Promoting Ethnic Awareness and Appreciation in Preschool Children

A Senior Project submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Bachelor of Science Degree in Child Development
by

Hailey Drake and Hye Ran (Helen) Sim

Psychology and Child Development Department
College of Liberal Arts
California Polytechnic State University
San Luis Obispo

Winter Quarter, 2015

Faculty Advisor: Dr. Linda Lee
Table of Contents

Chapter I - Introduction .................................................................................................................. 2

Chapter II – Literature Review .................................................................................................... 4
  Development of Racial and Ethnic Awareness ........................................................................... 4
  Ethnic Preference and Prejudice ................................................................................................. 5
    Infancy into Early Childhood ................................................................................................... 6
    Developing Preference and Prejudicial Behaviors ................................................................. 8
    Preference and Prejudicial Behavior in Peer-Relationships .................................................... 12

  Intervention to Promote Appreciation for Ethnic Diversity .................................................. 15
    Role of Parents ....................................................................................................................... 15
    Role of Educators .................................................................................................................. 17
    Using Children’s Literature as a Source of Intervention .................................................... 20

  Conclusion .................................................................................................................................. 23

Chapter III - Methods .................................................................................................................. 25

Chapter IV – Product .................................................................................................................... 31

Chapter V – Conclusion ................................................................................................................. 35

References ..................................................................................................................................... 39

Appendices .................................................................................................................................... 43
Chapter I - Introduction

The population in the United States is becoming increasingly diverse. Understanding and being knowledgeable about diversity and multiculturalism is now essential in the everyday environment. Just as older individuals can distinguish differences, infants and young children display various behaviors that suggest they are able to differentiate between people on the basis of race and ethnicity. Racial awareness, however, is not the same thing as having prejudicial attitudes and behaviors. Nonetheless, studies show that children do demonstrate preferences for others of their own racial background (Kelly, Quinn, Slater, Lee, Ge, & Pascalis, 2007; Kinzler & Spelke, 2011; Kowalski, 2003; Park, 2011). Research shows that intentional interventions, parent involvement, and preschool curricula can positively influence children’s understanding and appreciation of ethnic diversity (Bernstein, Zimmerman, Werner-Wilson, & Vosburg, 2000; Onyekwuluje, 1998; Perkins & Mebert, 2005). Such efforts are critical in today’s world where young children have increasing opportunities to interact with others of differing backgrounds. Unfortunately, parents of young children rarely engage in race related discussions (Brown, Tanner-Smith, Lesane-Brown, & Ezell, 2007; Vittrup & Holden, 2011). To better understand how to support children in their development of ethnic appreciation, it is important to understand when children develop racial awareness, how ethnic preference and prejudice are formed, and how parent intervention and preschool curricula can play a role in decreasing prejudicial behaviors and increasing appreciation of ethnic diversity. These topics will be further discussed throughout the paper, and the research findings will be used to inform the development of our

1 Throughout this paper, the word race and ethnicity will be mentioned simultaneously. The two words have different definitions that are defined by Graham, Taylor, and Ho (2009). Race is defined as “shared genetic and phenotypic similarity,” (i.e. Caucasian, Asian, skin color) and ethnicity is defined as “a group’s common history, nationality, geography, language and culture” (i.e. Italian, Chinese) (p.395). Because various articles refer to either term, it is important to understand the difference between the two.
children’s book, which is aimed at promoting ethnic awareness and appreciation among preschoolers.
Chapter II – Literature Review

Development of Racial and Ethnic Awareness

Awareness of others’ racial and ethnic differences is an important aspect of becoming appreciative of other’s different backgrounds. Researchers have sought to determine when sensitivity to race develops. Kelly et al. (2005) conducted a study in which 64 newborns and 64 3-month-old infants viewed a variety of faces of different races. Results demonstrated that newborn Caucasian infants spent equal amounts of time looking at White and non-White faces. Three-month-olds, however, differed in looking times by spending more time looking at own-race pictures than other-race pictures. Although Caucasian infants develop a preference for same-race faces at around three months after birth, preference does not necessarily mean prejudice; rather, it is an awareness of differences demonstrated by the desire to choose one’s own race over others due to familiarity. Bar-Haim, Ziv, Lamy, and Hodes’ (2006) research explains same-race preference by attributing it to limited environmental exposure to diverse ethnic or racial populations. Three groups of infants – 12 Caucasian Israeli, 12 African Ethiopian, and 12 African Israeli – were tested with color photos of African and Caucasian Israeli faces to see how the environment impacted ethnic-preference. Caucasian Israeli and African Ethiopian babies’ looking patterns were ethnically related. The infants from these two groups looked longer at faces from their ethnic group, confirming the results of the study by Kelly et al. (2005). However, African Israeli infants, who were exposed to a variety of ethnic backgrounds on a daily basis, showed no preference between the stimuli. These results indicate that ethnic awareness is not always linked to own-ethnic preference in all circumstances. Rather, this finding illustrates that exposure to greater ethnic diversity can reduce same-ethnic preference.
Kelly et al. (2007) further demonstrated how time, in addition to environmental exposure, influences infants’ ethnic awareness. The previous studies showed how limited exposure to other races led to own-race preference. Kelly et al. (2007) discovered a timeline at which infants develop other-race effect (ORE), a phenomenon in which individuals experience greater difficulty in distinguishing differences among people from races other than one’s own. Researchers presented pictures of African, Caucasian, Chinese, and Middle Eastern individuals to 192 Caucasian infants who were 3-, 6-, and 9-months of age. As age increased, the infants displayed decreasing novelty preference for other-race individuals, indicating a decline in the ability to distinguish among faces from other races. Three-month-old infants did not indicate ORE, and they showed more attention to the novel face. Six-month-old infants only demonstrated a novelty preference in Chinese and Caucasian individuals, showing the ability to distinguish between Caucasian and Chinese faces but not between African and Middle Eastern faces. Finally, 9-month-old infants only showed a novelty preference for Caucasian faces indicating a full development of ORE. It is unclear how or if ORE leads to a development of bias; however, the potential outcomes of ethnic homogeneity in early childhood environments may be significant.

**Ethnic Preference and Prejudice**

Studies show that children are capable of becoming aware of environmental and societal perceptions of different races early in their life. As they are more exposed to social influences about ethnic perception, they learn to differentiate and form personal preferences about people of different backgrounds. Several findings support that same-race favoritism and peer interaction become stronger as children grow older. Prejudicial behaviors start to develop among preschool children as young as 3-years-old and gradually increase with a greater display of prejudice.
among children in elementary school (Aboud, Mendelson, & Purdy, 2003; Kurtz-Costes, DeFrietas, Halle, & Kinlaw, 2011). This suggests that educating children in early childhood could be helpful in reducing prejudicial behaviors that may intensify throughout development.

**Infancy into Early Childhood**

Research shows that infants are able to express an awareness of ethnicity and even demonstrate own-race preference (Kelly et al., 2005). As infants grow older it appears that biases become stronger and are based on perceived similarity. Mahajan and Wynn (2012) conducted a study that examined how salience of similarities influences the preference of 11.5-month-old infants. The study was comprised of two experiments. In Experiment One, 32 eleven-and-a-half-month-old infants were instructed to choose their preferred food, watched two puppets choose their preferred food, and then chose one of the puppets they observed. Results indicated that infants chose the puppet with the same food preference as themselves. In a follow up experiment, 16 infants of the same age were given the same task but chose their preferred food after the puppets chose their food, and then chose a puppet. When an infant’s food preference was made less salient in this manner, only about half of them preferred the puppet with similar taste. In Experiment Two, researchers observed how actively choosing between two items might affect preference for another individual. Thirty-two 11.5-month-old infants were given the choice to choose between orange and yellow mittens, or were assigned orange or yellow mittens. The infants in each condition observed puppets that were in the same condition (i.e. infants who chose mittens observed puppets who also chose mittens). The results showed that infants in the choice condition chose the similar puppet. However, those in the assigned condition did not show a preference in puppets. When infants perceived similarities as salient, and representative of their own preferences, they showed a preference for similar others. Even with a trivial degree
of difference in preferences, infants still indicated a preference for the individual similar to them. When preference for similarities is made salient and seen in terms of race and ethnicity, the ramifications for preference can be concerning.

Although a preference for similar others can appear harmless, this preference can lead to a bias in treatment of those who appear more similar or different. Hamlin, Mahajan, Liberman, and Wynn (2013) conducted a two-part, multi-phase experiment investigating how infants reacted to someone similar and dissimilar to them based on food preference. Thirty-six 9-month-old infants and sixteen 14-month-old infants participated in the first experiment. The four-phase procedure of the first experiment was nearly identical to Wynn’s previous study except that infants watched either the similar or dissimilar puppet interact with a helpful and a harmful puppet. Finally, the infants chose between the helpful or the harmful puppet. The results indicated that the majority of infants preferred the harmful puppet when it was acting poorly toward the puppet with dissimilar taste but preferred the helpful puppet when it was aiding the puppet with similar taste. The second experiment introduced a neutral puppet in addition to the helpful and the harmful puppet. The infants were given the option to choose between (1) the helpful puppet and the neutral puppet, or (2) the neutral puppet and the harmful puppet. When shown the similar puppet, 14-month-old infants preferred (1) the helpful character to the neutral character and (2) the neutral character to the harmful character. When shown the dissimilar puppet, 14-month-old infants avoided helpful outcomes by choosing (1) the neutral over the helpful and (2) the harmful over the neutral. However, 9-month-old infants did not show any significant preferences. These results indicate that children, especially by the first year of life, show a strong positive bias towards those similar to them and a negative bias toward those who are dissimilar. The emergence of these biases may be relevant to ethnic biases that develop in
childhood. The deepening of these treatment biases between 9 and 14 months of age demonstrate a more negative change in response to difference.

It is important to be aware of how infant biases and preferences due to taste preference can carry over into racial and ethnic preference. Kinzler and Spelke (2011) discovered an age-related trend in racial preference among infants. This study consisted of three experiments designed to better understand young children’s social preferences based on race. In Experiment One, 24 White 10-month-old infants were tasked with choosing a toy from a Black or White individual. Infants accepted toys equally from both individuals and did not show a preference for own-race individuals. In Experiment Two, 24 White children between 2.5 to 3 years of age participated in a giving game activity in which they had to choose to give a toy to either a White or Black individual. These children also did not show own-race preference and gave gifts equally to both individuals. In Experiment Three, 12 White children ages 5- to 6-years-old were told about the toy offering event for infants in which they are offered a toy from a black and a white individual. These children were asked which individual the infant would accept the toy from. They were also asked which of the individuals they would rather be friends with. The older children primarily chose the White individual for both questions. These findings suggest that the development of social preference based on race begins sometime between 2.5 to 5 years of age and demonstrate children’s internalization of racial differences, suggesting this as an optimal time for intervention.

**Developing Preference and Prejudicial Behaviors**

There are several ways children acquire ethnic knowledge. One of the most common ways children pick up social cues about ethnic differences is through observation and modeling. Several studies show how easily children detect certain social cues and learn from them. Castelli,
De Dea, and Nesdale (2008) tested 157 children between the ages of 40- and 78-months to see if they were influenced by adults’ nonverbal behaviors and whether or not their perception was generalized to others that are of the same racial background. In Study One, children were presented with a video that displayed a White adult interacting with a Black adult through verbal behaviors (i.e. friendly or neutral) and nonverbal behaviors (i.e. feelings of easiness or uneasiness). Children were then interviewed and asked five questions about their personal attitude toward the Black adult. Findings from Study One revealed that children were able to detect the negative nonverbal behavior of the White adult in the video clip and consequently revealed negative attitudes toward the Black adult. Study Two built on findings from Study One to see whether children generalized their attitudes to other Black adults. Results showed that children did generalize their developed perception to other Black adults (Castelli et al., 2008).

The tendency to generalize preconceived notions is an important aspect to be attentive to in a society where children are easily exposed to incorrect depictions about others. Waxman (2010) suggests that everyday exposure to naming and categorizing people in regards to their racial background may stir up the prevalence of stereotypes. She examined how 24 four-year-old participants categorized people. Children were introduced to pictures of individuals and were given information about a novel trait of that individual (i.e. good at playing a game), and then the researchers examined how children projected the individual’s characteristic to others. In the first experiment, children were shown a picture of a person along with a description of a novel characteristic of that individual. Results showed that children extended the novel characteristic to others of different race or gender regardless of similarity to the picture. However, during the second experiment, where children were presented with a target individual that was identified (i.e. male, female, White), children were more likely to only extend that property (i.e. good at
playing a game) to an individual similar to the target individual. The findings suggest that children may develop racial perceptions that do not depict a racial group in its entirety if they are introduced to that group merely through naming and categorizing. The development of racial and ethnic awareness in today’s society is an important issue because many children may be exposed to negative influences regularly through their environmental and social context.

Kowalski’s (2003) study further explored whether preschool-aged children pick up negative views toward other races through social cues, rather than creating their own racial perceptions through their own experiences. Seventy 3- to 5-year-old children participated in the study that consisted of two experiments. The first experiment used a forced-choice measure where children were presented with two dolls concurrently, one of their own race and one of a different race, and were asked to assign positive or negative characteristics to each doll. The second experiment used an independent measure where children were shown dolls of different races separately and were asked to assign positive or negative characteristics. Results showed that children only perceived their own group favorably during a forced-choice task (Experiment One), and when children were not forced (Experiment two), they perceived out-groups in positive light as well. This suggests that having a positive view of your own group does not necessarily indicate a negative view of others. However, if children are exposed to negative views of others through environmental and social contexts, they may develop their own negative views of others. Therefore, by providing an environment where everyone is included and appreciated, children may be less likely to attribute negative aspects to those that are different.

A reexamination of the infamous Black and White doll experiment by Kenneth and Mamie Clark from 65 years ago furthermore reveals the prevalence of the display of racial preferences in today’s society. Previous data found that Black and White children preferred
White dolls over Black dolls. Jordan and Hernandez-Reif (2009) showed 40 three- to five-year-old Black and White children a moral scenario depicting a Black child as a hero, and then asked them to choose the doll that they would define as their “best friend.” Children were first asked about their skin tone preference, followed by a pretest, where children were presented with the same-gender Black and White character and were asked preferential questions about them. Then children were presented with either a moral story or a non-moral (control) story, also followed by a posttest with the similar format as the pretest. In this study, children also had a choice to choose “both” or “neither.” The results revealed that while some Black children showed positive views toward the Black child after the moral story, White children did not show any changes in their preference of their friend and still chose the White doll. In fact, when the moral story was not provided (control group), Black children also preferred the White doll. Kurtz-Costes et al. (2011) conducted a similar study that examined Black and White girls’ gender and racial preference. Participants included 108 Black and White preschool girls ages 3 and 5. The girls were assigned to a task of setting up a birthday party for dolls of multiple races of both genders. Racial preference was measured by how frequently children chose a doll to participate in various party activities (i.e. how many turns each doll should have hitting the piñata). The study revealed that Black girls favored the White doll, and White girls expressed same-race favoritism greater than Black girls who showed more gender favoritism instead. This study affirmed that the preference for White dolls remains consistent even today. These findings suggest a continual need to discover effective ways of decreasing preferential behaviors and increasing acceptance of diversity.
Preference and Prejudicial Behavior in Peer Relationships

Children’s ethnic preference and prejudicial attitudes are also revealed through behaviors towards in-group and out-group members. Castelli, De Amicis, and Sherman (2007) studied 4-to 7-year-old children’s preference between in-group members who exclusively played with other in-group members (loyal member effect) or those who also played with out-group members. The study was divided into four studies and all participants were 4- to 7-year old Caucasian children. The first study included 36 children who were shown two pictures of two White boys – one was playing with another White friend, and the other was playing with a Black friend. Researchers interviewed children regarding their friend preference and found that in Study One, children preferred the boy who only played with another White friend. The second study included 120 children and two conditions were added to the picture task. The first was a spontaneous condition where they were told that the boy played with a White or Black friend spontaneously. The second was a teacher condition where children were told that the boy was playing with the White or Black friend because the teacher formed the groups. Results from Study Two revealed that children showed no preference for either boy in both of those conditions. The third study included 42 children who were shown three pictures. The first was a White child with two White friends, the second was a White child with one White friend and one Black friend, and the third was a White child with two Black friends. Results from the third study revealed that children preferred the child with two White friends over the other choices. In the final study, 109 children as well as 46 nine- to eleven-year-old children were assessed for their desire to play with the White or the Black child. Study Four found that the loyal member effect was no longer present for older children; however, it is unclear whether this decline is a result of the “acceptance of intergroup interactions,” or “a compliance with egalitarian social norms” (p.1357). The general
finding from this study was that children applied loyal member effects only when the characters had a free choice of playmate. Because in-group members who play with out-group members appear less preferred, children may avoid intergroup contact as a consequence. This exclusion behavior may then influence children’s friendship selection in later years to avoid negative peer evaluations.

A study by Aboud et al. (2003) examined peer relationships of elementary school children who had different gender and race, and tested to see whether racial attitudes played a role in children’s choice of friends. A total of 240 children (164 White, and 76 Black), grades one through six, participated in this study. Children were interviewed about their perceived peer relationship that was measured through a self-report, a rating scale, the McGill Friendship Questionnaire (MFQ), and the Multi-Response Racial Attitude measure. The results found that older children preferred more same-race mutual friends than cross-race mutual friends. Also, though race itself predicted peers and friends, racial attitudes (positive or negative) did not play a role in friend selection. Though this study implies that attitudes about others may not be a factor in cross-racial friendships, this study does not take into account children’s early exposure to and experience with diverse environments.

One possible explanation for the different behaviors that children display to those that are similar and to those that are different can be attributed to the differences in cultural values and expectations that children are exposed to. Girouard, Stack, and O’Niell-Gilbert (2011) examined dyadic interactions between Asian-Canadian and French-Canadian preschool children “in terms of social participation, initiation responses strategies, and social interchange” (p.186). The participants included 30 Asian-Canadian and 30 French-Canadian preschoolers. Children were paired in same-gender and same-age dyads. Observations were videotaped and were coded for
language competence, type of social participation, initiation and response, and social interchange. The results showed that same-ethnic peers engaged in more interactive play, whereas cross-ethnic peers engaged in more solitary play, and preschooler’s interactive behaviors were partly influenced by their peer’s ethnic background. These patterns of behaviors may be explained through cultural variations. Because families of Asian-Canadian children are more collectivistic, children may display more prosocial behaviors (i.e. helping, sharing, caring) and thus initiate interaction using a co-operative method. However, French-Canadian children initiated interactions in a more verbal approach. These differing cultural and social values children are exposed to may be a factor that collide during peer interaction and possibly explain why children from dissimilar backgrounds act differently toward each other.

The struggle to form diverse ethnic friendships is explained through Howes, Sanders, & Lee’s (2008) research that examined the development of ethnically diverse children’s social competence with peers. All 170 participants were new to the peer group and came from ethnically diverse low-income populations. Children’s peer and teacher interactions were measured through a time-sampling observation and the Child Behavior Rating scale (CBR). The study concluded that minority children who did not have peers of the same ethnic background struggled when interacting with other peers, whereas children who had peers similar to their own ethnic background adapted well to the new environment and increased engagement in complex play. This suggests that children from minority backgrounds find it challenging to adapt to the school environment if they lack peers or adults who share similar backgrounds. These studies further indicate the importance of exposing children and teachers to multiculturalism so that children can form friendships in terms of their compatibility with personality rather than race or
ethnic background and also promote appreciation for diversity while learning to value one’s own as well.

**Intervention to Promote Appreciation for Ethnic Diversity**

Although ethnicity and race are both noticeable and important, adults tend to avoid the topic of ethnic differences. It is likely well intentioned for fear of saying something wrong or somehow encouraging discriminatory beliefs in their children. However, avoiding conversations about race and ethnicity suggests to a child that the topic should not be discussed and thus can lead children to develop their own biases (Hughes et al., 2006). This reveals the need to actively engage children in appreciating diversity and learning to accept ethnic differences. Parents and teachers can be great influencers in engaging children in thinking about ethnic diversity and in promoting racial and ethnic awareness.

**Role of Parents**

Evidence strongly indicates that ethnic preferences in infancy are consistent with bias development in early childhood. Holden’s study found that because parents are the primary facilitators of their children’s early socialization, it is important to examine how they play a role in the development of children’s ethnic appreciation (as cited in Vittrup & Holden, 2011). Sinclair, Dunn, and Lowery (2005) explored whether children who are highly identified with their parents will have perspectives that are more aligned with their parents’ views than those who are less identified with their parents. Eighty-nine parent-child dyads from two Midwest schools, consisting of fourth and fifth graders, participated in the study. The overwhelming majority of children were White. Parents’ implicit prejudice was determined by a shortened version of the Intergroup Threat Scale. Children’s explicit prejudice was analyzed using the Multi-response Racial Attitude measure, and their implicit prejudice was measured by the
Implicit Association Test. The children also completed a survey to measure how strongly they identify with their parents (i.e. how much they wanted to be like their parents). The results revealed that children’s degree of identification towards their parents corresponded with similarity in prejudicial attitudes. This finding indicates that close parent-child relationships can have a great influence on children’s ability to appreciate diversity.

Although parents’ implicit prejudices influence both children’s implicit and explicit prejudices, explicit conversations about ethnicity and race are rare. Not all parents talk about ethnicity equally. Brown et al. (2007) sought to develop a better understanding of what factors contributed to ethnic and racial socialization within families. The sample size consisted of 17,372 kindergarteners from 934 public schools and 346 private schools. Data were collected and analyzed from the Early Childhood Longitudinal Study of Kindergarteners. The results showed that almost a quarter of families never discussed ethnicity or racial heritage with their children and only a tenth of families did on a weekly basis. Black, Hispanic, Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander, American Indian, Asian, and multiracial families were significantly more likely to discuss racial and ethnic heritage with their children than were White families. Being an ethnic minority in school or other environmental settings, as well as living in a diverse or an urban area, predicted more frequent familial conversations about ethnic and racial heritage. The findings of this study indicate how ethnic differences influence frequency of discussion about ethnicity.

As evidenced by the previous study, White parents are less likely to talk explicitly about ethnicity than other racial groups. Vittrup and Holden (2011) explored how educational television and explicit parent-child interactions would influence children’s development of ethnic attitudes. The study focused specifically on how these two factors can be combined in an effort
to make White children more appreciative of ethnic differences. Ninety-three White families with 5- to 7-year-old children participated in this study. In the experimental groups, parents were asked to show their children five educational shows and were assigned to either of the two conditions: providing race-related discussion or providing no discussion at all. Other parent-child pairs were assigned to only have race-related discussions without watching the television shows. Discouragingly, only 10% of parents engaged in the race related discussions they were instructed to have with their children. The results indicated that children’s racial attitudes were not significantly correlated to their parents’ racial attitudes, but rather, children’s racial attitudes were significantly correlated to what they perceived to be their parents’ racial attitudes. Children whose parents did complete instructions and had race related discussions showed more positive out-group attitudes. However, the lack of participation may have skewed the data and provided unreliable results. If more parents actively participated in the study, data may have been more significant.

Research findings indicate the importance of engaging in explicit parent-child discussions about race. They also show how avoiding explicit race-related conversations still communicates values and views to children. If parents are not willing to openly discuss topics regarding racial and ethnic diversity, children may come to their own conclusions about race and ethnicity that may be inaccurate and biased. Thus, parents’ discomfort with engaging in race-related discussions with their children may have some undesirable consequences in the future.

**Role of Educators**

Preschool teachers and other educators also play a significant role in guiding children’s appreciation for diversity. Rutland, Cameron, Bennett, and Ferrell (2005) suggest the importance of introducing ethnic and racial interventions early in a child’s life. They examined how
interracial contact and racial constancy influenced young Anglo-British children’s developing racial bias. Participants included 136 Anglo-British children between the ages of 3 and 5 from three different preschool classrooms that varied in the exposure of interracial contact. Researchers individually interviewed children for 15 minutes and measured two concepts: (1) understanding of racial constancy, and (2) the evaluation of stereotypic traits among pictures of their own race (Anglo-British) and three others including African-Caribbean, Indian-Asian, and Far East-Asian. Results showed that children displayed greatest racial intergroup bias towards African-Caribbean characters. However, children who were exposed to greater interracial contact did not show any discrimination in favor of their in-group. Also, the understanding of racial constancy was present among preschool children, suggesting the importance of promoting early interracial contact to reduce intergroup bias. Unless children are introduced to the topic of ethnic diversity and appreciation during or before preschool years, it may be more challenging to prevent them from developing prejudicial and biased behaviors. Though providing a multicultural environment for all children may be difficult, exposing children to multiethnic and multiracial content can be conducive in helping children form positive racial and ethnic perceptions to some extent.

Many research findings convey the importance of educating children about racial and ethnic differences early in development. Several studies suggest various methods of positive interventions that can promote children’s understanding and appreciation of others who are different. Perkins and Mebert (2005) studied how different curricular approaches improved children’s development of “racial expertise.” Seventy-nine preschool children participated in this study. Forty-three children were from a preschool with multicultural and emergent curricula, twenty children were from a preschool with multicultural but no emergent curricula, and sixteen
children were from a preschool with neither multicultural nor emergent curricula. Researchers asked directors of each preschool to fill out a Child Care Center Questionnaire to measure preschool curricula. Children were assessed using three tools: (1) Cognitive Abilities Measure, (2) Multi-Response Racial Attitude Scale (MRA), and (3) Racial Awareness, Differences, and Similarities Task. Results showed that children who attended preschools with multicultural and emergent curricula were found to have greater knowledge of race than children who were not in those classrooms. Discouragingly, that was not an indication of less biased attitudes compared to other children. Therefore, Perkins and Mebert (2005) suggested helping children develop the ability to view in-group and out-group members as similar instead of perceiving out-group members as homogeneous. A different study by Park (2011) examined children’s language and social interactions in regards to racial and ethnic identities. Data were obtained through classroom observations and interviews with six 3- to 5-year-old focal children. Park (2011) found that children understood physical markers that represented different race, and when children gained different insights about race and ethnic diversity, they were able to expand their social interactive relationships. In conclusion, by using the Vygotsky’s Zone of Proximal Development (as cited in Park, 2011) and creating an environment where children can reflect on their experiences and learn to expand their knowledge of other ethnic groups, children do learn to understand and increase their knowledge about ethnic differences.

Developing comprehensive preschool curricula that includes a multicultural component is not the only way to increase ethnic appreciation. There are other intervention programs that also provide positive effects in increasing children’s racial and ethnic knowledge. Bernstein et al.

---

2 Multicultural curricula include components such as the number and type of holidays celebrated, promotion of anti-bias attitudes, enrollment of special needs children, and so on. Emergent curricula are characterized by revolving class material around children’s interests (Perkins & Mebert, 2005).
(2000) conducted an eight-week intervention program with 19 children and found that exposure to different ethnic information decreased children’s categorization of people according to their race. The eight-week intervention program included 15-minute group presentations about different ethnic families twice a week. Children were assigned to a race and ethnicity classification photo task where they were presented with 16 different cards of people that had different sex, race and ethnicity, age, and facial expression. Children were given one to three attempts to sort the cards. After the intervention program, results showed that children who received the intervention program decreased categorizing people into race and ethnic groups, and instead sorted them more by gender and age. Presenting stories about different families from various backgrounds seemed to increase children’s understanding of differences. Following these stories about diversity with discussion may then contribute to a greater understanding of these concepts as previous research indicates the positive impact of engaging in explicit conversations (Vittrup & Holden, 2011).

**Using Children’s Literature as a Source of Intervention**

In order to successfully integrate effective changes, teachers and parents must be open to and aware of their own perceptions of ethnic diversity (D’Angelo & Dixey, 2001). It is important that teachers and parents understand the need to educate children on ethnic diversity and demonstrate positive, healthy behaviors for children to model after. To educate children about diversity and promote ethnic appreciation, teachers and parents can utilize “children’s literature, instructional materials, and internet sources” and develop classroom composition that promotes ethnic appreciation (D’Angelo & Dixey, 2001, p. 83; Sanders & Downer, 2012). In particular, children’s books can be an effective way to convey important social concepts, especially if the content of the book is structured to promote explicit conversation. For example, Price, van
Kleeck, and Huberty (2009) found that parents and children produced more extra-textual talk while reading an expository book than a storybook. Sixty-two 3- to 4-year-old children and their parents participated in this study, and the dyads were videotaped reading the two different genres. Results showed that when participants read the expository book, parents used more diverse vocabulary and twice as many utterances when compared to reading a storybook. Expository books also elicit extra-textual talk that requires higher levels of cognitive demands in children.

In addition to book text, another important aspect to be attentive to is character depiction. The realism of the pictures in the book play an important role in children’s understanding and application of concepts to the real world (Ganea, Pickard, & DeLoache, 2008). Ganea et al. (2008) explored the extent to which young children are able to transfer information between objects in picture books and objects in the real world. Ninety-six 15- and 18-month-olds participated in this study. Researchers presented eight pictures of familiar objects (i.e. toy phone, toy airplane) and two pictures of novel objects (i.e. chrome wire egg holder and a white plastic egg cup) in three different mediums: (1) real photographs, (2) colored drawings, and (3) colored cartoons. Then, the children were given three tests for recognition, extension, and generalization. The study found that the iconicity of pictures affected children’s performance of relating the objects to the real world. More realistic illustrations enhanced children’s ability to connect the drawings to real life objects. This finding provides evidence that young children transfer information they learn from picture books to the real world, and the degree to which they are capable of doing so depends on the realism of the pictures. This study is significant to note when illustrating humans of different races and ethnicities. Racial and ethnic illustrations should be portrayed as authentic as possible, especially when the content is being addressed to preschool-aged children, in an effort to avoid stereotyping groups. Though the participants in the study
were 15- and 18-month-old children, preschool-aged children’s capability to make racial and ethnic connections from the book to the real world should be carefully considered.

Generally, a shared book-reading experience with an adult can create an opportunity for children to expand their knowledge and understanding of the world. Parents and educators must understand the crucial role they play when participating in a joint book-reading activity. Kang, Kim, and Pan (2009) examined children’s contribution in producing extra-textual talks when engaging in a joint book-reading task with a mother. Sixty-two low-income mothers and their preschool-aged children participated in this study. The participants were assigned to read the book *The Very Hungry Caterpillar*, and data were collected through child assessments, parent interviews, home and childcare observations, and videotaping. Results showed that children, on average, contributed nearly as much talk as mothers when reading the book and children were more involved in extra-textual conversations when mothers produced more extra-textual talk. This study revealed the importance of the mother’s engagement in a joint book-reading task. On another note, Anderson, Anderson, Lynch, Shapiro, and Kim (2012) examined the frequency and type of questions children and parents asked when engaging in a shared book-reading task. Forty 3- to 4-year-old children and their parents participated in this study. Researchers videotaped and transcribed each session of shared book-reading. Results showed that parents generally asked children questions about the concept and idea of the book, ensured children’s understanding of the topic, and encouraged children to make connections. On the other hand, children asked clarification questions and seemed to seek information to better comprehend the text. Thus, parents play a crucial role in facilitating and guiding children’s understanding of the world. Though these two studies focused on parental roles, it is also important that educators also take
this into consideration to understand children’s cognition, how they engage in joint-book reading, and what information they obtain while reading a book.

Although children’s literature is a tool that can be easily utilized by teachers and parents to promote ethnic appreciation, very little research has been conducted to better understand the impact that children’s literature can have in facilitating discussion about race and ethnicity. More research on how to best aid parents and teachers in initiating race and ethnic related conversation is necessary.

**Conclusion**

Studies reveal that children are prone to developing preferential behaviors and prejudicial attitudes toward others early in their development. Research has indicated that infants are aware of ethnicity as early as three-months-old (Kelly et al., 2005; Kelly et al., 2007). Limited environmental exposure to diversity can lead to own-race preferences, and these preferences later manifest themselves in own-race preference in friendships (Aboud et al., 2003; Bar-Haim et al., 2006; Kinzler & Spelke, 2011). It is important for parents and educators to teach children about ethnic appreciation and promote acceptance of diversity early in their life. While exposure to interracial contact and multicultural curricula enhance children’s understanding of racial and ethnic differences in positive light, children who are exposed to negative and false assumptions regarding other ethnic backgrounds can learn to perceive others in negative light in the form of racism (Cristol & Gimbert, 2008; Perkins & Mebert, 2005; Rutland et al., 2005). Adults are responsible for teaching children to be accepting of individuals and encourage them to see similarities in others instead of distinguishing groups as being different merely because of racial and ethnic variances (Perkins & Mebert, 2005).
It is evident that many researchers have been working on developing respectful and appreciative multicultural environments and are hopeful that successful integration of cultural diversity among children will derive as parents and schools work together to create a balanced, culturally diverse environment (Onyekwuluje, 1998). The goal of teaching children about ethnic and racial diversity is to help children understand that although people may be different, everyone should be treated equally and respectfully (D’Angelo & Dixey, 2001). Parents and educators must collaborate and utilize various resources to provide children with an optimal environment that promotes appreciation, respect, and acceptance of every individual.

The most important aspect of expanding knowledge about ethnic diversity is taking action. Research indicates that explicit parent-child conversations do positively influence children’s ethnic appreciation (Vittrup & Holden, 2011). As part of taking action, we decided to compile these research findings and create a children’s book that will guide parents, educators, and children in understanding diversity and appreciating differences. This project serves to provide parents and educators with a resource that can guide explicit conversations about ethnicity and race, and foster appreciation for diversity. Because there is a lack of resources that address this topic, we hope this project will fill that need.
Chapter III - Methods

Participants

Six adult participants were interviewed regarding their perspectives and concerns about educating preschool children on the topic of race and ethnicity. Our interviewees included (1) an Ethnic Studies professor at Cal Poly, (2) a preschool teacher from the East Bay, (3) a director of a Preschool Lab in San Luis Obispo, (4) a Speech Therapist for preschool aged children, and (5) two mothers of biracial preschoolers, one of whom is a single mother. The participants were intentionally chosen due to their diverse backgrounds in education, ethnicity, and experience.

Target Audience

Our target audience includes 3- to 5-year-old preschool children. Multiple studies have found that prejudicial behaviors begin to develop in children as young as 3-years-old (Aboud et al., 2003; Kurtz-Costes et al., 2011). Kinzler and Spelke (2011) discovered that the development of social preferences based on race develops sometime between 2.5 to 5 years of age, demonstrating children’s internalization of racial differences. These findings support the need for intervention in early education. One potential approach could be through a joint book-reading task.

Book Content

The content of this book was designed by incorporating many research findings. We used these findings to develop three main features of the book: (1) realistic illustrations, (2) expository text, and (3) content that elicit adult-child extra-textual talk. Ganea et al. (2008) reported that young children’s performance of recognition, extension, and generalization of objects depend highly on the iconicity of the illustration. Though Ganea et al.’s (2008) study only included 15- and 18-month-old children, we perceived this study to be relevant to our book design especially
because we are addressing race and ethnicity. We want to ensure that preschool-aged children can acquire knowledge from this book and grasp the content to better understand diversity in the real world. Therefore, we took careful consideration when illustrating the characters to portray them as realistic as possible. We additionally recognized the importance of providing diverse characters in the book and incorporated characters of different racial backgrounds, including biracial children.

The book’s text was carefully considered after reviewing Price et al.’s (2009) study. Price et al. (2009) concluded that expository books elicit greater extra-textual talk compared to storybooks. To educate preschool-aged children about diversity, we chose an expository writing style. Studies report that many parents tend to avoid talking about the topic of race and ethnicity (Brown et al., 2007; Vittrup & Holden, 2011). We perceive conversations as essential in delivering crucial knowledge to children, and thought this aspect of the book to be an important feature. Additionally, we decided to incorporate conversation-eliciting text. Kang et al. (2009) reported that when parents talked more during the book reading task, children also contributed more than those whose parents talked less during the task. Parents and educators are important facilitators in providing children educational content essential for understanding world concepts, and children often follow the lead and observe adult roles to create their own understanding. It is important that adults create opportunities for children to engage in and construct their own ideas; therefore, we provided questions throughout the book to assist adults in initiating conversations.

**Book Development**

The development of the book occurred in three processes: (1) developing initial ideas about the book content (see Appendix A), (2) revision of content, as needed, after conducting
interviews with our participants (see Appendix B), and (3) polishing the final content of the book (see Chapter IV).

(1) Setting: Our initial setting of the book was the first day of preschool. We wanted this book to be relatable to readers, and since many children attend preschool, we perceived this setting as appropriate. Additionally, as Howes et al. (2008) reported from their findings, minority children find it difficult to get along and form healthy relationships with peers when they’re in school with others from non-relatable ethnic backgrounds. By having our book take place in a preschool setting we hope to convey differences that children might encounter at school in a positive way.

Characters: Our characters include diverse racial and ethnic backgrounds, displaying a variety of differences in eye color, hair type, and skin tone. During this process of character development and research, we discovered that many multicultural children’s books rarely included bi-racial children, and primarily focused on one ethnic or racial group. Therefore, we decided to include one to two bi-racial children to inform children about multiracial individuals that have a mix of different races and ethnicities. We wanted to ensure that children were exposed to individuals of various races and ethnicities and not only to those regularly depicted as minorities in society.

Content: The text in our first draft of the book was intended to be expository as research has demonstrated this type of writing elicits the most extra-textual talk (Price et al., 2009). To create an expository style, we centered our story on explicitly discussing the eye color, hair type, skin tone, and other ethnic aspects of children, directly displaying their differences (i.e. “I notice we all have different eye colors.”) and their similarities (i.e. “But we all close our eyes when we sleep!”). To ensure that
the content of the book sparked conversation, we included audience-engaging questions as part of the text (i.e. “Do you close your eyes when you sleep?”). By including these questions we hope that adults and children will engage in extra-textual conversations to further develop understandings about the topic.

(2) **Setting:** The setting of the book remained unchanged. One interviewee specifically suggested a school setting, confirming the appropriateness of our initial setting.

**Characters:** The book characters remained unchanged. In fact, some interviewees mentioned incorporating multiracial characters, again confirming the appropriateness of our initial idea.

**Content:** We revised the illustrations and the text in the last section of the book. Originally, we were going to introduce languages as a way to address ethnicity and represent cultural differences. However, after receiving feedback, we decided to take a different approach by having each character share a special tradition in their family (see Appendix B). These traditions were related to cultural practices or family traditions. For example, one of our characters is biracial and shares a story about celebrating Hanukkah, a Jewish holiday. By including these elements we hoped to portray less represented populations.

In hopes that children would have the opportunity to learn about different cultures, we used an expository approach for this portion of the story as well. We also hoped that this would stimulate curiosity and questions from the child, thus creating more extra-textual conversation.

(3) **Setting:** The setting of the book remained unchanged since the beginning of our initial outline.
Characters: Character profiles also remained unchanged.

Content: After we completed the first draft of the book, we sent a PDF file to all the interviewees along with secondary interview questions. Their feedback was incorporated in the final draft of our book. One of the participants mentioned how parents may be unfamiliar with the cultures that we included in the book. As a result, we developed a “Parent’s Guide” page at the end of the book, providing a brief description of the cultures we referenced. We also included a definition of “family tradition” to inform readers of the many ways in which traditions can be defined. In addition, we realized that our questions did not ask children to explore their own identities (i.e. hair color, skin color, eye color). Therefore, for each topic, we added more questions to guide children in applying the content to their own lives (i.e. “What color are your eyes? Do you know someone with a different eye color?”). These final additions were made with the intent to foster greater engagement during the book-reading and promote more explicit conversation.

Procedure

1. We conducted a primary round of interviews (via e-mail) with six adult participants (see Appendix C). The first round of interviews was intended to get an understanding of each participant’s perspective on discussing race and ethnicity with children, the concerns they have about discussing that topic, and the suggestions for a preschool aged children’s book addressing that topic.

2. After the interviews, we identified common themes across the participants’ responses, as well as ways in which their responses differed (see Appendix D). The responses were taken into consideration when revising the children’s book.
3. Upon completion of the first draft, an informal copy of the book was distributed to each of the participants in PDF format, along with follow-up questions (see Appendix E). The follow-up questions focused on how well the participants felt the book addressed the topic and its usefulness in guiding conversation about race and ethnicity with preschool children. We then used their feedback to make final revisions to the book (see Appendix F).
Chapter IV – Product

Written By: Haley Drake and Helen Sim
Illustrated By: Kathleen Parks

The first day of school can make a lot of children feel nervous.

Everyone looks so different. But maybe we are not as different as we think. Let’s find out!
Running Head: PROMOTING ETHNIC AWARENESS AND APPRECIATION IN PRESCHOOL CHILDREN

“I noticed that we all have different eye colors. Mine are blue!”
“Mine are brown!”
“Mine are green!”

“Mine are hazel!”
“Mine are dark brown!”
“Mine are light brown!”

What color are your eyes?
Do you know someone with a different eye color?

But we all close our eyes when we go to sleep.
Do you close your eyes when you sleep?

“I notice that we all have different hair.
I have curly, black hair!”

“I have wavy, brown hair!”
“I have wavy, red hair!”
“I have blonde, straight hair!”

“I have black, straight hair!”
“I have curly, black hair!”

What is your hair like?
Do you know someone with different hair?

But when we all take a bath, our hair gets wet!
Does your hair get wet when you take a bath?
Running Head: PROMOTING ETHNIC AWARENESS AND APPRECIATION IN PRESCHOOL CHILDREN

“I notice that we all have different skin color! I have deep brown skin.”

“What is your skin color? Do you know someone who has different skin color?”

“We shared a lot about ourselves today. Let’s all share one more special thing: a family tradition!”

“But our skin gets a scrape when we fall. Have you ever gotten a scrape before?”

“During Christmas, our family hides a pickle in the tree.”

“During Hanukkah, I get to light the Menorah!”

“In Korea, we get allowance on New Years day when we bow to adults!”

“On Saturday mornings, I get to hold my dog’s leash when my family goes for a walk!”
Running Head: PROMOTING ETHNIC AWARENESS AND APPRECIATION IN PRESCHOOL CHILDREN

In the last week of December, my family celebrates Kwanzaa to remember and celebrate our heritage.

Around Christmas, my family spends hours making Tamales for a special dinner!

But we all enjoy spending time with our family!

What is a tradition your family celebrates?

Parent's Guide

What is a family tradition?
A family tradition can range from a cultural holiday to everyday family activities. It can be anything that is meaningful to your family. The explanations provided below are to familiarize you with the cultures included in this book. However, other activities (like a family walk with the dog) are also considered to be traditions. Each family can have multiple traditions.

Hanukkah is a Jewish holiday, also known as the Festival of Lights. It is celebrated for 8 days around November and December. The candle lighting ceremony is a time to remember and celebrate past history in Judaism.

Hanging a stocking to the tree is a tradition thought to have originated in Germany. Some families in both Germany and the United States choose to participate in this tradition.

Sinterklaas is a holiday celebrated by many African-Amurican families to acknowledge their history and culture and to come together as a community. It takes place every year from December 25th to January 1st.

Tamales is a traditional food in Mesoamerica (a geographical region including part of Mexico and Central America) and other countries in South America typically consisting of a corn-based dough filled with various items (meat, cheese, vegetables, or fruit) wrapped in a corn husk and steamed.

Who am I? Who are You?
Chapter V – Conclusion

Children are aware of race and ethnicity early in their development and even demonstrate a preference for individuals from the same racial background starting in infancy (Kelly et al., 2005; Kinzler & Spelke, 2011; Kowalski, 2003; Park, 2011). Fortunately, the display of preference does not yet develop into prejudice. Therefore, early intervention is a critical element that can enhance children’s awareness and appreciation of diversity (Bernstein et al., 2000; Onyekwuluje, 1998; Perkins & Mebert, 2005). However, though an effective method of intervention can be to engage in explicit conversations about race and ethnicity, most parents do not regularly engage with their children in these discussions (Brown et al., 2007; Vittrup & Holden, 2011). The topic of race and ethnicity is not commonly discussed in preschools as well. One of the methods to increase these conversations in households and educational settings is to use children’s literature as a resource (D’Angelo & Dixey, 2001; Sanders & Downer, 2012). By engaging in joint book-reading with an adult who elicits conversation about the topic, children are likely to also contribute and be attentive to the book (Kang et al., 2009).

To provide parents and educators a resource to educate children about racial and ethnic diversity, we created a children’s book designed to stimulate positive conversations about differences and similarities. The three main features of our book include: (1) realistic illustrations, (2) expository texts, and (3) audience-engaging questions. We perceived realistic illustrations of our characters as an important feature primarily because we were addressing race and ethnicity. We wanted to ensure, that by depicting the characters as realistic as possible, children can connect this book to the real world. Expository text was incorporated to foster parent-child conversation. Parents and children produce more extra-textual talk when reading an expository book as opposed to a storybook (Price et al., 2009). In order to effectively teach preschool
children to appreciate diversity we perceived expository text as an essential feature. Additionally, when parents talk more during a book-reading task, children also contribute more than those with parents who talk less during the task (Kang et al., 2009). These findings can also apply to educators who guide children during a book reading activity. In our book, these conversations can be easily guided by simply following through the text and reading the provided questions to children.

As research continually emphasizes, parents and educators are important facilitators in providing children educational content that is essential to understand world concepts. It is important that adults take great responsibility for children’s education because children often follow the lead and observe adult roles to create their own understandings and perceptions. As adults generally ask children questions about the concept and the idea of the book to ensure children’s understanding and to encourage children to make connections, children ask clarification questions and seek information to better comprehend the text (Anderson et al., 2012). Our book can be used as a source to engage in these forms of dialogue with children on the topic of race and ethnicity.

In addition to research, participants’ feedback also played a significant role in guiding the book-making process. For example, our initial idea for the book was to introduce language from different cultures. However, we received feedback about the importance of introducing cultural content that can educate children about different traditions. Therefore, we replaced the language content with different cultures that varied from ethnic tradition to family tradition. Additionally, in the secondary interview, a participant voiced the importance of incorporating a resource page for parents explaining the cultures we address in the book since some readers may be unfamiliar
with them. We did recognize the importance of incorporating a resource page for parents and created the “Parent’s Guide” page at the end of the book.

Overall, the final feedback from our participants indicated that the book addressed essential elements that can facilitate conversations about race and ethnicity (see Appendix F). The participants found the book to be appropriate for preschoolers and expressed feeling confident and comfortable with the idea of reading this book with children. Though we did not receive a secondary interview response from one of the participants, the other participants all responded positively.

If we were given more time to continue this project, we would have liked to incorporate more of the participants’ feedback in our book. Most importantly, however, more time would have permitted us to actually read our book to preschoolers and observe their engagement and reactions. In the future, we recommend following up with an experimental component that can measure the book’s success. Additionally, we realized at the end of the project that although our intention was to incorporate diverse races and ethnicities, including multiracial children, the characters we included were not explicitly labeled with racial terms (i.e. Black, White, Asian, Hispanic). Thus, conversations about multiethnic children may not occur. Including more diversity in the book that presents a wider variety of children from different ethnic and racial backgrounds in a more explicit manner may be an important aspect to consider. Perhaps a series of books with an overarching theme of appreciating diversity would create the opportunity to discuss these topics in more breadth.

Children’s books are easy-to-access resources that can be utilized by teachers and parents to educate children about various concepts. However, very little research has been conducted to better understand the impact that children’s literature can have in facilitating discussion
specifically about race and ethnicity. More research on how to best aid parents and teachers in initiating race and ethnic related conversation is necessary. This project can be used as a reference to help children appreciate diversity and serve as a tool in promoting diverse friendships. To become knowledgeable, considerate, empathetic, and proactive in the future, children need to be educated about the world and learn to develop healthy interpersonal relationships regardless of others’ racial and ethnic background. Educators, parents, and other adults must collaborate to provide adequate services for children during this critical period so that they develop these essential values early on in life.
References


Appendices

Appendix A
Appendix B

I notice that some of us can say “Hello” in a different language!
I say “hello” in English!

We shared a lot about ourselves today. Let’s share one more special thing!
Appendix C

Promoting Ethnic Awareness and Appreciation in Preschool Children

Our names are Hailey Drake and Helen Sim. We are Cal Poly students working on our Senior Project. Thank you for taking your time to answer the following questions. Your answers would be of great value and we appreciate your participation. We prefer all or most questions to be answered, but you are not required to do so. If you have any questions or concerns, please contact Hailey Drake at hadrake@calpoly.edu and/or Helen Sim at hysim@calpoly.edu.

Definition of Race and Ethnicity (Defined by Graham, Taylor, and Ho, 2009)
- **Race** - “shared genetic and phenotypic similarity,” (i.e. Caucasian, Asian, skin color)
- **Ethnicity** - “a group’s common history, nationality, geography, language and culture” (i.e. Italian, Chinese)

Questions

1. Do you believe race and ethnicity should be discussed with children?

2. Do you think a book would be an effective way to inform children about the topic?

3. How comfortable do you feel about discussing this topic with children?
   - a. If you feel comfortable please share how you discuss this topic?
   - b. If you feel uncomfortable, what are some of your concerns?

4. What are some difficulties you have encountered or could potentially see encountering when discussing ethnicity and race?

5. What multicultural books have you read with children, if any?
   - a. Were they helpful in guiding discussions about race and/or ethnicity?

6. What suggestions do you have for a preschool-aged children’s book on the topic of racial and ethnic appreciation?
## Appendix D

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Do you believe that race and ethnicity should be discussed with children?</td>
<td>Yes 6 No 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Do you think a book would be an effective way to inform children about that topic?</td>
<td>Yes 6 No 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. How comfortable do you feel about discussing this topic with children?</td>
<td>Comfortable 6 Uncomfortable 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• “I feel more comfortable discussing ethnicity than race…”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• “I use historical examples like Martin Luther King…”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• “I feel comfortable discussing this topic with my own children.”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. What are some difficulties you have encountered or could potentially see encountering when discussing ethnicity and race?</td>
<td>“For a young child it may be too complex for them…”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• “Children can blurt things out that can make other people feel uncomfortable.”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• “You don’t want to inadvertently reinforce stereotypes.”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. What multicultural books have you read with children, if any?</td>
<td>Read Books 2 Did not Read Books 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Colors of Us</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Grandpa, is Everything Black Bad?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• All the Colors of the Earth</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. What suggestions do you have for the preschool-aged children’s book on the topic of racial and ethnic appreciation?</td>
<td>“Make it interactive so it becomes more real to the children.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• “My suggestion as a mother of an ethnically mixed child is to find a book that includes ethnicities and race not often known about.”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• “Maybe something about school.”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• “Depictions of different cultures should be respectful and authentic to them.”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix E

Promoting Ethnic Awareness and Appreciation in Preschool Children

Thank you for continuing to participate in our follow-up interview. If you haven’t done so, please take a look at the PDF file of the Children’s Book we created, and then answer the following questions. We prefer all or most questions to be answered, but you are not required to do so. If you have any questions or concerns, please contact Hailey Drake at hadrake@calpoly.edu and/or Helen Sim at hysim@calpoly.edu.

Definition of Race and Ethnicity (Defined by Graham, Taylor, and Ho, 2009)

- **Race** - “shared genetic and phenotypic similarity,” (i.e. Caucasian, Asian, skin color)
- **Ethnicity** - “a group’s common history, nationality, geography, language and culture” (i.e. Italian, Chinese)

Questions:

1. How well does this book address racial and ethnic appreciation?

2. Do you feel this book would equip you to confidently discuss the topic of race and ethnicity with children?

3. Any comments or feedback?
Appendix F

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. How well does this book address racial and ethnic appreciation?</td>
<td>Great</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not Very Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“I think it represented a wide variety of racial and ethnic differences.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“Similar, yet different – My sense after reading this is that I belong.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Do you feel this book would equip you to confidently discuss the topic of race and ethnicity with children?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“This book will be great to use as a springboard for discussions that come up.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“I like how it makes the differences something to be proud to share.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Any comments or feedback?</td>
<td>“Maybe having a little more info about the family traditions in the back of book would be helpful to explain what some of them mean, or represent”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“I like how you show the differences but then show how everyone feels, hurts, or looks the same in other ways”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“I wish there were more opportunities to encourage them and others to look out for one another, to learn how to be a good friend to someone who might look different or feel left out.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>