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PEDAGOGICAL APPROACHES TO MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION
WITHIN TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAMS

by

Mark S. Barajas

A dissertation submitted to the Graduate College
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
Counselor Education and Counseling Psychology
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August 2015

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PEDAGOGICAL APPROACHES TO MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION WITHIN TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAMS

Mark S. Barajas, Ph.D.

Western Michigan University, 2014

Despite national standards established in 1979, U.S. teacher preparation programs have struggled to incorporate comprehensive, multicultural teacher education into existing curriculum (Sleeter, 2008). The weakness of multicultural training in most teacher preparation programs is theorized as a major contributor to the persistent achievement gap between students of color and White students (Ferguson, 2003). Furthermore, literature indicates White teachers frequently hold lower expectations for racial and ethnic minority students compared to White students and these lowered expectations often manifest as lower academic achievement (McKown & Weinstein, 2007).

This study provides empirical data regarding multicultural education within teacher preparation programs. Individual course sections of pre-service teachers completing a field-based teaching experience were randomly assigned to one of two treatment groups or a no-treatment control group. Quantitative measures within a pretest-intervention-posttest research design were used to assess the effectiveness of variation in pedagogical approach of multicultural teacher education. Multiple analysis of covariance allowed for the examination of the extent to which variation of pedagogical approach of multicultural teacher education affected pre-service teachers' cultural competence.

Additionally, this study examined the extent to which differences in field placement sites affected pre-service teachers' cultural competence. Finally, this study examined the unique interaction effects of variation of pedagogical approach of multicultural teacher education combined with differences in field placement site.

Results from the sample ($n = 86$; female = 57) indicated treatment group participants experienced significant ($p = .001$) and meaningful ($\eta^2 = .303$) change in attitudes and beliefs regarding multiculturalism and diversity. Results further indicated site diversity had no significant effect ($p = .077$) on intervention efficacy. Similarly, no significant interaction effects ($p = .293$) were found for pedagogical approach combined with site diversity. Finally, treatment group participants described their preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner as more useful ($p = .041$) and more systematic ($p = .011$) compared to control participants. Findings highlight the importance of intentionally designed curriculum and differences between lecture and group approaches to multicultural teacher education. Literature from counseling psychology, teacher education, and curriculum studies is used to interpret findings, draw conclusions, discuss limitations, and suggest future research opportunities.

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DEDICATION

For my mom, Irma. Thank you for the love, support, encouragement, and sacrifice.

You teach me how to persevere through rough times and live with gratitude.

For my love, Erica. Thank you for standing with me, believing in us, and leaning into the unknown. You show me how to trust, love, and listen to the heart.

Para mis abuelos, Alberto y Alicia. Gracias por su sacrificio y su fe en poder transformador de la educación. Me enseñaron a aguantar.

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the role psychologists might play in bringing about systemic change within our nation's school system. Lastly, Dr. Hovestadt guided me as I formulated my ideas and challenged me to think bigger. I am so very thankful for his mentorship, support, and our warm relationship.

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Completing my dissertation and doctoral training in Counseling Psychology has been an amazing journey. I've been challenged, inspired, and supported by many along the way. It is with humility that I aspire to use my training, education, and privilege for good, such that I ultimately may help to make the world a better place.

Mark S. Barajas

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

There is a vast mismatch in our nation's public schools between the teaching force and its students. Although nearly half of all K-12 students are children of color (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2012), approximately 84% of teachers are White (NCES, 2006). While the demographic divide is not a problem per se, a large body of research examining teacher expectations consistently reveals that White teachers tend to have lower expectations for students of color compared to White students (e.g., Brophy, 1998; A. A. Ferguson, 2000; Gregory & Weinstein, 2004; Saft & Pianta, 2001; Wentzel, 2002). Another large body of research reveals the deleterious effects for children of color who are saddled with lowered expectations (e.g., Alvidrez & Weinstein, 1999; Rosenthal, 2003; Rosenthal & Jacobsen, 1968; Soodak & Podell, 1998; Weinstein, Gregory, & Strambler, 2004). Teacher educators, aware of the negative consequences of lowered teacher expectations, have sought to modify training methods in order to improve educational outcomes for racial and ethnic minority students (Cochran-Smith, Feiman-Nemser, McIntyre, & Demers, 2008; Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005; Villegas & Lucas, 2002; Wardle & Cruz-Janzen, 2004). Understood as *multicultural education*, the training of culturally competent teachers has broadened over the past 15 years and is considered by some teacher educators to be *the* most important piece of modern teacher education (Brown-Jeffy & Cooper, 2011; McDiarmid & Clevenger-Bright, 2008; Sleeter,

2008). However, despite consensus on the importance of multicultural teacher education, debate persists concerning specific pedagogical approaches to multicultural teacher education.

This study examined the extent to which variation in pedagogical approach of an intentionally designed curriculum affected pre-service teachers' cultural competence. Additionally, this study examined the extent to which differences in field placement sites affected cultural competence of pre-service teachers. Finally, this study examined the unique interaction effects of variation in pedagogical approach combined with differences in field placement site.

Background of the Problem

The United States is in the midst of a demographic change never before experienced since the country's founding. Sometimes referred to as "The Browning of America" by the popular press (Suarez, 2013; Sundstrom, 2008), so-called racial and ethnic minorities have dramatically increased as a percentage of the total U.S. population over the past 30 years (U.S. Census Bureau, 1980, 2010). Whereas in 1980 80% of the U.S. population was White, by 2010 Whites accounted for 69% of the population, and demographers projecting future U.S. population growth cite the year 2050 as a tipping point when the U.S. White population will no longer be a statistical majority (Passel & Cohn, 2008). As the demographics of the United States have changed, the shift has occurred more rapidly within the nation's school-aged population. In 2007, racial and ethnic minority students accounted for 44% of the nation's students, while already representing the majority of K-12 students in California, Hawaii, Mississippi, New Mexico, Texas, and Washington, D.C. (Villegas & Lucas, 2002).

Even as the nation generally, and the school-aged population specifically, have become increasingly ethnically and racially diverse, the nation's teaching force has remained overwhelmingly White (Zumwalt & Craig, 2008). In fact, whereas nearly half of all K-12 students are children of color, approximately 84% of teachers are White (NCES, 2006, 2012). Unfortunately, most teacher preparation programs report demographics of their teachers-in-training to be very similar those of the existing teaching force—overwhelmingly White, ensuring the demographic mismatch between teachers and students will continue and likely widen in the near future (Zumwalt & Craig, 2005).

This demographic mismatch is a concern because research has shown White teachers typically have lower expectations for students of color compared to White students (Brophy, 1998; A. A. Ferguson, 2000; Gregory & Weinstein, 2004; Saft & Pianta, 2001; Wentzel, 2002). Furthermore, teacher expectations have been documented to have a direct influence on students' academic achievement (Alvidrez & Weinstein, 1999; Rosenthal, 2003; Rosenthal & Jacobsen, 1968; Soodak & Podell, 1998; Weinstein et al., 2004), and widespread lowered expectations for students of color are theorized to be a major contributor to the persistent academic achievement gap between White students and students of color (R. F. Ferguson, 2003).

One attempt to remedy the negative consequences of lowered teacher expectations for students of color is found within teacher preparation programs. Understood as *multicultural education*, many institutions of higher education have developed methods of engaging pre-service teachers in coursework, trainings, and workshops specifically designed to reduce bias, increase cultural competence, and prepare teachers to more

equitably lead their future classrooms (Banks & Banks, 2004). Since its origin in the 1980s, multicultural education as applied to the training of culturally competent teachers has broadened over the past 15 years from potential teachers simply knowing about the history, customs, and cultures of different U.S. racial minority groups to an examination of one's culture, personal biases and prejudices, and an analysis of systemic power inequities and institutional racism (McDiarmid & Clevenger-Bright, 2008). The gradual shift from learning about the *other*, to a more introspective, reflective approach grounded in self-inquiry and ecological analysis of power and privilege is consistent with the method of training used by counseling psychologists, generally recognized as leaders in the field of multiculturalism (Altmaier & Hansen, 2012; Brown & Lent, 2008).

Regrettably, despite general consensus about the importance of multicultural education and gradual changes taking place within teacher education, much work remains, because as Sleeter (2008) concluded, "most teacher education programs lack a coherent and sustained approach" (p. 562) to adequately prepare teachers for work in culturally heterogeneous school systems.

Perhaps reflecting the recognition of inconsistent efforts, teacher educators have recently asked for assistance in better preparing teachers for work in culturally heterogeneous school systems (e.g., Cochran-Smith, et al., 2008; Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005). Counseling psychologists are well positioned to assist their colleagues in teacher education and have been urged by leaders within the field to "return to their roots" by becoming more involved in K-12 education (Carter, Hoffman, Neville, & Spengler, 2004; Heppner, Blustein, Forrest, & Leung, 2002; Walsh, Galassi, Murphy, & Park-Taylor, 2002). Given counseling psychology's strength-based, preventative,

systems-oriented professional identity, Vera (2000) believes involvement with K-12 public school systems will be natural, fulfilling, and important roles for the next generation of counseling psychologists.

Purpose of the Study

Although consensus exists for the need for multicultural teacher education, there is disagreement as to whether pedagogical approaches and type of field placement site affect the process of becoming culturally competent. Thus, pre-service teachers' cultural competence, as measured by three instruments, was assessed before and after participating in an intentionally designed curriculum while simultaneously student teaching at a local public school. Additionally, a posttest-only measure was used to assess the meanings pre-service teachers ascribed to particular concepts related to multiculturalism in the classroom. Two pedagogical approaches (i.e., interactive lectures and experiential learning) were compared with a control group to investigate whether pedagogical approach affected the process of becoming culturally competent. Furthermore, statistical analysis allowed for the investigation of variation in diversity of field placement sites and provided a mechanism for investigating interaction effects of variation in pedagogical approach combined with variation in diversity of field placement site on the process of becoming culturally competent.

While the present study is an attempt to provide data to help settle disagreements within teacher education and may be particularly useful to Teacher Preparation Programs (TPPs), its findings may be important to the larger field of multicultural education and any discipline seeking to train more culturally competent individuals. Very little research has been completed to date which examines pedagogical approach and field placement

site as they relate to multicultural teacher education and the process of becoming culturally competent. Moreover, the present study attempts to respond to methodological criticisms of similar research by utilizing multiple quantitative measures, employing a control group, engaging a large sample, and including the experience of student teaching within the process of becoming culturally competent.

Research Questions

For this study, pre-service teachers' cultural competence was measured by three instruments (collectively referred to as *outcome measures*). Those instruments were (1) the Teacher Multicultural Attitude Scale (TMAS; Ponterotto, Baluch, Grieg, & Rivera, 1998); (2) the Color-Blind Racial Attitudes Scale (CoBRAS; Neville, Lilly, Duran, Lee, & Browne, 2000); and (3) the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM; Phinney, 1992). Additionally, a semantic differential scale (Osgood, Tannenbaum, & Suci, 1957) was used to capture the meanings pre-service teachers ascribed to particular concepts related to multiculturalism in the classroom.

1. Is there a main effect of pedagogical approach on outcome measures?
2. Is there a main effect of racial diversity of field placement site on outcome measures?
3. Is there an interaction effect of pedagogical approach and of racial diversity of field placement site on outcome measures?

Definition of Terms

This study used terminology intended to convey specific meanings than may require explicit description. These terms are provided below.

Cultural competency: Villegas and Lucas' (2002) six components of cultural competence was the model used in this study. They describe culturally competent teachers as those who:

1. have sociocultural consciousness; that is, those who recognize that the ways people perceive the world, interact with one another, and approach learning, among other things, are deeply influenced by such factors as race/ethnicity, social class, and language. This understanding enables teachers to cross the cultural boundaries that separate them from their students.
2. have affirming views of students from diverse backgrounds, seeing resources for learning in all students rather than viewing differences as problems to be solved.
3. have a sense that they are both responsible and capable of bringing about educational change that will make schooling more responsive to students from diverse backgrounds
4. embrace constructivist views of teaching and learning. That is, they see learning as an active process by which learners give meaning to new information, ideas, principles, and other stimuli; and they see teaching largely as a process of inducing change in students' knowledge and belief systems.
5. are familiar with their students' prior knowledge and beliefs, derived from both personal and cultural experiences.
6. design instruction that builds on what students already know while stretching them beyond the familiar.

Multicultural education: The ideas of two leaders in the field of multicultural studies have informed this study:

1. Multicultural education is an idea, an educational reform movement, and a process whose major goal is to change the structure of educational institutions so that male and female students, exceptional students, and students who are members of diverse racial, ethnic, language, and cultural groups will have an equal chance to achieve academically in school (Banks, 2004, p. 32).
2. Multicultural education is a pervasive pedagogical process that is antiracist, egalitarian, and inclusive. Furthermore, it permeates the curriculum and instructional strategies used in schools, as well as the interactions among teachers, students, and parents, and the very way that schools conceptualize the nature of teaching and learning. Because it uses critical pedagogy as its underlying philosophy and focuses on knowledge, reflection, and action as the basis for social change, multicultural education furthers the democratic principles of social justice (Nieto, 2000, p. 305).

Race, ethnicity, and culture:

1. Racial categories are human inventions with weak scientific validity. Individuals with their own biases created the taxonomies that we call racial categories; over time, societies have accepted these human-made taxonomies as fundamental truth. But the arbitrary and fallible nature of racial taxonomies is evident throughout history, as racial criteria change constantly over time, and different cultural context invent their own racial categories (Operario & Fiske, 1998, p. 37).

2. Ethnicity refers to clusters of people who have common culture traits that they distinguish from those of other people. People who share a common language, geographic locale or place of origin, religion, sense of history, traditions, values, beliefs, food habits, and so forth, are perceived and view themselves as constituting an ethnic group (Smedley & Smedley, 2005, p. 17).
3. Culture is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capability and habits acquired by mankind as a member of society (Tylor, 1871/1958, p. 1).

A comment regarding terminology: Language is important and powerful (Ng & Bradac, 1993). The American Psychological Association's (2010) latest guidelines were followed when using terms referring to racial, ethnic, or cultural groups, and although several terms are deemed acceptable and appropriate, for consistency and brevity, the author has made some choices. When referring to people living in the United States who are of African ancestry, the author has chosen to use *Black* instead of *African American*, and when referring to people having European ancestry, the author will use *White* instead of *Caucasian* or *European American*. Furthermore, when referring to people living in the United States who have ancestry in Cuba, Mexico, Puerto Rico, the Dominican Republic, Central or South America, the author will use *Latino* instead of *Hispanic*. Finally, when referring to people living in the United States who have ancestry in Asia and India, the author will use *Asian*, and when referring to indigenous people of North, Central, and South America, the author will use *Native American*.

Student of color: This term is derived from *people of color*, which “emerged in reaction to the terms ‘non-White’ and ‘minority’ . . . and attempts to counter the

condescension implied in the other two” (Arboleda, 1999, p. 17). The term encompasses students who identify as Asian, Black, Latino, and Native American; it may also be used to refer to mixed-race students.

Teacher preparation program: An accredited body, usually part of a larger educational institution, which is sanctioned to train, educate, and develop new classroom teachers. As of 2005, there were 1,323 accredited teacher preparation programs (NCES, 2006).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter summarizes literature from several disciplines and explains why counseling psychologists are well positioned to become more involved in our nation's public schools. First, data will be presented highlighting the dramatic shift in demographics occurring both nationally and within public schools. Next, literature regarding teacher expectations will be reviewed with particular emphasis given to the harmful effects of low expectations and self-fulfilling prophecies. Following teacher expectations, an overview of multicultural education is presented with a focus on teacher education. Next, a brief history of counseling psychology is presented with an emphasis on the profession's school-based interventions and preventative programs, followed by a short review of historical public school reform movements. The chapter ends with a summary of higher education curriculum evaluation and concludes by arguing counseling psychology is primed to become more significantly involved in the current effort to improve U.S. public schools.

Demographic Changes

The United States has long been a diverse country with constantly changing demographics; however, during the past 30 years the racial and ethnic makeup of the country has shifted dramatically as the percentage of the population who identify as so-called racial or ethnic minorities has steadily increased while the percentage of the population who identify as White or Caucasian has decreased. Whereas in 1980 the U.S.

was 80% White, 12% Black, 6% Latino, and 1.5% Asian, in 2010 Whites made up 69% of the population, Latinos grew to 15%, Blacks increased to 13%, and Asians rose to almost 6% of the total U.S. population (U.S. Census Bureau, 1980, 2010). Demographers projecting future U.S. population growth cite the year 2050 as a tipping point when the U.S. White population will no longer be a statistical majority (Passel & Cohn, 2008). For example, the Pew Research Center (Passel & Cohn, 2008) projects that Whites will account for 47% of the U.S. population in 2050, with Latinos, Blacks, and Asians making up 29%, 13%, and 9%, respectively, of the total U.S. population. Moreover, the Pew Research Center predicts that in 2050 nearly 1 in 5 U.S. citizens (19%) will be foreign-born, surpassing 2005's level of 12% and above historic peaks reached in 1890 and 1910 when nearly 15% of the total U.S. population were immigrants.

As the overall demographics of the United States has changed, the shift has been more pronounced and has occurred more rapidly within the nation's school-aged population (Villegas & Lucas, 2002). In 1972, White K-12 students accounted for 78% of the nation's students, while racial and ethnic minority students made up 22%; by 2007 racial and ethnic minority students accounted for 44% of the nation's students, while the percentage of White students had shrunk to 56% (NCES, 2012). Much of the increase of racial and ethnic minority K-12 students has been attributed to the rapid growth of the Latino population due to immigration and higher relative birth rates (Brown-Jeffy & Cooper, 2011). Paralleling the overall U.S. trend, students of color already make up the majority of K-12 students in California, Hawaii, Mississippi, New Mexico, Texas, and Washington, D.C., and constitute a majority of students in 23 of the nation's 25 largest school districts (Villegas & Lucas, 2002). Regarding future trends, the Pew Research

Center projects students of color will become a statistical majority of all K-12 students by 2035 and will account for nearly 60% of all students by 2050 (Passel & Cohn, 2008). Although estimates of linguistic diversity among K-12 students have varied, it is clear that more limited-English-proficiency (LEP) students exist today than at any other time in our nation's past (Villegas & Lucas, 2002).

Even as the nation in general, and the school-aged population specifically, have become increasingly ethnically and racially diverse, the nation's teaching force has remained overwhelmingly White, female, and comprised of monolingual English speakers (Zumwalt & Craig, 2008). Although nearly half of all K-12 students are children of color (NCES, 2012), approximately 84% of teachers are White and 75% are female (NCES, 2006). Regarding socioeconomic status, the overwhelming majority of teachers come from middle class homes, while over 20% of the U.S. school-aged population lives below the poverty line (Villegas & Lucas, 2002). Expansion of linguistic diversity among the K-12 student population has also outpaced that of the teaching force. From 1980 through 2009, the number of LEP students more than doubled to 11.2 million children, representing 20% of the total school-aged population (NCES, 2012), while the percentage of bilingual teachers rose from 13% to 15% over the same time period (Villegas & Lucas, 2002). Because most teacher education programs report demographics of their teachers-in-training to be very similar those of the existing teaching force—disproportionally White and female, the demographic mismatch between teachers and students is sure to continue and likely widen in the near future (Zumwalt & Craig, 2005).

While there is no question that a demographic mismatch exists between K-12 students and the nation's teaching force, it can be debated whether the issue has any effect on student performance and academic achievement. Unfortunately, a large body of research examining teacher expectations consistently reveals that White teachers tend to have lower expectations for, underestimate the abilities of, and more negatively interpret the behavior of students of color compared to White students (Brophy, 1998).

Teacher Expectations

Since Rosenthal and Jacobsen's (1968) landmark study documenting the effects of teacher expectations on student academic performance, a substantial research base has validated the power of expectancy effects, more casually known as self-fulfilling prophecies (Rosenthal, 2003). The sociologist Merton (1968) is credited with coining the term *self-fulfilling prophecy* and gave this explanation:

The self-fulfilling prophecy is, in the beginning, a *false* definition of the situation evoking a new behavior which makes the original false conception come "true."

This specious validity of the self-fulfilling prophecy perpetuates a reign of error.

For the prophet will cite the actual course of events as proof that he was right from the very beginning. (p. 440)

Expectancy effects have been documented in studies of human and animal learning, studies of infant and adult reaction time, explorations of the perception of inkblots, and even in the measurement of steel rods (Rosenthal & Rubin, 1978). Within education, teacher expectations have been shown to influence several broad domains including student learning, student-teacher and parent-teacher relationships, pedagogical strategies used, and school-wide discipline policies (Brophy, 1998).

While expectancy effects are not problematic per se, within education contexts they typically manifest as lowered expectations for poor students and students of color, predicting lower levels of academic achievement, academic engagement, and educational attainment (Weinstein et al., 2004). Lower academic expectations for students of color compared to White students have been documented in kindergarten (Saft & Pianta, 2001), elementary school (A. A. Ferguson, 2000), middle school (Wentzel, 2002), and high school (Gregory & Weinstein, 2004). Documenting the long-term power of expectations, judgments made by pre-school teachers about their students' cognitive abilities have been shown to be good predictors more than a decade later of high school grade point average (GPA) and score on the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) (Alvidrez & Weinstein, 1999). Lowered academic expectations for students of color have also been shown to negatively impact the teacher's relationships with individual students and their parents (Soodak & Podell, 1998). Research further indicates that teachers with lowered expectations for some students may adopt rigid pedagogical strategies and rely on tasks low in cognitive challenge such as memorization or simple identification (Weinstein, 2002). A corollary and seemingly counter-intuitive phenomenon known as Positive Feedback Bias has also recently been linked to teachers' lower academic expectations (Harber, Gorman, Butisingh, Tsang, & Ouellette, 2012). The Positive Feedback Bias manifests when, for example, a teacher praises average work from a student of color while withholding praise for the same quality work produced by a White student (Harber, 1998). Finally, in addition to differences in academic expectations, Skiba, Michael, Nardo, and Peterson (2002) found that Black students and White students were often held to different behavioral standards, resulting in more disciplinary referrals for Black students.

Teacher expectations, specifically lower expectations for poor students and students of color relative to expectations for White students, have been proposed as one contributor to the persistent achievement gap between White students and students of color (R. F. Ferguson, 2003; Weinstein et al., 2004). It is theorized that teachers sometimes base their expectations for student achievement on student race or ethnicity, with teachers tending to expect more from European-American students compared to African-American and Latino students (McKown & Weinstein, 2007). Supporting this idea, experimental studies have consistently shown that when asked to rate the academic potential of an unknown student, the average teacher rates European-American children more positively than African-American children (Baron, Tom, & Cooper, 1985). As soon as children begin school, they are held to different standards and treated differently; according to Weinstein et al. (2004),

Children report that high achievers are exposed to more challenging material, given more opportunities for autonomy and leadership, and supported more positively, whereas the work of low achievers is more structured with drill and repetition as well as more criticized. (p. 513)

Some theorists have tried to identify the mechanisms of the self-fulfilling prophecy and identify why teachers' expectations affect students' academic performance. McKown and Weinstein (2007) suggested that over time, patterns of lowered expectations compound and differences in how students are treated based on racial and ethnic categorization contribute to the achievement gap in three primary ways: (a) teachers may provide higher quality instruction to students from whom they expect more; (b) by perceiving cues about what the teacher expects, students may internalize the

expectation and achieve consistent with the lowered expectation; and (c) students who hail from academically stereotyped racial or ethnic groups, when faced with lowered expectations, may become more susceptible to negative expectancy effects (also known as stereotype threat). Similarly, Rosenthal (2003) proposed a four-factor theory explaining how teachers' expectations affect students' academic performance. First, a teacher may cultivate warmer interpersonal relationships with students for whom they have higher expectations. Known as *climate*, the teacher's warmth can be communicated both verbally and nonverbally. The second factor, *input*, refers to the idea that teachers may actually deliver more content to those students for whom they hold higher expectations. *Output* is the tendency for teachers to give more opportunities to students for whom they hold higher expectations to speak in class and publicly demonstrate their knowledge. Finally, *feedback* refers to the tendency for teachers to give higher quality responses, critiques, and comments to students for whom they hold higher expectations.

Despite decades of research and millions of dollars in new spending for low-performing schools, little progress has been made in narrowing the academic achievement gap between White students and students of color (R. F. Ferguson, 2007). In response, leaders in teacher education have called for more direct research regarding teachers' preparation to work in culturally diverse settings and their ability to narrow the achievement gap (Sleeter, 2008; Zeichner, 2005). Moreover, Collopy, Bowman, and Taylor (2012) assert that closing the achievement gap is a social justice issue and should be an ethical imperative for teachers and teacher preparation programs. Zeichner (2005) suggests new directions in research and practice within teacher education such that more attention is given to teachers' personal characteristics and the relationships they form

with students. The importance of warm, caring, supportive interpersonal teacher-student relationships was stressed by Gay (2000) and has been theorized to be a key variable in predicting student achievement and helpful in ultimately closing the achievement gap (Brown-Jeffy & Cooper, 2011). Reflecting on decades of research regarding teacher expectations and the achievement gap, it has been suggested that more attention be given to the relationship between teacher expectations, inherent bias, and teacher-student relationships with academic achievement and narrowing the achievement gap (Sleeter, 2008; Zeichner, 2005).

Multicultural Education

This section will offer a brief historical overview of multicultural education with a special focus on teacher education. An overview of the general evolution of multicultural education will be presented along with a more thorough exploration of multicultural education's growth within teacher education. The section will conclude with common content and processes of multicultural teacher education along with typical forms of student resistance and suggestions for addressing such resistance.

Foundations

Multicultural education has a long history in the United States. It can be traced directly to Black scholarship that emerged in the late 19th and early 20th centuries and gained traction during the civil rights movements of the 1960s and 1970s (Banks & Banks, 2004). The civil rights movements were catalyzed by Black Americans and others taking to the streets and using their vote to demand symbolic and systemic change throughout U.S. society. Universities and other educational institutions responded by establishing courses and programs in Black studies, later to inspire other ethnic studies.

As the ethnic studies movement became institutionalized, scholars realized, while necessary, ethnic studies alone were not sufficient to bring about societal changes needed to ensure equitable access to resources for all people. In response, programs were developed that explicitly examined power, privilege, and the causes and effects of systemic and institutional racism (Banks & Banks, 2004). Today, multicultural education has been embraced by other historically marginalized groups (e.g., women, people with disabilities, gay men) seeking to disrupt the status quo and allow equitable access to resources.

Multicultural education has grown from its knowledge-based roots into a conceptual framework including knowledge, skills, awareness, and reflection. Multicultural education is further characterized by its intention to spur morally just action, value and celebrate individual differences, and eliminate structural barriers within society (Gay, 2000). One of the most inclusive definitions of multicultural education is given by Nieto (2000):

Multicultural education is a pervasive pedagogical process that is antiracist, egalitarian, and inclusive. Furthermore, it permeates the curriculum and instructional strategies used in schools, as well as the interactions among teachers, students, and parents, and the very way that schools conceptualize the nature of teaching and learning. (p. 305)

Complementing Nieto's (2000) definition of multicultural education is Banks' (1991, 2004) conceptualization of its five dimensions. First, *content integration* refers to the extent which teachers use examples, data, and information from a variety of cultures to explain concepts, principles, and theories within their subject area. Understanding

how implicit cultural assumptions, biases, and prejudices influence the creation and discovery of knowledge is known as the *knowledge construction process*. The next dimension, *prejudice reduction*, describes the characteristics of one's racial attitudes and suggests strategies for cultivating more inclusive, egalitarian, positive racial attitudes. The fourth dimension, *equity pedagogy*, refers to the use of developmentally and culturally appropriate techniques that facilitate academic achievement of all students. Finally, *empowering school culture* describes the process of reforming school culture and organization so that students may thrive academically and feel culturally empowered. Combining the work of Nieto (2000) and Banks (1991, 2004), one arrives at an understanding of multicultural education which is grounded in both interpersonal and intrapersonal learning and strives to be action-oriented.

Within Teacher Education

For over 30 years, multicultural education has been a priority for schools of education and teacher preparation programs (TPPs). Following their first meeting in 1972, the Commission on Multicultural Education of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) reached three conclusions: (1) cultural diversity is a valuable resource, (2) multicultural education celebrates and extends cultural diversity rather than simply tolerating or accepting it, and (3) a commitment to cultural pluralism should be found throughout all aspects of TPPs (Baptiste & Baptiste, 1980). Four years later, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) issued standards which required all TPPs seeking accreditation to show evidence that multicultural education was planned for by 1979 and implemented by 1981 (Cochran-Smith, Davis, & Fries, 2004). Since then, TPPs have worked to implement

coursework, field experiences, and other learning opportunities designed to prepare public school teachers to work more effectively within culturally heterogeneous school systems (Banks, 2004).

Recent reviewers of teacher education scholarship have summarized common desired outcomes of multicultural teacher education and formulated guidelines for TPPs seeking to meet NCATE's standards. Villegas and Lucas (2002) addressed fundamental orientations for teaching heterogeneous student populations and key aspects of teaching and learning within a heterogeneous society by summarizing six desired outcomes of TPPs seeking to educate culturally responsive teachers. First, prospective teachers should be challenged to expand their social consciousness by understanding that "one's worldview is not universal but is profoundly shaped by one's life experiences, as mediated by a variety of factors, chief among them race/ethnicity, social class, and gender" (p. 27). Next, students seeking to be teachers need to develop an affirming attitude toward students from diverse backgrounds. Because teachers' expectations affect student outcomes (Rosenthal & Jacobsen, 1968), it is crucial that teachers cultivate warm relationships with and carry high expectations for all students. Villegas and Lucas' next guideline challenges prospective teachers to develop the commitment and skills to act as agents of change. Meeting this challenge requires that teachers function as more than deliverers of content knowledge and instead become "moral actors whose job it is to facilitate growth and development of other human beings" (p. 53). Focusing on key aspects of teaching and learning, teacher education students should embrace the constructivist foundation of culturally responsive teaching. Rather than viewing the learner as an empty vessel to which objective truths are transferred, a constructivist

approach to education concedes that “what can be known about this world is always filtered through the knower’s frame of reference” (p. 72). Moreover, a constructivist approach to education is enriched by multiple perspectives (Moll, Amanti, Neff, & Gonzalez, 1992), consistent with social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), and encouraging of interdependence (Vygotsky, 1978). Within the constructivist paradigm, Villegas and Lucas defined the overarching role of the teacher as helping “students build bridges between their prior knowledge and experiences and the new ideas to be learned” (p. 79). To accomplish this, teachers must learn about their students and their communities. Finally, teachers must cultivate the practice of culturally responsive teaching. Multicultural competencies are not understood as an end goal per se, but rather conceptualized as a lifelong journey of practice, reflection, and adjustment (Villegas & Lucas, 2002).

While some scholars have focused on describing desired outcomes for multicultural teacher education, others have described common characteristics of pre-service teachers (PSTs) regarding multiculturalism. In her review, Sleeter (2008) summarized four common interrelated problems of White PSTs. First, most are “dysconscious” of how racism works in schools or in society at large. They bring little awareness or understanding of racism and discrimination and “tend to see racism as a problem of interpersonal interactions” rather than realize the deeper, systemic inequalities which “allocate social resources differentially based on race” (p. 560). As previously discussed, most PSTs have lower expectations for students of color than for White students and tend to attribute underachievement by students of color to personal characteristics and choices, rather than to factors under the control of the classroom

teacher (Sleeter, 2008). Further hampering White PSTs' ability to connect with students of color is a color-blind attitude, and ignorance, fear, and segregation from communities of color. A symptom of segregation and fear, most White PSTs have had few opportunities to authentically discuss race and racism and are often resistant to examining their internal biases and prejudices (Sleeter, 2008). Finally, most PSTs lack awareness of themselves as cultural beings and instead believe only students of color "have culture." This lack of awareness is particularly concerning because it reinforces deficit thinking by allowing teachers to "use their own unexamined frames of reference against which to judge students, students' families, and their communities" (Sleeter, 2008, p. 561). As the nation's K-12 population continues to grow more racially and ethnically diverse, it is important that teacher preparation programs address the common limitations of PSTs and empower teachers to better serve all children.

Teacher educators have used several approaches (e.g., stand-alone multicultural course(s), field-based immersion, multicultural themes weaved throughout many courses) and many different pedagogical strategies (e.g., autobiography, cross-cultural letter exchange, simulation, lecture, debate) to raise awareness about issues related to race, ethnicity, and culture among predominantly White pre-service teachers (Sleeter, 2001). Generally, stand-alone multicultural courses have been shown to reduce PSTs' levels of prejudice and bias regarding race and ethnicity and raise awareness of the lived experiences of people of color (Hollins & Guzman, 2005). Lecture-based courses for PSTs have been shown to be effective at reducing prejudice and raising students' awareness and sensitivity to issues of race, ethnicity, and culture (Heinze, 2008; Lawrence & Bunche, 1996; Nelson, 2010), while experiential groups for PSTs have been

promoted by several teacher educators (Cochran-Smith et al., 2008; McAllister & Irvine, 2000) and are noted for their “focus on feelings and interpersonal engagement, learning through action instead of just dialoguing, and on the present rather than the past” (Marbley, Bonner, McKisick, Henfield, & Watts, 2007, p. 13). Field-based immersion experiences have been shown to increase PSTs’ awareness of the lives of students of color, provide practice for PSTs to communicate and build relationships with students of color, and facilitate PSTs’ exploration of themselves as cultural beings (Culp, Chepyator-Thomson, & Hsu, 2009; Nuby, 2010; Rushton, 2001). Nuby (2010), after an 8-year longitudinal qualitative study exploring the experience of White PSTs spending a semester in a school where approximately 99% of the students were African American, concluded “placement opportunities for prospective teachers in urban schools is of great value to the schools, the university students, and the university” (p. 48). Scholars recognize the power of field-based immersion experiences while simultaneously cautioning that, without proper support, some PSTs may actually come away from such experiences with more deeply held stereotypes and biases about students of color (Hollins & Guzman, 2005). Examining the confluence of coursework and fieldwork, several reviewers conclude that the greatest positive change in PSTs’ attitudes and beliefs related to issues of race, ethnicity, and culture occur when coursework and fieldwork were experienced concurrently (Anderson & Stillman, 2013; Castro, 2010; Cochran-Smith et al., 2004; Sleeter, 2000).

Recently, scholars have more specifically described the content and process of courses which have succeeded in changing prospective teachers’ attitudes, beliefs, and values regarding multiculturalism (e.g., see Arizaga, Bauman, Waldo, & Castellanos,

2005). In her review of over 80 studies from the past two decades, Sleeter (2008) identified the following concepts common to most multicultural education courses: ethnic and cultural self-identity; ethnocentrism; dynamics of prejudice and racism, with special focus on implications for teachers; dynamics of privilege and oppression, with special focus on how schools contribute to systemic inequality; multicultural curriculum development; learning styles; relationships between language, culture, and learning; and culturally appropriate assessment. While many scholars have written about the desired content of multicultural courses, fewer have described the processes which facilitated learning during these courses. Brown (2004) used qualitative methodology to study 109 teacher candidates enrolled in a 10-week diversity course and concluded “reducing student resistance and providing students with opportunities for self-examination is the most effective method of course introduction” (p. 336). McFalls and Cobb-Roberts (2001) also used qualitative methodology to examine the experiences of 124 undergraduate students majoring in pre-service education and found explicit discussion of cognitive dissonance theory to be helpful in reducing student resistance to discussing race, racism, White Privilege, and oppression. Heinze (2008), a clinical psychologist, suggests a *here-and-now* approach and using self-disclosure to dealing with student resistance.

I try to be aware of, and in touch with, my own anger, frustration, impatience, etc. that is elicited by some students (this is similar to the psychoanalytic concept of countertransference), reminding myself that I still maintain tacitly racist thoughts and am continuing to learn. It is important that I not engage in the same splitting

and projection (making my students the target of my split off feelings) that I describe as common among Whites when exploring racism. (p. 9)

Heinze goes on to caution against directly engaging in debates with students, rather reflecting student objections and facilitating whole-class exploration of the underlying assumption.

That teacher educators are beginning to address broader topics and engage in experiential pedagogical methods to address multiculturalism is encouraging because not too long ago “many White educators pulled multicultural education away from social struggles and redefined it to mean the celebration of ethnic foods and festivals” (Sleeter & McLaren, 1995, p. 12). Moreover, this gradual shift from learning about the *other*, to a more introspective, reflective approach grounded in self-inquiry and ecological analysis of power and privilege is consistent with the method of training used by counseling psychologists, generally recognized as leaders in the field of multiculturalism (Altmaier & Hansen, 2012; Brown & Lent, 2008). Although gradual changes have been taking place within teacher education, much work remains, because as Sleeter (2008) concluded, “more than 30 years after NCATE’s initial guidelines . . . most teacher education programs lack a coherent and sustained approach” (p. 562) to adequately prepare White PSTs for work in culturally heterogeneous school systems.

Conclusion

This section has been a review of multicultural education with a special focus on teacher education. The foundational history of multicultural education has been briefly discussed, beginning with its emergence from African-American literature of the late 19th century, through the civil rights struggles of the 1960s, to the current broadening of

the movement to include other marginalized populations. A special emphasis on teacher education, with NCATE's 1976 guidelines serving as a starting point, was also presented. The evolution of multicultural education within teacher education was discussed, with attention given to content and process of multicultural teacher education. A recent pedagogical shift from learning about the *other* to increasing self-awareness was briefly described as well as common forms of and responses to student resistance. The next section will explain why counseling psychologists are uniquely positioned, both because of their leadership in multicultural scholarship and in response to criticism of the overly individualistic, reactionary nature of counseling and psychotherapy, to assist our colleagues in teacher education in preparing ethical, competent, empathetic teachers and in the prevention of mental health issues in school-aged children.

Counseling Psychology and Public Schools

This section presents a rationale for counseling psychologists becoming more involved in K-12 education and educational reform. First, a brief overview of counseling psychology's history and its foundational principles are presented along with a focused review of counseling psychology's relationship with K-12 public education. Contributions of counseling psychologists to K-12 education from the past decade are summarized, followed by a review of school reform movements. The section ends with a discussion of specific roles for counseling psychologists seeking greater involvement with K-12 education and how such greater involvement is beneficial for the counseling psychology profession as a whole.

Historical Overview

In 1952, the Division of Counseling and Guidance of the American Psychological Association (APA) changed its name to the Division of Counseling Psychology, officially sanctioning counseling psychology as a unique discipline (Brown & Lent, 2000). Situated within the larger field of psychology, counseling psychology is recognized (along with clinical psychology and school psychology) as one of the original three subspecialties of a discipline that traces its formal roots to 1879 and the University of Leipzig, and that has informal connections to antiquity and thinkers such as Confucius, Socrates, and Avicenna (King, Viney, & Woody, 2009). In the 60 years since its founding, counseling psychology has grown into a respected discipline with a robust research base and is a recognized leader in research, practice, and teaching regarding issues of social justice, diversity, and multiculturalism (Brown & Lent, 2008).

While all branches of psychology share a commitment to understanding human behavior, counseling psychology in particular is concerned with the promotion of health, understanding people as they operate within systems, and working in a collaborative nature with both clients and other professionals (Altmaier & Ali, 2012). Whereas clinical and school psychology have historically sought to diagnose and treat psychopathology, counseling psychology historically focused on prevention and on identifying strengths in people suffering from psychic distress. The focus on human strengths is often attributed to the work of Carl Rogers (1940) and his at-the-time controversial idea that clients were able to grow and adjust on their own given the presence of a warm, authentic, fully present therapist (Altmaier & Ali, 2012). Rogers' ideas sharply contrasted the prevailing notion of the therapist as an impartial "expert" who would diagnose and prescribe

necessary information to catalyze client change. In addition to focusing on human strengths, counseling psychology has traditionally emphasized consideration of the client's environment and contextual variables contributing to psychological well-being (Brown & Lent, 2008). Counseling psychology's conceptualization of individuals within systems is often attributed to the discipline's roots in vocational counseling following World War II and efforts to help returning service personnel adjust to and reintegrate into civilian life (Altmaier & Ali, 2012). Counseling psychology has more recently been influenced by Bronfenbrenner's (1977) *ecological systems theory*, which places the individual at the center of nested systems (e.g., family, school, culture, government) and theorizes dynamic paths of influence both among systems and between the individual and the systems with which he or she interacts. Finally, counseling psychology places importance on collaboration with clients and other professionals (Altmaier & Ali, 2012). In practicing therapy, counseling psychologists emphasize the relationship between the client and the therapist, again reflecting Roger's (1940) ideals. Understanding client concerns within systems requires counseling psychologists to consult with other professionals and seek collaboration with others having complementary expertise. Thus, prevention of illness and promotion of human strengths, understanding individuals in context, and collaboration with others are the focus areas that differentiate counseling psychology from the other major branches of psychology.

Although closely aligned with education during its infancy, as counseling psychology has matured as a profession, its historically strong ties to education have weakened. Theoretically, counseling psychologists have long aligned themselves with the educational process and were originally conceptualized by the United States' Veteran

Administration as clinicians who “provide for the vocational-educational advisement of ex-service men and women” (Whiteley, 1984, p. 6); this was in contrast to clinical psychologists who “assist returning veterans with emotional problems” (p. 7). The inaugural issue of the *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, composed of articles deemed foundational to the discipline, includes an article comparing counseling to the learning process (Combs, 1954). In 1958, in response to Sputnik I, the U.S. federal government passed the National Defense Education Act (NDEA), greatly increasing the amount of federal funds available to K-12 schools for a variety of programs. The 1958 presidential statement from APA’s Division of Counseling Psychology asserted NDEA “virtually demands that the competencies of counseling psychologists be available. . . . how can we best serve?” (Berdie, 1958, p. 1), while the 1959 statement said, “Perhaps our most important responsibility of the moment is contributing to the success of the National Defense Educational Act” (Shoben, 1959, p. 1). Unfortunately, for several complicated reasons, counseling psychologists did not become involved in a significant way in NDEA programs, leading Whiteley (1984) to conclude, “The failure to become deeply involved in this federal initiative must be viewed ultimately as an opportunity lost by counseling psychology” (p. 73).

For the next 30 years, counseling psychology as a whole remained only marginally invested in the nation’s public schools. Counseling psychology of the 1960s and 1970s reflects concern with counseling outcome, personality theories, and treatment modalities (Whiteley, 1984), while counseling psychology of the late 1970s through the mid 1980s aligned itself with a medical service model in order to comply with insurance and licensure requirements as health care providers gained power and influence (Romano

& Kachgal, 2004). Finally, in the late 1980s, as scholars of public education became more attuned to the ways in which issues of race, diversity, and inequity impacted public schools, counseling psychologists offered their growing expertise in such issues and contributed to improving the nation's K-12 public school system (Brown & Lent, 2000). Counseling psychologists of the 1990s contributed to theoretical understanding of the racial identity development of public school children (e.g., Helms, 1995) and to the development of competencies for teachers who work in racially heterogeneous school systems (e.g., Ponterotto et al., 1998). Although some counseling psychology faculty were publishing school-related research and many reported greater interest in K-12 related research, teaching, and practice (Berstein, Forrest, & Golston, 1994), this renewed interest did not seem to translate into publications in the profession's major journals. After reviewing *The Counseling Psychologist* and *Journal of Counseling Psychology* from 1994 to 2000 and finding a decrease from 10% to 1% in school-related research, Walsh and Galassi (2002) concluded, "Renewed interest in schools has not yet begun to penetrate these journals" (p. 676). Despite noteworthy contributions of some counseling psychologists to K-12 education in the late 20th century and overall greater expressed interest, counseling psychology has yet to fulfill its potential for helping to improve the nation's schools and is well suited to build on its deep historical ties and become more involved in contemporary public education reform.

Recent Developments

While acknowledging the importance of counseling psychology's theoretical contributions to K-12 education in the 1990s, scholars continue advocating for counseling psychologists to play much larger roles in public education reform (Hage, Romano, &

Conyne, 2007; Kenny, Waldo, Warter, & Barton, 2002; Walsh & Galassi, 2002). *The Counseling Psychologist's* 2002 special issue, "Counseling Psychologists and Schools," provided a conceptual framework for counseling psychologists working in school systems (Walsh et al., 2002), called for counseling psychologists to use their expertise to help "enhance the career development of the nation's children and youth" (Solberg, Howard, Blustein, & Close, 2002, p. 705) and examined two school-based prevention programs designed by counseling psychologists (Kenny et al., 2002). In 2004, *The Counseling Psychologist* published "Counseling Psychology and School Counseling," a special issue examining the relationship between the two related disciplines and encouraging greater collaboration between counseling psychologists and professional school counselors in order to improve K-12 education and better meet the needs of the nation's youth. Romano and Kachgal (2004) find counseling psychologists' lack of interest in K-12 education surprising given that about 80% of APA-accredited counseling psychology programs are housed in schools of education (Heppner, Casas, Carter, & Stone, 2000). They further speculate that the lack of attention given to issues facing public schools may contribute to the reasons some administrators and faculty "question the relevancy of counseling psychology to the major educational mission of the college" (Romano & Kachgal, 2004, p. 187).

While limited in total number, over the past decade some counseling psychologists have been active in research and practice regarding issues facing K-12 education (Altmaier & Hansen, 2012). Several counseling psychologists have applied their expertise in multicultural issues to the reduction of bias among school children (e.g., Molina & Wittig, 2006; Paluck, 2006; Turner & Brown, 2008). Counseling

psychologists have also been involved in school-based bullying prevention and violence reduction programs and engaged in research focused on understanding and preventing school shootings (Espelage & Poteat, 2012). Other counseling psychologists have designed school-based programs intended to prevent and remedy eating disorders (Morgan & Vera, 2012) and have helped develop curriculum intended to assist school personnel combat childhood obesity (Bruss et al., 2010). Finally, some counseling psychologists have focused their energy on the training of new teachers (Arizaga et al., 2005) and on the creation, management, and measurement of school-based therapy programs (Morris & Colles, 2011). Although some counseling psychologists have made important contributions to K-12 education and public schools, there is still much that can be done to help the nation's educational system.

School Reform

Not long after Horace Mann founded *The Common School Journal* in 1839, introducing his idea of the "Common School" as education that is free, secular, humane, and available to all, did reformers begin to suggest ways to improve upon his ideas and strengthen public education for the benefit of the nation (Oakes & Lipton, 2006; Rury, 2012). Although a thorough review of public school reform is beyond the scope of this chapter, a brief overview is warranted.

By the end of the 19th century, public schools were seen as a place to "Americanize" immigrants by teaching patriotism, and the habits, values, and language of New England Anglo-Saxon Protestants. When schoolchildren first recited the "Pledge of Allegiance" on Columbus Day in 1892, their teachers instructed them to follow the pledge with, "One Country! One Flag! One Language!" (Oakes & Lipton, 2006).

Paralleling the nation's manufacturing boom of the early 20th century, public schools of the time were expected to develop "human capital" for the economy. Although the Great Depression made jobs scarce, schools were still asked to prepare students with skills and dispositions (e.g., punctuality, work ethic, following directions) necessary for factory work. As the U.S. slowly recovered from the Great Depression, reformers advocated for a more educated work force and began lobbying Congress to adopt a mandatory 12-year public education policy (Oakes & Lipton, 2006).

The space race of the 1950s, and particularly Russia's 1957 launch of Sputnik, prompted Congress to invest more money into public schools, focusing on science and mathematics education and the production of more scientists to ensure national security (Rury, 2012). The increased congressional school funding of the late 1950s came with increased accountability demands and greater scrutiny of how federal dollars were being spent. During the 1960s and 1970s, challenges experienced by schools had been documented and plans to deal with poverty, racism, inequality, and urban decay began to emerge (Oakes & Lipton, 2006). Two preventative programs designed to combat poverty, Head Start (founded in 1965) and the Child Nutrition Act of 1966, have become two of the government's largest financial commitments to U.S. public schools (Rury, 2012). In what many education scholars point to as the beginning of the modern era, President Reagan's National Commission on Excellence in Education's 1983 report, *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform*, again brought the struggles of public schools to the attention of media, lawmakers, and ordinary citizens. The report is widely regarded as the catalyst for school reforms of the past 30 years, such as standards-based instruction and assessment, increasing teacher licensure requirements, and allowing

student test scores to affect school funding levels (Rury, 2012). Finally, over the past 10 years, scholars have conceptualized schools as local resources with the potential to address many community issues. Family nutrition programs, school gardens, parenting classes, counseling for students and families, and basic medical clinics are examples of school-based community programs imagined and realized at some schools around the country (Rury, 2012).

Despite undergoing many changes, U.S. public schools have remained a cornerstone of our society and a rite of passage for nearly all U.S. citizens (Oakes & Lipton, 2006). In addition to teaching reading, writing, and arithmetic, U.S. schools are seen as a place to address social problems and reduce inequality. While the concept of school reform is not new, the specific focus areas of current school reforms are well aligned with counseling psychology's areas of expertise. Moreover, counseling psychology can respond to its critics and expand its relevance by reengaging public schools and becoming more involved in improving public education.

Moving Forward

Many opportunities are available for counseling psychologists to become more involved with K-12 education. Providing direct service (e.g., facilitating specialized mental health groups), designing programs (e.g., teacher-teacher mentor program) and program evaluation (e.g., investigating effects of anti-bullying program) have been suggested as areas counseling psychologists could use their expertise to help K-12 schools (Gysbers, 2004; Walsh et al., 2002). Other scholars suggest counseling psychologists might supervise school counselors and conduct research on counseling outcomes in schools (Romano & Kachgal, 2004; Sabella, 2004). Recognizing counseling

psychology's leadership regarding multicultural issues, Whiston (2004) believes, "Counseling psychologists could have a significant impact on youth from various backgrounds by providing training, resources, and materials on multiculturalism to school counselors" (p. 273). Further reflecting counseling psychology's strength in multiculturalism and education, scholars recommend counseling psychologists assist K-12 teachers in developing culturally appropriate curriculum (Yeh, 2004) and facilitate multicultural trainings for current teachers (Colman, 2004). Finally, while scholars have encouraged counseling psychologists to take a more active role in the training of teachers at the university level (e.g., Brady-Amoon, 2011; Forrest, 2004; Hage et al., 2007; Walsh, et al., 2002), teacher educators have simultaneously asked for assistance in training teachers who are better prepared to work in culturally heterogeneous school systems (e.g., Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005; Cochran-Smith et. al, 2008).

In addition to helping schools, counseling psychology could respond to its critics by becoming more involved in K-12 education. Common criticisms of counseling psychology include intervening too frequently at the individual level (i.e., psychotherapy) and overfocusing on diagnosis and treatment at the expense of prevention (Altmaier & Hansen, 2012; Brown & Lent, 2008). Where counseling psychologists have gotten involved in public schools, evidence has shown school-based prevention programs focused on particular issues (e.g., substance abuse, pregnancy, school violence) have been effective at preventing the targeted behavior and cost-efficient when implemented at the group level (Vera & Reese, 2000). The cost-efficiency of group intervention is particularly important to school systems facing reduced budgets (Walsh et. al., 2002) and because as health care providers continue to gain influence, group therapy may replace

individual therapy as standard practice (Yalom, 2005). Furthermore, counseling psychologists have been successful at reducing bias and facilitating cultural self-exploration of teachers-in-training (Arizaga et al., 2005), which is theorized to increase the academic achievement of their students and prevent a myriad of negative educational outcomes (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005; Cochran-Smith et al., 2008). Indeed, greater collaboration between counseling psychologists and K-12 school systems is not only good for children, it is good for the health of counseling psychology as a profession.

Conclusion

This section has established a rationale for counseling psychologists becoming more involved in K-12 education. Literature was reviewed which described counseling psychology's relative lack of meaningful involvement with K-12 education despite strong historical ties to public education. Recognizing recent work, highlights of contributions to K-12 education by counseling psychologists of the past decade were presented along with a brief review of school reform movements. The section ended by detailing how counseling psychology's foundational principles are well matched with the needs of public schools and how counseling psychology as a profession may benefit from greater involvement with K-12 education.

Curriculum Studies

This section presents a brief historical overview of curriculum studies with a focus on teacher education curriculum. Pressures on teacher education programs will be summarized following a short review of evolving teacher education curriculum. The section will end with criticisms of curriculum evaluation and suggestions for employing more sophisticated research methods.

Historical Overview of Curriculum Studies

In the United States, the discipline of curriculum studies has been described as being in an extended state of “conceptual disarray” (Cuban, 1995, p. vii). Formed in the early 20th century, curriculum studies has traditionally concerned itself with the delivery, creation, and measurement of curriculum (Connelly, He, & Phillion, 2008).

Disagreements about the purpose and scope of education dominated the field during the 1920s and 1930s, while debates about nationalism and xenophobia created divisions within the field after World War II (Wraga & Hlebowitsh, 2003). Then, in 1969, Schwab published a seminal paper describing signs of crisis within the field which he predicted would lead to the decline and ultimate irrelevance of curriculum studies. Although curriculum scholars have attempted to reinvent and reconceptualize curriculum studies for almost 40 years, after reviewing the literature, Wraga and Hlebowitsh concluded, “Sufficient evidence exists to support the claim that the U.S. curriculum field remains in a state of crisis much like the one Schwab described over three decades ago” (p. 429).

Teacher Education Curriculum Studies

Curriculum studies within teacher education have been influenced by similar forces impacting the field at large and by pressures unique to the training of teachers (Cochran-Smith et al., 2008). Responding to staffing needs of Horace Mann’s newly conceptualized Common School, the training of teachers was formalized in the 1830s with the establishment of state normal schools (Labaree, 2008). Originating in Massachusetts, normal schools were singularly focused on the training of teachers and divided curriculum between “liberal arts courses to give prospective teachers grounding in subject matter . . . and professional courses to give them grounding in the arts of

teaching” (p. 292). Over the next 150 years, two significant trends emerged in teacher education: normal schools evolved into teachers’ colleges and later into comprehensive state universities; and teacher preparation curricula changed in response to the shifting national educational zeitgeist (e.g., assimilation of immigrants, production of good workers, training of scientists). Paralleling contemporary trends, curriculum scholars of the past 30 years have critically examined teacher education through feminist, critical race, and multicultural paradigms (Connelly et al., 2008).

Despite its long history, “teacher education has long suffered from low status” because of three primary pressures unique to the training of teachers (Labaree, 2008, p. 297). First, with the evolution of normal schools into comprehensive state universities, teacher education became diffused across the entire campus; subject-matter courses were typically taught within their academic homes (i.e., chemistry content taught by chemistry professors), while education professors became responsible only for courses in pedagogy. Secondly, because teaching tends to draw practitioners from the working and lower middle classes, and because teachers serve children, teaching tends to be “the most accessible of the professions serving the least advantaged members of society” (Labaree, 2008, p. 298). Finally, although extraordinarily difficult, the general public perceives teaching to be easy work (Oakes & Lipton, 2006). This phenomenon is usually explained by teaching’s public nature and the 12 years most teachers-in-training have spent in a classroom (Labaree, 2008). Consider the difference between medical students, who most likely have spent relatively few hours in the presence of a doctor, and teacher preparation students, who have spent approximately 15,000 hours observing teachers on the job. All of the aforementioned factors place pressure on teachers and teacher educators, ultimately

resulting in the teaching profession occupying a relatively low status among careers requiring college education (Labaree, 2008).

Pressures on Teacher Education Curriculum

Given the large number of training sites, regulatory bureaucracy, and diversity of goals, it is not surprising that variation within teacher education curriculum is the norm rather than the exception (Cochran-Smith et al., 2008). As of 2005, there were 1,323 colleges and universities located across all 50 states, Puerto Rico, Guam, and the U.S. Virgin Islands approved to prepare teachers (NCES, 2006). Although the federal government provides funds for elementary and secondary teacher education, there is no national curriculum, nor a national teacher credentialing exam. Whereas in Singapore, albeit a much smaller and more homogenous country than the United States, all teachers are prepared in accordance with a national curriculum that is closely aligned with high stakes national exams (Gopinathan, Pakir, Kam, Saravanan, & Hu, 2000), in the U.S., individual states have the responsibility to accredit teacher education programs based off periodic reviews of faculty, resources, and curricula, leading to wide variation in states' standards and accreditation procedures (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2008). For example, while all states have some level of content area standards for prospective teachers, 15 states do not require content area bachelor's degrees (or a closely related content area) for entry-level licensure (NCES, 2006). Even within some states, teacher education program standards vary depending on the institutional mission and vision (e.g., preparing teachers for urban schools, preparing teachers certified in content shortage areas, preparing teachers to work for social justice) (Cochran-Smith & Demers, 2008). Thus, teacher

education curriculum is highly varied, non-standard, and sometimes focused on serving a particular need.

Over time, as the mission of public schools has changed (e.g., from assimilating immigrants to training scientists), teacher education curriculum has also changed, and although formal national standards for preparing teachers do not exist, scholars have generally agreed about the basic capacities teachers should possess after completing a teacher education program (Oakes & Lipton, 2006). Subject matter competence, historically the most important aspect of a teacher's preparation, remains a critical component of teacher preparation and has been expanded to include knowledge of common student difficulties, the ability to present content to diverse learners, and awareness of cultural bias within the content (McDiarmid & Clevenger-Bright, 2008). Following subject matter competence, and usually attributed to the philosophy of John Dewey (1897), teachers have long been expected to “nurture the democratic dispositions, habits, and practices of their pupils even as they ensure pupils learn academic knowledge and skills” (McDiarmid & Clevenger-Bright, 2008, p. 141). Finally, following the Civil Rights movements of the mid-20th century, preparing teachers to work in heterogeneous school systems became more salient and teachers came to be expected to address the effects of race, social class, and gender differences on learning opportunities (Banks & Banks, 2004). Understood as *multicultural education* (explored in depth earlier in the chapter), the training of culturally competent teachers has broadened over the past 15 years from potential teachers simply knowing about the history, customs, and cultures of different U.S. racial minority groups to an examination of one's culture, personal biases and prejudices, and an analysis of systemic power inequities and institutional racism

(McDiarmid & Clevenger-Bright, 2008). Some teacher educators (e.g., Brown-Jeffy & Cooper, 2011; Sleeter, 2008) argue that multicultural education is *the* most important piece of modern teacher education. In summary, despite formal national standards, teacher educators generally agree subject matter competency, grounding in democratic ideals, and multicultural competency ought to be critical components of teacher education curriculum.

Curriculum Evaluation

Although evaluation of higher education curriculum has a long tradition in the United States, it has mostly relied on student ratings of courses and professors (Spiel, Schober, & Reimann, 2006). Consequently, a large body of literature exists examining the psychometric properties of student ratings, correlations of student ratings to professor productivity, and effects of systemic biases (e.g., Marsh 1982, 1984). However, while helpful, student ratings reveal very little about what was actually learned, what has been retained, and which new skills, if any, have been acquired. Moreover, student ratings provide little help in determining if a designed curriculum has reached its goals. Looking more closely at evaluation of teacher education curriculum, Cochran-Smith and Fries (2008) note, “Empirical research on teacher education really developed as an identifiable line of research only during the last half century” (p. 1087). Cochran-Smith and Fries attribute the lack of robustness of teacher education curriculum evaluation literature to the relative youth of the field and further note that case study, narrative research, and phenomenology have been the dominant research paradigms of the past 20 years. A further common criticism of teacher education curriculum evaluation is the lack of attention given to student outcomes (Banks & Banks, 2004; Cochran-Smith et al., 2008;

Sleeter, 2008). That is, while teacher educators may be evaluating outcomes among teacher candidates, there are virtually no longitudinal studies examining the educational and psychosocial outcomes of the newly trained teachers' students.

Curriculum evaluators have urged their peers to adopt more robust research methods and encouraged other curriculum scholars to focus more on practical applications of theory rather than on the philosophical pursuit of more theory building (Connelly et al., 2008). Several teacher education leaders have begun advocating for more quantitative research methodologies employing random assignment and use of control groups (Cochran-Smith et al., 2008; Borko, Whitcomb, & Byrnes, 2008; Sleeter, 2008). Other scholars have suggested the teacher education literature is saturated with case studies, narrative reports, and phenomenologies of professor-researchers who investigate their own classes and instead suggest researchers conduct larger scale (university- or state-wide) investigations of teacher preparation (Zeichner, 2005). Still other researchers suggest comparing pedagogical approaches within teacher education (Grossman, 2005), investigating the effects of field experiences in the training of teachers (Clift & Brady, 2005), and examining to what extent personal characteristics influence the training of teachers (Rodgers & Scott, 2008). Finally, several teacher education leaders encourage longitudinal research designs and a renewed commitment to examining the ultimate educational and psychological outcomes of K-12 students as they relate to teacher preparation (Cochran-Smith et al., 2008; Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005; Darling-Hammond, 2006).

Conclusion

This section presented a brief review of the curriculum studies field with a focus on teacher education curriculum. Despite enjoying a long history, curriculum studies in general has been plagued by shifting national priorities and uncertainty regarding its relevance. Teacher education curriculum has similarly gone through many changes over time and has suffered from a lack of national standards and guidelines. Whereas autonomy and states' rights are hallmarks of U.S. culture, freedom from national standards has fragmented the research base of teacher education and limited the creation and dissemination of large scale research. Finally, teacher education leaders have recently advocated for use of more robust research methods and returning focus to the outcomes of K-12 students.

Chapter Conclusion

This chapter has been a review of literature from several disciplines. Demographic changes of the United States have been presented along with data reflecting the more rapid change that is occurring within our nation's school systems. That the United States is becoming more racially and ethnically diverse is not a problem per se, rather, the problem lies in the lingering effects of racism which have produced systemic inequities. Specifically within our nation's schools, the large cultural mismatch between the teaching force (84% White) and the student body (~50% students of color) has likely contributed to the persistent academic achievement gap between White students and their peers of color. Evidence has been presented documenting the power of teacher expectations and showing that the average teacher holds lower expectations for students of color compared to White students. The foundation of multicultural education was

briefly summarized with a particular focus on multicultural education within teacher education. A historical overview of counseling psychology was also presented with a focus on the profession's relationship with K-12 schools. Special emphasis was given to criticisms of counseling psychology and why counseling psychologists are qualified to become involved in school reform. Finally, a brief overview of curriculum studies was offered, again with a focus on teacher education and evaluation of teacher education curriculum.

Given the summarized literature, this researcher believes the timing is right for counseling psychologists to become more involved in school reform. Our profession has been criticized for overfocusing on individuals and remediating rather than preventing psychological distress, and praised for our advancement of multicultural research, practice, and teaching. As the nation continues its diversification and as public schools continue to struggle to equitably educate all children, counseling psychologists are primed to assist in the training of culturally competent teachers to better serve all children.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

Introduction

This study examined the extent to which variation in pedagogical approach (i.e., interactive lecture or experiential group) of an intentionally designed 8-hour curriculum affected pre-service teachers' multicultural awareness, endorsement of color-blind attitudes, and exploration of and commitment to ethnic identity. Additionally, this study examined the extent to which differences in racial diversity of field placement sites (i.e., high racial diversity or low racial diversity) affect the aforementioned beliefs and attitudes of pre-service teachers. Finally, this study examined the unique interaction effects of pedagogical approach combined with racial diversity of field placement site.

The specific research questions were:

1. Is there a main effect of pedagogical approach on outcome measures?
2. Is there a main effect of racial diversity of field placement site on outcome measures?
3. Is there an interaction effect of pedagogical approach and of racial diversity of field placement site on outcome measures?

Sample

Participant Recruitment

The participant pool for this study consisted of all pre-service teachers (PSTs) at a mid-sized public Midwestern university enrolled in Education 4710 (Intern Teaching:

Elementary School) and Education 4750 (Intern Teaching: Middle School/Secondary) while simultaneously completing an intern teaching experience at a local public school during the Fall 2013 and Spring 2014 semesters. Education 4750 and 4710 are support classes intended to serve as a “home base” for pre-service teachers while they complete a semester of intern teaching. The classes typically meet for 2 hours each week and students are expected to discuss, critique, and reflect upon the field experiences they are having in the classroom. According to university enrollment records, a total of 162 students were enrolled in 32 sections of the aforementioned courses during the 2013 Fall semester, and a total of 128 students were enrolled in 31 sections during the 2014 Spring semester.

The specific sample for this study was obtained from the available population through several steps. First, a few weeks after the beginning of the Fall 2013 semester, the student researcher spoke to all the instructors of Education (ED) 4710 and 4750 at a regularly scheduled monthly meeting of PST supervisors. At this meeting the student researcher presented the rationale for the study and asked instructors to allow the student researcher access to the PSTs enrolled in their respective sections of ED 4710 and 4750. Out of approximately 30 instructors, 20 expressed interest in participating and were subsequently contacted individually via phone and email to schedule an informed consent session. A total of seven instructors granted permission to the student researcher to speak to the PSTs under their supervision. Next, the student researcher visited each of the seven sections and formally invited the PSTs to participate in this study. At this meeting, PSTs were provided an oral overview of the study and the official IRB informed consent document. Finally, individual PSTs were allotted time to ask questions, express

concerns, and discuss among themselves whether they would like to participate. For the Fall 2013 semester, all 36 PSTs enrolled in the seven sections of ED 4710 and 4750 communicated a willingness to participate and provided informed consent.

The aforementioned procedure was replicated for the Spring 2014 semester with minor adjustments. In December 2013, the student researcher was again invited to a regularly scheduled monthly meeting of PST supervisors to present a brief oral report regarding the process of the study and to seek participants for the Spring 2014 semester. Additionally, two PSTs who had participated in the study provided testimonials regarding their experience. These two PSTs provided their testimonials unsolicited and without input from the student researcher. Following this meeting, 22 instructors expressed interest in participating and were subsequently contacted individually via phone and email to schedule an informed consent session. A total of 15 instructors granted permission to the student researcher to speak to the PSTs under their supervision. Next, during the first 3 weeks of the Spring 2014 semester, the student researcher visited each of the 15 sections and formally invited the PSTs to participate in this study. At this meeting, PSTs were provided an oral overview of the study and the official IRB informed consent document. Finally, individual PSTs were allotted time to ask questions, express concerns, and discuss among themselves whether they would like to participate. For the Spring 2013 semester, all 92 PSTs enrolled in the 15 sections of ED 4710 and 4750 communicated a willingness to participate and provided informed consent. Thus, combining Fall 2013 and Spring 2014 participants resulted in a total sample size of 128 pre-service teachers representing 22 class sections.

Demographics

Participants for this study consisted of 128 pre-service teachers (PSTs) from a mid-sized public Midwestern university who were simultaneously completing an intern teaching experience at a local public school during the Fall 2013 and Spring 2014 semesters. Of the 128 PSTs who provided informed consent, 86 completed all pre- and posttest measures, yielding a 67.2% response rate.

Demographic data are summarized (see Table 1) for the 86 PSTs who completed all requested measures and thus constitute this study's data set. Participants ranged in age from 22 to 45 years old with a mean of 25.8 years ($SD = 5.7$). Regarding gender, 57 participants (66.3%) identified as female, 27 (31.4%) identified as male, 1 participant (1.1%) identified as transgender, and 1 participant (1.1%) identified as intersex.

Regarding race, 78 participants (91%) identified as White, two participants (2.3%) identified as Asian, two participants (2.3%) identified as Latino, two participants (2.3%) identified as multiracial Black-White, 1 participant (1.1%) identified as Black, and 1 participant stated, "I do not believe race is a word. There is no such thing as 'race.'" Regarding ethnicity, 79 participants (92%) identified as White, 2 participants (2.3%) identified as Asian, 2 participants (2.3%) identified as Latino, 2 participants (2.3%) identified as multiracial Black-White, and 1 participant (1.1%) identified as Black.

Educational history data for the 86 participants are also included in Table 1. Regarding participants' mothers' highest level of education, 4 participants (4.7%) indicated their mother completed "some high school," 23 participants (26.7%) indicated their mother was a "high school graduate," 18 participants (20.9%) indicated their mother completed "some college," 27 participants (31.4%) indicated their mother was a

“college graduate,” and 14 (16.3%) indicated their mother had completed an “advanced degree.” Participants’ fathers’ highest level of education was similar to that of mothers’ highest level of education: 1 participant (1.2%) indicated his or her father “did not attend high school,” 6 participants (6.9%) indicated their father completed “some high school,” 19 participants (22.1%) indicated their father was a “high school graduate,” 13 participants (15.1%) indicated their father completed “some college,” 31 participants (36.0%) indicated their father was a “college graduate,” and 16 (18.6%) indicated their father had completed an “advanced degree.” Regarding participants’ own highest level of education, 3 (3.5%) indicated they were a “high school graduate,” 44 (51.2%) indicated they had completed “some college,” 36 participants (41.9%) indicated they were a “college graduate,” and 3 (3.5%) indicated they had completed an “advanced degree.” It should be noted that “college graduate” was defined as having earned an associate’s or bachelor’s degree, while “advanced degree” was defined as having earned a master’s or doctoral degree.

Lastly, participants’ approximate household income while in high school is summarized in Table 1. One participant (1.2%) reported an income level of “less than \$10,000,” 4 participants (4.6%) reported an income level from “\$10,000 - \$25,000,” 29 participants (33.7%) reported an income level from “\$25,000 - \$50,000,” 37 (43%) participants reported an income level from “\$50,000 - \$100,000,” 14 (16.3%) participants reported an income level of “\$100,000 - \$250,000,” and 1 participant (1.2%) reported an income level of “more than \$250,000.”

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of Pre-Service Teachers' Gender, Race, Ethnicity, Highest Level of Education Completed, and Household Income While in High School

Characteristic	N (%)
Age, years (range 22-45):	85 ^a
22 - 25	68 (80%)
26 - 30	7 (8.2%)
31 - 35	1 (1.2%)
36 - 40	3 (3.5%)
41 - 45	6 (7%)
Gender:	86
Female	57 (66.3%)
Male	27 (31.4%)
Transgender	1 (1.1%)
Other	1 (1.1%)
Race:	85 ^b
Asian	2 (2.3%)
Black	1 (1.1%)
Latino	2 (2.3%)
Multiracial	2 (2.3%)
White	78 (91%)
Ethnicity:	86
Asian	2 (2.3%)
Black	1 (1.1%)
Latino	2 (2.3%)
Multiracial	2 (2.3%)
White	79 (92%)

Table 1—Continued

Characteristic	<i>N</i> (%)
Highest Level of Education - Mother	86
Did not attend high school	0 (0%)
Some high school	4 (4.7%)
High school graduate	23 (26.7%)
Some college	18 (20.9%)
College graduate (i.e., Associate's or Bachelor's)	27 (31.4%)
Advanced degree (i.e., Master's or Doctorate)	14 (16.3%)
Highest Level of Education - Father	86
Did not attend high school	1 (1.2%)
Some high school	6 (6.9%)
High school graduate	19 (22.1%)
Some college	13 (15.1%)
College graduate (i.e., Associate's or Bachelor's)	31 (36.0%)
Advanced degree (i.e., Master's or Doctorate)	16 (18.6%)
Highest Level of Education - Self	86
Did not attend high school	0 (0%)
Some high school	0 (0%)
High school graduate	3 (3.5%)
Some college	44 (51.2%)
College graduate (i.e., Associate's or Bachelor's)	36 (41.9%)
Advanced degree (i.e., Master's or Doctorate)	3 (3.5%)
Approximate household income while in high school	86
Less than \$10,000	1 (1.2%)
\$10,000 - \$25,000	4 (4.6%)
\$25,000 - \$50,000	29 (33.7%)
\$50,000 - \$100,000	37 (43%)
\$100,000 - \$250,000	14 (16.3%)
More than \$250,000	1 (1.2%)

^a One participant stated their year of birth as “199.”

^b One participant stated, “I do not believe race is a word. There is no such thing as ‘race.’”

Facilitator Training

Because some sections of ED 4710 and 4750 were scheduled to meet on the same day at the same time in different locations, additional facilitators were needed to deliver the investigated curriculum. To meet this need, five advanced counseling psychology doctoral students (i.e., two Black women, one Black man, and two White men) were asked by the student researcher to assist with the study for the Spring 2014 semester. These five doctoral students had all completed coursework in group dynamics, group therapy, and multicultural counseling. Additionally, all five had experience teaching or co-teaching college-level courses and had expressed interest in research related to race, ethnicity, and culture. Finally, they were each offered a stipend of \$250 in return for their time; four of the five agreed to assist with the study.

Initial facilitator training took place in November 2013 and was followed with biweekly trainings during the Spring 2014 semester. The initial 2-hour training consisted of presenting the four facilitators with an overview of the study's rationale and a review of basic group dynamics and group therapy techniques (Yalom, 2005) along with a review of basic pedagogy and philosophies of teaching (Oakes & Lipton, 2006). Subsequent trainings were individualized, lasted approximately 90 minutes, and were focused on preparation for that week's specific curriculum and reflections on the prior week's curriculum. Detailed weekly lesson plans can be found in Appendices A and B.

Randomization

Random assignment is an important procedure that increases internal validity and allows researchers to more directly investigate causal effects (Heppner, Wampold, & Kivlighan, 2008). As such, participating sections of ED 4710 and ED 4750 were

randomly assigned using SPSS to either the no-treatment control group, treatment group A (Interactive Lecture), or treatment group B (Experiential Group). Additionally, for the Spring 2014 semester, assisting facilitators were randomly assigned to lead one section.

Instruments

Overview

Four instruments were used to examine to the extent to which variation in pedagogical approach of an intentionally designed 8-hour curriculum affected pre-service teachers' multicultural awareness, endorsement of color-blind attitudes, and exploration of and commitment to ethnic identity. Each participant completed the Teacher Multicultural Attitude Scale (TMAS; Ponterotto et al., 1998), the Color-Blind Racial Attitudes Scale (CoBRAS; Neville et al., 2000), and the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM; Phinney, 1992) twice—once at the beginning of the semester and again at the end of the semester. Additionally, a semantic differential scale (Osgood et al., 1957) was used to investigate differences among participants' understanding of their own multicultural competence and readiness to teach in a multicultural competent manner. Participants also completed a demographic questionnaire designed specifically for this study (Appendix C).

Teacher Multicultural Attitude Scale

Pre-service teachers' multicultural awareness and sensitivity was measured with the 20-item Likert-type Teacher Multicultural Attitude Scale (TMAS; Ponterotto et al., 1998; Appendix D). Ponterotto et al. defined *multicultural awareness* as “teachers’ awareness of, comfort with, and sensitivity to issues of cultural pluralism in the classroom” (p. 1003). The TMAS results in a single score whereby teachers scoring high

in multicultural awareness tend to understand cultural diversity as a strength and feel empowered to address issues of diversity and inclusion within the curriculum and the teaching–learning process (Ponterotto & Pedersen, 1993). Exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis yielded empirical support for a single-factor model of general multicultural awareness and sensitivity (Ponterotto et al., 1998). The TMAS asks for responses of 1 (*strongly disagree*) through 5 (*strongly agree*) to statements such as:

1. I find teaching a culturally diverse student group rewarding.
2. Teaching methods need to be adapted to meet the needs of a culturally diverse group.
3. Teachers have the responsibility to be aware of their students' cultural backgrounds.
4. I can learn a great deal from students with culturally different backgrounds.
5. As classrooms become more culturally diverse, the teacher's job becomes more rewarding.

The TMAS also includes several items that are reverse scored, such as:

1. It is not the teacher's responsibility to encourage pride in one's culture.
2. Multicultural training for teachers is not necessary.
3. Students should learn to communicate in English only.
4. Being multiculturally aware is not relevant for the subject I teach.
5. Teaching students about cultural diversity will only create conflict in the classroom.

Ponterotto et al. (1998) examined the psychometric qualifications of the TMAS with a sample of 227 teacher education graduate students from the New York City area.

The mean age of the sample was 28.24 years ($SD = 7.54$), the median age was 26 years, and the range was 19-52 years. Women accounted for 185 of the respondents with approximately 56% of the sample being White, 21% Latino, 13% Black, 3% Asian, and 7% indicating “other” or leaving the race/ethnicity category blank. Regarding education level, approximately 65% of the participants were pursuing master’s degrees, 23% already held master’s degrees and were pursuing more advanced training, while the remaining participants were seeking some other type of certification.

Ponterotto et al. (1998) reported adequate levels of reliability and validity. Internal consistency was high ($\alpha = .86$) and test-retest stability after a 3-week interval was .80. External validity of the TMAS was tested through comparison with the Quick Discrimination Index (QDI: Pontrotto et al., 1995) and the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM: Phinney, 1992). The TMAS was positively correlated with the QDI’s racial ($r = .45$) and gender ($r = .35$) equity subscales, indicating that teacher education students who endorsed more positive and accepting views toward racial and gender equity were also more aware of issues of cultural diversity in the classroom. Regarding the MEIM, the TMAS was positively correlated to the Other Group Orientation subscale ($r = .31$), suggesting that teachers who valued multicultural education also had more positive views toward other racial/ethnic groups. Finally, social desirability contamination was checked by comparison with Crowne and Marlowe’s (1960) Social Desirability Scale (SDS). A negligible correlation was found ($r = .00$) with the SDS, indicating that social desirability contamination is not a concern of the TMAS.

Color-Blind Racial Attitudes Scale

Pre-service teachers' endorsement of color-blind attitudes was measured by the Color-Blind Racial Attitudes Scale (CoBRAS; Neville et al., 2000; Appendix E). According to Neville et al. (2000), "Color-blind racial attitudes refers to the belief that race should not and does not matter" (p. 60). The CoBRAS is a 20-item Likert-type scale with responses ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) where higher scores indicate a greater endorsement of color-blind attitudes. The main scale contains three subscales named Unawareness of Racial Privilege (e.g., "White people in the U.S. have certain advantages because of the color of their skin"), Unawareness of Institutional Racism (e.g., "English should be the only official language in the U.S."), and Unawareness of Blatant Racial Issues (e.g., "Racism is a major problem in the U.S.").

Several researchers have reported on the reliability and validity of the CoBRAS. Cronbach's alphas for the main scale have ranged from .80 (Tynes & Markoe, 2010) to .91 (Neville et al., 2000). Additionally, Neville et al. reported alphas of .83 for the Unawareness of Racial Privilege subscale, .81 for the Unawareness of Institutional Racism subscale, and .76 for the Unawareness of Blatant Racial Issues subscale. Construct validity was investigated by Neville et al. by calculating the correlation of the CoBRAS with Ponterotto's, (1995) Quick Discrimination Index ($r = .71, p < .005$) and McConahay's (1986) Modern Racism Scale ($r = .52, p < .005$), indicating that individuals endorsing higher levels of color-blind attitudes were also likely to have negative attitudes toward women, Blacks, and multicultural issues in general. Spanierman and Heppner (2004) reported correlations between the three subscales of their Psychosocial Costs of Racism to Whites Scale (PCRW) and the full scale CoBRAS. They found White

Empathic Reactions Toward Racism and White Guilt to be significantly negatively correlated with CoBRAS scores ($r = -.30, p < .01$; $r = -.38, p < .01$, respectively), indicating respondents with higher racial awareness were more likely to experience empathic reactions toward racism and feel guilt and shame regarding their Whiteness. Furthermore, Spanierman and Heppner reported White Fear of Others to be positively correlated with CoBRAS scores ($r = .11, p < .05$), indicating respondents with greater levels of color-blind attitudes were also more likely to experience fear of people of other races. Awad, Cokley, and Ravitch (2005) reported a significant negative correlation ($r = -.43, p < .01$) between a measure of views on Affirmative Action practices and endorsement of color-blind attitudes as measured by the CoBRAS. Finally, Neville et al. used a shortened version of the Social Desirability Scale (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960) and reported negligible contamination of answering in a socially desirable way ($r = .13$).

Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure

Pre-service teachers' ethnic identity was measured using the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM; Phinney, 1992; Appendix F). The MEIM, unlike measures of ethnic identity that are specifically designed for a particular racial group (e.g., Helms's (1995) Black Racial Identity Attitude Scale), allows researchers to use the same instrument across racial and ethnic groups (Avery, Tonidandel, Thomas, Johnson, & Mack, 2007). In its current version, the MEIM contains two factors (i.e., Ethnic Identity Search and Affirmation, Belonging, and Commitment) and asks respondents to indicate their level of agreement on a 5-point Likert-type scale. Sample items for each scale are Ethnic Identity Search, "In order to learn more about my ethnic background, I have often

talked to other people about my ethnic group”; and Affirmation, Belonging, and Commitment, “I have a strong sense of belonging to my own ethnic group.”

Psychometric properties of the MEIM have been reported by several researchers. Phinney (1992) reported a Cronbach’s alpha of .90 for a sample of 136 college students, while Roberts et al. (1999) reported a Cronbach’s alpha of .84 from a sample of 5,496 middle school students. More recently, Ponterotto, Gretchen, Utsey, Stracuzzi, and Saya (2003) reviewed 12 studies that used the MEIM and calculated a mean reliability score of .86 (median of .85). Construct validity was initially measured by Phinney (1992) by calculating the correlation of the MEIM with Rosenberg’s (1986) Self Esteem Scale ($r = .31, p < .001$). Since then, the MEIM has been shown to correlate positively with measures of self-esteem, sense of mastery, and optimism and correlate negatively with measures of loneliness and depression (Roberts et al., 1999). Moreover, scores on the MEIM have been shown to predict one’s multicultural worldview and satisfaction in interracial college roommate dyads (Ponterotto et al., 2003).

Semantic Differential Scale

The semantic differential scale (Osgood et al., 1957; Appendix G) was developed to measure the meaning an individual ascribes to particular concepts. The general format of the semantic differential scale involves rating one or more concepts in relation to a series of bipolar adjectives (e.g., *mysterious – understandable, useless – useful*), which serve as descriptors of the investigated concept. Osgood et al. identified three factors or clusters of adjectives (i.e., evaluation, potency, and activity) underlying the semantic differential scale and recommend researchers select adjective pairs that best fit the goals of the research. In order to obtain a quantitative index, the authors suggest that the

unfavorable poles (e.g., mysterious, useless) be assigned a value of “1” while the favorable poles (e.g., understandable, useful) be assigned a value of “7,” thus creating a neutral point of “4” representing a balance between the bipolar adjective pairs.

The particular form of the semantic differential scale used for this study was constructed by the student researcher in consultation with his doctoral committee chairperson. First, two concepts were chosen for investigation: (1) my multicultural competence, and (2) preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner. Next, six bipolar adjective pairs were selected: four of an evaluative nature and one each for potency and activity. The evaluative pairs were: (1) *understandable – mysterious*, (2) *useful – useless*, (3) *positive – negative*, and (4) *meaningful – meaningless*. The selected bipolar adjective pairs offered factor loadings of .48 – 1.00 on the evaluative factor (Osgood et al., 1957). The adjective pair of *systematic – disorganized* represents the activity factor and has a corresponding loading of .23, while the adjective pair *strong – weak* presents a loading factor of .62 to the potency factor. As recommended by the authors, each adjective pair was selected on the basis of their individual relevance to the investigated concepts.

Treatments

Rationale

Responding to guidelines established in 1977 by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), teacher preparation programs (TPPs) have worked to implement coursework, field experiences, and other learning opportunities designed to prepare public school teachers to work more effectively within culturally heterogeneous school systems (Banks, 2004). Despite varied systemic approaches (e.g.,

stand-alone multicultural course(s), field-based immersion, multicultural themes weaved throughout many courses) and different pedagogical strategies (e.g., autobiography, cross-cultural letter exchange, simulation, lecture, debate), almost all TPPs striving to meet NCATE's guidelines attempt to raise awareness about issues related to race, ethnicity, and culture among predominantly White pre-service teachers (Sleeter, 2001).

Reviewers of teacher education scholarship from the past two decades have uncovered common desired outcomes, identified consistent problems, and formulated guidelines for TPPs working to better prepare teachers for work in heterogeneous school systems. Villegas and Lucas (2002) identified the following six desired outcomes of TPPs seeking to educate culturally responsive teachers: (1) gain sociocultural consciousness, (2) develop an affirming attitude toward students from diverse backgrounds, (3) develop the commitment and skills to act as agents of change, (4) embrace the constructivist foundation of culturally responsive teaching, (5) learn about students and their communities, and (6) cultivate the practice of culturally responsive teaching. Furthermore, Sleeter (2008) summarized the following four common interrelated problems of White PSTs: (1) most are "dysconscious" of how racism works in schools or in society at large, (2) most have lower expectations for students of color than for White students, (3) most are generally ignorant and fearful of communities of color and discussions of race and racism, and (4) most lack awareness of themselves as cultural beings. In order to meet the aforementioned goals while countering resistance, Middleton (2002) suggests TPPs adopt multicultural curricula that (1) is authentic and non-threatening, (2) is appropriate for the PSTs' level of cognitive and affective development, (3) is perceived as relevant to the PSTs' future success, (4) gently

facilitates an examination of one's own biases, and (5) allows time and space for PSTs to make changes in their thinking. Finally, several reviewers suggest that the greatest positive change in PSTs' attitudes and beliefs related to issues of race, ethnicity, and culture occurred when coursework and fieldwork were experienced concurrently (Anderson & Stillman, 2013; Castro, 2010; Cochran-Smith et al., 2004; Sleeter, 2000). Unfortunately, more than 30 years after NCATE's initial guidelines, Sleeter (2008) concluded, "Most teacher education programs lack a coherent and sustained approach" (p. 562) to adequately prepare White PSTs for work in culturally heterogeneous school systems.

In addition to guidelines, goals, and interrelated problems, scholars have recently illuminated common forms of resistance encountered when engaging White PSTs in coursework designed to increase awareness of issues related to race, ethnicity, and culture. Poor pre-class preparation, reluctance to engage in class discussions and activities, and a lack of commitment are some common forms of explicit resistance (Brown, 2004), while paralyzing feelings of anxiety, guilt, helplessness, fear, and sorrow may be understood as implicit resistance (Buehler, Gere, Dallavis, & Haviland, 2009). Villegas and Lucas (2002) attribute White PSTs' resistance to multicultural coursework to the high probability that these future teachers have spent most of their lives in segregated suburban communities, have attended predominantly White educational institutions, and may have family members who overtly espouse racist ideologies. In order to minimize resistance, researchers suggest spending time at the beginning of the course discussing students' potential reactions (Brown, 2004) and explaining cognitive dissonance theory (McFalls & Cobb-Roberts, 2001). Heinze (2008) advocates sharing

elements of one's personal journey related to race and racism as a way of normalizing uncomfortable feelings, challenging dichotomous thinking, and emphasizing process rather than an end product.

Although a relatively large body of conceptual and empirical literature exists regarding TPPs' attempts to address issues of race, culture, and ethnicity with PSTs, "basic changes in teacher education are necessary but have not occurred despite more than a quarter-century of attention" (Cochran-Smith et al., 2004, p. 945). Some common limitations and criticisms of this body of research are that many of the empirical investigations are authored by researchers who are also the professors, instructors, or advisors of the participants involved (Sleeter, 2001) and that the body of work is saturated with studies exploring the phenomenology of specific pedagogies rather than measuring and comparing outcomes of different pedagogical approaches (Cochran-Smith et al., 2004). Recent reviewers have suggested future teacher education research be more methodologically sophisticated, utilize a variety of measures, compare different pedagogical approaches, and explore whether different types of field placements affect learning outcomes (Borko et al., 2008; Castro, 2010; Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2008; Sleeter, 2008). This study attempts to respond to some of the criticism of multicultural education research by examining the effects of curriculum intended to increase PSTs' awareness of issues related to race, ethnicity, and culture while varying pedagogical delivery and type of field placement site.

Development of Curriculum

The curriculum designed for this study is influenced by scholarship from counseling psychology, multicultural education, and teacher education. Counseling

psychology has a robust literature base exploring how issues of race, ethnicity, and culture affect interpersonal relationships (Altmaier & Hansen, 2012). Multicultural education research has established rationale for challenging the status quo of formal education and has provided evidence for the positive consequences of such challenges (Banks & Banks, 2004). Investigators of teacher education have detailed successes as well as common shortcomings of TPPs and identified methods for better preparing teachers to work in heterogeneous school systems (Cochran-Smith et al., 2008). Thus, after careful review of literature from each discipline, curriculum was designed that is intended to help PSTs better understand themselves as cultural beings, gain greater awareness of the unique challenges faced by ethnic and racial minorities in the United States, increase their understanding of systemic racism and its effect on school systems, and identify ways they can harness their power to challenge the status quo and bring equity to educational outcomes.

Interactive Lectures

Over both semesters, seven participating sections of ED 4710 and ED 4750 were randomly assigned to treatment group A – Interactive Lectures. These seven sections, two in the fall and five in the spring, ranged in size from 4 to 10 pre-service teachers and accounted for 33 total participants. The student researcher facilitated both interactive lecture sections during the 2013 Fall semester and three of five interactive lecture sections during the 2014 Spring semester, while two assistant facilitators were each responsible for one interactive lecture section. It should be noted that one of the interactive lecture sections working with an assistant facilitator decided to withdraw from the treatment condition after 4 hours of instruction.

Participants in the interactive lecture condition were exposed to 8 hours of curriculum with special emphasis given to comprehension. Participants in this condition sat in rows and were told to expect the time to “feel like a classroom.” Given that interactive lectures have been shown to be effective at raising students’ awareness and sensitivity to issues of race, ethnicity, and culture (Heinze, 2008; Lawrence & Bunche, 1996; Nelson, 2010), facilitators used direct instruction, readings, and brief discussions to help participants understand concepts at a level sufficient to correctly answer factual multiple choice questions. See Appendix G for detailed interactive lecture lesson plans.

Experiential Group

Over both semesters, eight participating sections of ED 4710 and ED 4750 were randomly assigned to treatment group B – Experiential Group. These eight sections, two in the fall and six in the spring, ranged in size from 4 to 13 pre-service teachers and accounted for 53 total participants. The student researcher facilitated both experiential group sections during the 2013 Fall semester and four of six experiential group sections during the 2014 Spring semester, while two assistant facilitators were each responsible for one experiential group section. It should be noted that one of the experiential group sections working with the student researcher decided to withdraw from the treatment condition after 4 hours of instruction.

Participants in the experiential group condition were exposed 8 hours of curriculum with special emphasis given to interaction. Participants in this condition sat in a circle and were told to expect the time to “feel like a group.” Because experiential groups are noted for their “focus on feelings and interpersonal engagement, learning through action instead of just dialoguing, and on the present rather than the past”

(Marbley et al., 2007, p. 13), facilitators used activities, discussions, and basic counseling skills, such as reflection of feeling and immediacy, to help participants understand concepts at a level sufficient to explain the personal significance of the material. See Appendix H for detailed experiential group lesson plans.

No Treatment Control

Over both semesters, eight participating sections of ED 4710 and ED 4750 were randomly assigned to the no-treatment control group. These eight sections, three in the fall and five in the spring, ranged in from 4 to 7 pre-service teachers and accounted for 42 total participants. The no-treatment control group used the existing framework of Education 4710 and 4750 as designed by departmental faculty. Participants in the control condition received information about classroom management techniques, lesson planning, and standards-based instruction. They were also encouraged to discuss their field experiences and problem solve with fellow PSTs. Although topics of race, ethnicity, and culture may have come up organically, no special emphasis was given to these topics or to the other topics presented within the experimental conditions.

An overview of the curriculum follows (Table 2), with individual lesson plans located in Appendices G and H.

Table 2

Curriculum Overview

Week	Big Idea	Topics	Objective	Interactive Lecture Model	Experiential Group Model
1	Establishment of class norms and grounding in teacher education.	What do you know about teaching and learning? What works for you as a teacher? What are your growth areas as a teacher?	To become aware of one's teaching philosophy. To establish the learning environment as safe space.	Discuss group norms and rules; present teaching philosophies; discuss strengths and weaknesses.	Group develops norms and rules; students explain their views of teaching/learning; personal identification of strengths and weaknesses.
2	Multicultural education can be interpreted in many ways. Important discussions about race can sometimes become uncomfortable.	What is multicultural education? Why talk about race/ ethnicity/ culture? Why is it sometimes uncomfortable to talk about these topics?	To understand rationale of multicultural education. To normalize feelings of discomfort when talking about race.	Present goals and rationale of multicultural education; explain and discuss cognitive dissonance theory.	Students share their interpretations of multicultural education; students reflect on prior uncomfortable experiences talking about race.
3	Everyone has culture. White culture exists.	What is culture? What is your culture? What is White culture?	To become aware of one's own cultural behaviors, values, and biases. To become aware of dominant U.S. culture norms and values.	Present definition of culture; students brainstorm what their personal culture entails; presentation of White culture values. Class discussion.	Students complete "Describing Cultural Identity" (Pederson, 2004, p. 56) introduction of self as cultural being. Students identify commonalities and discuss White Culture.
4	U.S. culture exists. Race is socially constructed.	Further exploration of U.S. culture. What is race? When did your family become White?	To become aware of dominant U.S. culture norms and values. To understand race as a social construct.	Students compare U.S. cultural norms with those of other countries; present race as social construct.	Students complete and discuss "Western and Non-Western Perspectives" (Pederson, 2004, p. 38); discuss idea of race as social construct.

Table 2—Continued

Week	Big Idea	Topics	Objective	Interactive Lecture Model	Experiential Group Model
5	Racism results from power + prejudice. It is manifested today mostly via institutional racism.	What is racism? How has expression of racism changed over time? What is institutional racism?	To understand how racism is manifested today.	Present historical accounts of racism and an explanation of color-blind ideology	Share experience with racism; complete “Quadrants” exercise (Arizaga et al., 2005).
6	White Privilege is connected to institutional racism.	What is White Privilege?	To become aware of White Privilege.	Students view and discuss “True Colors”; present McIntosh’s (2003) Invisible Knapsack	Students view and discuss “True Colors”; students identify examples of White Privilege.
7	Institutional racism is manifested in school via tracking, low expectations, and school funding.	Where do we see institutional racism in school systems?	To identify manifestations of institutional racism in school systems.	Students view and discuss video “Blue/Brown Eyes”; reflective writing about evidence of institutional racism in school settings.	Students view and discuss video “Blue/Brown Eyes”; discuss examples of institutional racism in current field settings.
8	Teachers have power to combat institutional racism in school settings. Consolidation of learning.	What can White people do? What can teachers do? What have you learned? How have you been challenged? What do you still wonder about?	To increase confidence in PSTs’ ability to combat institutional racism.	Present list of White resistance movements and individuals; present and discuss suggestions of what teachers can do to challenge institutional racism in school settings.	Share personal examples of White resisters; share and discuss ideas for change.

Statistical Analyses

Independent and Dependent Variables

This study had two independent variables, four dependent variables, and two levels. The independent variables were the two pedagogical approaches (i.e., interactive lectures and experiential learning). The dependent variables are outcome scores as measured by the Teacher Multicultural Attitude Scale (TMAS; Ponterotto et al., 1998), the Color-Blind Racial Attitudes Scale (CoBRAS; Neville et al., 2000), the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM; Phinney, 1992), and a semantic differential scale (Osgood et al., 1957) designed specifically for this study. The two levels, high racial diversity and low racial diversity, are in reference to field placement site and were determined by percentage of racial diversity. In the state of Michigan, 80% of residents identify as White (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010); therefore, for the purpose of this study, high racial diversity sites were those schools in which students of color represent more than 25% of the total student population. Table 3 summarizes the research design for this study, including number of participants in each condition.

Table 3

Summary of Research Design

Condition	Treatment A (Interactive Lecture)	Treatment B (Experiential Group)	Treatment C (Control)
High Diversity Site (≥25% students of color)	20 participants	12 participants	3 participants
Low Diversity Site (<25% students of color)	4 participants	22 participants	25 participants

Statistical Procedure

A factorial multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was used to determine whether there were differences between treatment groups and to identify interaction effects between group membership and treatment condition. Analysis of covariance is a statistical technique that combines regression analysis with analysis of variance in an effort to eliminate systematic bias and reduce within group variance. Analysis of covariance is particularly useful when sample sizes are small (<10 per group) or when randomization procedures cannot be followed (Stevens, 1986). MANCOVA also requires the selection of appropriate covariates. According to Stevens (1986), covariates should be significantly correlated with the dependent variables and have low correlations among themselves. For this study, pretest scores on the TMAS, CoBRAS, and MEIM were used as covariates. This study's sample size of 86 was more than double the suggested minimum sample size of 41 as calculated using guidelines proposed by Huitema's (1978) ratio:

$$\frac{C+(J-1)}{N} < .10$$

where C is the number of covariates, J is the number of groups, and N is total sample size.

Anticipated Results

It was expected that participants would show positive change on the outcome measures in response to the implemented treatments. Results were expected to support past research that suggested experiential learning has a greater effect on changing attitudes compared to interactive lectures (Oakes & Lipton, 2006). It was also expected

that pre-service teachers placed in a high-diversity site would experience greater change relative to their peers placed in low-diversity sites regardless of the treatment condition. Overall, the greatest change was expected from those individuals placed in a high-diversity site combined with experiential group learning activities. For a detailed explanation of results, please refer to Chapter IV.

Limitations

A few limitations must be considered regarding the methodology employed in this study. First, this study was based exclusively on self-report measures. However, given the adequate reliability and validity of the selected instruments, the degree of measurement error is no greater than other studies using self-report measures. Second, the racial and ethnic homogeneity of the sample (i.e., > 90% White) does not allow for generalization to more heterogeneous populations. Although this may be considered a limitation, it is important to remember that approximately 84% of U.S. teachers are White (NCES, 2006). A third limitation may be that the sample was comprised entirely of pre-service teachers (PSTs). While PSTs were the intended demographic for this study, results may not generalize to the larger population of more experienced and credentialed teachers. Finally, only changes in pre-service teachers' attitudes, as measured by four instruments, were quantified by this research; long-term effects were not measured, nor were effects on the pre-service teachers' students captured.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS OF DATA ANALYSIS

This study was designed to examine the extent to which variation in pedagogical approach of an intentionally designed 8-hour curriculum affected pre-service teachers' multicultural awareness and sensitivity, endorsement of color-blind attitudes, exploration of and commitment to ethnic identity, and perception of their own multicultural competence and their preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner. Pre-service teachers' (PSTs) multicultural awareness and sensitivity was measured with the Teacher Multicultural Attitude Scale (TMAS; Ponterotto et al., 1998); PSTs' exploration of and commitment to ethnic identity was measured using the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM; Phinney, 1992); PSTs' endorsement of color-blind attitudes was measured by the Color-Blind Racial Attitudes Scale (CoBRAS; Neville et al., 2000); and PSTs' perception of their own multicultural competence and their preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner was measured using a semantic differential scale (SDS) designed for this study. In addition to examining differences between pedagogical approaches, this study examined the extent to which differences in field placement site (i.e., high racial diversity or low racial diversity) affected the aforementioned beliefs and attitudes of pre-service teachers. Lastly, this study examined the unique interaction effects of pedagogical approach combined with racial diversity of field placement site. The specific research questions were:

1. Is there a main effect of pedagogical approach on outcome measures?
2. Is there a main effect of racial diversity of field placement site on outcome measures?
3. Is there an interaction effect of pedagogical approach and of racial diversity of field placement site on outcome measures?

IBM's SPSS software (Version 21) was used to conduct all statistical analyses presented in this study. Multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was used to assess for mean group differences between the two treatment groups and the control group on pretest scores and posttest scores for the TMAS (Ponterotto et al., 1998), the CoBRAS (Neville et al., 2000), and the MEIM (Phinney, 1992). Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to assess for mean group differences between the two treatment groups and the control group on scores for the SDS. Results are reported at an $\alpha = .05$ with sufficient power greater than .60 to reject the following null hypotheses:

H_{01} : There are no statistically significant differences in levels of multicultural awareness and sensitivity, endorsement of color-blind attitudes, exploration of and commitment to ethnic identity, and perception of multicultural competence and preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner between pre-service teachers who participated in interactive lectures, experiential groups, and no-treatment control groups.

H_{02} : There are no statistically significant differences in levels of multicultural awareness and sensitivity, endorsement of color-blind attitudes, exploration of and commitment to ethnic identity, and perception of multicultural competence and preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner between pre-service teachers

who completed their intern teaching experience at a high diversity site or at a low diversity site.

H₀₃: There is no statistically significant interaction effect of pedagogical approach combined with level of racial and ethnic diversity of intern teaching site regarding pre-service teachers' levels of multicultural awareness and sensitivity, endorsement of color-blind attitudes, exploration of and commitment to ethnic identity, and perception of multicultural competence and preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner.

Descriptive Statistics of Dependent Variables

Teacher Multicultural Attitude Scale

Participants' multicultural awareness and sensitivity was measured with the 20-item Likert-type Teacher Multicultural Attitude Scale (TMAS; Ponterotto et. al., 1998). The TMAS asks for responses of 1 (*strongly disagree*) through 5 (*strongly agree*) to statements such as: (1) I find teaching a culturally diverse student group rewarding; (2) Multicultural awareness training can help me to work more effectively with a diverse student population; and (3) I am aware of the diversity of cultural backgrounds in my class. The instrument also includes several statements that are reversed scored, such as: (1) Sometimes I think there is too much emphasis placed on multicultural awareness and training for teachers; (2) It is not the teacher's responsibility to encourage pride in one's culture; and (3) Students should learn to communicate in English only. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis yielded empirical support for a single-factor model of general multicultural awareness and sensitivity whereby individuals scoring high tend to better understand cultural diversity and feel empowered to address issues of diversity and

inclusion within the curriculum and the teaching–learning process (Ponterotto et. al., 1998). Descriptive statistics (i.e., mean, standard deviation, n) for each condition (i.e., control, experiential group, interactive lecture) and level (i.e., low diversity, high diversity) are presented in Table 4

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics – TMAS, by Treatment Condition and Site Diversity

	Treatment Condition	Site Diversity	Mean	Std. Deviation	n
TMAS	Control	Low Diversity	3.93	.34	25
		High Diversity	3.88	.43	3
		Total	3.92	.34	28
	Experiential Group	Low Diversity	4.00	.70	21
		High Diversity	4.05	.52	12
		Total	4.02	.63	33
	Interactive Lecture	Low Diversity	4.39	.17	4
		High Diversity	4.21	.29	20
		Total	4.24	.28	24

Color-Blind Racial Attitude Scale

Participants' endorsement of color-blind attitudes was measured by the Color-Blind Racial Attitudes Scale (CoBRAS; Neville et. al., 2000). The CoBRAS is a 20-item Likert-type scale with responses ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*), where higher scores indicate a greater endorsement of the general belief that “race should and does not matter” (Neville et al., p. 60). The main scale can be divided into three subscales (e.g., Unawareness of Racial Privilege, Unawareness of Institutional Racism, and Unawareness of Blatant Racial Issues) and asks participants to respond to statements such as: (1) White people in the U.S. have certain advantages because of the color of their

skin; (2) English should be the only official language in the U.S.; and (3) Racism is a major problem in the U.S. Descriptive statistics (i.e., mean, standard deviation, *n*) for each condition (i.e., control, experiential group, interactive lecture) and level (i.e., low diversity, high diversity) are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics – CoBRAS Full Scale and Subscales, by Treatment Condition and Site Diversity

	Treatment Condition	Site Diversity	Mean	Std. Deviation	<i>n</i>
CoBRAS Full Scale	Control	Low Diversity	2.59	.40	25
		High Diversity	2.83	.88	3
		Total	2.61	.46	28
	Experiential Group	Low Diversity	2.37	.52	21
		High Diversity	2.38	.78	12
		Total	2.37	.61	33
	Interactive Lecture	Low Diversity	1.90	.18	4
		High Diversity	2.36	.48	20
		Total	2.28	.47	24
CoBRAS Racial Privilege	Control	Low Diversity	2.86	.54	25
		High Diversity	3.10	1.32	3
		Total	2.89	.63	28
	Experiential Group	Low Diversity	2.50	.71	21
		High Diversity	2.51	1.01	12
		Total	2.51	.82	33
	Interactive Lecture	Low Diversity	1.93	.55	4
		High Diversity	2.51	.66	20
		Total	2.42	.67	24

Table 5—Continued

	Treatment Condition	Site Diversity	Mean	Std. Deviation	<i>n</i>
CoBRAS Institutional Discrimination	Control	Low Diversity	2.74	.58	25
		High Diversity	3.00	.49	3
		Total	2.78	.57	28
	Experiential Group	Low Diversity	2.65	.60	21
		High Diversity	2.61	.71	12
		Total	2.63	.63	33
	Interactive Lecture	Low Diversity	2.14	.31	4
		High Diversity	2.58	.57	20
		Total	2.51	.55	24
CoBRAS Blatant Racial Issues	Control	Low Diversity	2.08	.41	25
		High Diversity	2.33	1.04	3
		Total	2.11	.48	28
	Experiential Group	Low Diversity	1.88	.65	21
		High Diversity	1.94	.74	12
		Total	1.90	.67	33
	Interactive Lecture	Low Diversity	1.59	.29	4
		High Diversity	1.93	.46	20
		Total	1.87	.45	24

Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure

Pre-service teachers' ethnic identity was measured using with the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM; Phinney, 1992). The MEIM is a 15-item instrument containing 12 statements that prompt respondents to indicate their level of agreement on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) and three items asking respondents to identify the ethnicity of themselves, their mother, and their father. The current version of the MEIM contains two subscales (i.e., Ethnic Identity Search and Affirmation, Belonging, and Commitment) and asks respondents to consider

statements such as: (1) I think a lot about how my life will be affected by my ethnic group membership; and (2) I feel a strong attachment towards my own ethnic group.

Higher scores on the MEIM indicate greater awareness of oneself as a cultural being and deeper understanding of the ways in which ethnicity affects one's life (Phinney, 1992).

Descriptive statistics (i.e., mean, standard deviation, *n*) for each condition (i.e., control, experiential group, interactive lecture) and level (i.e., low diversity, high diversity) are presented in Table 6.

Semantic Differential Scale

A specially designed semantic differential scale (Osgood et al., 1957) was used to measure the meaning participants ascribed to two particular concepts (i.e., My multicultural competence, and Preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner). The general format of the semantic differential scale (SDS) involves rating one or more concepts in relation to a series of bipolar adjectives (e.g., *mysterious – understandable, useless – useful*) that serve as descriptors of the investigated concept. In order to obtain a quantitative index, unfavorable poles (e.g., mysterious, useless) were assigned a value of “1,” while favorable poles (e.g., understandable, useful) were assigned a value of “7,” thus creating a neutral point of “4” representing a balance between the bipolar adjective pairs. Higher scores on the SDS indicate the respondent endorses a more favorable understanding of the investigated concept. Descriptive statistics (i.e., mean, standard deviation, *n*) for each condition (i.e., control, experiential group, interactive lecture) and level (i.e., low diversity, high diversity) are presented in Tables 7 and 8.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics – MEIM Full Scale and Subscales, by Treatment Condition and Site Diversity

	Treatment Condition	Site Diversity	Mean	Std. Deviation	<i>n</i>
MEIM Full Scale	Control	Low Diversity	3.22	.65	25
		High Diversity	3.28	.49	3
		Total	3.22	.63	28
	Experiential Group	Low Diversity	3.57	.47	21
		High Diversity	2.97	.97	12
		Total	3.35	.74	33
	Interactive Lecture	Low Diversity	4.02	.59	4
		High Diversity	3.52	.41	20
		Total	3.60	.47	24
MEIM Ethnic Identity Search	Control	Low Diversity	3.35	.73	25
		High Diversity	3.15	.90	3
		Total	3.28	.74	28
	Experiential Group	Low Diversity	3.85	.46	21
		High Diversity	3.18	.93	12
		Total	3.29	.67	33
	Interactive Lecture	Low Diversity	3.21	.68	4
		High Diversity	3.178	.66	20
		Total	3.20	.70	24
MEIM Affirmation, Belonging, and Commitment	Control	Low Diversity	3.42	.66	25
		High Diversity	3.29	.29	3
		Total	3.40	.63	28
	Experiential Group	Low Diversity	3.64	.54	21
		High Diversity	3.12	1.06	12
		Total	3.45	.80	33
	Interactive Lecture	Low Diversity	4.14	.63	4
		High Diversity	3.64	.52	20
		Total	3.72	.56	24

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics – SDS; My Multicultural Competence Bipolar Adjective Pairs, by Treatment Condition and Site Diversity

	Treatment Condition	Site Diversity	Mean	Std. Deviation	<i>n</i>	
Mysterious vs. Understandable	Control	Low Diversity	4.92	1.12	25	
		High Diversity	4.67	2.52	3	
		Total	4.89	1.26	28	
	Experiential Group	Low Diversity	5.57	.87	21	
		High Diversity	5.08	1.24	12	
		Total	5.39	1.03	33	
	Interactive Lecture	Low Diversity	6.25	.50	4	
		High Diversity	5.50	.89	20	
		Total	5.63	.88	24	
	Meaningless vs. Meaningful	Control	Low Diversity	4.96	1.54	25
			High Diversity	5.77	1.53	3
			Total	5.04	1.53	28
Experiential Group		Low Diversity	6.05	.92	21	
		High Diversity	6.00	1.65	12	
		Total	6.03	1.21	33	
Interactive Lecture		Low Diversity	5.50	2.38	4	
		High Diversity	5.50	1.67	20	
		Total	5.50	1.75	24	
Weak vs. Strong		Control	Low Diversity	4.80	1.26	25
			High Diversity	4.00	1.73	3
			Total	4.71	1.30	28
	Experiential Group	Low Diversity	5.33	1.02	21	
		High Diversity	5.33	.78	12	
		Total	5.33	.92	33	
	Interactive Lecture	Low Diversity	6.00	.00	4	
		High Diversity	5.45	1.15	20	
		Total	5.54	1.06	24	

Table 7—Continued

	Treatment Condition	Site Diversity	Mean	Std. Deviation	<i>n</i>	
Useless vs. Useful	Control	Low Diversity	5.12	1.39	25	
		High Diversity	5.00	1.00	3	
		Total	5.11	1.34	28	
	Experiential Group	Low Diversity	6.38	.67	21	
		High Diversity	5.83	1.70	12	
		Total	6.18	1.16	33	
	Interactive Lecture	Low Diversity	5.25	2.22	4	
		High Diversity	6.05	1.23	20	
		Total	5.92	1.41	24	
	Disorganized vs. Systematic	Control	Low Diversity	4.16	1.14	25
			High Diversity	4.67	1.16	3
			Total	4.21	1.13	28
Experiential Group		Low Diversity	4.81	1.08	21	
		High Diversity	4.50	.91	12	
		Total	4.70	1.02	33	
Interactive Lecture		Low Diversity	4.75	1.89	4	
		High Diversity	5.35	.933	20	
		Total	5.25	1.11	24	
Negative vs. Positive		Control	Low Diversity	5.12	1.17	25
			High Diversity	5.67	1.16	3
			Total	5.18	1.16	28
	Experiential Group	Low Diversity	6.10	.96	21	
		High Diversity	6.08	1.68	12	
		Total	6.09	1.26	33	
	Interactive Lecture	Low Diversity	6.00	1.16	4	
		High Diversity	6.10	.72	20	
		Total	6.08	.78	24	

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics – SDS; Preparation to Teach in a Multiculturally Competent Manner Bipolar Adjective Pairs, by Treatment Condition and Site Diversity

	Treatment Condition	Site Diversity	Mean	Std. Deviation	<i>n</i>
Mysterious vs. Understandable	Control	Low Diversity	4.56	1.26	25
		High Diversity	5.67	1.16	3
		Total	4.68	1.28	28
	Experiential Group	Low Diversity	5.38	1.32	21
		High Diversity	5.25	1.29	12
		Total	5.33	1.29	33
	Interactive Lecture	Low Diversity	5.25	2.22	4
		High Diversity	5.65	.99	20
		Total	5.58	1.21	24
Meaningless vs. Meaningful	Control	Low Diversity	5.04	1.34	25
		High Diversity	5.67	.58	3
		Total	5.11	1.29	28
	Experiential Group	Low Diversity	6.33	.80	21
		High Diversity	6.17	.72	12
		Total	6.27	.76	33
	Interactive Lecture	Low Diversity	5.75	1.26	4
		High Diversity	6.14	.91	20
		Total	6.12	1.08	24
Weak vs. Strong	Control	Low Diversity	4.12	1.33	25
		High Diversity	5.00	1.00	3
		Total	4.21	1.32	28
	Experiential Group	Low Diversity	5.14	1.06	21
		High Diversity	5.50	.80	12
		Total	5.27	.98	33
	Interactive Lecture	Low Diversity	5.00	2.71	4
		High Diversity	5.35	.99	20
		Total	5.29	1.33	24

Table 8—Continued

	Treatment Condition	Site Diversity	Mean	Std. Deviation	<i>n</i>
Useless vs. Useful	Control	Low Diversity	5.12	1.33	25
		High Diversity	6.00	.00	3
		Total	5.12	1.29	28
	Experiential Group	Low Diversity	6.48	.75	21
		High Diversity	6.33	.65	12
		Total	6.42	.71	33
	Interactive Lecture	Low Diversity	6.50	.56	4
		High Diversity	6.35	.88	20
		Total	6.37	.82	24
Disorganized vs. Systematic	Control	Low Diversity	4.08	1.19	25
		High Diversity	4.00	1.73	3
		Total	4.07	1.22	28
	Experiential Group	Low Diversity	5.29	.96	21
		High Diversity	4.67	.91	12
		Total	5.06	1.12	33
	Interactive Lecture	Low Diversity	5.25	1.50	4
		High Diversity	5.60	.88	20
		Total	5.54	.98	24
Negative vs. Positive	Control	Low Diversity	5.28	1.14	25
		High Diversity	5.67	.58	3
		Total	5.32	1.10	28
	Experiential Group	Low Diversity	6.10	1.26	21
		High Diversity	6.00	1.65	12
		Total	6.06	1.39	33
	Interactive Lecture	Low Diversity	5.75	1.89	4
		High Diversity	6.30	.92	20
		Total	6.21	1.10	24

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Three research questions and associated null hypotheses were developed for this study. Each of these questions was addressed using inferential statistical analysis and all decisions of statistical significance were made using a criterion alpha of .05 with power greater than .60 to reject the null hypothesis. Considerations of practical significance were informed by Cohen's (1977) suggestions and guidelines from Stevens (1986), whereby "an effect size around .20 is small, an effect size around .50 is medium, and an effect size $> .80$ is large" (p. 138). Finally, although several test statistics may be reported, Roy's largest root will be utilized given its general acceptance as the most powerful measure of mean between-group differences (Field, 2000).

Assumptions of Normality

Prior to engaging in inferential statistical analysis, Field's (2000) guidelines were used to check the data for the following assumptions: normally distributed data, equality of error variances, homogeneity of covariance matrices, homogeneity of regression slopes, and independence of observations.

Normally distributed data. To test the assumption of normally distributed data, a histogram was created for each outcome measure and visually inspected. Results indicated that all data were normally distributed.

Equality of error variances. To test the assumption of equality of error variances, Levene's test was used for the covariate outcome measures. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 9.

Table 9

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

	<i>F</i> ratio	<i>df</i> 1	<i>df</i> 2	<i>p</i>
TMAS	1.18	5	79	.327
CoBRAS	1.98	5	79	.090
MEIM	1.03	5	79	.406

No statistically significant results were found, thus retaining the null hypothesis of no difference between error variances for the covariate outcome measures.

Homogeneity of covariance matrices. To test the assumption of homogeneity of covariance matrices, Box's test was used for the covariate outcome measures. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 10.

Table 10

Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices

Box's <i>M</i>	<i>F</i> Ratio	<i>df</i> 1	<i>df</i> 2	<i>p</i>
78.28	2.68	24	868	.000**

** $p \leq .001$

Statistically significant results were found, thus rejecting the null hypothesis of no difference between covariance matrices for the covariate outcome measures.

Homogeneity of regression slopes. To test the assumption of homogeneity of regression slopes, a three-dimensional scatterplot was created displaying the relationship for pretest and posttest scores on the three outcome measures (i.e., TMAS, CoBRAS, and MEIM) for each of the three treatment conditions (i.e., control, experiential group, and

interactive lecture) and visually inspected. Results indicated that the assumption of homogeneity of regression slopes was met.

Independence of observations. The independence assumption dictates that each participant or observation in a data set must be independent from each other. This assumption was met by the research design explained in Chapter III and further controlled for by comparing between-subject effects via use of pretest scores as covariates.

Summary. Four of five assumptions of normality were met for the data set used in the present study. According to Field (2000), violating the assumption of homogeneity of covariance matrices is common when equal numbers of participants cannot be assured for each treatment condition, as is the case with the present study.

Scale Reliability

To measure internal consistency Cronbach's alphas were computed for pre- and posttests for each of the scales. All scales showed high levels of reliability ranging from .778 to .889; Table 11 presents respective Cronbach's alphas for each scale.

Table 11

Cronbach's Alphas

Scale	Pretest	Posttest
TMAS	.778	.889
CoBRAS	.821	.844
MEIM	.855	.848

Research Question 1

Is there a main effect of pedagogical approach on outcome measures?

H_{01} : There are no statistically significant differences in levels of multicultural awareness and sensitivity, endorsement of color-blind attitudes, exploration of and commitment to ethnic identity, and perception of multicultural competence and preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner between pre-service teachers who participated in interactive lectures, experiential groups, and no-treatment control groups.

A two-way multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was used to determine whether the experimental groups differed from the control group on the three outcome measures (i.e., TMAS, CoBRAS, MEIM). The two independent variables were treatment condition (i.e., control, experiential group, interactive lecture) and site diversity (i.e., high or low) with posttest scores on the three instruments serving as dependent variables. Participants' pretest scores on each measure were used as covariates in the analysis. Table 12 presents results of the MANCOVA for the main effect of treatment condition.

Table 12

Multivariate Analysis of Covariance – Multicultural Awareness as Measured by TMAS, CoBRAS, and MEIM by Treatment Condition

Roy's Largest Root	F ratio	df	p	η^2	Observed Power
.25	6.31	3, 74	.001**	.30	.96

** $p \leq .001$.

The results of the MANCOVA comparing posttest scores for the three outcome measures by treatment condition after removing the effects of the pretest scores for these measures was statistically significant, $F(3, 74) = 6.31, p = .001, \eta^2 = .30$. The effect size of .30 is between accepted levels for small (i.e., .20) and medium (i.e., .50) effect sizes and thus indicates that in addition to statistical significance, the observed between-group differences also have practical significance. This effect size provides support that the observed differences between treatment groups and the control group is not based on sample size, but rather reflected a true difference between the groups. Finally, the observed power of .96 is sufficiently higher than the a priori threshold of .60. To determine which of the individual instruments were contributing to the statistically significant difference on the MANCOVA, between-subject effects were examined. Table 13 presents the results of this analysis.

Table 13

Between Subject Effects – Teacher Multicultural Attitude Scale, Color-Blind Racial Attitude Scale, and Multi Ethnic Identity Measure

Instrument	<i>F</i> ratio	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2	Observed Power
TMAS	2.74	1, 76	.102	.04	.37
CoBRAS	26.91	1, 76	.000**	.26	.99
MEIM	98.18	1, 76	.000**	.56	1.00

** $p \leq .001$.

Statistically significant between-subject differences on two of the three outcome measures (i.e., CoBRAS, MEIM) contributed to the statistically significant outcome on the full MANCOVA. Specifically, posttest mean scores on the CoBRAS for the

treatment groups was significantly lower than the control group, $F(1, 76) = 26.91$, $p = .000$, $\eta^2 = .26$. This indicates that participants in the treatment groups endorsed lower levels of color-blind attitudes (i.e., the belief that race does not and should not matter) compared to control participants. The relatively small effect size of .26 provided evidence that the observed between-subjects difference had small practical significance, although the difference was statistically significant. Next, posttest mean scores on the MEIM for the treatment groups was significantly higher than the control group, $F(1, 76) = 26.91$, $p = .000$, $\eta^2 = .56$, indicating participants in the treatment groups had greater awareness of themselves as cultural beings and deeper understanding of the ways in which ethnicity affects one's life. The large effect size of .56 provided evidence that, in addition to statistical significance, the observed between-subjects mean differences also had meaningful practical significance. Finally, comparison of posttest mean scores on the TMAS for the treatment groups was not significantly different than the control group, $F(1, 76) = 2.74$, $p = .102$, $\eta^2 = .04$.

In order to investigate mean group differences between treatment conditions and the control group on the semantic differential scale, a two-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted for each investigated concept (i.e., My multicultural competence, Preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner). The two independent variables were treatment condition (i.e., control, experiential group, interactive lecture) and site diversity (i.e., high or low) with scores on the semantic differential scale serving as dependent variables. Results of that analysis are presented in Table 14.

Table 14

Multivariate Analysis of Variance – Semantic Differential Scale by Treatment Group

Concept	Roy's Largest Root	F ratio	df	p	η^2	Observed Power
My multicultural competence	.14	1.67	6, 74	.139	.12	.61
Preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner	.19	2.37	6, 74	.038*	.16	.78

* $p \leq .05$.

The results of the MANOVA comparing scores on the semantic differential scale by treatment condition were statistically significant for one of two concepts. For the concept, “My multicultural competence,” no statistical significant differences were observed between treatment groups and the control group, $F(6, 74) = 1.67, p = .139, \eta^2 = .12$. However, mean group differences between treatment conditions and the control group were found to be statistically significant for the concept “Preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner,” $F(6, 74) = 2.37, p = .038, \eta^2 = .16$. The effect size of .16 is under the accepted level for small (i.e., .20) effect sizes and thus indicates that the observed between-group differences may only have little practical significance, although the difference was statistically significant. Finally, the observed power of .78 is sufficiently higher than the a priori threshold of .60. To determine which of the bipolar adjective pairs were contributing to the statistically significant difference on the MANOVA for the concept “Preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner,” between-subject effects were examined. Table 15 presents the results of this analysis.

Table 15

Between Subject Effects – Semantic Differentia Scale, Preparation to Teach in a Multiculturally Competent Manner

Bipolar Adjective Pair	<i>F</i> ratio	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2	Observed Power
Mysterious vs. Understandable	.21	2, 79	.811	.01	.08
Meaningless vs. Meaningful	2.87	2, 79	.062	.07	.55
Weak vs. Strong	1.59	2, 79	.210	.04	.33
Useful vs. Useless	3.33	2, 79	.041*	.08	.61
Disorganized vs. Systematic	4.73	2, 79	.011*	.11	.78
Negative vs. Positive	.91	2, 79	.406	.02	.20

* $p \leq .05$.

Regarding the concept “Preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner,” two of the six bipolar adjective pairs contributed to the statistically significant outcome on the full MANOVA. Specifically, mean scores for the adjective pair “*useful – useless*” for the treatment groups were significantly lower than the control group, $F(2, 79) = 3.33, p = .041, \eta^2 = .08$. Similarly, mean scores for the adjective pair “*disorganized – systematic*” for the treatment groups were also significantly lower than the control group, $F(2, 79) = 4.73, p = .011, \eta^2 = .11$. However, the small effect sizes of .08 and .11, respectively, provided evidence that the observed between-subject differences had only little practical significance, although the differences were statistically significant.

In summary with regard to research question 1, significant statistical and practical differences were found between treatment groups and the control group on two of the three outcome measures (i.e., CoBRAS and MEIM), while statistical significant differences were found between treatment groups and the control group for one of two concepts (i.e., Preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner) investigated by the semantic differential scale. Based on these findings, the null hypothesis of no difference between treatment conditions and control group on levels of multicultural awareness and sensitivity, endorsement of color-blind attitudes, exploration of and commitment to ethnic identity, and perception of multicultural competence and preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner can be partially rejected.

Research Question 2

Is there a main effect of racial diversity of field placement site on outcome measures?

H_{02} : There are no statistically significant differences in levels of multicultural awareness and sensitivity, endorsement of color-blind attitudes, exploration of and commitment to ethnic identity, and perception of multicultural competence and preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner between pre-service teachers who completed their intern teaching experience at a high diversity site or at a low diversity site.

A two-way multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was used to determine whether differences existed on the three outcome measures (i.e., TMAS, CoBRAS, MEIM) between pre-service teachers completing their field experiences at high diversity sites and pre-service teachers completing their field experiences at low

diversity sites. The two independent variables were treatment condition (i.e., control, experiential group, interactive lecture) and site diversity (i.e., high or low) with posttest scores on the three instruments serving as dependent variables. Participants' pretest scores on each measure were used as covariates in the analysis. Table 16 presents results of the MANCOVA for the main effect of site diversity.

Table 16

Multivariate Analysis of Covariance – Multicultural Awareness as Measured by TMAS, CoBRAS, and MEIM by Site Diversity

Roy's Largest Root	<i>F</i> ratio	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2	Observed Power
.10	2.38	3, 74	.077	.09	.57

The results of the MANCOVA comparing posttest scores for the three outcome measures by site diversity after removing the effects of the pretest scores for these measures was not statistically significant, $F(3, 74) = 2.38, p = .077, \eta^2 = .09$. It should be noted, however, that the observed power of .57 was less than the a priori threshold of .60 and thus indicates this study may have lacked the ability to discover whether a true difference existed on outcome measures between pre-service teachers completing their field experiences at high diversity sites compared to pre-service teachers completing their field experiences at low diversity sites.

In order to investigate mean group differences on the semantic differential scale between pre-service teachers completing their field experiences at high diversity sites and pre-service teachers completing their field experiences at low diversity sites, a two-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted for each investigated

concept (i.e., My multicultural competence, Preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner). The two independent variables were treatment condition (i.e., control, experiential group, interactive lecture) and site diversity (i.e., high or low) with scores on the semantic differential scale serving as dependent variables. Results of that analysis are presented in Table 17.

Table 17

Multivariate Analysis of Variance – Semantic Differential Scale by Site Diversity

Concept	Roy's Largest Root	F ratio	df	p	η^2	Observed Power
My multicultural competence	.10	1.11	6, 74	.367	.08	.41
Preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner	.07	.90	6, 74	.497	.07	.34

The results of the MANOVA comparing scores on the semantic differential scale by site diversity were not statistically significant for either of the two concepts. It should be noted, however, that the observed powers of .41 and .34, respectively, were less than the a priori threshold of .60 and thus indicates this study may have lacked the ability to discover whether a true difference existed on the semantic differential scale between pre-service teachers completing their field experiences at high diversity sites compared to pre-service teachers completing their field experiences at low diversity sites.

In summary with regard to research question 2, no significant statistical differences were found between pre-service teachers completing their field experiences at high diversity sites and pre-service teachers completing their field experiences at low

diversity sites on the three outcome measures (i.e., TMAS, CoBRAS, MEIM), or on the two concepts (i.e., My multicultural competence, and Preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner) investigated by the semantic differential scale. Based on these findings, the null hypothesis of no statistically significant differences in levels of multicultural awareness and sensitivity, endorsement of color-blind attitudes, exploration of and commitment to ethnic identity, and perception of multicultural competence and preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner between pre-service teachers who completed their intern teaching experience at a high diversity site and pre-service teachers completing their field experiences at a low diversity site is retained.

Research Question 3

Is there an interaction effect of pedagogical approach and of racial diversity of field placement site on outcome measures?

H_{03} : There is no statistically significant interaction effect of pedagogical approach combined with level of racial and ethnic diversity of intern teaching site regarding pre-service teachers' levels of multicultural awareness and sensitivity, endorsement of color-blind attitudes, exploration of and commitment to ethnic identity, and perception of multicultural competence and preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner.

A two-way multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was used to determine whether treatment condition and site diversity interacted to produce mean group differences on the three outcome measures (i.e., TMAS, CoBRAS, MEIM). The two independent variables were treatment condition (i.e., control, experiential group, interactive lecture) and site diversity (i.e., high or low) with posttest scores on the three

instruments serving as dependent variables. Participants' pretest scores on each measure were used as covariates in the analysis. Table 18 presents results of the MANCOVA for the interaction effect of treatment condition and site diversity.

Table 18

Multivariate Analysis of Covariance – Multicultural Awareness as Measured by TMAS, CoBRAS, and MEIM by Treatment Condition and Site Diversity

Roy's Largest Root	<i>F</i> ratio	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2	Observed Power
.05	1.26	3, 74	.293	.05	.33

The results of the MANCOVA comparing posttest scores on the three outcome measures by treatment condition and site diversity after removing the effects of the pretest scores for these measures were not statistically significant, $F(3, 74) = 1.26$, $p = .293$, $\eta^2 = .05$. It should be noted, however, that the observed power of .33 was far less than the a priori threshold of .60 and thus indicates this study may have lacked the ability to discover whether treatment condition and site diversity interacted to produce true differences on the outcome measures.

In order to investigate whether treatment condition and site diversity interacted to produce mean group differences on the semantic differential scale, a two-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted for each investigated concept (i.e., My multicultural competence, and Preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner). The two independent variables were treatment condition (i.e., control, experiential group, interactive lecture) and site diversity (i.e., high or low) with

scores on the semantic differential scale serving as dependent variables. Results of that analysis are presented in Table 19.

Table 19

Multivariate Analysis of Variance – Semantic Differential Scale by Treatment Condition and Site Diversity

Concept	Roy's Largest Root	F ratio	df	p	η^2	Observed Power
My multicultural competence	.12	1.49	6, 74	.193	.11	.55
Preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner	.07	.90	6, 74	.497	.07	.34

The results of the MANOVA comparing scores on the semantic differential scale by treatment condition and site diversity were not statistically significant for either of the two concepts. It should be noted, however, that the observed powers of .55 and .34, respectively, were less than the a priori threshold of .60 and thus indicates this study may have lacked the ability to discover whether treatment condition and site diversity interacted to produce a difference on the two investigated concepts of the semantic differential scale.

In summary with regard to research question 3, no significant statistical interaction effects for treatment condition and site diversity were found on the three outcome measures (i.e., TMAS, CoBRAS, MEIM), or on the two concepts (i.e., My multicultural competence, and Preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner) investigated by the semantic differential scale. Based on these findings, the null

hypothesis of no statistically significant interaction effects of treatment condition and site diversity on pre-service teachers' levels of multicultural awareness and sensitivity, endorsement of color-blind attitudes, exploration of and commitment to ethnic identity, and perception of multicultural competence and preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner is retained.

Post Hoc Analyses

Instrument Subscales

In order to better understand the statistically significant MANCOVA results of treatment effects on the CoBRAS and the MEIM, post hoc tests were conducted according to Field's (2000) guidelines. First, between-subject effects of individual analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) were examined for the respective subscales of the two instruments (i.e., CoBRAS, MEIM), which yielded statistically significant mean group differences in the main MANCOVA. The results of those analyses are shown in Tables 20 and 21.

Table 20

Between Subject Effects – Color-Blind Racial Attitude Scale, Subscales

Subscale	<i>F</i> ratio	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2	Observed Power
Racial Privilege	3.97	2, 76	.023*	.10	.70
Institutional Discrimination	1.96	2, 76	.147	.05	.40
Blatant Racial Issues	2.69	2, 76	.074	.07	.52

* $p \leq .05$.

One of three CoBRAS subscales was shown to significantly contribute to the overall significant outcomes of the main MANCOVA. Specifically, posttest mean scores on the CoBRAS Unawareness of Racial Privilege subscale for the treatment groups was significantly lower than the control group, $F(2, 76) = 3.97, p = .023, \eta^2 = .1$. The small effect size of .1 provided evidence that the observed between-subjects difference had small practical significance, although the difference was statistically significant. Although differences on the Unawareness of Institutional Discrimination ($p = .147$) and Unawareness of Blatant Racial Issues ($p = .074$) subscales were not found to be statistically significant, it should be noted that observed power (i.e., .40 and .52) was below the a priori threshold of .60 and thus indicates this study may have lacked the ability to discover whether mean between-subject differences on these subscales truly existed.

Table 21

Between Subject Effects – Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure, Subscales

Subscale	<i>F</i> ratio	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2	Observed Power
Ethnic Identity Search	.77	2, 76	.467	.02	.18
Affirmation, Belonging, and Commitment	2.79	2, 76	.068	.07	.53

For the MEIM, no statistically significant mean between-subject differences were found on either of the two subscales. Although differences on the Ethnic Identity Search ($p = .467$) and Affirmation, Belonging, and Commitment ($p = .068$) subscales were not

found to be statistically significant, it should be noted that observed power (i.e., .18 and .53) was below the a priori threshold of .60 and thus indicates this study may have lacked the ability to discover whether mean between-subject differences on these subscales truly existed.

Comparison of Treatment Groups

To further investigate the statistically significant MANCOVA results of treatment effects on the CoBRAS and the MEIM, individual treatment conditions were examined using a K Matrix. The results of those analyses are shown in Tables 22 and 23.

Table 22

Contrast Results (K Matrix) – CoBRAS Full and Subscales by Treatment Type

Treatment Condition		CoBRAS full scale	Racial Privilege	Institutional Discrimination	Blatant Racial Issues
Experiential Group	Contrast estimate	-.26	-.35	-.16	-.28
	Std. Error	.15	.23	.18	.16
	<i>p</i>	.087	.132	.365	.078
	95% confidence interval	(-.56 – .04)	(-.80 – .11)	(-.51 – .19)	(-.60 – .03)
Interactive Lecture	Contrast estimate	-.52	-.73	-.39	-.41
	Std. Error	.17	.26	.20	.18
	<i>p</i>	.004*	.006*	.056	.026*
	95% confidence interval	(-.86 – -.17)	(-1.25 – .21)	(-.80 – .01)	(-.78 – -.05)

* $p \leq .05$.

Statistically significant mean differences were found for the interactive lecture treatment condition on the CoBRAS full scale ($p = .004$), and the Unawareness of Racial Privilege ($p = .006$) and Unawareness of Blatant Racial Issues ($p = .026$) subscales. For the experiential group treatment condition, no statistically significant mean differences were found on the CoBRAS main scale ($p = .087$) nor on any of the three subscales.

Table 23

Contrast Results (K Matrix) – MEIM Full and Subscales by Treatment Type

Treatment Condition		MEIM Full Scale	Ethnic Identity Search	Affirmation, Belonging, and Commitment
Experiential Group	Contrast estimate	.09	.17	.08
	Std. Error	.15	.22	.20
	p	.541	.447	.683
	95% confidence interval	(-.20 – .38)	(-.27 – .60)	(-.31 – .47)
Interactive Lecture	Contrast estimate	.43	.31	.46
	Std. Error	.17	.25	.23
	p	.012*	.219	.043*
	95% confidence interval	(.10 – .76)	(-.19 – .81)	(.01 – .91)

* $p \leq .05$.

Statistically significant mean differences were found for the interactive lecture treatment condition on the MEIM full scale ($p = .012$), and the Affirmation, Belonging, and Commitment ($p = .043$) subscale. For the experiential group treatment condition, no statistically significant mean differences were found on the CoBRAS main scale ($p = .541$) nor on any of the three subscales.

To further investigate the statistically significant MANOVA results for two bipolar adjective pairs (i.e., *useless-useful*, and *disorganized-systematic*) from the semantic differential scale concept “Preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner,” individual treatment conditions were examined using a K Matrix. The results of that analysis are shown in Table 24.

Table 24

Contrast Results (K Matrix) – SDS, “Preparation to Teach in a Multiculturally Competent Manner” by Treatment Type

Treatment Condition		Useless vs. Useful	Disorganized vs. Systematic
Experiential Group	Contrast estimate	.85	.94
	Std. Error	.34	.40
	<i>p</i>	.016*	.021*
	95% confidence interval	(.16 – 1.53)	(.15 – 1.73)
Interactive Lecture	Contrast estimate	.86	1.39
	Std. Error	.40	.46
	<i>p</i>	.032*	.003*
	95% confidence interval	(.07 – 1.66)	(.47 – 2.30)

* $p \leq .05$.

Statistically significant mean differences were found for the experiential group treatment condition on both bipolar adjective pairs (*useless-useful*, $p = .016$; *disorganized-systematic*, $p = .021$) for the concept “Preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner.” Similarly, statistically significant mean differences

were found for the interactive lecture treatment condition on both bipolar adjective pairs (*useless-useful*, $p = .032$; *disorganized-systematic*, $p = .003$) for the concept “Preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner.”

Summary

Data in this study were first analyzed using multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) and multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). Subsequent statistical significant findings were analyzed using a K Matrix to further investigate differences between treatment groups. The study proposed three null hypotheses, of which one was partially rejected. Results from this particular hypothesis revealed that pre-service teachers’ color-blind attitudes decreased while their ethnic identity increased as a result of participating in multicultural competency training. Furthermore, results showed that pre-service teachers who participated in multicultural competency training rated the concept “Preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner” as more useful and more systematic compared to pre-service teachers not participating in multicultural competency training. Finally, comparison of treatment conditions revealed interactive lectures were more efficacious at producing change compared to experiential groups. Further discussion, implications, recommendations, and limitations of this study may be found in Chapter V.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Beginning with standards established by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) in the late 1970s, U.S. teacher preparation programs have worked to provide multicultural education for new teachers (Banks, 2004). Intentionally focusing on the ways in which race, ethnicity, and culture affect the learning process is seen as a method of combating the persistent academic achievement gap between students of color and White students (R. F. Ferguson, 2007). Although universities have implemented several approaches (e.g., stand-alone multicultural course(s), field-based immersion, multicultural themes weaved throughout many courses) and utilized varied pedagogical strategies (e.g., autobiography, cross-cultural letter exchange, simulation, lecture, debate), “most teacher education programs lack a coherent and sustained approach” (Sleeter, 2008, p. 562) for adequately preparing White teachers for work in culturally heterogeneous school systems. Moreover, although consensus exists regarding the *importance* of multicultural education, debate endures regarding *best practices* of multicultural education.

This study sought to provide empirical data to help answer specific questions regarding best practices of multicultural education within teacher preparation programs. Using quantitative measures of cultural competency, pre-service teachers who participated in an intentionally designed curriculum intended to reduce bias and increase awareness of issues pertaining to race, culture, and ethnicity within the learning process

were compared with pre-service teachers not participating in the aforementioned curriculum. Statistical analyses allowed for investigation of the independent effects of variation in training type and variation in site diversity as well as the combined effects of both variations. This chapter will offer a summary of the methodology, interpretations of findings, limitations, recommendations for future research, and implications of this study.

Summary of Methodology

This study recruited pre-service teachers (PSTs) from a mid-sized public Midwestern university who were completing a field-based student teaching experience and were in the final stages of earning their teaching credentials. A total of 22 class sections consisting of 128 PSTs consented to participate and were subsequently randomly assigned to one of two treatment conditions or a no-treatment control group. Data were obtained from 86 PSTs who completed the following four requested measures: (1) the Teacher Multicultural Attitude Scale (TMAS; Ponterotto et al., 1998), measuring teachers' awareness of and sensitivity to issues of cultural pluralism in the classroom; (2) the Color-Blind Racial Attitudes Scale (CoBRAS; Neville et al., 2000), measuring one's endorsement of the idea that race should not and does not matter; (3) the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM; Phinney, 1992), measuring commitment to and exploration of one's ethnic identity; and (4) a semantic differential scale (Osgood et al., 1957) designed to capture the meaning participants ascribed to two concepts related to multiculturalism in the classroom. All data were analyzed with IBM's SPSS software via multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA), multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), and K contrasts.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

This study investigated three research questions by testing three associated null hypotheses, and because random assignment was employed, results may be used to make statements of cause and effect (Heppner et al., 2008). This section will explore each research question and associated null hypothesis in detail.

Research question 1. *Is there a main effect of pedagogical approach on outcome measures?*

H_{01} : There are no statistically significant differences in levels of multicultural awareness and sensitivity, endorsement of color-blind attitudes, exploration of and commitment to ethnic identity, and perception of multicultural competence and preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner between pre-service teachers who participated in interactive lectures, experiential groups, and no-treatment control groups.

This study revealed that pedagogical approach of multicultural teacher education had both statistical ($p = .001$), and practical ($\eta^2 = .30$) significance on participants' cultural competence as measured by three instruments (i.e., TMAS, CoBRAS, and MEIM). Specifically, color-blind attitudes as measured by the CoBRAS decreased ($p = .000$, $\eta^2 = .26$), while ethnic identity as measured by the MEIM increased ($p = .000$, $\eta^2 = .56$) for pre-service teachers who participated in 8 hours of focused multicultural education compared to pre-service teachers who did not participate in focused multicultural education. This main finding supports past research (e.g., Heinze, 2008; Hollins & Guzman, 2005; Nelson, 2010) showing that one's attitude regarding issues of race, ethnicity, and culture may be altered with focused interventions. Furthermore,

comparison of the two treatment conditions (i.e., interactive lecture and experiential group) via a K matrix revealed that participants' changes in attitudes as measured by the CoBRAS and the MEIM were more significantly altered by interactive lectures ($p = .005$, $p = .009$) than by experiential groups ($p = .129$, $p = .411$).

Closer examination of the CoBRAS and MEIM illuminates which subscales of each measure were more significantly altered through interactive lectures. Regarding the CoBRAS, responses on both the Unawareness of Racial Privilege ($p = .006$) and the Unawareness of Blatant Racial Issues ($p = .026$), subscales were significantly altered by interactive lectures, while responses on the Institutional Discrimination subscale nearly showed significant change ($p = .056$). Concerning the MEIM, responses on the Affirmation, Belonging, and Commitment subscale were significantly altered ($p = .043$), while responses on the Ethnic Identity Search subscale remained relatively unchanged ($p = .219$).

In addition to changes in cultural competency, this study also revealed statistically significant ($p = .038$) differences between the meaning treatment and control participants ascribed to the concept "Preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner" as measured by a semantic differential scale. Specifically, participants in treatment conditions rated the concept "Preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner" as more useful ($p = .041$) and more systematic ($p = .011$) compared to participants in the control condition. Comparison of the two treatment conditions revealed that participants in experiential groups ($p = .016$, $p = .021$) and interactive lectures ($p = .032$, $p = .003$) found the concept "Preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner" to be

more useful and systematic, respectively, compared to participants in the control condition.

In summary regarding research question 1, results from this study indicate that participation in interactive lectures results in a decrease of color-blind attitudes and an increase in ethnic identity, while participation in experiential groups or interactive lectures results in a change in understanding of the concept “Preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner.” Moreover, results suggest that participants in interactive lectures became more aware of racial privilege and blatant racial issues, and became more committed to their ethnic background compared to participants in experiential groups. Finally, results indicate that individuals in both experiential groups and interactive lectures found the concept “Preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner” to be more useful and more systematic compared to control participants.

Research question 2. *Is there a main effect of racial diversity of field placement site on outcome measures?*

H₀₂: There are no statistically significant differences in levels of multicultural awareness and sensitivity, endorsement of color-blind attitudes, exploration of and commitment to ethnic identity, and perception of multicultural competence and preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner between pre-service teachers who completed their intern teaching experience at a high diversity site or at a low diversity site.

This study revealed that site diversity of field training site had no statistically significant effect ($p = .077$) on pre-service teachers’ cultural competency as measured by

the TMAS, CoBRAS, and MEIM. Furthermore, no statistically significant differences in meaning as measured by a semantic differential scale were found for the concepts “My multicultural competence” ($p = .367$) or “Preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner” ($p = .497$) between pre-service teachers completing their field experiences at high diversity sites compared to pre-service teachers completing their field experiences at low diversity sites. It should be noted, however, that the observed power of .57 for the TMAS, CoBRAS, and MEIM, and .41 and .34, respectively, for the concepts measured by the SDS were all less than the a priori threshold of .60 and thus indicate this study may have lacked the ability to discover whether true differences existed on outcome measures between pre-service teachers completing their field experiences at high diversity sites compared to pre-service teachers completing their field experiences at low diversity sites.

In summary regarding research question 2, this study suggests that site diversity of field training site has no effect on pre-service teachers’ cultural competence and meaning ascribed to the concepts, “My multicultural competence,” and “Preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner.” This conclusion should be received tentatively due to low power regarding site diversity of field placement site.

Research question 3. *Is there an interaction effect of pedagogical approach and of racial diversity of field placement site on outcome measures?*

H_{03} : There is no statistically significant interaction effect of pedagogical approach combined with level of racial and ethnic diversity of intern teaching site regarding pre-service teachers’ levels of multicultural awareness and sensitivity, endorsement of color-blind attitudes, exploration of and commitment to ethnic identity,

and perception of multicultural competence and preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner.

This study revealed that variation in pedagogical approach and variation in site diversity of field placement site did not significantly interact ($p = .293$) to affect pre-service teachers' cultural competence. Furthermore, no statistically significant interaction effects for variation pedagogical approach and variation in site diversity of field placement were detected for the concepts "My multicultural competence" ($p = .193$) or "Preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner" ($p = .487$). It should be noted, however, that the observed power of .33 for the TMAS, CoBRAS, and MEIM, and .55 and .34, respectively, for the concepts measured by the SDS were all less than the a priori threshold of .60 and thus indicate this study may have lacked the ability to discover whether true interaction effects occurred to produce differences among participants.

In summary regarding research question 3, findings indicate that variation in pedagogical approach and variation in site diversity do not interact to affect pre-service teachers' cultural competence and meaning ascribed to the concepts, "My multicultural competence," and "Preparation to teach in a multiculturally competent manner." This conclusion should be received tentatively due to low power regarding interaction effects.

Interpretation of Findings

This study examined the extent to which variation in pedagogical approach of a specially designed curriculum affected pre-service teachers' (PSTs) attitudes and beliefs regarding issues of multiculturalism and diversity. As such, PSTs' scores on several instruments were compared before and after participating in 8 hours of training employing curriculum intended to raise awareness about ways race, ethnicity, and culture

may affect the teaching–learning process. Interpretation of results from each research question and associated null hypotheses will be presented in this section.

Main Effect of Treatment Conditions

This study found that focused interventions are successful at altering attitudes and beliefs regarding multiculturalism and diversity. PSTs who participated in treatment conditions endorsed lower levels of color-blind attitudes and higher levels of ethnic identity compared to PSTs who did not participate in treatment. This finding supports a larger body of literature (e.g., Heinze, 2008; Hollins & Guzman, 2005; Nelson, 2010) validating the ability of focused interventions to alter attitudes and beliefs regarding race, ethnicity, and culture. Because random assignment and control conditions were used, it can be reasonably concluded that PSTs' changes in attitudes were at least partly due to participation in the treatment conditions. Teacher educators, corporate trainers, education scholars, and others involved in teaching in general should not be surprised at this main finding that education induces changes in beliefs and attitudes.

In addition to the main finding of treatment conditions inducing change in attitudes regarding multiculturalism and diversity relative to control conditions, this study also provides evidence that interactive lectures are more efficacious at producing change among PSTs than are experiential groups. Although this finding is contrary to one of the study's assumptions, it may be better understood given the context of the study's sample and educational processes in general. First, it is important to consider differences between interactive lecture and experiential group approaches to teaching and learning. As discussed in more detail in Chapters II and III, interactive lectures generally focus on content (Nelson, 2010), while experiential groups generally focus on process (Marbley

et al., 2007). Understood through an educational theory lens (e.g., Oakes & Lipton, 2006), it is understandable that interactive lectures “feel” more like traditional schooling and have likely been the most common pedagogical approach experienced by the participants throughout their traditional schooling. Experiential groups, on the other hand, may lack the face validity inherent to a “sit and get” approach to schooling. This sample in particular, young people studying to become classroom teachers, may ascribe more value to lecture-style education compared to the general population, or a sample of more experienced classroom teachers. Furthermore, learning theory posits that before one is able to extract personal meaning from material, one must first *understand* said material (Bloom, 1956). In this way, it is plausible that interactive lectures provided participants with content knowledge they may have henceforth lacked, while experiential groups encouraged participants to explore personal connections with potentially unfamiliar material.

Looking more closely at the subscales of the two instruments that yielded statistically significant results provides further insight into specific beliefs and attitudes which were challenged by this study’s intervention. Regarding the CoBRAS (Neville et al., 2000), results indicate that interactive lecture participants became significantly more aware of racial privilege and blatant racial issues compared to participants in either the control or experiential group condition. Regarding the MEIM (Phinney, 1992), statistically significant results from the Affirmation, Belonging, and Commitment subscale indicate interactive lecture participants became more aware of themselves as cultural beings and became more accepting of their “Whiteness” compared to participants in either the control or experiential group condition.

Combining racial identity development theory (e.g., Helms, 1995) with educational theory (e.g., Oakes & Lipton, 2006) may be helpful to understand these findings. Given the relative youth (median age = 24 years) and the racial and ethnic homogeneity (Whites = 92%) of the sample, it is plausible to assume many participants are in the early stages of ethnic identity development and thus lack awareness of cultural and institutional racism and of their own White Privilege (Helms, 1995). Interactive lectures were efficient at teaching participants about these issues, presenting facts, and examining data; experiential groups, on the other hand, sought to draw out participants' testimony regarding lived experiences. As mentioned previously, it is difficult, if not impossible, to identify personal meaning from a place of ignorance. This finding supports past research suggesting White pre-service teachers are largely unaware of the multifaceted ways in which race and racism affect the teaching–learning process, have had little opportunity to authentically discuss such topics, and hesitate to see themselves as cultural beings (Sleeter, 2008).

Main Effect of Site Diversity

This study found no evidence that diversity of field placement site affects pre-service teachers' attitudes and beliefs regarding multiculturalism and diversity. This finding is contrary to some past research (e.g., Culp et al., 2009; Nuby, 2010; Rushton, 2001) advocating the use of field-based immersion experiences in the cultivation of cultural awareness. It should be noted, however, that the aforementioned studies used qualitative measures, making a direct comparison to this study's quantitative findings difficult. Interpreted through a pedagogical lens, this study shows focused trainings are effective at changing attitudes regarding multiculturalism and diversity regardless of the

racial and ethnic demographics of the field placement site. In this sense, results are encouraging and suggest White PSTs in mostly White school settings were able to move away from “learning about the other” and toward “learning about myself” when considering issues of race, ethnicity, and culture. Moreover, because teacher educators are unable to manipulate diversity of field training sites, these findings should encourage educators to focus on factors within their control—namely, the creation, delivery, and examination of multicultural teacher training.

Interaction Effects of Treatment Conditions and Site Diversity

This study found no evidence that variation in pedagogical approach of multicultural teacher education and variation in site diversity of field placement site significantly interacted to affect pre-service teachers’ attitudes and beliefs regarding multiculturalism and diversity. Although this study found no evidence of significant interaction effects, it is certain that extremely unbalanced conditions (e.g., 3 control participants at high diversity sites, 25 control participants at low diversity sites) contributed to low power (.33) and may have prevented detection of true interaction effects.

Qualitative Findings

Although this study employed quantitative methodology and statistical analysis, and a review of qualitative research methods is beyond the scope of this dissertation, a brief note is warranted. Overall, participants in the treatment groups seemed receptive and invested in their journey toward cultural competency. It is impressive that 100% of pre-service teachers who were invited to participate in the study provided informed consent and equally noteworthy that nearly 70% of those providing consent completed all

requested measures. Furthermore, participants reported enjoying the opportunity to deepen their understanding of multiculturalism and diversity and wished that similar opportunities had been presented earlier in their educational careers. Participants' open-ended comments (see Appendix H) display openness, honesty, and willingness to examine sensitive issues and represent a wide range of developmental levels.

Limitations

This study, as with all research, has several limitations regarding its design, methodology, and findings. First, the results of this study are based solely on participants' self-reports. Self-report instruments are vulnerable to dishonest responses and some participants may choose to respond in a socially desirable manner. However, each measure used in this study was chosen partly for its high reliability and validity and therefore the degree of measurement error is likely no greater than in other studies using self-report measures. Furthermore, analyzing within-subject effects eliminates some of the problems associated with self-reports (Field, 2000).

Next, although the sample size provided adequate power for investigation of the main effects of treatment, unbalanced cells resulted in power lower than the accepted a priori level (i.e., .60) for the main effects of site diversity and the investigation of interaction effects. Thus, although null hypotheses associated with research questions 2 and 3 were retained, it is plausible that a Type II error occurred and true mean between-group differences were not detected.

The demographics of the study may be seen as another limitation. First, more than 90% of the sample identified as White, making comparisons with or recommendations for more racially diverse populations nearly impossible. Although a

limitation, it is important to remember that approximately 84% of U.S. public school teachers are White (NCES, 2006). Similarly, because this study engaged pre-service teachers as participants, results may not generalize to the population of credentialed teachers with years of classroom experience. Finally, this study's sample was recruited from one Midwestern, predominantly White public university, thus hindering the ability to generalize to other populations of pre-service teachers.

Another limitation may be the potential confounding variable of variation of presenters. As explained in Chapter III, additional facilitators were recruited during the second half of this study. Although care was taken to ensure each of the four guest facilitators delivered the same content, and random assignment was used to place facilitators with individual sections, due to the organic nature of teaching it is impossible to guarantee each facilitator's delivery was exactly the same. It is important to note however, that fewer than 10 participants of the final sample were in a section led by a guest facilitator.

Finally, this study only measured changes in pre-service teachers' attitudes and beliefs regarding multiculturalism and diversity and did not attempt to capture data regarding their behavior or effects on their students. It is impossible to know whether changes in attitudes and beliefs translated into behavior changes. Moreover, it is impossible to determine whether pre-service teachers' changes in attitudes and beliefs had any impact on their students.

Recommendations for Future Research

In light of the limitations and findings of this study, the following recommendations are made:

1. Researchers are encouraged to replicate this study's findings using a larger sample size. This would provide greater power for investigating the effects of site diversity and interaction effects between pedagogical approach and site diversity. A larger sample would also provide greater power to more confidently investigate instrument subscales and verify whether interactive lectures are truly more effective than experiential groups.
2. Researchers are encouraged to conduct longitudinal studies to determine whether any change measured persists over time. Longitudinal research would also allow for more in-depth comparison of pedagogical approaches over time.
3. Researchers are encouraged to employ qualitative methodology to describe the experiences of participants as they engage in multicultural teacher education. Qualitative methodology may illuminate specific pieces of the curriculum that are more impactful than others.
4. Researchers are encouraged to investigate student outcomes of teachers who have participated in comprehensive multicultural teacher education compared to teachers who have not participated in such trainings.
5. Researchers are encouraged to investigate differences of pre-service teachers representing different regions from within the United States.
6. Researchers are encouraged to investigate site diversity as a continuous variable rather than as a categorical variable. Similarly, researchers are encouraged to uncouple site diversity and pedagogical approach to provide clearer information regarding the effects of training at a diverse site.

7. Researchers are encouraged to further explore the experience and effects of White people becoming more strongly aware of their ethnic identity.
8. Researchers are encouraged to investigate the cumulative effects of prior multicultural coursework on pre-service teachers' cultural competency, color-blind racial attitudes, and ethnic identity.
9. Researchers are encouraged to investigate the effects of a lecture-based multicultural course preceding an experiential group-based multicultural course.
10. Researchers are encouraged to utilize alternate measures of cultural competence to more closely examine any effects of this study's curriculum.

Implications

Results from this study indicate pre-service teachers' attitudes and beliefs regarding multiculturalism and diversity may be altered with focused interventions. Specifically, this study demonstrated that pre-service teachers participating in a specially designed 8-hour curriculum endorsed lower levels of color-blind racial attitudes and higher levels of ethnic identity compared to control participants. Reducing color-blind racial attitudes is important for several reasons: first, higher levels of color-blind attitudes have been shown to positively correlate with greater levels of gender intolerance and racial prejudice (Neville et al., 2000); next, individuals who endorse higher levels of color-blind attitudes are more likely to blame individuals for racial disproportionalities (e.g., incarceration rates, poverty rates, life expectancy rates, graduation rates) rather than identify system-level factors contributing to differences (Neville, Awad, Brooks, Flores, & Bluemel, 2013); and finally, scholars examining the relationship between color-blind

racial attitudes and psychotherapy have recently concluded that counselors endorsing lower levels of color-blind racial attitudes are rated by clients as more credible and more trustworthy compared to counselors endorsing higher levels of color-blind racial attitudes (Burkard & Knox, 2004; Chao, Wei, Good, & Flores, 2011).

In addition to the importance of reducing color-blind racial attitudes, enhancing one's ethnic identity is also associated with several positive outcomes. Regarding classroom teachers, Ponterotto et al. (1998) concluded ethnic identity was negatively correlated with discrimination and positively correlated with valuing multicultural education, while Villegas and Lucas (2002) suggested that enhancing a teacher's ethnic identity may serve as a catalyst for students to explore and identify with their own ethnic heritage. Literature further shows that stronger identification with one's ethnic background serves as a buffer against anxiety and depression (Williams, Chapman, Wong, & Turkheimer, 2012), is predictive of greater levels of self-concept and civic engagement (Anglin, Johnson-Pynn, & Johnson, 2012; Bogard & Sherrod, 2008; Branch, Tayal, & Triplett, 2000), and facilitates greater multicultural awareness among new counselors (Cherry, 2002). Thus, reducing teachers' color-blind racial attitudes and increasing their ethnic identity is congruent with the goals and ideals of multicultural education.

Results of this study may be useful to teacher preparation programs (TPPs), scholars interested in the training of teachers, K-12 school districts, and other groups concerned with multicultural training and education. Many TPPs are facing increasing scrutiny regarding their commitment to multiculturalism and preparing White teachers to work with marginalized U.S. groups (Banks & Banks, 2004). Thus, TPPs could use the

results of this study to design programmatic approaches to teacher training with an emphasis on multiculturalism and a dedication to preparing teachers to work in heterogeneous environments. Individual scholars may be interested in the results to inform their own research and in developing consulting relationships with school districts. Local school districts that are not connected to a university could use the results to establish their own supplemental trainings and workshops targeted toward certified teachers who did not receive such training in their preparation program. It is the author's hope that these results will improve teacher training programs and enhance the educational experience of our nation's youth.

Finally, scholars from around the world and from a variety of related human-service disciplines, while recognizing the important and extraordinary contributions of many leaders in creating a conceptualization of multicultural competence (e.g., Arredondo et al., 1996; Casas, Ponterotto, & Guiterrez, 1986; Sue, Arredondo, & McDavis, 1992), argue for a move beyond mere competence to something greater (Evans, Fitzgerald, Herbert, & Harvey, 2010; Inceoglu & Bartram, 2012; Kumagi & Lypson, 2009; Lee, 2010; Vera & Speight, 2003). The late Dr. Lonnie Duncan spoke of *multicultural mindfulness* and the need for mental health and other human-service professionals to be more *multiculturally minded* (M. Z. Anderson, personal communication, July 2, 2014). Thus, combining Dr. Duncan's words with the teachings of Jon Kabat-Zinn (1994), I humbly offer the following working definition of multicultural mindfulness:

The moment-to-moment awareness of oneself as a cultural being and the interconnectedness of the systems within which one operates. One who is

multiculturally mindful consistently recognizes how issues of power, privilege, oppression, race, ethnicity, and culture impact individuals and life's interconnected systems. Just as meditation uses the breath as a gentle refocusing agent when the mind wanders from the present moment, the multiculturally minded practitioner returns to a critical analysis of race and racism when lured by alternate explanations potentially eclipsing the underlying truth.

Conclusion

As our nation continues to diversify racially and ethnically, it is imperative that systems are accountable to all people. Counseling psychologists are well positioned to provide leadership in the area of multiculturalism and diversity, particularly with our understanding of how systems impact individuals. Social justice is central to our work, defined by Goodman et al. (2004) as, "scholarship and professional action designed to change societal values, policies, and practices, such that disadvantaged or marginalized groups gain increased access to . . . tools of self-determination" (p. 795). Engaging new teachers and other human-service professionals in work lowering color-blind racial attitudes and increasing ethnic identity is one way counseling psychologists may contribute to the struggle for social justice and the evolution of a more multiculturally minded society.

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Appendix A

Interactive Lecture Lesson Plans

Week: 1

Big Idea: Establishment of class norms and grounding in teacher education.

Topics: How do we create a learning environment which is a safe space? What do you know about teaching and learning? What works for you as a teacher? What are your growth areas as a teacher?

Objective: To establish the learning environment as a safe space. To understand theory as a simplified representation of real life. To become aware of one's teaching philosophy, strengths, and weaknesses.

Rationale: The classroom must be a place where students feel safe to express their ideas and group norms are best established at the first meeting (Yalom, 2005). Outstanding teachers are aware of their teaching philosophy (Oakes, Lipton, Anderson, & Stillman, 2012).

Interactive Lecture Method:

1. Brief introductions (5 mins)
 - a. Name, where you're from, where/what you teaching, why you've decided to become a teacher
 - b. Leader also share something about yourself
2. Discussion and formation of class norms and expectations (5-7 mins)
 - a. Leader present class with common class norms (e.g., only one person speaks at a time, mutual respect, voice your opinion, confidentiality)
 - b. Ask for student input
3. What is Theory? (Map Analogy) (15 mins)
 - a. When I say *theory*, you say? What do you already know about theories? Examples of theories? What is theory? (2-3mins)
 - i. Allow brief discussion of theories. Theory = idea supported by evidence vs. hypothesis = educated guess
 - b. Pass out and discuss maps (6-8 mins)
 - i. Allow a few moments for students to orient themselves. What is this? What is it useful for? What is it not useful for? What's

missing? Does Kalamazoo really look like this? Even though it's not a direct representation, it's useful.

- ii. Repeat more quickly with larger map. Indicate different maps are useful for different things with different strengths and weaknesses. Some maps capture finer details, other cover larger distances.
 - iii. Relate to theory. Theories are simplified representations of the real world. They are not real, *per se*, but they are useful. Different theories are useful for different things.
- c. Students sketch own maps (6-8 mins) (on back of teaching philosophy handout)
- i. Ask students to sketch a map as if they were giving directions from their home to their school site.
 - ii. Ask group to all hold up their maps for everyone to see.
 1. Notice similarities & differences.
 - iii. Relate to theory. Your maps are very useful because you know the context/environment. And you had to apply some theory of maps/directions/symbols to produce this drawing. Similar to using theory. When you actually use theory it looks different than what it says in the book. Different people use theory differently depending on the context.
4. Students share their ideas of teaching philosophies, strengths, and weaknesses (15 mins)
- a. Ask students to turn over drawn map to find four common teaching philosophies, or theories of teaching. Pass out teaching philosophy handout. Call attention to the philosophies and the categories and ask students to take a few minutes and read through the chart. Ask them to identify aspects of their own practice that are similar and different to the material presented. Remind that these are theories of teaching, simplified versions of what teachers really do.
 - b. Ask students to consider what their teaching philosophy is and to share a few strengths and one growth area regarding themselves as teachers. Why do they teach? What do they believe about teaching? What is their

approach to teaching? Why is it important? Allow students a little time to organize their thoughts. Encourage writing a few notes.

- c. Facilitate conversation about their beliefs about teaching and their strengths and growth areas.
5. Summary of class session (5 mins)
 - a. Leader reviews what was discussed during the session, asks for comments & questions of anything covered or of concern.

Week: 2

Big Idea: Multicultural education can be interpreted in many ways. Important discussions about race can sometimes become uncomfortable.

Topic: What is multicultural education? Why talk about race/ ethnicity/ culture? Why is it sometimes uncomfortable to talk about these topics?

Objective: To understand rationale of multicultural education. To normalize feelings of discomfort when talking about race.

Rationale: There are many interpretations of multicultural education (Banks & Banks, 2004). Talking about race in a large group is often uncomfortable (Villegas & Lucas, 2002) and knowledge of cognitive dissonance theory has been shown to reduce resistance (McFalls & Cobb-Roberts, 2001).

Interactive Lecture Model:

1. Overview of session agenda and reminder of class norms (~5-10 mins)
 - a. Remind students of norms established at first meeting
 - b. Ask for any thoughts, reflections, reactions since last meeting. Encourage members to talk about experiences they are having in the classroom related to multiculturalism/diversity.
2. What is Multicultural Education? (MCE) (15 mins)
 - a. Present and read definitions
 - i. Allow students 1-2 minutes to read the two definitions
 - ii. After students finish, leader read each definition out loud and ask for reactions and thoughts about each one.
 - iii. Ask students to share their prior experiences with MCE. What have you learned about it? Have you discussed it in classes at Western? Facilitate brief discussion.
 - iv. Return to the definitions and stress the process-oriented flavor of definition #2. Point out that MCE is more than just “doing things” like changing names in a text book, putting pictures of brown people in books, or reading an author from different country.
MCE is relational.

3. Presentation of cognitive dissonance theory (Speeding on highway analogy) (15 mins)
 - a. Ask members to raise hand if they speed on the highway. Ask to keep hand raised if they know it's against the law? Ask to keep raised if they've ever been caught?
 - i. Ask why they still do, if they know it's illegal (and if some have been caught)?
 - ii. Facilitate discussion of how they justify speeding. Do they have certain rules?
 - b. Pass out cognitive dissonance handout. Call attention to italicized parts and relate to speeding discussion.
 - i. We know it's illegal to speed
 - ii. We feel uncomfortable speeding.
 - iii. We don't like to feel uncomfortable
 1. Speeding is OK. Damn the man!
 2. I'll never speed again!
 3. We rationalize the behavior. Exactly what everyone was doing.
 - c. Explain direct relation to education.
 - i. We believe all people are born equal.
 - ii. Outcomes are not equal
 - iii. How can this be?
 1. People are not equal.
 2. This is too hard, I'm only going to see equality
 3. We find explanations. If they only worked harder. Their parents don't value education. They came from a tough environment.
 - d. Encourage group to sit with their cognitive dissonance rather than try and resolve it too quickly.

4. Reflection / reaction to survey questions (10)
 - a. Inform students of the surveys they took, in order: Teacher Multicultural Attitude Scale; Colorblind Racial Attitude Scale; Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure.
 - b. Ask for comments/feelings/reactions to online surveys.
 - i. What did you think about? How was it to take the surveys? Had you considered these types of questions before? Was anyone around and interested when you took them? Facilitate discussion about their reactions.
5. Summary of class session (5 mins)
 - a. Leader reviews what was discussed during the session, asks for comments & questions of anything covered or of concern.

Week: 3

Big Idea: Everyone has culture. White culture exists.

Topic: What is culture? What is your culture? What is White culture?

Objective: To become aware of one's own cultural behaviors, values, and biases. To become aware of dominant US culture norms and values.

Rationale: Individuals aware of and grounded in their own culture will be more able to consider viewpoints and experiences of other cultures (Banks & Banks, 2004). White culture has values, beliefs, and assumptions (Katz, 1999).

Interactive Lecture Model:

1. Overview of session agenda and reminder of class norms (~5-10 mins)
 - a. Remind students of norms established at first meeting
 - b. Ask for any thoughts, reflections, reactions since last meeting. Encourage members to talk about experiences they are having in the classroom related to multiculturalism/diversity.
2. Members complete “Week 3 – Culture” handout (~25 mins)
 - a. Briefly review Tylor’s definition of culture located at the top of the handout. Ask students what their culture is?
 - b. Inform students that they will be exploring their values and culture by examining their behaviors. “Your behaviors provide a window into your values”
 - i. Complete side 1. Ask students to think about and list their typical routines/behaviors that they do nearly every day, nearly every week or month, and which holidays they typically celebrate. (~5-7 mins)
 - ii. Facilitate sharing of items and brief discussion regarding similarities and differences. (~5 mins)
 1. Typical daily routines should include work, hygiene, and food. Also common are self-care, spiritual, exercise.

2. Typical weekly/monthly should include grocery shopping, getting gas, cleaning (house/laundry), spending time with family.
 3. Typical holidays tend to be major Christian holidays and 4th of July, mothers/fathers day, valentines, new years, etc.
 4. Note behaviors which are common US values. (Work on weekend = strong work ethic. Washing all clothes on weekend/grocery shopping for a week/filing up car with gas = future orientation vs. “just in time” i.e. stopping by the store every day to buy things for dinner that night, washing just a few items of clothes more regularly, only putting in a few \$\$ of gas. Showering daily, washing hair, makeup = aesthetics vs health i.e. regular exercise and proper eating habits)
 5. If students have spent time out of the US they may compare experiences. Allow for some discussion, but remind that we will come back to this topic.
- c. Complete side 2 – values/beliefs/assumptions (~5-7mins)
- i. “Your behaviors provide a window into your values” Ask students to consider why they do these things regularly, perhaps every day? If they do a behavior regularly, they must value it. Why do you shower every day? Why do you work every day, maybe even on weekends? What are your values?
 - ii. What do you believe about these values? What do you believe about hard work? What do you believe about physical appearance?
 - iii. Assumptions can be revealed by asking, “what if you stopped doing this behavior?” What do you believe would happen if you did not shower every day? (People would think I’m poor, I’m lazy, etc...) What do you assume this behavior will earn you? (People who work hard succeed in life)

- iv. Facilitate brief discussion of similarities and differences regarding values, beliefs, assumptions (~5 mins)
3. Pass out Aspects or Assumptions of White Culture handout (~20 mins)
 - a. Read and discuss each item, highlighting those traits which were evident during previous activity
 - b. Facilitate discussion of White culture traits, allow for agreement and disagreement
 - c. Note that because White people are the dominant social group in the US, US culture is very tied to White culture
4. Summary of class session (5 mins)
 - a. Leader reviews what was discussed during the session, asks for comments & questions of anything covered or of concern.

Week: 4

Big Idea: US culture exists. Race is socially constructed.

Topic: Further exploration of US culture. What is race? When did your family become White?

Objective: To become aware of dominant US culture norms and values. To understand race as a social construct.

Rationale: Individuals aware of and grounded in their own culture will be more able to consider viewpoints and experiences of other cultures (Banks & Banks, 2004). Race is a social construct invented to subjugate people of color and maintain power for Whites (Smedley & Smedley, 2005).

Interactive Lecture Model:

1. Overview of session agenda and reminder of class norms (~5-10 mins)
 - a. Remind students of norms established at first meeting
 - b. Ask for any thoughts, reflections, reactions since last meeting. Encourage members to talk about experiences they are having in the classroom related to multiculturalism/diversity.
2. Students discuss what they believe is US culture. (~10 mins)
 - a. Ask members to raise their hands and keep them raised if they've *been* out of Michigan, out of the Midwest, out of the US. Allow brief share of where members have visited.
 - b. Ask same question, but this time to raise hands if they've *lived* out of Michigan, out of the Midwest, out of the US. Allow brief share of where members have lived.
 - c. Ask members what they noticed was different about other parts of the country/world. Facilitate conversation of US culture and how sometimes we don't recognize US culture until we've been away from it. We're so immersed in US culture that it can be hard to recognize. Does the fish know he/she is wet? (We're leading towards a discussion of White privilege and how one may not recognize it because it's taken for granted, it's just a given of White people's lives in the US)

3. Students compare US culture with Mexico and China (~10 mins)
 - a. Pass out double-sided handout comparing USA /Mexico and Chinese/Americans. Facilitate discussion regarding cultural differences and note how Mexico is more similar than China compared to US culture.
4. Discussion of Who Invented White People? (Jay, 1998) (~30 mins)
 - a. Pass out reading and introduce idea that multiculturalism is more than about learning about *the other*, White people also need to better understanding their own history.
 - b. Instruct students to read and underline/highlight/make note of parts which stand out to them and/or are new ideas.(~15 mins) (Model this behavior by also reading and making notes)
 - c. When students are finished, facilitate discussion regarding reactions/thoughts/questions.
 - d. Give particular attention to:
 - i. Systemic nature of modern racism (banking & housing discrimination) vs. historical personal bigotry (lynchings, KKK)
 - ii. Invisibility of Whiteness
 1. “Race is only something People of Color have”
 2. Whiteness is often only examined when compared to non-Whites. Why not just examine what it means to be White, period?
 - iii. Colorblind racial attitudes
 1. “letting Whiteness off the hook”
 2. Mostly only White people say race/ethnicity shouldn’t matter
 - iv. History of Whiteness
 1. Needed to dehumanize others
 2. First distinctions were religious/spiritual. After forced conversions, needed another way to separate the colonizers from the colonized.

3. Fantasy of “White Race” in classical times overlooks the complexity of Greek and Roman societies
4. Melting pot never included darker pigments
- v. White privilege
 1. Don’t have to be “racist” to benefit from White privilege
 2. Just as rape is mostly a problem perpetuated by men and men have power to stop rape and sexual assaults of women, institutional racism is mostly a problem perpetuated by White people and White people have power to combat institutional racism.
5. Summary of class session (5 mins)
 - a. Leader reviews what was discussed during the session, asks for comments & questions of anything covered or of concern.

Week: 5

Big Idea: Racism results from power + prejudice. It is manifested today mostly via institutional racism.

Topic: What is racism? How has expression of racism changed over time? What is institutional racism?

Objective: To understand how racism is manifested today.

Rationale: Modern, scholarly definition of racism = power + prejudice (Operario & Fiske, 1998). Manifestations of racism have shifted over time from overt bigotry to institutionalized power maintained partly through a colorblind ideology (Ponterotto, Utsey, & Pedersen, 2006).

Interactive Lecture Model:

1. Overview of session agenda and reminder of class norms (~5-10 mins)
 - a. Remind students of norms established at first meeting
 - b. Ask for any thoughts, reflections, reactions since last meeting. Encourage members to talk about experiences they are having in the classroom related to multiculturalism/diversity.
2. Members discuss their understandings of racism and institutional racism (~5 mins)
 - a. Ask members to consider how expressions of racism have changed over time
 - b. Point out that although most overt, public displays of racism (i.e., lynchings) are no longer socially appropriate, systemic racism is alive and well (e.g., disparities in health, education, judicial system)
 - c. Hand out “Power + Prejudice = Systemic Racial Oppression” worksheet
 - i. Read definition and briefly discuss thoughts
3. Members view and discuss ABC’s (2005) “True colors” (~25 mins)
 - a. Inform group of what they will be viewing. This is a Dateline special on racial discrimination. Two men, one White one Black, will be followed around St. Louis with a hidden camera as they engage in common

activities for city newcomers (e.g., shopping for clothes, looking for a job, finding housing)

- b. Call attention to “usual” way of viewing this video is to point out the disadvantages of the Black man (learning about *the other*, deficit approach). However, in our continued attempt to “learn more about ourselves” members are to makes notes of the advantages the White man receives.
- c. When video is complete facilitate discussion.
 - i. What advantages did the White man have? (acknowledge male privilege is also at play here and that if the experiment followed a White man and a White woman, the White man would likely receive preferential treatment compared to the White woman)
 - ii. What was it like for you to watch this? How do you feel now?
 - iii. Are you experiencing some cognitive dissonance? How do you explain what you saw?
 - iv. Discuss common dissonance reducing thoughts. Normalize and refute.
 1. Obama is POTUS! (yes, but that does not erase all the systemic problems of society. Obama has not lived the “average” life of a person of color. What about the 200+ years of White presidents? Does that also mean that no White male should ever be in poverty, etc? Because after all, White men have been president for 200+ years.
 2. This video is old, things are better now! (Cite Derous & Ryan, 2012. Job discrimination via resume screening, Dutch name/affiliations vs. Arab name/affiliations)
4. Present and discuss McIntosh’s (2003) Invisible Knapsack (15 mins)
 - a. Pass out handout and allow students a few minutes to look it over. Facilitate discussion regarding aspects of White privilege listed on the paper. If time permits, allow students to share personal accounts of White privilege.

- b. Remind students of the individualism aspect of US culture which likely makes it difficult for White students to accept they too have benefitted from White Privilege. Remind students of the “Who Invented White People?” reading which pointed out that a White person need not endorse racist thoughts to benefit from favorable bank lending practices, benefit of the doubt from law enforcement, resume preferences (such as in the Derous & Ryan study).
 - c. Also remind students that either-or/dichotomous thinking is another hallmark of US and White culture. These students have worked hard, AND they have benefitted from White privilege. Both can be true at the same time.
5. Summary of class session (5 mins)
- a. Leader reviews what was discussed during the session, asks for comments & questions of anything covered or of concern.

Week: 6

Big Idea: White Privilege and colorblind ideology help maintain institutional racism.

Topic: What is a colorblind ideology? How does one learn to discriminate?

Objective: To understand the dangers of colorblind ideology. To understand one's racial/ethnic development.

Rationale: Institutional racism is supported by and benefits White privilege (Operario & Fiske, 1998)

Interactive Lecture Model:

1. Overview of session agenda and reminder of group norms (~5-10 mins)
 - a. Remind students of norms established at first meeting
 - b. Ask for any thoughts, reflections, reactions since last meeting. Encourage members to talk about experiences they are having in the classroom related to multiculturalism/diversity.
2. Explain and discuss colorblind ideology (~15-20 mins)
 - a. Students read "I'm not racist, I'm colorblind"
 - b. Instruct students to read and underline/highlight/make note of parts which stand out to them and/or are new ideas (Model this behavior by also reading and making notes)
 - c. Facilitate discussion. Be sure to explain difference between seeing color and recognizing/celebrating differences rather than judging or assuming things about people.
3. Explain and discuss theories of racial identity development (~20-25 mins)
 - a. Inform students that they will be reading and exploring theories of racial identity. Remind them that we know theories are not real, per se, and they are useful.
 - b. Begin with White ID development and read aloud each stage
 - i. For each stage facilitate a brief discussion regarding what the stage means. Provide examples. Allow students to relay stages to their lives or people they know. Repeat for each stage.

- ii. When finished, ask students to find themselves among the stages and facilitate discussion of how they got to a particular stage. Use your own narrative as appropriate
 - iii. As time permits inform students that Black ID development is on the back. Spend some time, if available, summarizing the stages. The vast majority of the time should be spent on White ID development, rather than learning about *the other*.
4. Summary of class session (5 mins)
- a. Leader reviews what was discussed during the session, asks for comments & questions of anything covered or of concern.

Week: 7

Big Idea: Institutional racism is manifested in school via tracking, low expectations, and school funding.

Topic: Where do we see institutional racism in school systems?

Objective: To identify manifestations of institutional racism in school systems.

Rationale: Institutional racism is manifested in school via tracking, low expectations, and unequal school funding (Kozol, 2005).

Interactive Lecture Model:

1. Overview of session agenda and reminder of group norms (~5-10 mins)
 - a. Remind students of norms established at first meeting
 - b. Ask for any thoughts, reflections, reactions since last meeting. Encourage members to talk about experiences they are having in the classroom related to multiculturalism/diversity.
2. Members view and discuss PBS' "A Class Divided" (~35 mins) END AT 1:20 OF PART 4
 - a. Pass out handout and inform group they will be viewing a class educational experiment/activity. The setting is a kindergarten class in Iowa in the 1960's. A teacher, Jane Elliot, films her prejudice activity. The video we will be watching was filmed in 1980's and is a reunion of Elliot and her former kindergarteners, now young adults.
 - b. Stress that the reason we are watching this is NOT to encourage, or suggest in any way that group members should replicate this activity with their students. Today, this activity would need advanced approval from parents and administrators.
 - c. Encourage members to consider the power that the teacher has in forming, reinforcing, and questioning social norms. Also encourage members to consider the power stereotypes have on the behavior and cognitive performance of the children. Highlight first minute of part 4 when Elliot talks about sending their data to Stanford for analysis.
 - d. After viewing, facilitate discussion. Use handout as a guide.

- i. Members may focus on the content of the activity and its unrealistic nature in today's school climate. Remind members that we are not suggesting they try this activity. Rather guide them to consider the power of the classroom teacher in establishing and maintaining the classroom environment. Also guide them to consider the research findings which show increased academic achievement for the "top group" even when the groups are reversed. Why might this be relevant today?
3. Briefly explain and discuss Meritocracy (~5 mins)
 - a. Read the definitions and ask for member responses
 - b. Read the quotes and ask members for responses
 - c. Stress the interconnectedness of society. "We're all in this together." "No person is an island."
4. Group discussion of evidence of institutional racism in field settings (15 mins)
 - a. Turn over handout and look at school funding data. Ask members what trends they notice.
 - b. Facilitate discussion of school funding as symptom of institutional racism/systemic racial oppression.
 - i. A large % of school funding is tied to property (and other local) taxes. Where are property taxes higher?
 - ii. Where is new construction happening? (not the inner city)
 - iii. What race/ethnicity of children tend to live in the lower funded districts?
 - iv. Can US public schools be considered a pure meritocracy?
5. Summary of class session (5 mins)
 - a. Leader reviews what was discussed during the session, asks for comments & questions of anything covered or of concern.

Week: 8

Big Idea: Teachers have power to combat institutional racism in school settings.

Consolidation of learning.

Topics: What can White people do? What can teachers do? What have you learned?

How have you been challenged? What do you still wonder about?

Objective: To increase confidence in PSTs' ability to combat institutional racism.

Rationale: Teachers have an ethical obligation to dismantle school-based institutional racism (Oakes et al., 2012). There have been White resistance movements throughout history (Zinn, 2003).

Interactive Lecture Model:

1. Overview of session agenda and reminder of group norms (~5-10 mins)
 - a. Remind students of norms established at first meeting
 - b. Ask for any thoughts, reflections, reactions since last meeting. Encourage members to talk about experiences they are having in the classroom related to multiculturalism/diversity.
2. Discussion of White resistance movements and personal examples (~15 mins)
 - a. Pass out “Some White Anti-Racists from US History”
 - i. Allow students a few minutes to look over list then facilitate discussion
 1. Ask students which names they recognize. Discuss what they know about the person, when/where they learned about them.
 2. Ask students to consider why most of these people are not talked about in history classes. Ask students to consider what it would have been like to learn about these people.
 3. Make the point that White people do have a history of confronting racism.
3. Commitment going forward (~25 mins)
 - a. Pass out “Guidelines for Being Strong White Allies”

- i. As a group, read through numbers 1-13 and facilitate brief discussion of each guideline
 - b. Pass out “Tools for White Anti-Racist Organizing” and have students look on back page of “Guidelines for Being Strong White Allies”
 - i. Allow students several minutes to look over lists and inform that that we would like them to select at least five things that they will commit to doing
 - ii. Have each student share their commitments and facilitate brief discussion
4. Final session summary (~10 mins)
 - a. Leader reviews what was discussed during the training, asks for comments & questions of anything covered or of concern.
 - b. Inform students that they will be receiving an email from Mark in the next few days with a link to the follow-up surveys. Thank them for taking the pre-tests and participating in the training, and remind them of the importance of also taking the post-tests.
 - i. The final questions ask if they would consider participating in further research on the same topic with Mark. They do not need to decide today. There are two options:
 1. Within one year, participate in a confidential interview, most likely via Skype, talking about their experience, feelings, thoughts, etc, about the training (a qualitative paper)
 2. Within five years, complete another round of confidential and anonymous online surveys to investigate whether any changes have lasted over time (a quantitative paper)
 - ii. If they are curious, share with them the longer-term goals of the research. I’d like to someday be able to investigate student outcomes (e.g., GPA, attendance rates, suspensions, graduation rates, etc.) of students who are in classes where the teacher has

participated in this type of training vs. students in classes where the teacher has not participated in this type of training

- iii. Finally, remind them that there will be a box to check if they'd like to be notified when the results are published and that there will be an area to leave feedback about the training.

Appendix B
Experiential Group Lesson Plans

Week: 1

Big Idea: Establishment of class norms and grounding in teacher education.

Topics: How do we create a learning environment which is a safe space? What do you know about teaching and learning? What works for you as a teacher? What are your growth areas as a teacher?

Objective: To establish the learning environment as a safe space. To discuss the nature of theory. To become aware of one's teaching philosophy, strengths, and weaknesses.

Rationale: The classroom must be a place where students feel safe to express their ideas and group norms are best established at the first meeting (Yalom, 2005). Theory is useful and open to critique. Outstanding teachers are aware of their teaching philosophy (Oakes et al., 2012).

Experiential Group Model:

1. Brief introductions (5 mins)
 - a. Name, where/what are you teaching, one interesting thing about yourself
2. Group develops norms and expectations(e.g., only one person speaks at a time, mutual respect, voice your opinion, confidentiality) (10 mins)
 - a. What kind of environment do we need to create in order to feel safe talking about personal/controversial topics?
3. What is Theory? (Map Analogy) (15 mins)
 - a. When I say *theory*, you say? What do you think about theories? What is theory?
 - i. Allow brief discussion of theories. Theory = idea supported by evidence vs. hypothesis = educated guess
 - b. Pass out and discuss maps
 - i. Allow a few moments for students to orient themselves. What is this? What is it useful for? What is it not useful for? What's missing? Does Kalamazoo really look like this? Even though it's not a direct representation, it's useful.

- ii. Repeat more quickly with larger map. Indicate different maps are useful for different things with different strengths and weaknesses. Some maps capture finer details, other cover larger distances.
 - iii. Relate to theory. Theories are simplified representations of the real world. They are not real, per se, but they are useful. Different theories are useful for different things.
- c. Students sketch own maps
- i. Ask students to sketch a map as if they were giving directions from their home to their school site.
 - ii. Ask group to all hold up their maps for everyone to see.
 - 1. Notice similarities & differences.
 - iii. Relate to theory. Your maps are very useful because you know the context/environment. And you had to apply some theory of maps/directions/symbols to produce this drawing. Similar to using theory. When you actually use theory it looks different than what it says in the book. Different people use theory differently depending on the context.
4. Students share their ideas of teaching philosophies, strengths, and weaknesses (15 mins)
- a. Pass out teaching philosophy handout. Note this is just a guide to get them thinking; they can use it as much or as little as they want. Remind that these are theories of teaching, simplified versions of what teachers really do.
 - b. Ask students to consider what their teaching philosophy is and to share a few strengths and one growth area regarding themselves as teachers. Why do they teach? What do they believe about teaching? What is their approach to teaching? Why is it important? Allow students a little time to organize their thoughts. Encourage writing a few notes.

5. Summary of group process & closure (5 mins)
 - a. Leader summarizes process, notes any key moments, asks members if anything important was left out.
 - b. Members say one word about how they are feeling in the moment.

Week: 2

Big Idea: Multicultural education can be interpreted in many ways. Important discussions about race can sometimes become uncomfortable.

Topic: What is multicultural education? Why talk about race/ ethnicity/ culture? Why is it sometimes uncomfortable to talk about these topics?

Objective: To understand rationale of multicultural education. To normalize feelings of discomfort when talking about race.

Rationale: There are many interpretations of multicultural education (Banks & Banks, 2004). Talking about race in a large group is often uncomfortable (Villegas & Lucas, 2002) and knowledge of cognitive dissonance theory has been shown to reduce resistance (McFalls & Cobb-Roberts, 2001).

Experiential Group Model:

1. Brief check-in (5 mins)
 - a. Leader reminds group of last session and asks for reflection/thoughts/observations since last meeting
2. What is Multicultural Education? (15 mins)
 - a. Students share what they have already learned about multicultural education
 - i. When I say *Multicultural Education*, you say? What do you think it is? What have you learned about it? Have you discussed it in classes at Western? Facilitate brief discussion.
 - b. Present and read definitions
 - i. Ask for questions, comments, thoughts/feelings after each one.
 - ii. Stress the process-oriented definitions and that MCE is more than just “doing things” like changing names in a text book, putting pictures of brown people in books, or reading an author from different country. MCE is relational.
3. Presentation of cognitive dissonance theory (Speeding on highway analogy) (15 mins)

- a. Ask members to raise hand if they speed on the highway. Ask to keep hand raised if they know it's against the law? Ask to keep raised if they've ever been caught?
 - i. Ask why they still do, if they know it's illegal (and if some have been caught)?
 - ii. Facilitate discussion of how they justify speeding. Do they have certain rules?
 - b. Pass out cognitive dissonance handout. Call attention to italicized parts and relate to speeding discussion.
 - i. We know it's illegal to speed
 - ii. We feel uncomfortable speeding.
 - iii. We don't like to feel uncomfortable
 - 1. Speeding is OK. Damn the man!
 - 2. I'll never speed again!
 - 3. We rationalize the behavior. Exactly what everyone was doing.
 - c. Explain direct relation to education.
 - i. We believe all people are born equal.
 - ii. Outcomes are not equal
 - iii. How can this be?
 - 1. People are not equal.
 - 2. This is too hard, I'm only going to see equality
 - 3. We find explanations. If they only worked harder. Their parents don't value education. They came from a tough environment.
 - d. Encourage group to sit with their cognitive dissonance rather than try and resolve it too quickly.
4. Reflection / reaction to survey questions (10)
- a. Ask for comments/feelings/reactions to online surveys. Facilitate discussion about their reactions.

5. Summary of group process (5 mins)
 - a. Leader summarizes process, notes any key moments, asks members if anything important was left out.
 - b. Members say one word about how they are feeling in the moment.

Week: 3

Big Idea: Everyone has culture. White culture exists.

Topic: What is culture? What is your culture? What is White culture?

Objective: To become aware of one's own cultural behaviors, values, and biases. To become aware of dominant US culture norms and values.

Rationale: Individuals aware of and grounded in their own culture will be more able to consider viewpoints and experiences of other cultures (Banks & Banks, 2004). White culture has values, beliefs, and assumptions (Katz, 1999).

Experiential Group Model:

1. Brief check-in (~5 mins)
 - a. Remind group members of norms established at first meeting
 - b. Ask for any thoughts, reflections, reactions since last meeting. Encourage members to talk about experiences they are having in the classroom related to multiculturalism/diversity.
2. Members complete “Week 3 – Culture” handout (~20 mins)
 - a. Inform members that they will be exploring their values and culture by examining their behaviors. “Your behaviors provide a window into your values”
 - i. Complete side 1. Ask members to think about and list their typical routines/behaviors that they do nearly every day, nearly every week or month, and which holidays they typically celebrate. (~5-7 mins)
 - ii. Facilitate sharing of items and brief discussion regarding similarities and differences. (~5 mins)
 1. Typical daily routines should include work, hygiene, and food. Also common are self-care, spiritual, exercise.
 2. Typical weekly/monthly should include grocery shopping, getting gas, cleaning (house/laundry), spending time with family.

3. Typical holidays tend to be major Christian holidays and 4th of July, mothers/fathers day, valentines, new years, etc.
 4. Note behaviors which are common US values. (Work on weekend = strong work ethic. Washing all clothes on weekend/grocery shopping for a week/filing up car with gas = future orientation vs. “just in time” i.e. stopping by the store every day to buy things for dinner that night, washing just a few items of clothes more regularly, only putting in a few \$\$ of gas. Showering daily, washing hair, makeup = aesthetics vs health i.e. regular exercise and proper eating habits)
 5. If members have spent time out of the US they may compare experiences. Allow for some discussion, but remind that we will come back to this topic.
- b. Complete side 2 – values/beliefs/assumptions (~5-7mins)
- i. “Your behaviors provide a window into your values” Ask members why they do these things regularly, perhaps every day? If they do a behavior regularly, they must value it. Why do you shower every day? Why do you work every day, maybe even on weekends? What are your values?
 - ii. What do you believe about these values? What do you believe about hard work? What do you believe about physical appearance?
 - iii. Assumptions can be revealed by asking, what if you stopped doing this behavior? What do you believe would happen if you did not shower every day? (People would think I’m poor, I’m lazy, etc...) What do you assume this behavior will earn you? (People who work hard succeed in life)
 - iv. Facilitate brief discussion of similarities and differences regarding values, beliefs, assumptions (~5 mins)
3. Pass out Aspects or Assumptions of White Culture handout (~5-7 mins)
- a. Highlight those traits which were evident during previous activity

- b. Facilitate discussion of White culture traits, allow for agreement and disagreement
 - c. Note that because the White people are the dominant social group in the US, US culture is very tied to White culture
4. Members complete and discuss “Important life roles/identities” (~20 mins)
- a. Ask members to turn over White culture handout and list 10 roles/identities they have. Instruct members not to overthink the exercise and give them only 2 mins. Try not to give too many examples but provide some guidance if needed (I am a teacher, I am a son, I am a Christian...)
 - b. Ask a few members to share their lists. Facilitate brief discussion of similarities and differences. (~3-5 mins)
 - c. Instruct members you are going to give them a very hard task. They must narrow their list down to the most important/most salient/most relevant 3 identities. “If you lost these parts of yourself you would be a different person.” “If you lost these you wouldn’t recognize yourself” Give 1 min.
 - d. Ask each member to share their list of top 3. Note similarities. Very likely that most members will have a gendered identity (son, wife, mother, brother, etc) and a work/career/vocational identity (teacher, student, hard worker, honest, etc) as one of top 3. Point out that in the US gender is very important to our identities, also work/career/vocation is very important. We often ask new people we meet, “What do you do?” The other top identity will vary.
 - e. Pay attention to any cultural/racial/ethnic identities in the top 3(Catholic, Michigander, Latino). For White students, if present, they will likely not be race related, but rather spiritual or geographic. Ask members if they had any cultural/racial/ethnic identities in the top 3, or even on their list at all. Inform members that for People of Color, an ethnic/racial identity is often in the top 3. Share personal feelings if appropriate. Introduce concept of colorblindness and it’s danger. “When you say I don’t see color you are denying a major piece of identity for a person of color.” It is

like saying, “I don’t see you as a man, or as a woman, gender should not matter.”

- f. Facilitate discussion regarding this whole exercise and about the idea of colorblindness. (~5-7 mins)
5. Summary of group process & closure (5 mins)
 - a. Leader summarizes process, notes any key moments, asks members if anything important was left out.
 - b. Members say one word about how they are feeling in the moment.

Week: 4

Big Idea: US culture exists. Race is socially constructed.

Topic: Further exploration of US culture. What is race? When did your family become White?

Objective: To become aware of dominant US culture norms and values. To understand race as a social construct.

Rationale: Individuals aware of and grounded in their own culture will be more able to consider viewpoints and experiences of other cultures (Banks & Banks, 2004). Race is a social construct invented to subjugate people of color and maintain power for Whites (Smedley & Smedley, 2005).

Experiential Group Model:

1. Brief check-in (~5 mins)
 - a. Remind group members of norms established at first meeting
 - b. Ask for any thoughts, reflections, reactions since last meeting. Encourage members to talk about experiences they are having in the classroom related to multiculturalism/diversity.
2. Members discuss what they believe is US culture. (~20 mins)
 - a. Ask members to raise their hands and keep them raised if they've *been* out of Michigan, out of the Midwest, out of the US. Allow brief share of where members have visited.
 - b. Ask same question, but this time to raise hands if they've *lived* out of Michigan, out of the Midwest, out of the US. Allow brief share of where members have lived.
 - c. Ask members what they noticed was different about other parts of the country/world. Facilitate conversation of US culture and how sometimes we don't recognize US culture until we've been away from it. We're so immersed in US culture that it can be hard to recognize. Does the fish know he/she is wet? (We're leading towards a discussion of White

privilege and how one may not recognize it because it's taken for granted, it's just a given of White people's lives in the US)

3. Students complete and discuss "Western and Non-Western Perspectives" (Pedersen, 2004, pp. 38-39) (~20 mins)
 - a. Pass out handout and ask members to indicate their preferences for the selected ideas/concepts.
 - i. Instruct members not to overthink the exercise and give them only 2 mins.
 - ii. Ask for members to share items where they had a clear preference one way or the other
 - iii. Facilitate discussion around items the students find most interesting/ are all the way to one side.
 - iv. Inform group that for the left column, odd items are typical of a Westernized viewpoint while even items are typical for an Eastern viewpoint. The opposite is true for the right column (even items = Western, odd items = Eastern)
 - v. Facilitate further discussion of the differences between Eastern and Western philosophies
4. If time permits, or if group needs structure, pass out double-sided handout comparing USA /Mexico and Chinese/Americans. Facilitate discussion regarding cultural differences and note how Mexico is more similar than China compared to US culture.
5. Summary of group process & closure (5 mins)
 - a. Leader summarizes process, notes any key moments, asks members if anything important was left out.
 - b. Members say one word about how they are feeling in the moment.

Week: 5

Big Idea: Racism results from power + prejudice. It is manifested today mostly via institutional racism.

Topic: What is racism? How has expression of racism changed over time? What is institutional racism? What is White Privilege?

Objective: To understand how racism is manifested today.

Rationale: Modern, scholarly definition of racism = power + prejudice (Operario & Fiske, 1998). Manifestations of racism have shifted over time from overt bigotry to institutionalized power maintained partly through a colorblind ideology (Ponterotto et al., 2006).

Experiential Group Model:

1. Brief check-in (~5 mins)
 - a. Remind group members of norms established at first meeting
 - b. Ask for any thoughts, reflections, reactions since last meeting. Encourage members to talk about experiences they are having in the classroom related to multiculturalism/diversity.
2. Members discuss their understandings of racism and institutional racism (~5 mins)
 - a. Ask members to consider how expressions of racism have changed over time
 - b. Point out that although most overt, public displays of racism (e.g., lynchings) are no longer socially appropriate, systemic racism is alive and well (e.g., disparities in health, education, judicial system)
 - c. Hand out “Power + Prejudice = Systemic Racial Oppression” worksheet
 - i. Read definition and briefly discuss thoughts
3. Members view and discuss ABC’s (2005) “True colors” (~30 mins)
 - a. Inform group of what they will be viewing
 - b. Call attention to “usual” way of viewing this video is to point out the disadvantages of the Black man (learning about *the other*, deficit

approach). However, in our continued attempt to “learn more about ourselves” members are to makes notes of the advantages the White man receives.

- c. When video is complete facilitate discussion.
 - i. What advantages did the White man have? (acknowledge male privilege is also at play here and that if the experiment followed a White man and a White woman, the White man would likely receive preferential treatment)
 - ii. What was it like for you to watch this? How do you feel now?
 - iii. Are you experiencing some cognitive dissonance? How do you explain what you saw?
 - iv. Discuss common dissonance reducing thoughts. Normalize and refute.
 1. Obama is POTUS! (yes, but that does not erase all the systemic problems of society. Obama has not lived the “average” life of a person of color. What about the 200+ years of White presidents? Does that also mean that no White male should ever be in poverty, etc? Because after all, White men have been president for 200+ years.
 2. This video is old, things are better now! (Cite Derous & Ryan, 2012. Job discrimination via resume screening, Dutch name/affiliations vs. Arab name/affiliations)
4. Members identify personal examples of White privilege (~10 mins)
 - a. Ask members to talk about instances of White privilege in their own lives
 - b. If needed, use McIntosh as a guide.
5. Summary of group process & closure (5 mins)
 - a. Leader summarizes process, notes any key moments, asks members if anything important was left out.
 - b. Members say one word about how they are feeling in the moment.

Week: 6

Big Idea: White Privilege and colorblind ideology help maintain institutional racism.

Topic: What is a colorblind ideology? How does one learn to discriminate?

Objective: To understand the dangers of colorblind ideology. To understand one's racial/ethnic development.

Rationale: Institutional racism is supported by and benefits White privilege (Operario & Fiske, 1998)

Experiential Group Model:

1. Brief check-in (~5- 10 mins)
 - a. Remind group members of norms established at first meeting
 - b. Ask for any thoughts, reflections, reactions since last meeting. Encourage members to talk about experiences they are having in the classroom related to multiculturalism/diversity.
2. Explain and discuss colorblind ideology (~15-20 mins)
 - a. Members read "I'm not racist, I'm colorblind"
 - b. Instruct members to read and underline/highlight/make note of parts which stand out to them and/or are new ideas (Model this behavior by also reading and making notes)
 - c. Facilitate discussion.
 - i. Be sure to explain difference between seeing color and recognizing/celebrating differences rather than judging or assuming things about people.
 - ii. Also again highlight the point about not needing to endorse racist thoughts to benefit from White privilege.
3. Members complete "Quadrants" exercise (Arizaga et al., 2005) (~20-25 mins)
 - a. Inform members they will now have a chance to share about their personal experiences with discrimination and racism.
 - b. Pass out and complete "Quadrants"

- i. Target of discrimination = times members have been discriminated against
 - ii. Witnessed discrimination and did not act = times members stayed silent in the face of discrimination
 - iii. Witnessed discrimination and did act = times members spoke up in the face of discrimination
 - iv. Discriminated or learned to discriminate = times members discriminated against someone else, or memories of learning to discriminate from family members, friends, co-workers.
4. Racial Identity Development (IF TIME PERMITS)
 - a. Inform members that they will be exploring theories of racial identity. Remind them that we know theories are not real, per se, and they are useful.
 - b. Begin with White ID development and summarize each stage
 - i. When finished, ask students to find themselves among the stages and facilitate discussion of how they got to a particular stage. Use personal narrative as appropriate.
 - ii. As time permits inform students that Black ID development is on the back. Spend some time, if available, summarizing the stages. The vast majority of the time should be spent on White ID development, rather than learning about *the other*.
5. Summary of group process & closure (5 mins)
 - a. Leader summarizes process, notes any key moments, asks members if anything important was left out.
 - b. Members say one word about how they are feeling in the moment.

Week: 7

Big Idea: Institutional racism is manifested in school via tracking, low expectations, and school funding.

Topic: Where do we see institutional racism in school systems?

Objective: To identify manifestations of institutional racism in school systems.

Rationale: Institutional racism is manifested in school via tracking, low expectations, and unequal school funding (Kozol, 2005).

Experiential Group Model:

1. Brief check-in (~5-10 mins)
 - a. Remind group members of norms established at first meeting
 - b. Ask for any thoughts, reflections, reactions since last meeting. Encourage members to talk about experiences they are having in the classroom related to multiculturalism/diversity.
2. Members view and discuss PBS' "A Class Divided" (~35 mins) END AT 1:20 OF PART 4
 - a. Pass out handout and inform group they will be viewing a class educational experiment/activity. The setting is a kindergarten class in Iowa in the 1960's. A teacher, Jane Elliot, films her prejudice activity. The video we will be watching was filmed in 1980's and is a reunion of Elliot and her former kindergarteners, now young adults.
 - b. Stress that the reason we are watching this is NOT to encourage, or suggest in any way that group members should replicate this activity with their students. Today, this activity would need advanced approval from parents and administrators.
 - c. Encourage members to consider the power that the teacher has in forming, reinforcing, and questioning social norms. Also encourage members to consider the power stereotypes have on the behavior and cognitive performance of the children. Highlight first minute of part 4 when Elliot talks about sending their data to Stanford for analysis.

- d. After viewing, facilitate discussion. Use handout as a guide.
 - i. Members may focus on the content of the activity and its unrealistic nature in today's school climate. Remind members that we are not suggesting they try this activity. Rather guide them to consider the power of the classroom teacher in establishing and maintaining the classroom environment. Also guide them to consider the research findings which show increased academic achievement for the "top group" even when the groups are reversed. Why might this be relevant today?
3. Briefly explain and discuss Meritocracy (~5 mins)
 - a. Read the definitions and ask for member responses
 - b. Read the quotes and ask members for responses
 - c. Stress the interconnectedness of society. "We're all in this together." "No person is an island."
4. Group discussion of evidence of institutional racism in field settings (15 mins)
 - a. Turn over handout and look at school funding data. Ask members what trends they notice.
 - b. Facilitate discussion of school funding as symptom of institutional racism/systemic racial oppression.
 - i. A large % of school funding is tied to property (and other local) taxes. Where are property taxes higher?
 - ii. Where is new construction happening? (not the inner city)
 - iii. What race/ethnicity of children tend to live in the lower funded districts?
 - iv. Can US public schools be considered a pure meritocracy?
5. Summary of group process & closure (5 mins)
 - a. Leader summarizes process, notes any key moments, asks members if anything important was left out.
 - b. Members say one word about how they are feeling in the moment.

Week: 8

Big Idea: Teachers have power to combat institutional racism in school settings.

Consolidation of learning.

Topics: What can White people do? What can teachers do? What have you learned?

How have you been challenged? What do you still wonder about?

Objective: To increase confidence in PSTs' ability to combat institutional racism.

Rationale: Teachers have an ethical obligation to dismantle school-based institutional racism (Oakes et al., 2012). There have been White resistance movements throughout history (Zinn, 2003).

Experiential Group Model:

1. Brief check-in (~5 mins)
 - a. Remind group members of norms established at first meeting
 - b. Ask for any thoughts, reflections, reactions since last meeting. Encourage members to talk about experiences they are having in the classroom related to multiculturalism/diversity.
2. Discussion of White resistance movements and personal examples (~15 mins)
 - a. Ask members to share any knowledge of White resistance movements and/or personal examples of confronting systemic racism.
 - b. Pass out “Some White Anti-Racists from US History”
 - i. Allow members a few minutes to look over list then facilitate discussion
 1. Ask members which names they recognize. Discuss what they know about the person, when/where they learned about them.
 2. Ask members to consider why most of these people are not talked about in history classes. Ask members to consider what it would have been like to learn about these people.
 3. Make the point that White people do have a history of confronting racism.

3. Commitment going forward (~25 mins)
 - a. Pass out “Guidelines for Being Strong White Allies”
 - i. As a group, read through numbers 1-13 and facilitate brief discussion of each guideline
 - b. Pass out “Tools for White Anti-Racist Organizing” and have members look on back page of “Guidelines for Being Strong White Allies”
 - i. Allow members several minutes to look over lists and inform that that we would like them to select at least five things that they will commit to doing
 - ii. Have each member share their commitments and facilitate brief discussion
4. Final group process summary (~10 mins)
 - a. Inform members that they will be receiving an email from Mark in the next few days with a link to the follow-up surveys. Thank them for taking the pre-tests and participating in the training, and remind them of the importance of also taking the post-tests.
 - i. The final questions ask if they would consider participating in further research on the same topic with Mark. They do not need to decide today. There are two options:
 1. Within one year, participate in a confidential interview, most likely via Skype, talking about their experience, feelings, thoughts, etc, about the training (a qualitative paper)
 2. Within five years, complete another round of confidential and anonymous online surveys to investigate whether any changes have lasted over time (a quantitative paper)
 - ii. If they are curious, share with them the longer-term goals of the research. I’d like to someday be able to investigate student outcomes (e.g., GPA, attendance rates, suspensions, graduation rates, etc.) of students who are in classes where the teacher has

participated in this type of training vs. students in classes where the teacher has not participated in this type of training

- iii. Finally, remind them that there will be a box to check if they'd like to be notified when the results are published and that there will be an area to leave feedback about the training
- b. Members say one word about how they are feeling in the moment.

Appendix C
Demographic Questionnaire

Demographic Questionnaire

1. Date of Birth _____

2. Gender: Male_____ Female_____ Transgender_____ Other (please specify)_____

3. Highest education level (circle one per person)

Your mother	Lower than high school	Some high school	High school	Some college	College graduate	Graduate degree	unknown
Your father	Lower than high school	Some high school	High school	Some college	College graduate	Graduate degree	unknown
Yourself	Lower than high school	Some high school	High school	Some college	College graduate	Graduate degree	

4. Approximate household income while in high school:

Less than \$10,000	\$10,000- \$25,000	\$25,000- \$50,000	\$50,000- \$100,000	\$100,000- \$250,000	More than \$250,000
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5. Which word best describes your race?

Asian Black Latino Native American White Other_____

6. Which word best describes your ethnicity?

Asian Black Latino Native American White Other_____

Appendix D

Teacher Multicultural Attitude Scale

Teacher Multicultural Attitude Scale

Please respond to each statement using the following options:

SD=Strongly disagree, D=Disagree, N=Neither agree nor disagree, A=Agree,

SA=Strongly Agree

- | | | | | | |
|---|----|---|---|---|----|
| 1. I find teaching a culturally diverse student group rewarding | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 2. Teaching methods need to be adapted to meet the needs of a culturally diverse student group | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 3. Sometimes I think that there is too much emphasis placed on multicultural awareness and training for teachers | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 4. Teachers have the responsibility to be aware of their students' cultural backgrounds | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 5. I frequently invite extended family member (e.g., cousins, grandparents, godparents) to attend parent-teacher conferences | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 6. It is not the teacher's responsibility to encourage pride in one's culture | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 7. As classrooms become more culturally diverse, the teacher's job becomes increasingly challenging | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 8. I believe that the teacher's role needs to be redefined to address the needs of students from culturally diverse backgrounds | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 9. When dealing with bilingual children, communication styles often are often interpreted as behavioral problems | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 10. As classrooms become more culturally diverse, the teacher's job becomes increasingly rewarding | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 11. I can learn a great deal from students with culturally diverse backgrounds | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 12. Multicultural training for teachers is not necessary | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 13. To be an effective teacher, one needs to be aware of cultural differences present in the classroom | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 14. Multicultural awareness training can help me to work more effectively with a diverse student population | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 15. Students should learn to communicate in English only | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 16. Today's curriculum gives undue importance to multiculturalism and diversity | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 17. I am aware of the diversity of cultural backgrounds in my classroom | SD | D | N | A | SA |

- | | | | | | |
|---|----|---|---|---|----|
| 18. Regardless of the makeup of my class, it is important for students to be aware of multicultural diversity | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 19. Being multiculturally aware is not relevant for the subject I teach | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 20. Teaching students about cultural diversity will only create conflict in the classroom | SD | D | N | A | SA |

Appendix E

Color-Blind Racial Attitude Scale

Color-Blind Racial Attitude Scale

Please respond to each statement using the following options:

SD=Strongly disagree , D=Disagree, N=Neither agree nor disagree, A=Agree,

SA=Strongly Agree

- | | | | | | |
|--|----|---|---|---|----|
| 1. Everyone who works hard, no matter what race they are, has an equal chance to become rich. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 2. Race plays a major role in the type of social services (such as type of health care or day care) that people receive in the U.S. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 3. It is important that people begin to think of themselves as American and not African American, Mexican American or Italian American | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 4. Due to racial discrimination, programs such as affirmative action are necessary to help create equality. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 5. Racism is a major problem in the U.S. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 6. Race is very important in determining who is successful and who is not. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 7. Racism may have been a problem in the past, it is not an important problem today. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 8. Racial and ethnic minorities do not have the same opportunities as white people in the U.S. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 9. White people in the U.S. are discriminated against because of the color of their skin. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 10. Talking about racial issues causes unnecessary tension. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 11. It is important for political leaders to talk about racism to help work through or solve society's problems. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 12. White people in the U.S. have certain advantages because of the color of their skin. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 13. Immigrants should try to fit into the culture and values of the U.S. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 14. English should be the only official language in the U.S. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 15. White people are more to blame for racial discrimination than racial and ethnic minorities. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 16. Social policies, such as affirmative action, discriminate unfairly against white people. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 17. It is important for public schools to teach about the history and contributions of racial and ethnic minorities. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 18. Racial and ethnic minorities in the U.S. have certain advantages because of the color of their skin. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 19. Racial problems in the U.S. are rare, isolated situations. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 20. Race plays an important role in who gets sent to prison. | SD | D | N | A | SA |

Appendix F

Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure

Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure

Please respond to each statement using the following options:

SD=Strongly disagree, D=Disagree, N=Neither agree nor disagree, A=Agree,

SA=Strongly Agree

- | | | | | | |
|---|----|---|---|---|----|
| 1. I have spent time trying to find out more about my ethnic group, such as its history, traditions, and customs. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 2. I am active in organizations or social groups that include mostly members of my own ethnic group. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 3. I have a clear sense of my ethnic background and what it means for me. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 4. I think a lot about how my life will be affected by my ethnic group membership. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 5. I am happy that I am a member of the group I belong to. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 6. I have a strong sense of belonging to my own ethnic group. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 7. I understand pretty well what my ethnic group membership means to me. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 8. In order to learn more about my ethnic background, I have often talked to other people about my group. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 9. I have a lot of pride on my ethnic group. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 10. I participate in cultural practices of my own group, such as special food, music, or customs. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 11. I feel a strong attachment towards my own ethnic group. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 12. I feel good about my cultural or ethnic background. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 13. My ethnicity is: | | | | | |
| a. Asian | | | | | |
| b. Black | | | | | |
| c. Latino | | | | | |
| d. White | | | | | |
| e. Native American | | | | | |
| f. Mixed | | | | | |
| g. Other | | | | | |
| 14. My father's ethnicity is: (use letters above) | | | | | |
| 15. My mother's ethnicity is (use letters above) | | | | | |

Appendix G
Semantic Differential Scale

Semantic Differential Scale

Instructions

The purpose of this instrument is to measure the meanings of certain things by having you judge them against a series of descriptive scales.

Please make your judgment on the basis of what the title concept listed at the top of each page means to you.

For example, if the title concept were "**Graduation**" you *could* check:

Useful : _____ : _____ : X : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : Useless

Slow : X : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : Fast

Weak : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : X : _____ : _____ : Strong

If that were how you felt about it, or check any other scale position to reflect your feelings. One check to a line.

Make each item a separate and independent judgment. It is not necessary to look back and forth trying to remember how you checked similar items previously.

It is your first impression (the immediate reaction to items) that is most useful, so work at a fairly high speed. On the other hand, please do not be careless, as we need your true impressions.

Concept 1: My Multicultural Competence

Mysterious : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : Understandable

Meaningful : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : Meaningless

Weak : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : Strong

Useful : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : Useless

Disorganized : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : Systematic

Positive : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : Negative

Concept 2: Preparation to Teach in a Multiculturally Competent Manner

Mysterious :____: :____: :____: :____: :____: :____: :____: Understandable

Meaningful :____: :____: :____: :____: :____: :____: :____: Meaningless

Weak :____: :____: :____: :____: :____: :____: :____: Strong

Useful :____: :____: :____: :____: :____: :____: :____: Useless

Disorganized :____: :____: :____: :____: :____: :____: :____: Systematic

Positive :____: :____: :____: :____: :____: :____: :____: Negative

Appendix H

Participants' Open-Ended Comments

Do you have any feedback about your participation in this study?

I thought this was a very educational study to be a part of. I am glad I actively participated in this study and I think it will help me out in my future classroom.

10/10 would do again. I have learned more in our 9 weeks about trying to teach to different ethnic groups than I have had at my 3 years in the Western teaching program

It was very enlightening and uplifted my spirit during this study.

This was a very eye opening study. Even though I have read about some racial inequities, this study has brought more to my attention. It was a very positive experience overall.

I think it was a great experience and has helped me to become more aware of different cultures.

I really enjoyed the topics, conversations, and resources that were given during this study. I enjoyed how this study got me to be much more consciously aware of multiculturalism. It would have been wonderful to include some further steps and suggestions on how to include these items in the classroom, and other steps that could be taken to fight against different injustices present in the world.

Obviously, the issue is whether Western Michigan University is preparing teachers to be multiculturally aware and literate when they enter the classroom to teach. I think that currently the teacher program is lacking in proper training in this area. However, I have seen attempts to rectify this prior to graduating. WMU needs to intensify the training due to the fact that we live in such a homogenous area. The current training offered through WMU will not prepare a teacher to step into an inner city school and teach.

It was a great study. Very important information, great discussion. The study gave me as a future teacher a lot to think about and look forward to incorporating into my classroom!

It was unfortunate being part of the control group because some training of any type would have likely been beneficial.

I really enjoyed the meetings that we had and how much more aware I am now of the diversity that I will be exposed to while teaching. Thanks Mark!

I enjoyed the candid and open conversations. I have thoughts in my head about race and it's nice to know that other people wonder about similar things. I also want to engage in more discussions on similar topics to further strengthen my multicultural competence.

I wish we had a few more sessions to have more in-depth conversations about actually putting this new information into practice in our own classrooms based on what subject we are teaching, what grade, etc. We could also share strategies with one another and have conversations about anything that did or did not work with our students.

This study was phenomenal. I truly feel that I've benefited from this in a multitude of ways.

It really helped me understand more about multicultural awareness; not only inside of a classroom, but in our every day life. I was able to think about it in a way that is relatable to my past experiences and situations.

The training we received in multicultural awareness was incredibly valuable in a real world sense, as well as applicable to the classroom. As a white individual, it is especially necessary to be aware of what being white means in the United States, how this is fair or unfair, and what can be done to improve the treatment of other cultures. As a teacher, the knowledge that I have taken from this training will help me to educate students in a more prepared way, especially in terms of involving multicultural affairs in the classroom.

This was a very eye-opening study/training course as it made me think in ways I have never thought before. It was very worthwhile and learned so much over the course of this training.

This study and the seminar sessions were eye-opening experiences for me.

This was a great training experience and training like this should be offered in our education program, or required.

This showed me another way of thinking, and although I still have some of my same ideas, some of them have changed.

I feel as a white person I have mixed feelings on social programs based around affirmative action. I feel as though these programs encourage people to view those who get into those programs just because of their ethnicity create a problem. The problem with this is that people who see these people get access to these programs feel discriminated against because of these programs which leads to a cycle of racism. It's hard to try to mandate equality without causing resentment. Aside from that though, I feel that it is often hard for me as a white student from a primarily middle class to relate to some of the multicultural aspects of students' lives. I am trying to educate myself further on these matters but I feel that it's hard to make genuine connections to those types of topics because I don't have too many actual experiences except for my experience in the Army.

Mark was great! It was such an interesting training!

It was really eye opening.

The study/training was highly enjoyable, felt pretty safe to talk about a potentially tense subject. Judgments were reserved and the extremely chill demeanor of Mr. Barajas was perfect for setting the tone of the environment. I highly enjoyed this, and even though I had seen/heard much of it before, refresher courses are vital in bringing multicultural awareness to the forefront of my mind and knocking down prejudices that I had re-erected.

This study was greatly beneficial for me and leaves me with so much to process mentally and with some changes I think I need to make in my life.

I found this study useful in further probing ideas already formed on the topic. I feel more comfortable discussing topics of race and ethnicity, and am experiencing the freedom that comes with that. I am better prepared to teach a diverse group of students, seeking to understand and grow in knowledge about what implications race and ethnicity really do have in our society. My goal is to open the conversation among my students, staff and parents in a sensitive but honest way. The first step is to really take a step, to ask questions and start having conversations that will lead to change.

It was a great experience, I learned a lot of useful statistics and viewpoints of people in a culture other than my own, I do however, wish I see race issues from a more current source, as many of the source material we looked at was 10+ years old.

I liked taking the study. It helped look at issues from another perspective.

Thanks for adapting your study to fit the WWTF weird timing. It was an interesting experience.

I thought this study was very interesting. I wish that we could have more time to talk about how to "teach" to students with diverse backgrounds. After this study, my eyes are definitely opened to racism more.

This was a great study for teachers to learn about diversity in the classroom.

Come up with a way that doesn't push people away. Also if the Multicultural movement wants to move towards racial peace and understanding, perhaps it would be useful not to push away certain racial groups with hypocritical blame.

I really am grateful for the topics we discussed and touched on. But I feel we never went very deep with them. I'm worried that the people in our group will be able to brush off their feelings of discomfort from the meetings with Mark, as we never sank the info and thinking into their deeper cracks and crevices. I wish we could've activated deeper levels of thinking and understanding.

The only thing I would have liked to explore was what multicultural awareness looks like in the classroom.

I would have really liked to be in the group that received the multicultural education. I don't feel that Western has prepared me to work with a culturally diverse student body.

I think the biggest lesson learned was that it's important to identify race as opposed to pretended we're all the same. We are very different, we just can't treat each other differently because of it.

Appendix I
Permission to Use Scales

Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM)

The MEIM was originally published in the following article:

Phinney, J. (1992). The Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure: A new scale for use with adolescents and young adults from diverse groups. Journal of Adolescent Research, 7, 156-176.

It has subsequently been used in dozens of studies and has consistently shown good reliability, typically with alphas above .80 across a wide range of ethnic groups and ages. On the basis of recent work, including a factor analysis of a large sample of adolescents*, it appears that the measure can best be thought of as comprising two factors, ethnic identity search (a developmental and cognitive component) and affirmation, belonging, and commitment (an affective component). Two items have been dropped and a few minor modifications have been made. Attached is the current revision of the measure, without the measure of Other-group orientation. The two factors, with this version, are as follows: ethnic identity search, items 1, 2, 4, 8, and 10; affirmation, belonging, and commitment, items 3, 5, 6, 7, 9, 11, 12. (None of the items are reversed.) The preferred scoring is to use the mean of the item scores; that is, the mean of the 12 items for an over-all score, and, if desired, the mean of the 5 items for search and the 7 items for affirmation. Thus the range of scores is from 1 to 4.

The suggested ethnic group names in the first paragraph can be adapted to particular populations. Items 13, 14, and 15 are used only for purposes of identification and categorization by ethnicity.

The Other-group orientation scale, which was developed with the original MEIM, is not included, as it is considered to be a separate construct. It can, of course, be used in conjunction with the MEIM.

Translations of the measure into Spanish and French now exist and are available, but we currently have no information on their reliability.

No written permission is required for use of the measure. However, if you decide to use the measure, please send me a summary of the results and a copy of any papers or publications that result from the study.

Jean S. Phinney, Ph.D.
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FAX: 323 343-2281
E-mail: jphinne@calstatela.edu

Teacher Multicultural Attitude Scale (TMAS)

Hello Dr. Ponterotto-- I'm writing to ask your permission to use the Teacher Multicultural Attitude Scale in my dissertation examining pedagogical approaches to multicultural education within teacher education.

I'm a PhD student in counseling psychology and a former high school science teacher. Please let me know if you would like more information.

Sincerely,
Mark Barajas

Hi Mark,

you have my permission; see attached. be sure to calculate reliability (coefficient alpha) with your sample; see attached pdf.
good luck.

joe ponterotto

Color-Blind Racial Attitude Scale (CoBRAS)

Hello Dr. Neville -- I'm writing to ask your permission to use the Color-Blind Racial Attitude Scale in my dissertation examining pedagogical approaches to multicultural education within teacher education.

I'm a PhD student in counseling psychology and a former high school science teacher. Please let me know if you would like more information.

Sincerely,
Mark Barajas

Dear Mark,

Thank you for your interest in the CoBRAS. Yes, of course, please use the scale. I have attached the scoring and utilization forms.

Please keep me posted of your findings.

Peace --helen

Helen A. Neville, Ph.D.
Chair, Counseling Psychology Program
Professor, Educational Psychology and African American Studies

Appendix J

**Human Subjects Institutional Review Board
Letter of Approval**

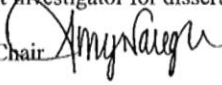
WESTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY



Human Subjects Institutional Review Board

Date: September 4, 2013

To: Alan Hovestadt, Principal Investigator
Mark Barajas, Student Investigator for dissertation

From: Amy Naugle, Ph.D., Chair 

Re: HSIRB Project Number 13-08-19

This letter will serve as confirmation that your research project titled "Pedagogical Approaches to Multicultural Education with Teacher Preparation Programs" has been **approved** under the **expedited** category of review by the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board. The conditions and duration of this approval are specified in the Policies of Western Michigan University. You may now begin to implement the research as described in the application.

Please note: This research may **only** be conducted exactly in the form it was approved. You must seek specific board approval for any changes in this project (e.g., *you must request a post approval change to enroll subjects beyond the number stated in your application under "Number of subjects you want to complete the study."*) Failure to obtain approval for changes will result in a protocol deviation. In addition, if there are any unanticipated adverse reactions or unanticipated events associated with the conduct of this research, you should immediately suspend the project and contact the Chair of the HSIRB for consultation.

Reapproval of the project is required if it extends beyond the termination date stated below.

The Board wishes you success in the pursuit of your research goals.

Approval Termination: September 4, 2014