender and ethnicity issues (1997).

Gender representation also impacts student perceptions. Good, Woodzicka, and Wingfield (2010) conducted a study into textbook images to test whether the images in science textbooks have an impact on comprehension and anxiety. To test this hypothesis, the authors provided chemistry lessons with fabricated images from a high school science textbook. Groups were assigned a reading with accompanying images that were either gender stereotypic or counter-stereotypic. After one lesson, students completed a comprehension quiz over the material and an anxiety survey. Included was an additional measure to determine if students remembered the images they saw in their textbooks.

Eighty-four percent of the students remembered the images, providing evidence that supports the influence that these textbook images have on students. Other results of the study indicated that female students scored significantly higher on the comprehension quiz if they were in the counter-stereotypic group, which provided fabricated images of more females in science professions. Male students scored higher in the stereotypic group, which included images of males in the science profession (Good et al., 2010).

**Emotional Effects**

Images and illustrations in textbooks also exert emotional effects on students. According to Amburgy (2011), viewers, in this study, students, make meaning of imagery in numerous ways. The common use of images and illustrations in textbooks has a
“variety of effects, such as positive, behavioral, happiness, security, and satisfaction” (Chen, 2010, p. 61). These attitudinal effects are most often found in images from textbooks rather than the printed word, indicating the emotional power of imagery (Chen, 2010).

Images and illustrations in textbooks can be a visual tool of encouragement that teach students both content and conduct (Badanelli, 2012). They may aid in helping students develop attitudes and beliefs that are more accepting and inclusive of groups of people that are different from the dominant group. Badanelli (2012) described images and illustrations as “educators of feelings” (p. 320). This transmittal of emotions and feelings may be subtle, but the power to manipulate and enhance emotions and attitudes is always present.

Examinations of Diversity in Textbooks

Examinations of Diversity in Language Textbooks

Examinations of diversity in language textbooks have focused on English as a Second Language textbooks, English as a Foreign Language textbooks, and foreign language textbooks of languages other than English. One such examination by Auerbach and Burgess (1985) focused on the hidden curriculum found in Survival English as a Second Language textbooks. Survival ESL textbooks provide situations and learning focused on essential daily tasks that are faced by second language learners who are new to the United States. These tasks range from shopping to health care with many other daily situations. This genre of textbook centers on the idea that learning, in this case for adults, should focus on experience and reality. Experience-centered learning coincides
with the basic tenets of communicative language learning, which is student-centered and based in reality (Auerbach and Burgess, 1985).

The authors examined dialogues and scenarios to determine the extent that the textbooks promoted a hidden curriculum. Sometimes subtly and other times explicitly, this hidden curriculum taught students about their place in the world. Auerbach and Burgess (1985) hypothesized that the presentation of reality influenced the subsequent social roles of the students. The authors were critical of these textbooks for their portrayal of tasks that students would most likely not experience, such as lessons on playing golf, a scenario that is unlikely to occur for many newcomers to the United States. Other more pressing scenarios, such as economic problems with health care were ignored.

In addition to unrealistic situations, these textbooks presented “subtle distortions” in relation to housing, health, and work (Auerbach and Burgess, 1985, p. 479). The textbooks under examination failed to prepare students for situations often experienced such as crowded clinics and long queues. The scenarios presented an image of going to a doctor at a moment’s notice. The exclusion of real world, difficult situations, according to the authors, may send a subtle message that crowded clinics and long waits are due to the fault of the students.

Auerbach and Burgess (1985) also criticized the textbooks for prescribing certain roles to students through the scenarios and situations presented in the textbooks. According to Giroux (as cited in Auerbach and Burgess, 1985, p. 483), the curriculum and education in general, are powerful forces in class reproduction. Through the curriculum and classroom, “accepted” social relationships, norms, and values are taught
and reproduced. This often occurs due to the patronizing tone of the textbooks and materials used for instruction in the classroom. This hidden curriculum of social order prepares students for subservient positions in society.

Textbooks used in the teaching of English as a foreign language in Turkey have also been scrutinized for the imbalanced portrayal of various groups of people. Arikan (2005) examined two popular English language textbooks used in Turkey for the representation in illustrations and images according to gender, age, and social class. Using a checklist that had been previously used in other studies, Arikan noted alarming differences in representation.

By gender, the disproportionate representation of men was evident. From both textbooks, 212 (70.20%) men were represented while only 90 (29.80%) women were. The images and illustrations also presented a rather stereotypical view of both men and women in terms of roles and activities. Men were depicted as being the head of the household, observing the activities of the house while women were often seen taking care of the children. When associated with activities, men were depicted playing sports such as basketball, golfing, and fishing. Women, on the other hand, were depicted doing aerobics, yoga, and playing volleyball. Out of all of the depictions, only one female was shown as a business woman (Arikan, 2005).

In an examination of age in these two English textbooks, Arikan (2005) found that older individuals are rarely represented in textbooks. When they are present, they are usually included for the teaching of specific vocabulary words. In most instances, older individuals are portrayed in minor roles as grandparents without representation of other qualities. In general, older persons were rendered almost invisible in the textbooks.
In respect to social class, Arikan (2005) found that the middle class was over represented in these textbooks. The images and illustrations tell a story of middle class life and values, leaving the poor and less fortunate almost invisible. Arikan also found representations of the “lower class” (his term) were often associated with Third World countries. Citizens of the lower class were represented as beggars or as punks and hippies. There were no representations showing members of different socio-economic statuses interacting cooperatively. The subtle message for social class appears to be one of separate lives rather than coexistence (Arikan, 2005).

German textbooks commonly used in the United States were the focus of an examination of diversity by Ilett (2009). Representations were gleaned from photographs, drawing, and tables due to their “immediate impact and visual appeal” (Ilett, 2009, p. 51).

Images were coded according to their representation of racial and ethnic minorities into distinct categories based on their location in the textbook. Each image was only coded once even if the same image occurred several times throughout the textbook. The images were coded as being marked (explicit representations based on location and issues related to minorities and other cues such as non-German names) or unmarked (no explicit markers of placement or language).

Ilett (2009) found that as the textbooks progressed into more advanced levels, representations of minorities decreased. Across three levels of the popular textbook Deutsch Aktuell by EMC Publishing, minority representation decreased from 59 to 37 to 23 beginning with level one and ending with level three. For the series Komm Mitt by Holt-McDougal Publishing ®, levels one and two were fairly equal with 90 and 91
representations to 33 representations in level three. When separated into marked and unmarked images, it was noted that the textbooks contained less marked images than unmarked images at a ratio of 1:2. Although the frequency of minority representation in German textbooks has increased over time, Ilett (2009) cautions that other considerations are important, such as context and integration within the structure of the textbook.

Russian language textbooks have also been examined for diversity. In the study, Rifkin (1998) made two major hypotheses concerning sexism and gender representation in first and second year Russian language textbooks. He made two hypotheses: 1) Recent textbooks would be more representative of gender than textbooks of the past, and 2) Textbooks written by women, or teams of authors with at least one woman, would be more representative than textbooks written by men.

Rifkin (1998) sampled 12 popular Russian language textbooks from the high school and college levels. Two of the textbooks were actually different editions of the same textbook in order to determine if sexism had diminished between editions.

Two chapters of each first year textbook were chosen with the exception of textbooks that contained two volumes. For those textbooks, one chapter of each volume was examined. The chapters chosen for analysis included the grammatical topic of the past tense and the instrumental case, two topics where gender representation is marked in Russian. For second year textbooks, two random chapters were chosen and the same chapters were examined for each textbook. For all of the textbooks, the entirety of both chapters was examined (Rifkin, 1998).

Results of the study indicated that modern textbooks were more equitable than older textbooks. However, the gender of the author(s) was not a reliable factor in
determining gender equity. For gender representation in the textbooks, Rifkin (1998) found room for improvement in all areas. Of 312 possible scores based on the criteria examined, 188 (60%) represented inequity in favor of males, 80 (26%) represented an inequity in favor of females and only 44 (14%) represented gender equity.

Race, ethnicity, and gender are not the only cultural groups that are underrepresented or misrepresented in textbooks. People with disabilities also face inadequate representation in textbooks. The inclusion of students with disabilities in textbooks has benefits for all students by motivating non-disabled students to learn more about their disabled peers. One important lesson that non-disabled students would gain with the inclusion of students with disabilities is one of likeness and similarity. Non-disabled students learn that their peers who are disabled are like them, but they have special needs (Cheng & Beigi, 2011).

Inclusion of disability in Iranian English as a Foreign Language textbooks was the focus of a content analysis conducted in 2011 by Cheng and Beigi. Three textbooks for ages 12 to 14 and four textbooks for ages 15 to 18 were examined. Frequency counts of people with disabilities were calculated in each of the textbooks. If there was a question about an image, the accompanying text was examined for clarification.

Upon completion of the study, the researchers found that three of the textbooks promoted invisibility of people with disabilities and four textbooks had very limited inclusion of students with disabilities. Out of 321 images in the four textbooks for ages 15 to 18, only 15 people with disabilities were represented (Cheng & Beigi, 2011).
Examinations of Diversity in Psychology Textbooks

Content analyses of psychology textbooks have found many textbooks to be lacking in regards to diversity. Hogben and Waterman (1997) conducted a content analysis of diversity in introductory psychology textbooks based on the assumption that the sparse enrollment for minorities in upper level coursework was due to underrepresentation in introductory textbooks. Negative experiences such as this could inhibit students from continuing their studies as upperclassmen, especially since the textbook is the driving force of beginning experiences in the content area. An imbalance in diversity limits education for students. Indirectly, this leads to problems for students when faced with a multiracial and multiethnic society (1997).

To conduct the content analysis, Hogben and Waterman (1997) coded photographs according to race/ethnicity and gender. Five groups were chosen for examination. These groups included Asians, Blacks, Latinos/Latinas, Native Americans and Whites. Pacific Islanders and Near East Asians were excluded because they were not present in the photographs or rarely present.

The findings indicate that when minorities are provided coverage in the textbooks, the majority of time it involves a Black person. Asians are overrepresented by almost double in the textbooks while Latinos/Latinas are underrepresented. Compared to past textbooks, diversity has increased in introductory psychology textbooks but there are still problems that must be corrected (Hogben & Waterman, 1997).

The authors continued to discuss diversity by suggesting that textbooks reflect ideals of equality when status is addressed. They suggested that fair coverage of diversity can be met using frequency counts reflective of social reality but cautioned that
the portrayal of individuals in photographs is equally important to the frequency of representation. Location in the photograph has a long lasting effect. The brain quickly processes whether someone is standing or sitting or located in the foreground as compared with the background. This is also true for race and ethnicity, as well as gender. When information is processed first, it receives greater attention in the brain than later information (Hogben & Waterman, 1997).

Specialized psychology textbooks, such as sports psychology, have also been analyzed for representation of gender and race/ethnicity. Dionne and Albanese (2004) examined 16 Psychology of Sport textbooks published between 1997 and 2004 to determine how accurate portrayals of gender and race/ethnicity were in the included photographs of the textbooks. The specific aim of the study was based on the premise that these textbooks might be contributing to gender and racial stereotyping.

For this study, Dionne and Albanese (2004) coded up to five identifiable people in each photograph. Each person represented in the photographs was categorized according to gender, race/ethnicity, and whether the image was an athlete or an official, such as a coach. Results were compared with the actual participation in sports to determine how accurately the textbooks represented gender and race/ethnicity.

Results of the study indicated that in the category of athletes, 240 (44.7%) were female and 297 (55.3%) were male. Chi square goodness of fit results indicated a significantly disproportionate number of men represented more than women. The representations were stereotypical with men appearing in sports such as wrestling, football, and baseball. Women, however, were portrayed in the sports of gymnastics, volleyball, and softball. According to race, there were 408 (76.3%) representations of
Whites, which is representative of the U.S. Census data, but overrepresentation according to the actual number playing in sports. Minority athletes were underrepresented compared to the number of minority athletes who populate sports teams.

For coaches and other officials, results were just as alarming. Men continued to outnumber women in the photographs of these textbooks. Men were represented 79% of the time, while women were represented only 21% of the time in positions of authority in the field of sports. The disparity according to race was even more apparent. Coaches and officials were portrayed as White in 116 out of 121 representations. This translates to a total of 95.9% of the photographs showing Whites in leadership roles. Psychology of Sport textbooks appeared biased in regards to both race/ethnicity and gender (Dionne & Albanese, 2004).

Body image is another representation that may be overlooked in textbooks. Touster (2000) conducted an investigation into the absence of people who are overweight in psychology textbooks. The study included two distinct categories regarding psychology. The first category included textbooks focused on women in psychology. The second category included general psychology textbooks. A total of five textbooks in the category of women and psychology were sampled and 10 textbooks in the category of introductory psychology were sampled.

For each category, Touster (2000) analyzed the images in the textbooks for their inclusion of people who were considered overweight. For the category of textbooks focusing on women in psychology, results indicated that 81.4% of the images depicted women but only 7.59% depicted people who were overweight. The other two categories of weight had higher representation. For the category of thin, 11.81% of the images were
coded as being representative of “thin.” The remaining 80.59% of images were coded as non-fat/non-thin.

The results for the second category, which focused on general psychology textbooks, revealed 57% of the images were male and 12.36% depicted pictures of people who were overweight. 19.28% of images were coded as “thin.” The remaining 68.36% of images represented people considered non-fat/non-thin (Touster, 2000).

Examination of Diversity in Public Relations Textbooks

The field of Public Relations includes a large number of professionals that are women. However, an examination of the textbooks may give the impression that the field is dominated by men. Brunner (2006) examined six textbooks used in introductory Public Relations courses. Introductory textbooks were chosen because students first encounter the field of Public Relations through these courses.

Photographs in each of the textbooks were analyzed to determine the representation of men and women in each chapter. A total of 187 photographs from the six textbooks were examined. Men were represented in 87 (47%) of the photographs while women were found in 53 (28%) of the photographs. Both men and women were featured in 47 (25%) of the photographs. A chi-square analysis indicated a significant difference in representation with men receiving significantly more representation than women (Brunner, 2006).

Examinations of Diversity in Elementary Reading Textbooks

Several studies have been conducted into the multicultural aspect of illustrations in elementary reading textbooks. These elementary reading textbooks often portray students stereotypically or convey subtle messages through the illustrations provided and
the content of the reading selections. Although not specific to foreign languages, the methods and results of analyses of the content of elementary reading textbooks provides valuable information pertinent to analyzing foreign language textbooks.

A 1979 study by Butterfield, Demos, Grant, Moy and Perez focused on the representation by race in popular elementary reading textbooks of the mid to late 1970s. The study found that many forms of racial bias were eliminated during the 1970s, through a comparison of earlier studies, even noting that well-known publisher Houghton Mifflin had issued guidelines to its authors concerning minority and female representation in textbooks. The guidelines suggested that textbooks were to include at least a twenty percent representation of minorities and a fifty percent representation of females.

The study analyzed the reading selections in five reading textbooks published by Houghton Mifflin in 1976, ranging from first through third grade. Each story was analyzed using three perspectives. Stories were categorized as “all” if it contained only one racial group and “multicultural” if it contained more than one ethnicity. For multicultural stories, characters were coded for the ethnicity of the principal character (Butterfield et al., 1979).

Results of the study indicated that White people continued to dominate the stories in the 52 selections analyzed. Twenty-four (46%) of the stories included all white characters, while only seven (14%) stories included all black characters. For the 21 (40%) stories with both ethnicities represented, there were 12 white characters and nine minority, or non-white, characters considered principle characters in those selections (Butterfield et al., 1979).
Reyhner (1986) conducted a study of Native American representation in elementary reading textbooks. First, third, and fifth grade readers of eight reading series published since 1978 and used in states with at least five million residents were analyzed for the representation of Native Americans. A stratified random sample included 25% of the stories in the textbooks for analysis. The results of the study found that of 203 stories analyzed, only 16 (7.9%) had representations of Native Americans. Of all the stories sampled and analyzed, white characters were seven times more likely to be portrayed than characters of other ethnicities.

Ellen Lewis (1986) focused on the representation of Hispanics in reading textbooks used in California as part of her dissertation. Lewis conducted a content analysis of first through third grade reading textbooks coding characters as main or secondary and human or animal. Each character was also coded as Hispanic, Anglo, other or unknown. Her research found that only eight percent of the characters in the fifty-two book sample were of Hispanic origin, indicating that Hispanics were not well represented in elementary reading textbooks at a time when the population of California was 17% Hispanic.

Representation of another minority group, African Americans, was the focus of a study in 2005 by Brown-Levingston which focused on the portrayal and representation of African Americans in reading textbooks used at the first, third, and fifth grade levels. The reading selections and pictures were analyzed for African American representation. In addition to the characters in the textbooks, the researcher also examined the race and gender of authors for each selection in the readers. From a total of 629 African American characters found in the textbooks, 82 (13%) were main characters. The vast majority,
41 (81.1%), were filler characters with little importance. The remaining 37 (5.9%) characters were categorized as secondary characters.

In addition to race, gender has been the focus of several studies of elementary reading textbooks. One such study was conducted by Kathryn Scott (1981) to analyze the representation of gender in elementary reading textbooks. Three hundred eighty-five stories in reading textbooks for grades one through six were randomly chosen. The content analysis examined, among other things, the gender of the main character. Each main character was coded and assigned to one of four categories. The categories corresponded to the gender of the main character, or characters if more than one main character existed in a selection. The categories included female main character, male main character, female and male main characters, and neutral for stories without main characters.

Scott’s results indicated that 38 percent of main characters were male as compared to 31 percent for females. The other 31 percent were balanced with males and females or neutral for main character. She includes a comparison of reading textbooks published between 1974 and 1976. The dominance of male characters between these two studies decreased from 61% in the earlier readers to 37.6% in the 1978 study (Scott, 1981).

Not only have studies focused solely on gender and race, but also traits attributed to males and females. A 1996 study by Witt focused on gender role orientation. A content analysis was conducted on 16 third grade reading textbooks published since 1993 using the Bem Sex Role Inventory in an effort to categorize each textbook as androgynous or traditional in the portrayal of gender. The characters were coded in four
distinct categories. Male-male was assigned to male characters with stereotypical masculine traits (independent, assertive, forceful). Male-female was assigned to male characters exhibiting traits traditionally considered feminine (shy, gullible, gentle). Females were coded as female-female if the traits of the characters were typically feminine and female-male if the traits were traditionally male.

A total of 3,933 traits were coded. For male characters there were a total of 2,351 traits examined. Of that total, 1,609 (68.4%) traits were coded as male-male while 742 (31.6%) traits were coded as male-female. There were 1,582 traits coded for female characters. Results indicated that female characters were slightly more balanced with 886 (56%) traits coded as female-male and 696 (44%) traits coded as female-female (Witt, 1996).

Hanna Nowakowska (1997) conducted a study of second grade readers used in three California school districts in an effort to determine the gender images represented. The content of all stories in three randomly chosen reading series were examined with the main unit of analysis being the individual story. Only fiction, biographies, autobiographies, and dramas were analyzed. Each character was coded for occupation, among other things. Results indicate that both male and female characters were presented stereotypically, such as female characters working in the home or as teachers and male characters in the military or business setting. Although both genders received equal representation as followers, females were not well-represented in leadership roles.

Other studies focusing on gender included a study by Evans and Davies (2000) of masculine portrayals in elementary reading textbooks. As in the Witt study, the Bem Sex Role Inventory was used. Thirteen elementary reading textbooks from two publishers
were analyzed from the first, third, and fifth grade levels. First grade readers were chosen because they initiate the educational sequence in learning to read. Third and fifth grade textbooks were chosen because national standardized testing takes place in those grades. The textbook series for the analysis were chosen based on the two series being used in the community where the researchers lived. They were interested in the topics children in their community were reading. Only fictional stories were analyzed for masculine portrayals, with a concentration on the main characters in each story. No photos or pictures were analyzed. The unit of analysis was the main character. Only selections in which the words “he” or “she” was found were included in the analysis.

The results of the study indicate that of 241 traits analyzed for male characters, 156 (64.7%) were traditional masculine traits while 85 (35.3%) were traditional feminine traits. There were 199 traits coded for female characters. Of those traits, 118 (59.3%) were considered traditional feminine traits and 81 (40.7%) were considered traditional masculine traits. The third grade readers included more stereotypical portrayals of males and females than did the first and fifth grade readers (Evans and Davies, 2000).
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

Criterion of Study

The present study focused on diversity in the newest secondary French One textbooks used in the United States. To be considered for examination, the textbooks had to be the most recent editions available by well-known publishers. A curiosity for the depth of diversity in a course that strives to teach a celebration of other cultures led to the following research questions:

1. To what extent do the illustrations in three level one French textbooks reflect the demographics of the U.S. school population in regards to
   a. race/ethnicity,
   b. gender, and
   c. socio-economic status?
2. To what extent do the illustrations in three level one French textbooks represent persons with identifiable disabilities?
3. To what extent do the illustrations in three level one French textbooks represent body size?

Textbook Selection

An Internet search of the secondary school publishers of French textbooks was conducted in an effort to determine the newest secondary level one French textbooks available. A total of five textbooks were found as a result of this search. After careful consideration and examination, two textbooks were excluded from this study. The Glencoe textbook was excluded due to the age of the textbooks and the uncertainty of whether the textbook would be updated or phased out; the Vista Higher Learning
textbook appears to be an adaptation of a college French textbook. This textbook also carried an older copyright date from the textbooks included in this study. With a focus on the most recent textbooks for secondary students that are available for adoption by school districts across the United States, three textbooks were found which fit this criterion.

Although other French One textbooks are currently still in use in many classrooms, the most recent French One textbooks were purposefully sampled in order to gauge the illustrative content that will be adopted and used within schools in the next few years. The school textbook adoption process varies from state to state but includes approval by the state before being offered to school districts for purchase. Depending on state regulations, textbooks may be bought and used for many years before a new textbook is adopted. Before adopting a textbook, schools often have committees that examine and recommend which textbook to adopt. As newer editions of textbooks and new textbook series are introduced, older textbooks are generally not re-marketed for adoption. For this reason, older textbooks and previous editions of the most recent textbooks were taken out of consideration for this study.

The three level one French textbooks chosen for analysis carry copyright dates of 2013 and 2014. Two of the textbooks, *Bien Dit* and *Discovering French Today* published by Holt-McDougal®, are updated reincarnations of previous publications. In the past different publishers published these textbooks. In recent years, Holt, Rinehart, and Winston®, which published *Bien Dit*, merged with McDougal-Littell®, the publisher of the *Discovering French* series. These two textbook series are distinct with different characteristics. In comparison, they will be treated separately without regard to the
The third textbook, *T'es Branché?*, published by EMC Publishing®, is the newest textbook available and became available for adoption by school districts in the fall of 2012.

The textbooks that were used for this study were obtained through contact with the sales representatives and marketing team of each of the respective companies. Two textbooks, *Bien Dit* and *Discovering French Today* were obtained through e-mail correspondence with the sales representative. The final textbook, *T'es Branché?* was provided through my previous employment as a consultant for the publisher through contact with the marketing department.

**Categories and Definitions of Diversity**

**Illustrations**

The three secondary French One textbooks were content analyzed for representations of diversity in the illustrations of each textbook. For purposes of this study, an illustration was defined as any photograph, image, illustration, or cartoon featuring human characters. Only illustrations in color were examined due to the inability to accurately code with black and white illustrations.

Additionally, only representations that appeared in the foreground of illustrations were coded. The foreground was chosen because location in illustrations is just as important as the number of times a group is represented. Dominance in visual representations, such as being in the foreground, is quickly processed in the brain, as are gender and ethnicity issues. This information is processed first and receives greater weight than other information gleaned from the visuals (Hogben & Waterman, 1997).

Diversity was defined as “all aspects of peoples identities that help define who
they are. Aspects of identity include ethnicity, social class, race, gender, sexual identity, age, and ability, among others” (Amburgy, 2011, p. 6). Specifically the variables of ethnicity, social class, race, gender, ability, and weight were analyzed for this study.

**Race/Ethnicity**

Several of the variables defined by Amburgy (2011) were altered or exempted for purposes of this study and for clarity. To be more descriptive, a combination of race and ethnicity was used for this study. According to Banks (2008), ethnicity (also called ethnic minority group or people of color) is defined as “an ethnic group that has unique behavioral and/or racial characteristics that enable other groups to easily identify its members” (p. 134). This definition was used as the basis of this study in terms of both race and ethnicity, specifically through identifiable characteristics such as skin color, eyes, and hair.

Categories for race and ethnicity were taken from information from the Federal Register (2007), which details the categories of race/ethnicity used by schools to report the demographics of the school population. Seven categories are provided and used by public schools in the United States to report racial data for students: American Indian/Alaska Native, Asian, Black, Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander, White, and two or more races. Two additional categories are used to report ethnicity: Hispanic/Latino and Non-Hispanic/Latino. The seven categories for race were used in examination of the illustrations in the secondary level one French textbooks as well as the categories of Minority-Indeterminate and Indeterminate. For ethnicity, only the category for Hispanic/Latino was included in this study since its use is meant to provide more detailed information of the category of White.
The definitions for the racial and ethnic categories were used to determine the race/ethnicity of each person represented in the foreground of all color illustrations. These definitions were taken from the White House Office of Management and Budget (1997) and are required definitions for racial and ethnic data reporting for school districts. *American Indian or Alaska Native* refers to a person having origins in any of the original peoples of North and South America (including Central America) and who maintains tribal affiliation or community attachment. *Asian* refers to a person having origins in any of the original peoples of the Far East, Southeast Asia, or the Indian subcontinent including, for example, Cambodia, China, India, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Pakistan, the Philippine Islands, Thailand, and Vietnam. *Black or African American* refers to a person having origins in any of the Black racial groups of Africa. *Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander* refers to a person having origins in any of the original peoples of Hawaii, Guam, Samoa, or other Pacific Islands. *White* refers to a person having origins in any of the original people of Europe, the Middle East, or North Africa. The final category, *Hispanic/Latino*, was the only ethnicity included as part of this study. *Hispanic/Latino* refers to a person of Cuban, Mexican, Puerto Rican, South or Central American, or other Spanish culture or origin, regardless of race. Although at times difficult to ascertain through visual analysis, consideration was taken by the coder to be as accurate as possible. Additionally, three other categories were included. *Multi-racial* was included for coding of individuals who appeared to be of more than one race or ethnicity. This was only coded if a person was seen with both parents and each parent was a different race. *Minority—indeterminate* refers to a person who appears to be a minority race but the correct category was difficult to determine. *Indeterminate* was reserved for persons
in illustrations whose race/ethnicity could not be determined due to the small size of the illustration or the color tint of the illustration.

**Gender**

For the variable of gender, there were three categories: *male, female, and indeterminate*. *Male* refers to those individuals who exhibited traditional masculine characteristics as determined through the cultural lens of the researcher. Characteristics such as body build and type of clothing worn by the individual were used in making a determination. *Female* refers to those individuals who exhibited traditional feminine characteristics of a female viewed through the cultural lens of the researcher with body build and clothing used as evidence to support the coding of each individual. *Indeterminate* was reserved for those individuals in illustrations whose gender could not be determined accurately, such as smaller illustrations which featured a representation with short or long hair with only a partial depiction of the person pictured.

**Social Class**

Social class was determined through socio-economic status. Socio-economic status is defined as the “composite of the economic status of families or individuals on the basis of occupation, educational attainment, income, and wealth” (Gollnick & Chin, 2013, p. 388). The social class/socio-economic status of the people in each illustration was only coded for those performing a job. The categories and definitions for social class were also taken from Gollnick and Chin (2013). *Working Class* refers to the “group whose members hold manual jobs that do not generally require postsecondary education, except for the skilled jobs” (p. 390). *Middle Class* refers to the “group whose members earn annual incomes that allow them to have a standard of living that includes owning a
home and a car. Members include blue-collar workers, white-collar workers, professionals, and managers” (p. 385). *Upper Middle Class* refers to an “affluent group in the Middle Class whose members are highly educated professionals, managers, and administrators” (p. 389). *Upper Class* refers to the “group whose members earns the highest annual incomes and has the greatest wealth” (p. 389). *Indeterminate* was included as a category for coding for those persons pictured not performing a function of an occupation.

**Disability**

For the variable of ability, a portion of the definition for the term “exceptionality” will be used. According to Gollnick and Chin (2013), exceptionality encompasses learning and/or behavior problems, physical or sensory disabilities, and intellectual giftedness. Four categories determined disability: *mobility, sensory, intellectual, and none*. *Mobility* refers to those who have a disability affecting movement. These persons appeared using crutches, a wheelchair, or other devices used to improve mobility. *Sensory* refers to identifiable disabilities that affect one or more of the senses such as the use of eyeglasses or having a service animal. *Intellectual* disabilities referred to disabilities affecting a person’s intelligence, such as Down’s Syndrome. The category of None was used if no identifiable disability was noted in the illustration.

**Body Size**

In terms of body size, the focus was on representations that depicted persons who appeared *underweight, average weight* or to have *excess weight*. *Underweight* was used to label those individuals who appear visibly thinner in weight than the average person. *Average weight* referred to those individuals who appeared to be of average weight for
height and build. *Excess weight* was used to label those individuals who were visibly larger than average. According to a survey of those persons who are overweight, the term “excess weight” is preferred over terms such as obesity (Volger et al., 2012). An additional category of *indeterminate* was used if only a partial depiction of an individual’s body could be seen in the illustration.

**Coding Sheets**

A coding sheet was created along with a coding key of each variable and possible category. Each sheet contained a place for 35 entries. For each entry, the chapter, page number, and illustration number were included for identification purposes. A separate category for notes was included for additional information related to each individual in each illustration. Each individual in the foreground of an illustration was coded on the coding sheet for each of the categories related to the present study. A completed copy of the coding sheet is included in the appendix as Figure 1a. A partial coding sheet is found as Figure 1 below.

Figure 1: Coding Sheet

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Textbook Title:</th>
<th>Textbook #:</th>
<th>Chapter:</th>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Page</th>
<th>Illus. #</th>
<th>Race/Ethnicity</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>SES</th>
<th>Disability</th>
<th>Body Size</th>
<th>Notes</th>
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**Research Questions and Data Collection**

Research question one asked to what extent the illustrations in the three level one French textbooks reflect the United States demographics in regards to race/ethnicity, gender, and socio-economic status. In order to answer this question, a content analysis
was conducted of all illustrations present in the textbooks. Every person in each illustration was coded based on a number of variables: race/ethnicity, gender, socio-economic status, disability, and body size. Only persons in the foreground of the illustrations were coded because the foreground shows prominence in the illustration. The foreground is generally the focus of each illustration, drawing attention to the scene. If a depiction of an individual appeared more than once on the same page, it was only coded once rather than each time the person was depicted.

To identify race and ethnicity, the groupings provided by the Office of Management and Budget (1997) were used since these are the categories used by school districts to report racial and ethnic demographics. Each person in the foreground of each illustration was coded as American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian, Black or African American, Hispanic or Latino, Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, or White. Categories for Multi-Racial, Minority—Indeterminate, and Indeterminate were also included. These ethnicities were chosen to provide as much clarity as possible. The term “Black” has been chosen over “African-American” because many of the Black persons present in the textbooks may not be “African-American,” which is reserved for Americans of African descent.

To identify gender, the common terms of Male and Female were used. An additional category, Indeterminate, was included for persons represented in the illustrations whose gender is unidentifiable through observation.

To identify socio-economic status, each person was identified as being Working Class, Middle Class, Upper Middle Class, Upper Class, or Indeterminate. When illustrations depicted a certain job being completed, the type of job determined the socio-
economic status of the person. Indeterminate was used for all persons not engaged in fulfilling duties of a job.

The results of Research Question one were calculated using descriptive statistics. Frequencies and percentages of each race/ethnicity, gender, and socio-economic status were included. These results were compared to the present demographics of the school population of the United States.

Research question two focused on the inclusion of persons with disabilities in the illustrations of the three level one French textbooks. The categories of disability included mobility, sensory, intellectual, or none. To code for disability, the disability or absence thereof must be identifiable in the illustration. Only persons included in the foreground of each illustration was coded. All persons in an illustration were coded for identifiable disability. If an individual appeared more than once on the same page, he or she was only coded once for that page.

Mobility referred to those disabilities that affect an individual’s movement. Identifiable disabilities included persons in wheelchairs, the use of crutches, or other devices that aid movement. Sensory disabilities referred to those disabilities that affect one or more of the senses, including hearing aids, seeing-eye dogs, glasses, or walking sticks. Intellectual disabilities referred to those disabilities that inhibit intellectual functions. Disabilities of this nature were difficult to determine. However, examples would have included persons with Down Syndrome or other identifiable intellectual disabilities. For illustrations containing individuals with no identifiable disabilities, a category labeled none was used.
The results of inclusion of persons with disabilities were calculated using descriptive statistics. Frequencies and percentages of the types of disabilities or the lack of disabilities in the illustrations were provided. These were differentiated by each textbook rather than as a composite of all three textbooks. The representations of different categories of disability were not compared with demographics of the school population due to the lack of available statistics related to these disabilities in the school population.

Research question three asked to what extent the illustrations in the three textbooks presented persons of different body sizes. The categories related to weight included, underweight, average weight, excess weight, and indeterminate. Only persons appearing in the foreground of each illustration were coded. If an individual appeared more than once on the same page, that individual was only coded once for that page.

Representations labeled underweight included all persons who appeared to be below what is considered a typically average body size. This was determined based on subjective opinions in comparison with the other categories of weight. This may be difficult to ascertain, but every effort was made to be as precise as possible.

Persons considered average weight, neither underweight nor having excess weight, were those individuals who appeared to be of average body size based on height and build in the illustration. Determination of a healthy weight was subjective based on comparisons with the other categories of weight, but every effort was made to be precise in the analysis.
The category of *excess weight* was reserved for those persons who are noticeably larger than the average person. Every effort will be made to be as precise as possible in labeling for persons who have excess weight.

To analyze the results based on each individual’s weight, descriptive statistics were used. Frequencies and percentages were included for each textbook. This provided a more descriptive summary rather than combining the results of all of the textbooks.

**Descriptive Data Analysis**

The descriptive statistics of frequency and percentage were used to analyze the data gained from the examination of textbook illustrations. The process of arriving at those totals was carefully constructed to ensure a system of checks and balances. Through careful and sequential analysis of the data using several steps, correct totals of frequency and percentage could be obtained.

First, after coding was completed, each coding sheet was tallied and recorded on a separate tally sheet by coding sheet page number. A blank tally sheet is found in Figure 2 below. A completed tally sheet can be found in the appendix in Figure 2a.
Next, each category was tallied by textbook and recorded on a spreadsheet.

Through a system of checks and balances, where the total numbers in horizontal columns were added together and equaled the total number of the final vertical column, accuracy was ensured. This system was verified through contact with a National Board Certified Math teacher currently serving as a Mathematics Instructional Facilitator at a local high school. A partial copy of the spreadsheet is included in Figure 3 below. A completed spreadsheet is included in the appendix as Figure 3a.
Figure 3:  
*Textbook Tally Spreadsheet*

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<tr>
<th>Race/Ethn.</th>
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Then, the total numbers of representations for each category were transferred to a textbook percentage sheet. The total number from each category was divided into the total number of color illustrations coded in the textbook. The resulting percentage was recorded on the textbook percentage sheet. A partial copy of the textbook percentage sheet is included in Figure 4 below. A completed textbook percentage sheet is provided in the appendix as Figure 4a. This textbook percentage sheet allowed a hard copy of the percentages by textbook of each category in the examination of illustrations.
Validity

Validity refers to the coding instrument and its effectiveness in measuring what it is intended to measure (Patten, 2004). The coding instrument used in the present study was created using terms previously defined and used by other researchers and government agencies. In addition, the coding instrument was an expanded and adapted version of previously used coding instruments. The researcher used the earlier version of the coding instrument for a previous research project (Adamson, 2012). The coding instrument was also created to measure identifiable characteristics in illustrations, leading to less subjectivity on the part of the coder. As a measure to increase validity, percentage agreement tests of reliability were conducted both at the intercoder and intracoder levels.

Reliability

With the use of content analysis, it is important that the analysis and method used be reliable. With only one person analyzing the illustrations in the textbooks, intracoder reliability was used. Unlike intercoder reliability, which tests the compatibility and
similarities between different raters, intracoder reliability tests the compatibility and similarity of the one rater at different times during the analysis.

To verify intracoder reliability, a random sample of illustrations from chapter one of the first textbook examined was re-analyzed before analysis began on the second textbook. The choice of which textbook was coded first for the analysis was randomly selected. Percentage agreement was used to verify intracoder reliability. Percentage agreement is “the percentage of all coding decisions made by pairs of coders on which the coders agree” (Lombard, Snyder-Duch, & Campanella Bracken, 2002, p. 590). It is best used when comparing nominal data, such as the data attained in the present study (2002). The percentage agreement between the two codings was 96%.

For purposes of triangulation, intercoder reliability was also used. Two world language educators coded a random sample of illustrations. One person currently teaches high school Spanish in a public school system. The other person taught Spanish for 30 years and is now enrolled as a graduate student pursuing a Ph.D. The results of the coding by these two coders were compared with the results of the same illustrations by the original coder. The percentage of agreement in comparison with the researcher was 84% with coder A and 91% with coder B. Before coding for inter-rater reliability, the participants received detailed explanations and descriptions for each of the variables and categories under examination. Patten (2004) states that a reliability coefficient of .80 (80%) is considered acceptable for most tests of reliability. With both of the additional coders agreeing with the primary coder 84% and 91% of the time, the level of reliability in the present study is acceptable.
Limitations of the Study

Any study requiring examination, an element of subjectivity enters. Care has been taken in this study to limit the level of subjectivity by using precise pre-determined definitions for each of the variables and categories under consideration. However, this still leaves the potential for subjectivity through the cultural lens of experience of the coder.

An additional limitation of the study is the lack of examination of all possible ethnicities present in the United States. Included in the category of White, for example, are persons of the Middle East and North Africa who are distinct from the people of Nordic countries. The same is true for other categories of race. However, in an effort to compare with those categories used by the United States government agencies and public schools in the United States to report data, these categories were left intact. The only additional category included was that of Hispanic/Latino. The only other ethnicity reported in school demographics is the category of Non-Hispanic/Latino. This category was excluded since it is used in combination with the category of White to differentiate between those who are White and Non-Hispanic/Latino and those who are White and Hispanic/Latino (Office of Management and Budget, 1997).

The category of gender has limitations based on social and cultural norms. Gender is separate from sex with the latter being the biological differentiation of male and female. Gender is socially constructed and based on the culture of a particular group of people (Rothenberg, 2001). The impossibility of accurately determining the sex of individuals in a secondary French textbook required the researcher to rely on cultural
norms and values of the United States, specifically his own cultural lens. For that reason, using the term gender over sex was an unavoidable decision.

**Generalizability of the Study**

The present study focused on illustrations in level one French textbooks published by two leading publishers: Holt-McDougal ® and EMC Publishing ®. Golden (2006) indicates that publishers have set quotas for diversity in their textbooks. Since each publisher has set quotas, it should be expected that each level of a textbook series published by a publisher has similar representations in regards to diversity.

Not only should the results of this study be generalizable across levels of each textbook series, but also across languages and content areas. The quotas set by each publisher could be different, but whether a textbook is a French textbook, Spanish textbook, or Social Studies textbook, it should contain the same percentages of representation in regards to the diversity of race/ethnicity, gender, social class, disability, and body size if the same publisher publishes all the textbooks.
CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

Introduction

According to Issitt (2004), “when the research focus is on the construction, manipulation, and reproduction of power and ideology, textbooks offer rich pickings” (p. 688). The intent of this study was to examine the “rich pickings” of the newest secondary French One textbooks to ascertain the current representation of race/ethnicity, gender, socioeconomic status, disability, and weight. French One was chosen since this is the first impression of French and the French-speaking world that students receive during their language study.

The ever-increasing diversity in public schools has shifted the demographics in the public school setting and the American landscape in recent years. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2011), the student population in the United States is racially diverse with many students from an economically disadvantaged family. Although gender is fairly equal, other variables associated with multicultural representation are less balanced. The question driving this study was whether all students were adequately represented in their French textbooks. The research questions that guided this examination included:

1. To what extent do the illustrations in three level one French textbooks reflect the demographics of the U.S. school population in regards to:
   a. race/ethnicity
   b. gender
   c. socio-economic status
2. To what extent do the illustrations in the three level one French textbooks represent persons with identifiable disabilities?

3. To what extent do the illustrations in the three level one French textbooks represent body size?

**Descriptive Data Coding**

To determine the multicultural representations in French 1 textbooks, the present study undertook a content analysis approach through examination of the color illustrations in the textbook. The method for coding each individual representation in each illustration was an adaptation of a method previously used in the coder’s graduate coursework.

Each of the three textbooks was assigned an Arabic numeral for purposes of coding. The Arabic numerals and assigned textbooks are listed in Table 1. Included in Table 1 are the publishers and publication dates of each of the textbooks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assigned Arabic Numeral</th>
<th>Textbook Title</th>
<th>Publisher</th>
<th>Copyright</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td><em>Bien Dit!</em></td>
<td>Holt-McDougal®</td>
<td>2013</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

While coding each representation of an individual within each of the color illustrations, each multicultural variable was carefully examined and coded along with the page number and illustration number for that page. Coding according to each category adhered to the previously defined descriptions. When representations were difficult to code and could not be correctly coded, *Indeterminate* was assigned for that particular
variable. This method applied to the variables of race/ethnicity, gender, socioeconomic status, and weight. For the variable of disability, a category of *None Noted* was used when no identifiable disabilities could be found.

For each person represented in each color illustration in the textbooks, Arabic numerals were assigned to each category for each of the variables of race/ethnicity, gender, socioeconomic status, disability, and weight. The Arabic numeral assigned to each category is included in Table 2.

Table 2  
*Category Codes*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Race/Ethnicity</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Socioeconomic Status</th>
<th>Disability</th>
<th>Weight</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Working Class</td>
<td>Mobility</td>
<td>Underweight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Black/African-</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Middle Class</td>
<td>Sensory</td>
<td>Average Weight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>American</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Asian</td>
<td></td>
<td>Upper Middle Class</td>
<td>Intellectual</td>
<td>Excess Weight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td></td>
<td>Upper Class</td>
<td>None Noted</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>American</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Indian/Alaska</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Native</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hawaiian/Pacific</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Islander</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Native</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hawaiian/</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pacific</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Islander</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Multi-Racial</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Minority-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Indeterminate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Indeterminate</td>
<td>Indeterminate</td>
<td>Indeterminate</td>
<td>Indeterminate</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*follows coding of Adamson (2012)*
Research Question Results

**Research Question One: Race/Ethnicity**

Research question one asked to what extent the images and illustrations reflect the demographics of the U.S. school population in regards to race/ethnicity, gender, and socioeconomic status. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2011), the most recent statistics reflect the school population of the 2010-2011 school year. During that school year, there were a total of 49,402,385 students in the public school systems of the United States. Of that total number, 564,949 (1.14%) were *American Indian/Alaska Native*. Two of the categories of race used by schools, *Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander* and *Asian*, were combined in the data for a total of 2,457,341 (4.97%) students. The number of *Black/African American* students numbered 7,911,927 (16.02%). The total number of *Hispanic* students was 11,399,633 (23.02%). *White* students in the public school systems totaled 25,907,184 (52.44%). Students reporting two or more races numbered 1,161,351 (2.35%). The racial and ethnic demographics of public schools in the United States during the 2010-2011 school year are included in Table 3.
Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race/Ethnicity</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>American Indian/Alaska Native</td>
<td>564,949</td>
<td>1.14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander and Asian</td>
<td>2,457,341</td>
<td>4.97%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black/African American</td>
<td>7,911,297</td>
<td>16.02%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>11,399,633</td>
<td>23.02%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>25,907,184</td>
<td>52.44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multi-Racial</td>
<td>1,161,351</td>
<td>2.35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>49,402,385</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In relation to the representation of the school population by race/ethnicity, each textbook varied in representation. The first textbook, *Bien Dit*, had a total of 1,177 representations in the color illustrations in the level one textbook. Of that total, there was only one (0.08%) representation featuring an *American Indian/Alaska Native*. There were a total of 43 (3.65%) representations of persons of *Asian* descent. The representation for *Black* persons totaled 262 (22.26%). *Hispanics* were represented 40 (3.40%) times throughout the textbook. Individuals of *Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander* descent totaled 3 (0.25%). There were a total of 682 (57.94%) individuals considered *White*. There were no representations featuring people of two or more races. A total of 65 (5.52%) were coded as *Minority-Indeterminate* due to the inability to accurately code the correct racial or ethnic category, although these individuals appeared to be minorities. For the category of *Indeterminate*, 81 (6.9%) of the individuals could not accurately be coded for race/ethnicity.
In comparison with statistics from the National Center for Education Statistics of the 2010-2011 school year, *Bien Dit*, was similar in some racial and ethnic categories but different in other categories. The representation of *Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander* and *Asian* was similar to the actual school population; however, *Hispanics* were vastly underrepresented in *Bien Dit* by nearly 20 percent. *American Indian/Alaska Native* was also underrepresented in the illustrations in the textbook. Students reporting two or more races received no representation. Two racial categories, *Black* and *White*, were overrepresented in the textbook by five to six percent each. Table 4 includes a comparison of percentages for each of the categories used by the United States Census Bureau (2010) and the National Center for Education Statistics (2011).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race/Ethnicity</th>
<th>U.S. School Population</th>
<th><em>Bien Dit</em></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>American Indian/Alaska Native</td>
<td>1.14%</td>
<td>0.08%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander and Asian</td>
<td>4.97%</td>
<td>4.90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black/African American</td>
<td>16.02%</td>
<td>22.26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>23.02%</td>
<td>3.40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>52.44%</td>
<td>57.94%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multi-Racial</td>
<td>2.35%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The second textbook, *Discovering French Today*, had varying representations by race/ethnicity. After coding, no illustration appeared to have individuals of *American Indian/Alaska Native* or *Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander* descent. Additionally, there were no representations featuring persons who were *multi-racial*. A total of 82 (6.32%)
representations in Discovering French Today featured individuals of Asian descent. Individuals who were Black/African American totaled 243 (18.74%). There were 16 (1.23%) representations of Hispanics in the illustrations. The total number of White representations was 906 (69.85%). For the category of Minority—Indeterminate, 15 (1.16%) were found. There were a total of 35 (2.7%) coded as Indeterminate due to the inability to accurately determine race/ethnicity.

Discovering French Today includes no representations featuring American Indians/Alaska Natives, Native Hawaiians/Pacific Islanders, or multi-racial individuals. With the national statistics reporting Native Hawaiians/Pacific Islanders together with Asians, the representations in Discovering French Today may be misleading. There were several representations featuring Asian individuals but in comparison with the statistics provided by the National Center for Education Statistics (2011) for the school population, there is an overrepresentation. This does indicate an overrepresentation of Asian individuals, but there are no representations for Native Hawaiians/Pacific Islanders, which appear in the same category. As with Bien Dit, Discovering French Today vastly underrepresents individuals of Hispanic descent by almost 21 percent. The Black population is similar to the actual school population statistics with only a slight overrepresentation. The White population was also overrepresented but by a much larger margin—17 percent. The comparison of the school population and the representations by race/ethnicity in Discovering French Today is included in Table 5 below.
Table 5

Comparison of Discovering French Today and the School Population

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race/Ethnicity</th>
<th>U.S. School Population</th>
<th>Discovering French Today</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>American Indian/Alaska Native</td>
<td>1.14%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander and Asian</td>
<td>4.97%</td>
<td>6.32% (Asian)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black/African American</td>
<td>16.02%</td>
<td>18.74%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>23.02%</td>
<td>1.23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>52.44%</td>
<td>69.85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multi-Racial</td>
<td>2.35%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The final textbook, *T’es Branché?*, had the largest number of representations in the illustrations. After coding, tallying revealed a total of 1566 representations. Only one category—*American Indian*—had no representation. For the category of *Asian*, there were a total of 37 (2.4%) representations. The representations for persons of *Black* descent totaled 273 (17.43%). *Hispanics* were featured in 26 (1.7%) of the representations. *Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander* was coded for 12 (.77%) representations. The largest total, 1093 (69.7%) was in the category of *White*. There were 20 (1.3%) representations of individuals who were *multi-racial*, as evidenced by illustrations featuring their parents of different races/ethnicities. A total of 71 (4.53) individuals were noticeably *minority—indeterminate*, but the correct race/ethnicity was unable to be determined. For the category of *Indeterminate*, 34 (2.17%) individuals were unable to be coded correctly for race/ethnicity.

*T’es Branché?* was the only textbook to feature identifiable *multi-racial* individuals. Although still an underrepresentation of the school population by one
percent, *multi-racial* representation was still evident. As with *Discovering French Today*, there were no representations of individuals of *American Indian/Alaska Native* descent. The combined population of *Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander* and *Asian* was also an underrepresentation but only by two percent. The underrepresentation of *Hispanics* in *T’es Branché?* was noticeable at nearly 21 percent. Representation of the *Black* population was similar to national school statistics with slightly more than a one percent increase in the textbook. The *White* population was overrepresented in *T’es Branché?* by 17%. A comparison with the school population is provided in Table 6.

Table 6  
*Comparison of T’es Branché? with the School Population*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race/Ethnicity</th>
<th>U.S. School Population</th>
<th>T’es Branché?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>American Indian/Alaska Native</td>
<td>1.14%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander and Asian</td>
<td>4.97%</td>
<td>3.17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black/African American</td>
<td>16.02%</td>
<td>17.43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>23.02%</td>
<td>1.70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>52.44%</td>
<td>69.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multi-Racial</td>
<td>2.35%</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In comparison with each other, the textbooks all had similarities and differences in representations by race/ethnicity. Many of the similarities appeared to be in the same racial categories in terms of either underrepresentation or overrepresentation. The frequencies and percentages by race/ethnicity for each textbook are included in Table 7. However, it is possible that those individuals coded as *indeterminate* may actually
improve the representation of ethnic groups, such as Hispanics, if a correct determination could have been made.

Table 7
Race/Ethnicity Representation by Textbook

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race/Ethnicity</th>
<th>Bien Dit</th>
<th>Discovering French Today</th>
<th>T'es Branché?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>American Indian/Alaska Native</td>
<td>1 (0.08%)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>43 (3.65%)</td>
<td>82 (6.32%)</td>
<td>37 (2.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>262 (22.26%)</td>
<td>243 (18.74%)</td>
<td>273 (17.43%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>40 (3.4%)</td>
<td>16 (1.23%)</td>
<td>26 (1.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>682 (57.94%)</td>
<td>906 (69.85%)</td>
<td>1093 (69.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multi-Racial</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20 (1.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minority—Indeterminate</td>
<td>65 (5.52%)</td>
<td>15 (1.16%)</td>
<td>71 (4.53%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indeterminate</td>
<td>81 (6.9%)</td>
<td>35 (2.7%)</td>
<td>34 (2.17%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1177</td>
<td>1297</td>
<td>1566</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Research Question One: Gender

Although race/ethnicity is varied throughout the United States and the textbooks, gender is fairly equal. During the 2010-2011 school year, 25,390,962 (51.4%) students were identified as male. There were 24,011,423 (48.6%) students who were identified as female (NCES, 2011). For this variable, the three textbooks under consideration were fairly representative and similar to the actual school population.

The first textbook, Bien Dit, included a total of 1,177 individuals in the color illustrations. Of that total number, 570 (48.4%) were identified as male. Females were identified in 554 (47.1%) of the coded illustrations. Of the total number of illustrations
coded, 53 (4.5%) were coded as *indeterminate* due to the inability to accurately determine the gender of the persons.

*Discovering French Today* also had a balanced representation by gender. With a total of 1,297 color illustrations coded, 643 (49.58%) featured individuals identified as *male*. A total of 610 (47.03%) of the color illustrations included representations of *females*. The remaining 44 (3.39%) of color illustrations were coded as *indeterminate*.

The final textbook, *T'es Branché?*, had a total of 1566 color illustrations in the level one French textbook. *Males* comprised 705 (45.02%) of those illustrations. *Females* were featured slightly more often for a total of 796 (50.83%) representations. Due to the inability to determine gender, 65 (4.15%) individuals were coded as *indeterminate* for gender. The results of the textbook representations by gender are included in Table 8.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>School Population</th>
<th>Bien Dit!</th>
<th>Discovering French Today</th>
<th>T’es Branché?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>25,390,962 (51.4%)</td>
<td>570 (48.4%)</td>
<td>643 (49.58%)</td>
<td>705 (45.02%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>24,011,423 (48.6%)</td>
<td>554 (47.1%)</td>
<td>610 (47.03%)</td>
<td>796 (50.83%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indeterminate</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>53 (4.5%)</td>
<td>44 (3.39%)</td>
<td>65 (4.15%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Research Question One: Socioeconomic Status**

Research question one also asked about the representation by socioeconomic status. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2011), a total of 23,544,477 (47.7%) of students were eligible for free or reduced lunch during the 2010-2011 school year. Being eligible for free or reduced lunch indicates a lower
socioeconomic status for the students receiving this benefit. It should be noted that in
determining free or reduced lunch status, many variables are used as deciding factors
which may not necessarily indicate social class. Within the textbooks, it was difficult to
determine socioeconomic status unless the illustration included an individual performing
a job. For that reason, only those individuals shown performing a job were coded for
socioeconomic status. All other individuals were coded as indeterminate due to the
inability to accurately determine socioeconomic status from a static illustration.

Representations of individuals performing jobs in each of the categories of
Working Class, Middle Class, Upper Middle Class, and Upper Class were found in the
textbook Bien Dit. The largest number of representations was coded as indeterminate
since most illustrations did not feature individuals performing a job. The total number
for this category was 1073 (91.16%). The Working Class category included 42 (3.57%)
representations. Individuals pictured performing Middle Class jobs were found in 32
(2.72%) of the illustrations. A total of 13 (1.1%) of illustrations were coded as Upper
Middle Class while the remaining 17 (1.44%) representations were Upper Class.

Discovering French Today had few depictions of individuals performing job
related functions as well. As with Bien Dit, the vast majority of representations, 1231
(94.91%) were coded as indeterminate. There were a total of 33 (2.54%) representations
coded for Working Class. A total of 24 (1.85%) individuals were coded in the category
of Middle Class. No representations in the category for Upper Middle Class were noted.
The final category, Upper Class, had a total of 9 (0.7%) representations.

The final textbook, T’es Branché?, had a total of 1566 representations, with 1407
(89.85%) coded as indeterminate. Individuals considered Working Class were found in
31 (1.98%) of the illustrations. A fairly equal number of representations were found in the category of Middle Class with a total of 34 (2.17%) individuals in the illustrations. That category of Upper Middle Class had the least amount of representation in T’es Branché? Only 16 (1.0%) of the representations were found to be Upper Middle Class. For those individuals who could be coded for socioeconomic status, Upper Class had the largest number of representations with 78 (5.0%) representations throughout the textbook illustrations. The frequency and percentage for each category and textbook can be found in Table 6.

Table 9
Socioeconomic Status in French 1 Textbooks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Socioeconomic Status/Social Class</th>
<th>Bien Dit! (Freq, %)</th>
<th>Discovering French Today (Freq, %)</th>
<th>T’es Branché? (Freq, %)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Working Class</td>
<td>42 (3.57%)</td>
<td>33 (2.54%)</td>
<td>31 (1.98%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Class</td>
<td>32 (2.72%)</td>
<td>24 (1.85%)</td>
<td>34 (2.17%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper Middle Class</td>
<td>13 (1.1%)</td>
<td>0 (0.0%)</td>
<td>0 (0.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper Class</td>
<td>17 (1.44%)</td>
<td>9 (0.7%)</td>
<td>78 (5.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indeterminate</td>
<td>1073 (91.16%)</td>
<td>1231 (94.91%)</td>
<td>1407 (89.85%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1177</td>
<td>1297</td>
<td>1566</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Research Question Two: Disability

Research question two asked what extent the illustrations in the three level one French textbooks represented individuals with identifiable disabilities. For purposes of this study, disabilities were categorized into three categories: mobility, sensory, and intellectual. If no disability was noted, a label of none was coded. A search of the National Center for Education Statistics data for the 2010-2011 school year was conducted in an effort to find a breakdown of disabilities in these categories. The search
resulted in the total number of students receiving an individualized education program (IEP), rather than specific disabilities.

The National Center for Education Statistics (2011) reports the frequency and percentage of students in public school systems in the United States who receive an individualized education program. An individualized education program students is defined as “students in special programs; refers to written instructional plan for students with disabilities” (NCES, 2013). The total number of students receiving an individualized education program during the 2010-2011 school year totaled 6,404,417 (13%).

The first textbook, Bien Dit, included a total of 1,177 representations in the illustrations in the level one textbook. In the category of mobility, there were 10 (.84%) representations, mostly in the form of a wheelchair. Sensory representations ranged from individuals wearing glasses to those individuals using a service animal for a total of 34 (2.9%) representations. No individuals were coded as having intellectual disabilities. The majority of representations, 1133 (96.26%) were coded as none since no identifiable disabilities appeared in the illustrations.

The second textbook, Discovering French Today, had a total of 1,297 individual representations in the illustrations. Twenty (1.54%) individuals were coded as having a disability related to mobility, usually in the form of a wheelchair. Representations in the category of sensory were higher, for a total of 48 (3.7%) representations. Sensory representations for Discovering French Today generally involved glasses. Intellectual disabilities were not found in the illustrations. The majority of illustrations were coded
as *none* since no disability could be identified in the illustrations. The total number for no disabilities totaled 1,229 (94.76%).

The final textbook, *T’es Branché?*, contained a total of 1,566 representations in the illustrations. In the category of *mobility*, there were a range of representations, including wheelchairs, prosthetic legs, and crutches. The total number of representations coded as disabilities of *mobility* was 10 (.64%). Disabilities in the category of *sensory* were found in 54 (3.45%) of the representations, often in the form of glasses. There were no *intellectual* disabilities coded for *T’es Branché?*. Most of the representations in the illustrations contained no identifiable disability for a total of 1,502 (95.91%). The results of identifiable disabilities in the three textbooks are included in Table 10. With no identifiable intellectual disabilities noted in the three textbooks, this category has been deleted from consideration and is not included in the final results and tables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 10</th>
<th>Identifyable Disabilities in French 1 Textbooks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type of Disability</strong></td>
<td><strong>Bien Dit</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobility</td>
<td>10 (.84%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensory</td>
<td>34 (2.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>1133 (96.26%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1177</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Research Question Three: Body Size**

Research question three asked to what extent the illustrations in the three French One textbooks depicted individuals of different body sizes. For purposes of this study, three categories were used: *underweight*, *average weight*, and *excess weight*. An additional category of *indeterminate* was used for those representations in which body
size could not be determined. According to the American Heart Association (2013), one in three children and teenagers has excess weight, a statistic that has tripled since 1963. The intent of research question three was to determine the extent that the three French textbooks represented students of varying body sizes.

The Holt-McDougal ® textbook Bien Dit had representations for each of the four categories concerning body size but the representation varied. For the category of underweight, there were a total of 30 (2.55%) individuals who were visibly underweight. The majority of individuals were coded as being of average weight, for a total of 1020 (86.66%) representations. Only 14 (1.19%) of the representations in the illustrations were coded as having excess weight. The final category, indeterminate, had a total of 113 (9.6%) representations.

The other Holt-McDougal ® textbook, Discovering French Today, also contained representations for each of the categories of body size. There were a total of three (.23%) representations coded as being underweight. Average weight was noted 840 (64.76%) times within the illustrations. For the category of excess weight, there were 14 (1.08%) representations. Many of the representations in Discovering French Today were indeterminate for weight due to partial depiction of the person in the illustration. The total number coded as indeterminate was 440 (33.92%).

T’es Branché? by EMC Publishing ® included representations for each of the categories related to body size. There were 4 (.26%) of representations coded as being underweight. Individuals of average weight were coded for the majority of illustrations for a total of 1044 (66.67%) representations. A total of 12 (.77%) individuals were coded as having excess weight. The final category, indeterminate, had a total of 506 (32.3%)
individuals who could not be coded accurately for body size. The results of the textbook representations of body size are included in Table 8.

Table 11
Body Size Representation in French 1 Textbooks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Body Size</th>
<th>Bien Dit</th>
<th>Discovering French Today</th>
<th>T'es Branché?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Underweight</td>
<td>30 (2.55%)</td>
<td>3 (.23%)</td>
<td>4 (.26%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Weight</td>
<td>1020 (86.66%)</td>
<td>840 (64.76%)</td>
<td>1044 (66.67%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excess Weight</td>
<td>14 (1.19%)</td>
<td>14 (1.08%)</td>
<td>12 (.77%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indeterminate</td>
<td>113 (9.6%)</td>
<td>440 (33.92%)</td>
<td>506 (32.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1177</td>
<td>1297</td>
<td>1566</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Summary

The aim of this study was to examine the newest French 1 textbooks for representations of diversity, specifically in the areas of race/ethnicity, gender, socioeconomic status, disability, and body size. With a diverse student body in the United States, the present study focused on those multicultural variables that are most noticeable in the classroom and in the textbook. After coding a total of 4,040 representations within the illustrations in the three textbooks, valuable information was gained concerning diversity in the textbooks for students using the textbooks. As with students in the classroom, similarities and differences between each of the textbooks varied in regards to diversity. Table 12 contains the results of the content analysis of the three textbooks Bien Dit, Discovering French Today, and T’es Branché?, providing a concise summary of each textbook’s representations of diversity.
Table 12
Summary of Diversity in Three French 1 Textbooks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Multicultural Variable</th>
<th>Bien Dit</th>
<th>Discovering French Today</th>
<th>T’es Branché?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Race/Ethnicity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. American Indian/Alaska Native</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Asian</td>
<td>43 (3.65%)</td>
<td>82 (6.32%)</td>
<td>37 (2.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Black</td>
<td>262 (22.26%)</td>
<td>243 (18.74%)</td>
<td>273 (17.43%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Hispanic</td>
<td>40 (3.40%)</td>
<td>16 (1.23%)</td>
<td>26 (1.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Pacific Islander/ Native Hawaiian</td>
<td>3 (.25%)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12 (.77%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. White</td>
<td>682 (57.94%)</td>
<td>906 (69.85%)</td>
<td>1093 (69.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Multi-Racial</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20 (1.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Minority—Indeterminate</td>
<td>65 (5.52%)</td>
<td>15 (1.16%)</td>
<td>71 (4.53%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Indeterminate</td>
<td>81 (6.9%)</td>
<td>35 (2.7%)</td>
<td>24 (2.17%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Male</td>
<td>570 (48.4%)</td>
<td>643 (49.58%)</td>
<td>705 (45.02%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Female</td>
<td>554 (47.1%)</td>
<td>610 (47.03%)</td>
<td>796 (50.83%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Indeterminate</td>
<td>53 (4.5%)</td>
<td>44 (3.39%)</td>
<td>65 (4.15%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socioeconomic Status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Working Class</td>
<td>42 (3.57%)</td>
<td>33 (2.54%)</td>
<td>31 (1.98%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Middle Class</td>
<td>32 (2.72%)</td>
<td>24 (1.85%)</td>
<td>34 (2.17%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Upper Middle Class</td>
<td>13 (1.1%)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16 (1.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Upper Class</td>
<td>17 (1.44%)</td>
<td>9 (.70%)</td>
<td>78 (5.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Indeterminate</td>
<td>1073 (91.16%)</td>
<td>1231 (94.91%)</td>
<td>1407 (89.85%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disability</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Mobility</td>
<td>10 (.84%)</td>
<td>20 (1.54%)</td>
<td>10 (.64%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Sensory</td>
<td>34 (2.9%)</td>
<td>48 (3.7%)</td>
<td>54 (3.45%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. None Noted</td>
<td>1133 (96.26%)</td>
<td>1229 (94.76%)</td>
<td>1502 (95.91%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Body Size</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Underweight</td>
<td>30 (2.55%)</td>
<td>3 (.23%)</td>
<td>4 (.26%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Average Weight</td>
<td>1020 (86.66%)</td>
<td>840 (64.76%)</td>
<td>1044 (66.67%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Excess Weight</td>
<td>14 (1.19%)</td>
<td>14 (1.08%)</td>
<td>12 (.77%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Indeterminate</td>
<td>113 (9.6%)</td>
<td>440 (33.92%)</td>
<td>506 (32.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1177</td>
<td>1297</td>
<td>1566</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

Purpose

The focus of the present study has been on the inclusion of diversity in the illustrations in secondary French One textbooks. For a content area that celebrates culture and diversity, the question still remained as to whether French textbooks embraced the diversity of the students within the United States.

Diversity in terms of race/ethnicity in the school population has increased over the last 20 years. In 1990, the general student population was 67% White, 17% Black, and 4% Other. By 2010 the population was 54% White, 15% Black, and 8% Other. However, race/ethnicity are not the only multicultural variables associated with the school population. Statistics indicate that by gender, the school population is roughly equal. For many students of all races/ethnicities and genders, receiving free or reduced lunch is a reality, indicating a large percentage of students of lower socioeconomic status (National Center for Education Statistics, 2011). Additionally, many students in the school population have a disability while other students may struggle with issues related to body size. This begs the question as to whether language textbooks have incorporated this diversity in terms of the variables of race/ethnicity, gender, socioeconomic status, disability, and body size.

As school districts adopt new textbooks within the next few years, the three textbooks chosen for this study could be in classrooms in the near future teaching subtle messages to a diverse audience. To understand what subtle messages students may be learning from their textbooks in the next few years, only the newest textbooks on the market were chosen for examination. This criterion led to three textbooks: *Bien Dit* by
Findings

Three research questions guided the examination of the color illustrations in three level one French textbooks. The questions focused on several multicultural variables associated with diversity, including race/ethnicity, gender, socioeconomic status, disability, and body size. The questions guiding the research were:

1. To what extent do the illustrations in three level one French textbooks reflect the demographics of the U.S. population in regards to:
   a. race/ethnicity
   b. gender
   c. socio-economic status

2. To what extent do the illustrations in three level one French textbooks represent persons with identifiable disabilities in the illustrations?

3. To what extent do the illustrations in three level one French textbooks present body size?

Just as each student using these French textbooks is unique and diverse, so are the three French One textbooks under consideration. While similarities exist between the three textbooks, differences in representations of diversity are evident.

Race/Ethnicity

American Indians/Alaska Natives constitute a small percentage of the actual school population (National Center for Education Statistics, 2011). All three textbooks examined in this study provided very few representations of American Indians/Alaska
Natives. Only one textbook, *Bien Dit*, had any representations of this racial group, leaving this group virtually invisible in the curriculum.

Two other minorities in the public school population are Asians and Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islanders. In actual school population statistics, Asians and Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islanders are included together in reporting demographics, making it difficult to make a comparison of each group separately. All three textbooks included representations of Asians but only *Bien Dit* and *T’es Branché?* featured Native Hawaiians/Pacific Islanders. Of these two textbooks, *Bien Dit* included representations of Asians and Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islanders that most closely resembled the school population.

In comparison with other minorities, Black individuals received more representation. Representation of race was fairly consistent across the three textbooks with each of the textbooks including slight overrepresentations of this population. *T’es Branché?* was most closely aligned with the actual percentages, although all three textbooks provided adequate representation in comparison to statistics from the National Center for Education Statistics (2011).

Hispanics were the most underrepresented ethnicity in all three textbooks according to actual percentages in the school population. No textbook included representations similar to the actual percentage of Hispanics, which was reported as 23.2% in 2011 (National Center for Education Statistics, 2011). *Discovering French Today* and *T’es Branché?* represented Hispanics less than 2% of the time. *Bien Dit*, with less than 4% of representation had the highest number of Hispanics featured, signaling a
need for teachers to supplement the curriculum to ensure that Hispanic students feel valued and connected to French language and culture.

All three textbooks have more individuals who are White than any other races/ethnicities. This is partially due to the various ethnic groups that constitute the White race. People of the Middle East and North Africa are included as part of the White race as are people originating from Europe. The textbook with representation of White most closely aligned with actual statistics of the school population is the Holt-McDougal® textbook *Bien Dit*. The textbook featuring the most overrepresentation in the category of White was the textbook *Discovering French Today*, also by Holt-McDougal ®.

The final category, multi-racial, was only found in one textbook: *T’es Branché?*. Although sometimes difficult to determine if a person was multi-racial through illustrations, *T’es Branché?* made this possible by including multi-racial individuals in illustrations pictured with their parents who were each of a different race. There may have been other individuals who were multi-racial but indicators, such as parents or family members visible in the illustration, were not present to make this determination possible in other textbooks. *T’es Branché?* included multi-racial individuals as part of the unit on family vocabulary by featuring different races/ethnicities in the family tree used to teach vocabulary.

**Gender**

Males and females are fairly equal in the school population of the United States (National Center for Education Statistics, 2011). All three textbooks were consistent in their representations by gender. *T’es Branché?* provided the least balanced
representation, in favor of females. The difference between male and female representation in *T’es Branché?* was by a margin of almost 5%. The other two textbooks were very similar in representation by gender.

**Socioeconomic Status**

Most representations in all three textbooks fell into the category of *indeterminate* since most of the illustrations did not feature a job being performed. Of the illustrations and representations featuring jobs and careers, *Bien Dit* included a higher percentage of working and middle class jobs. Upper Middle Class jobs were non-existent in *Discovering French Today* but *Bien Dit* and *T’es Branché?* were similar in the number of representations of the *Upper Middle Class*. All three textbooks contained representations associated with the *Upper Class*; however, *T’es Branché?* included a larger percentage than the other textbooks.

**Disability**

Most of the illustrations in the three textbooks did not include individuals with identifiable disabilities. One category of disability—intellectual—was rendered invisible by all three textbooks. Of the remaining illustrations featuring identifiable disabilities, sensory disabilities—usually in the form of glasses—was most prevalent. Occasionally a person who was blind would be featured using a service animal or a walking stick. For students who have a disability related to hearing, no textbook could be considered acceptable. Inclusion of illustrations featuring identifiable disabilities related to the sense of hearing were completely absent. Disabilities affecting mobility were most often seen in the form of a wheelchair or crutches although one illustration in *T’es Branché?* featured a young male character playing soccer with a prosthetic leg. *Discovering
French Today featured more representations in the categories of sensory and mobility than the other two textbooks.

**Body Size**

Body size in the three textbooks was most often seen in the category of average weight. These individuals were neither visibly underweight nor with excess weight. The remaining categories of underweight and excess weight were evident in all three textbooks. Bien Dit featured over two percent of individuals who were underweight, the largest percentage of all three textbooks. Bien Dit also featured more individuals with excess weight, although that percentage was only slightly more than one percent.

**Summary**

Textbooks have their place in the curriculum. The use of the textbooks and the celebration of the diversity they provide should not be neglected. The three textbooks under examination may not be as multiculturally balanced as hoped, but the inclusion of many of the variables and categories indicates a progression toward more inclusion. In the past, many textbooks presented everyone as able-bodied, average weight, and White. Now, students have the opportunities to view more diverse individuals, such as a multiracial family, a student with a prosthetic leg playing soccer, and Pacific Islanders all in the textbook T’es Branché?. Students who are Black/African American may feel accepted and welcome in the French classroom when they see another Black person on the cover of the textbook, as is the case with Bien Dit, while Asian students using Discovering French Today may feel appreciation for their cultures through the inclusion that the text has provided. Students have more opportunities to find other individuals similar to them, providing a connection that may have been non-existent previously.
Implications

Textbooks are commonplace in classrooms across content areas and are often the focal point in the classroom. Evidence suggests significant relationships between the textbook and the instruction that takes place in the classroom. Textbooks may carry messages related to the content and political messages as well (Valverde et al., 2002). These messages may not only be through the included content but also through lack of representation or exclusion in the textbooks.

The exclusion of groups of people in the curriculum, or the absence of culturally relevant teaching, has a negative effect on students whose groups are not represented. Students feel insulted, embarrassed, ashamed, and angered when their experiences are omitted, or they are portrayed negatively (Gay, 2010).

In discussing the exclusion of people who are overweight in textbooks, Touster (2000) indicated a personal struggle with weight. Her struggle was compounded by what she termed the entrenched bias facing people who are overweight in society, as well as by anti-fat attitudes. An accurate portrayal and representation of those of a range of body sizes in textbooks may help to change attitudes and alleviate the struggle that many students face (2000). With few representations of individuals with excess weight appearing in the textbooks, more conscious efforts should be made to portray these individuals.

Minority groups are not the only groups who are negatively affected by the exclusion and misrepresentation of groups of people. When White students discovered the trials experienced by minorities during World War II, they felt as if their education
had been inadequate. They felt shortchanged by not learning about these experiences (Gay, 2010).

Symbolic representations in textbooks may also influence student thought. Symbolic representations in textbooks play an important role in transmitting subtle messages to students about the importance of groups within a society. If certain groups in society are included in the textbooks, the message received is one affirming the importance of those groups over other groups. Students may then deem these groups important if they are included in the textbook (Sleeter & Grant, 1991).

In reflecting on the findings of the present study, the three textbooks appear to have made efforts to include diversity within the illustrations. However, the representations often do not reflect the actual demographics of the school population, leaving the question of how students who are disabled, of excess weight, of a low socioeconomic status, or members of an ethnic minority perceive themselves based on their exclusion in the textbook. Knowing that subtle messages are being transmitted, do students with inadequate representation begin to believe that they are not important since the textbook publisher did not include them in the textbook? In contrast, do students who are featured often in the textbooks learn the subtle message that students who are not similar to them are less important?

Strides appear to have been made in providing diverse representation, but sporadic inclusion does not indicate adequate representation. Publishers set criteria related to diversity in textbooks and have freely indicated that they are careful to follow these guidelines, even if that translates to using models to represent underrepresented groups, such as students with disabilities. What is alarming in this strategy is the use of
models that are not representative of the targeted group portraying characters of these diverse groups (Golden, 2006).

**Recommendations**

The field of public education receives criticism and praise from all facets of society, including how to best educate the students populating the halls of each school building across the nation. Some of the criticism appears unwarranted while other criticism, if taken constructively, could create learning environments where all students feel appreciated and welcome.

One such way of creating learning environments where students feel appreciated and welcome is to ensure that they are accurately represented in the textbooks through the illustrations. Illustrations populate the pages of most textbooks, including French language textbooks. These illustrations transmit subtle messages to various groups, such as a message promoting the importance of one cultural group over another group (Gollnick & Chinn, 2013). Teachers must be careful to counteract these harmful messages and include the abilities and contributions of all cultural groups into the textbook content.

The influences, both subtle and blatant, that images and illustrations in textbooks have to convey meaning should be viewed cautiously (Gay, 2010; Green, 2000). Brosh (1997) asserts that the quality of the textbook has a formative impact on students. From the information gleaned in textbooks, personal and political views begin to form. These views about others are validated depending on the subtle, and sometimes, blatant messages that are being learned about other groups of people. These illustrations have attitudinal and emotional power to mold the beliefs that students have on many social
issues and cultural groups of people. Students need to be taught how to analyze and interpret these images that they encounter (Green, 2000).

Because of this influence, publishers should be deliberate in the inclusion of illustrations that are representative of society. Often, a false view of reality leads to misconceptions and promotes unrealistic ideals, such as viewing illustrations of thin models. A constant presence like this, of underweight individuals, can have psychological and physical effects on children (Green, 2000). Could it also be possible that students who do not fit the body image deemed “acceptable” could have psychological and physical effects from consistently seeing images of average and thin individuals in their textbooks?

In addition to viewing the illustrations in the textbook cautiously, educators should incorporate a culturally relevant curriculum in order to reach all students. To do so requires diligence from the teachers in introducing content that is authentic and accurate. This will require teachers to rely on more than the textbook. Other sources, such as mass media and music can be incorporated to provide representation for all groups in the classroom (Gay, 2010).

For students to appreciate and understand fully the contributions of diverse groups, they must be taught to recognize subtle and blatant biases (Gay, 2010). Whether the biases are in the form of misrepresentations or lack of representation, students must view the information they are learning critically by questioning the status quo.

As part of the daily practice in the classroom, educators could create scenarios where students practice the language using their own personal experiences. If students
make a connection with their personal lives, the learning will be more relevant and provide students a sense of ownership and belonging. According to Gollnick and Chinn:

The ethnic communities to which students belong provide the real-life examples teachers should draw on to teach. Knowing students’ ethnic and cultural experiences and how subject matter interacts with students’ reality are important in designing effective strategies to engage students in learning (2009, p. 69).

By having background knowledge of students, teachers can craft lessons that enhance the content of the curriculum and correct any deficits in the textbook.

Culturally relevance sensitivity to the diversity in the classroom includes more than race/ethnicity. Gender is an important aspect that has implications for the level of learning in the classroom. Although the textbooks in the present study were balanced by gender, teachers should be careful to ensure that any representations in the textbooks are not stereotypical.

Representation in the textbook may not be enough to ensure learning. Males and females often learn differently, with boys often needing movement. Females may prefer cooperative learning. These differences should be considered when introducing knowledge or activities in the textbooks (Gollnick & Chinn, 2009).

Not only should consideration by gender be taken into account in overcoming possible deficits of the textbooks, but the socioeconomic status of the students should also be considered. The majority of the curriculum, including the textbook, promote middle class values, but almost half of the school population receives free and reduced lunch (Gollnick & Chinn, 2009; National Center for Education Statistics, 2011). Students should see learning a language as something for them rather than something for “others.” Teachers must make an effort to include students of lower socioeconomic status into the curriculum so that they do not perceive language learning as only for those
with money (Boyer & Baptiste, 1996). All three textbooks under consideration provided illustrations featuring representations of the range of socioeconomic statuses, so these illustrations could be a springboard to conversation concerning values and challenges of different social classes.

Regardless of group identification in the classroom, students should feel as if their voices, their experiences, and their cultural groups are heard. According to Banks (2008) this requires teachers to allow students to express their emotions regarding sensitive issues. This could include frustrations originating from the lack of representation in the textbooks for some groups. The key is for teachers to provide an outlet for these frustrations that increases learning and decreases misconceptions of diverse groups.

Banks also provides principles necessary for student learning in a multicultural classroom. One of those principles speaks specifically to the curriculum:

The curriculum should help students understand that knowledge is socially constructed and reflects researchers’ personal experiences as well as the social, political, and economic contexts in which they live and work (2008, p. 122).

A curriculum built on this principle allows students to critique and analyze their textbooks and understand that the illustrations embedded within the covers are socially constructed with social, political, and economic overtones. When students understand this and can independently question and critique the overrepresentation of some groups and the underrepresentation of other groups, they can confidently find their place within the classroom, especially the French classroom where cultures should be celebrated and embraced.

Lee (2011) suggests that teachers examine the content of textbooks critically. When evidence of bias and discrimination are found, teachers should discuss these issues
with their students rather than avoid them (Cochran, 1996; Gay, 2002; Lee, 2011). Lee (2011) goes further to explain that the social, cultural, political, and economic contexts in which bias is present has what he calls a reciprocal effect on the content of textbooks (2011, p. 60). The entrenched bias in society influences the textbook, while conversely the textbook validates those biases. Through critical viewing of the textbook and discussion of subtle messages and biases, students not represented in the textbook content receive validation while students who are present in the textbook question this absence. All students learn to be critical by examining that content and probing deeper into the subtle messages.

Reys et. al (2004) suggest that teachers should be willing to change curriculum materials if resources such as the textbook are not meeting the needs of the students. Textbooks should be tools that engage and motivate but without being culturally responsive the opposite effect could occur. Groups of people omitted from the textbooks and content of the curriculum may not be as motivated and engaged to learn if their teachers are unwilling to critically discuss the misconceptions and omissions of the textbooks.

Teachers need to critically examine adopted textbooks for the messages hidden in the textbooks and illustrations. With the textbook continuing to be a central tool in many, if not most, classrooms, teachers must be cautious and cognizant to debunk possible misconceptions. Gay (2002) stresses that both preservice and inservice teachers should be taught to conduct cultural analyses of the textbooks and revise as needed to be more representative.
Alvermann and Commeyras (1994) suggest that teachers provide students opportunities to discuss inequalities found in their textbooks. Knowing that the textbooks include content that subtly renders different groups invisible and other groups more dominant, Alvermann and Commeyras offer a framework for discussing these inequalities. The framework is based on the idea that the biases in the textbook lead to biases in oral discussion. To combat this bias, teachers and students critically examine textbooks, leading the way to discussing multiple perspectives rather than the perspective of the textbook.

The process for critically examining the textbook is a multi-step process beginning with a broad question, such as “How are women positioned in world history textbooks?” (Alvermann & Commeyras, 1994, p. 567). Students then use the index to find all passages mentioning women. In the textbook used by Alvermann and Commeyras, only 43 of 869 pages mentioned women. In the third step, each of the pages where women are mentioned is read selectively. Students then use a three column graphic organizer to take notes and discuss the information gleaned from the textbook for the fourth step. The first column includes excerpts of the textbook passage while the second column includes student comments about the content that the textbook chose to teach about women’s lives across time and culture. The third column includes a comment of the language that the authors used in presenting the content. After the three columns are completed, teachers and students discuss what additional knowledge students might gain from a discussion of multiple perspectives. This process, explained in terms of a World History class, could be used across content areas—including the French classroom—to have students examine their textbooks critically, including the
photographs and illustrations. The discussion could also focus on racial inequalities or other inequalities found in the textbook as a way of teaching students to analyze multiple perspectives (1994).

When inequities are found within the curriculum and the textbooks, teachers have the opportunity through culturally responsive teaching to diminish those inequalities and provide a foundation of learning built on students. Saifer, Edwards, Ellis, Ko and Stuczynski (2011) indicate that the perspectives of all students are improved and transformed through culturally responsive teaching. Students’ attitudes towards often marginalized groups begin to change, leading to transformation (2011).

The culture of the dominant class of society has been considered legitimate knowledge to teach in the classroom. The ramifications of this ideology are immense and have impacts on students and society. To overcome these negative effects and to embrace the diversity within the classroom, educators are encouraged to “develop a language of critique and of possibility” (Apple, 1986, p. 177). Students should also read the textbooks critically and be willing to critique them (Apple, 1986; Gay, 2010).

In order to achieve this goal, students and educators must be taught critical literacy. This entails knowing more than just reading and writing. It requires educators and students alike to be critical of what they read, see, or hear and to question the material that they are given. Teachers have to examine primary and supplemental materials for bias. They should choose textbooks carefully and adapt the content as needed so that students can discover positively the role that other groups play in society (Apple, 1986; Brosh, 1997).
Gay (2010) further develops the idea of critical literacy by calling for curriculum content to be connected to the lives of students and their experiences outside of school. The content should be viewed critically as a tool that helps empower students through their capabilities, attitudes, and experiences (Young, 2010). Since textbooks are the most commonly used form of curriculum, they (textbooks) are a powerful tool for student achievement and could be a powerful tool for culturally responsive teaching.

Cummins (2007) in the foreword to the Adelman-Reyes book *Constructivist Strategies for English Language Learners*, stresses that for learning to be effective, even content textbooks must be regarded with critical analysis from the learners rather than simply for literal comprehension. This stance is important for impressionable learners as they encounter images that may or may not promote and celebrate their multicultural diversity.

**Future Research**

The present study focused on the color illustrations in level one French textbooks. Many areas of research remain concerning foreign language textbooks and the influence of those textbooks in the classroom. Issitt (2004) argues that textbooks are a source for many types of analyses. The empirical base of textbooks provides a foundation for research and some areas of examination may be across disciplines. The foreign language textbook provides both a foundation for research and information that can be examined across disciplines.

Other content analyses into foreign language textbooks may expand to include other commonly taught languages, such as Spanish and German to determine representation of diversity in those textbooks. The present study found Hispanics/Latinos
to be alarmingly underrepresented in the three textbooks. An analysis of recent secondary Spanish One textbooks may yield different results. Whether the textbooks are of the French language or other languages, research into the diversity across levels of a textbook series may yield interesting results. Consistency across the levels of language would be expected, but that may not be the case.

The conversation surrounding recommendations, such as culturally relevant pedagogy, requires action and diligence from the teacher. Future research on diversity in language textbooks may follow a mixed methods approach, where an analysis of the textbook is conducted as well as a survey of foreign language teachers. It would be interesting to determine the extent that teachers use the textbook and the extent to which they incorporate culturally relevant pedagogy into the curriculum.

With the purchase of a textbook series, many ancillary materials are included and used with students. An examination of those materials, including testing materials, videos, and workbooks, may also teach subtle or blatant lessons on diversity through the illustrations, activities, or locations. This could include an examination of the content in the annotated teacher pages of the teacher’s editions for diversity appearing throughout the textbook.

Other research may also focus not only on if different groups are represented, but also how they are represented. If students are depicted stereotypically, the possibility of transferring these damaging stereotypes may be transferred to students, as was the case in sexist reading textbooks (Porreca, 1984). These offensive sexist attitudes, even if minimal, may damage students (Rifkin, 1998).
Additionally, future research of diversity in textbooks may focus more on disabilities. Does there appear to be a deficit approach to disabilities in textbooks? If so, what effect could this have on students? In relation to disabilities, how do students with disabilities that are invisible in illustrations and textbook content perceive the illustrations and content that they encounter in their textbooks?
EPILOGUE

The underlying goal of this study was to provide a description of the current state of French One textbooks in relation to diversity in illustrations. The intent of this study was not to diminish the efforts of textbook authors, editors, and writers. It is the hopes of the researcher of this study that textbook publishers use this information in a formative manner to influence subsequent editions and textbooks. For the classroom teacher, the hope is to provide a description that allows them to use the textbook in a manner that leads students to be critical thinkers using a culturally relevant approach.

All of the textbooks under consideration have many admirable qualities in content and pedagogical approach. They appear to be far from inadequate in many aspects, such as rich real world applications, vocabulary presentation, and grammar activities. Although the representations in illustrations do not always mirror the actual school demographics, it is comforting to know that these textbooks are moving in the right direction through the inclusion of groups that were often rendered invisible in the past.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX

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*Textbook Coding Sheet*

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Textbook Percentage Sheet

Textbook: *Beauvoir*

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