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PREPARING AFRICAN AMERICAN PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS TO TEACH
STUDENTS OF COLOR: MERGING CRITICAL THEORIES IN EDUCATION AND
PSYCHOLOGY TO EFFECT TRANSFORMATIVE CHANGE

Sherri Linise Murry

Submitted to the faculty of the School of Education
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree
Doctor of Philosophy
in the Department of Counseling and Educational Psychology,
Indiana University

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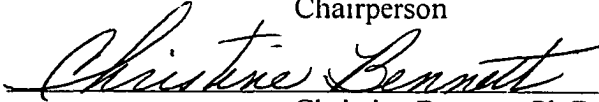
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DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate my dissertation to my loving and supportive family and many friends. First, to my mother, Anna Murry, who was the first to believe that I could achieve anything, all I had to do was get to it. You are my constant support through all my good and bad spells. I shudder to think what my life would have been if God did not blessed me to you. I love and thank you, Mommie.

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To all my many "sista-friends," you know who you are. I thank you for your listening ears and your strong shoulders. I pray that somehow that I was able to return the favor.

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It is over. Now, where's the party at?

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Sherri Linise Murry

PREPARING AFRICAN AMERICAN PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS TO TEACH STUDENTS OF COLOR: MERGING CRITICAL THEORIES IN EDUCATION AND PSYCHOLOGY TO EFFECT TRANSFORMATIVE CHANGE

The educational plight of children of color is discouraging. In general, African American and Latino/a students demonstrate lower academic achievement and higher dropout rates than their White counterparts. Based on the existing research, efforts to improve the educational plight of students of color will depend, in part, on equipping a teaching force with competencies geared not only to the practice of teaching, but also to the cultivation of positive identities in students.

Critical theories in education and psychology can be integrated and applied to meet the needs of teachers in teacher training programs and of students in U.S. classrooms. In this study, it is proposed that teachers trained to promote new experiences, take risks, develop their personal selves, and create safe and caring environments, are also likely to transfer similar processes to their students.

The intent of this dissertation research was to investigate the change processes of three African American pre-service teachers as they applied their learning of culturally relevant teaching to racially diverse classrooms. It focused on individual change in teaching efficacy as well as alterations in classroom practices. Both quantitative and qualitative procedures were utilized.

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This investigator found that changes in the pre-service teachers' beliefs about their ability to teach and in their teaching practices related closely to their racial identity development. Importantly, the results of this study drew attention to the susceptibility of novice teachers to internalized racism. As education has been deemed a process of socialization, research on the racial aspects of development can contribute in important ways to an understanding of change and growth in teachers. Recommendations are considered for teacher education and reform.

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List of Tables, Figures, and Appendices

A	Demographic Sheet
B	Teacher Efficacy Scale
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D	Participants' item responses and mean scores across all administrations of Teacher Efficacy Scale

Preparing African American Pre-Service Teachers to Teach Students of Color: Merging
Critical Theories in Education and Psychology to Effect Transformative Change

Chapter One: Introduction

The educational plight of children of color is discouraging. According to Lomotey

(1997), African American students begin to fall behind academically in reading, writing,

and arithmetic around the third and fourth grades. Compared to Whites, racial/ethnic

minorities are less likely to take advanced mathematics and science (Avery & Walker,

1993). In general, African American and Latino/a students demonstrate lower academic

achievement and higher dropout rates compared to White students (Campbell, Voelkl, &

Donahue, 1998; U.S. Department of Education, 1999). Long-term projections propose

that the academic failure of students of color will reflect in increasingly higher rates of

high school dropouts, drug addiction, unemployment, incarceration, teen pregnancy, and

social welfare (Pang & Sablan, 1998). Improving the educational plight of students of

color is dependent in part on training a competent and racially/culturally responsive

teaching force.

As the population of children in U.S. schools becomes increasingly racially

diverse, the presence of teachers of color appears to be gradually diminishing (Chance &

Gunn, 1996). Forty-seven percent of the nation's schools are without teachers of color

(defined as persons in non-White racial categories) and are overwhelming White and

female (Chance & Gunn, 1996). Furthermore, though initiatives to increase the number

of teachers of color are being implemented across the country, such efforts so far have

had relatively little impact on diversifying U.S. schools (Chance & Gunn, 1996).

Empirical evidence demonstrates that during teacher training, prospective

teachers learn to transmit values of the status quo, values that perpetuate negative,

stereotypical beliefs about people on the basis of race, gender, and social class (Burstein & Cabello, 1989; Kuykendall, 1992). Teacher education programs can nurture prejudicial and racist beliefs about students of color and accordingly, translate into teaching practices that reflect these beliefs and stereotypes. Research has shown that when teachers expect little of their students academically, their behaviors in the classroom often implicitly convey these low expectations. As a consequence, these students are less likely to achieve (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Kuykendall, 1992). Several researchers have also demonstrated that pre-service teachers' limited exposure to ethnic minority students reinforces negative stereotypes of these students (Ahlquist, 1991; Avery & Walker, 1993). The collective body of research on teaching competence with students of color suggests that without affective and meaningful challenges within a broader, societal climate of racism, teachers' negative belief systems are likely to remain fixed or strengthen over time, doing more harm than good for their students (Pajares, 1992). Yet, the research samples in this area have been primarily White (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Pang & Sablan, 1998; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990).

Because teachers are instrumental in children's socialization, a racially diversified teaching body can serve well the needs of students of color in shaping their learning and in providing them with educational role models (Grant & Secada, 1990). Still, ensuring racial representation does not alone guarantee the types of learning environments that students of color need in order to prepare them for the future. Many argue that today's teacher training programs are not preparing teachers regardless of race to work with students of color (Grant & Secada, 1990; Guillaume, Zuniga, & Yee, 1998; Kestner,

1994). In fact, it is likely that teachers of color experience challenges that are not only similar to those of white teachers (described earlier), but also different.

The different challenges these teachers face are rarely addressed in the education literature. However, the psychology literature has begun scrutinizing issues of professional effectiveness as related to therapists of color with clients of color (Helms, 1995; Helms & Cook, 1999; Thompson & Carter, 1997). Transferring these conceptualizations to teaching, the challenges teachers of color face when teaching children of color might include: 1) issues of racial over-identification, whereby the teachers may become overly invested in correcting problems that they themselves experienced in school, but without sufficient introspection to be effective, 2) the need to overcome disparaging thoughts about themselves and students of color as racial beings 3) an inability to translate their racial pride to actual interventions or strategies due to inadequate training models and 4) experiencing a diminished sense of confidence in the teaching role due to a lack of professional role models. To date, very little research has been conducted on the potential dilemmas of teachers of color with students of color; consequently, there is little empirical data to support these claims within the educational area (Gustein, Lipman, Hernandez, & de los Reyes, 1997; Pang & Sablan, 1998).

Racial identity refers to a "sense of group or collective identity based on one's perception that he or she shares a common heritage with a particular racial group" (Helms, 1990, p.3). Racial identity development entails shifts in one's worldview. Progressive development in racial identity is achieved with a series of experiences and self-reflections that is facilitated by a leader, such as a therapist, teacher, or teacher educator. Helms posited that development in racial identity parallels the emergence of a

less fragmented racial self. Hence, moral deliberations on race and on its effects on humankind influence realistic and integrated appraisals of the self and of racial "others" (Thompson & Carter, 1997).

Notably, racial identity theory proposes that people of color can internalize negative ideas about themselves and about racially similar others, these ideas and beliefs, also termed internalized racism, are manifested in levels of mistrust that people of color have of one another, expression of disparaging and stereotyped views of self and racially similar others, and alternatively, the expression of superior qualities presumed to be possessed by Whites. In both the White and People of Color racial identity models, progress in racial identity development involves the movement of the person beyond points of denial, fixation, or preoccupation. Advanced status characteristics include: high self-confidence, complex and flexible information processing strategies, the ability to perceive and cope effectively with reality, and a commitment to eradicating oppression in all forms (Helms, 1995). As the individual struggles to make sense of contradictions in reality relative to race and to utilize more complex strategies to process these stimuli, he/she must also come to terms with the various sociopolitical forces that serve to bring depth to his or her understanding of the world. When the individual is unable to accurately perceive certain forces of domination because of denial or preoccupation, he or she is also unable to view the world or self in an integrated or holistic fashion. The development of racial identity can therefore offers individuals a means to examine how multiple structures of disadvantage like sexism, class, exploitation, and heterosexism, cyclically perpetuate oppression. This development urges individuals to contemplate their beliefs about themselves relative to humanity and eventually, to eradicate oppression of

all forms. Change can occur not only at the individual level, but also at the group, organizational, and societal levels (Thompson & Carter, 1997).

With the integration of other psychological research on change processes (Mahoney and McCray-Patterson, 1992) and the research and scholarship on teaching for critical consciousness (Gustein, et al., 1997), teacher education can be transformed to meet the needs of students of color and the future teachers (Cabello & Burstein, 1995; Pang & Sablan, 1998). According to the psychological literature, certain conditions need to be in place for meaningful and long lasting change to occur. Referring to client change in psychotherapy, Mahoney and McCray-Patterson (1992) suggest that real change can only be achieved through deep and recurring emotional experience. In their study, practicing psychologists who were queried about the ingredients to successful change stated that (1) an exploration of new experiences, (2) risk-taking behavior, (3) self-system development, and (4) a safe and caring environment are factors that are needed to facilitate change (Mahoney and McCray-Patterson, 1992). It is proposed in this research study that one pathway to helping create change in the education of children of color is to create similar ingredients in the classroom and in parallel fashion, in the training of teachers. Stated another way, teachers of all races who are taught and encouraged to promote and explore new experiences, take risks, develop their personal selves, and create safe, caring environments, are also likely to transfer similar processes to their students. Freire (1972) and others (Gustein, et al., 1997; Pang & Sablan, 1998) have articulated similar ingredients for helping to empower marginalized groups through educational practices.

Ladson-Billings (1992) has described one such educational practice as used by culturally relevant teachers. Culturally relevant teachers are aware of and use their students' cultural and racial identities to encourage and promote learning. Their students learn and change by using their cultural knowledge to impart knowledge and skills (Ladson-Billings, 1994a, 1994b). Ladson-Billings (1992) believes that there is an important connection between culturally relevant teachers and their impact on their students:

> . . . [C]ulturally relevant teaching serves to empower students to the point where they will be able to examine critically educational content and process and ask what its role is in creating a truly democratic and multicultural society (p. 110).

Culturally relevant teaching (CRT) requires that teachers invite students to use personal experience and knowledge in order to make sense of their worlds. CRT is a practice of empowering students by transforming teachers in becoming (more) effective agents of change. Students in CRT classrooms are continually urged to critically examine educational materials and ask how this information plays out in creating a democratic society. CRT also uses the context of the students' culture to facilitate their meaning and understanding of the world (Ladson-Billings, 1992).

According to Ladson-Billings (1992), CRT is an art that requires creative thinking. A teacher who is culturally relevant in the classroom understands how his or her students' culture can be used to empower their learning and facilitate a social interaction beyond the classroom (Ladson-Billings, 1992). Several researchers have suggested that successful teachers of ethnic minority students are effective in empowering students

because they not only work on transforming themselves, but also make constant efforts to eliminate the status quo in their classrooms (Foster, 1994; Freire, 1973; Gustein, et al., 1997).

As mentioned earlier, teachers of color have different issues and challenges than White teachers when it comes to teaching students of color. Mainly, teachers of color may be eager to work with students of color, but feel ill equipped to teach them effectively (Chance & Gunn, 1996; Grant & Secada, 1990). It would seem at least conceptually that CRT is an aspiration for which all teachers should aim. Yet, there may be particular needs that should be taken into account in devising teacher education programs, such as challenges faced by teachers of majority vs. minority status. Teachers of color, as professionals also experience the system of racial stratification as "subordinates," may benefit from training programs that address the complexities of internalized racism as obstructions of teaching efficacy.

Bandura's (1977) theory of self-efficacy provides a viable framework for training teachers to become responsive to the needs of children of color. Research has demonstrated that when teachers believe that they are competent in their professional responsibilities, the achievement of their students is higher than those students of teachers who believe less in their ability to teach (Ashton & Webb, 1986; McLaughlin & Berman, 1977; Pang & Sablan, 1998). The four sources of self-efficacy that lend themselves to changing irrational belief systems about self and self in a career (self as a teacher) are:(1) providing persons with meaningful opportunities to perform (2) facilitating emotional experiences, (3) partnering with effective role models and (4) providing encouragement. That is, pre-service teachers' teacher efficacy is examined as a by-product of teacher

training program. This type of intervention offers a promising model for preparing pre-service teachers to empower and teach students of color.

Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory is a useful framework for examining the implementation of a behavior- in this case the practice of culturally relevant teaching. The theory emphasizes the mastery of a skill, which influences beliefs. In this case, the task is culturally relevant teaching. The ingredients for believing in self as an efficacious culturally relevant teacher consist not only of the four sources of building self-efficacy, such as opportunities to teach students of color early while in the training, but importantly, encouraging an awareness of self as a cultural/racial being, achieving an understanding of reality as informed by divergent (not solely mainstream) sources, and a support system that fosters a culturally relevant teacher. These sources of self- efficiacy speak to the relationship and facilitative aspects of change that are frequently researched in psychological literature.

<u>Purpose of the Study</u>

The foci of this study were three-fold:(1) document changes, if any, in the teaching and personal teaching efficacy beliefs of three African American pre-service teachers over a span of 10 weeks of teaching and teaching preparation; (2) record behavioral changes in how they practiced culturally relevant teaching (in contrast to assimilationalist teaching strategies); and (3) discern any additional teaching behaviors that are consistent with Ladson-Billings' definition and descriptions of CRT yet not previously documented in the research literature.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

The following chapter presents a review of the literature on research on teachers' beliefs concerning their efficacy relative to teaching students of color, culturally relevant teaching, self-efficacy theory, teacher efficacy research, and psychological research on transformative change. The chapter concludes with a discussion of these findings and the purpose of the present study.

<u>Teachers' Efficacy Beliefs in Teaching Students of Color</u>

Only one study has examined teacher efficacy as it relates to underrepresented groups. Pang and Sablan (1998) explored the teaching efficacy, relative to African American students, of pre-service and in-service teachers. Pang & Sablan (1998) proposed that if teachers believe that they are unable to reach a specific group, then they will not have high expectations for the students and subsequently they would less likely to use pedagogies that support and empower their students who are trying to learn. Pang & Sablan (1998) investigated four hypotheses: 1) Are teacher efficacy survey items from previous studies appropriate for measuring beliefs about African American students?, 2) Can teacher efficacy variables predict group membership between pre-service and in-service teachers and which efficacy variables are best in predicting group membership?, 3) Are there significant difference between pre-service and in-service teachers in efficacy beliefs about African American students? and 4) What general perceptions do pre-service and in-service teachers have about African American students and communities?

The instrument to collect data was adapted from the work of Gibson and Dembo (1984), Woolfolk and Hoy (1990) and Riggs and Enochs (1990). A 5-point Likert type scale was used to indicate agreement from strongly agree to strongly disagree for 30

items. This instrument was adapted to beliefs about African American students. One hundred pre-service and 75 in-service teachers who were enrolled in a multicultural education course at a large Southern California university were surveyed. The sample included 129 females, 41 males, and 5 did not indicate gender. Of the 175 students in the sample, 129 indicated themselves as European Americans, 24 as Latinos, 10 as Asian Americans, 4 as Native Americans, 3 as African Americans, one person indicated mixed ethnicity, and four persons did not indicate ethnicity. In-service teachers' average years of teaching was 8.3 years.

The factor analysis of the adapted instrument supported the two-factor teacher efficacy construct as observed in previous studies (Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). The second research question, 'Can teacher efficacy variables predict group membership between pre-service and in-service teachers and which efficacy variables are best in predicting group membership?', yielded significant findings. Of the 30 efficacy statements that discriminated group membership, four were from the personal teaching efficacy factor and one was from the teaching efficacy factor. Pang and Sablan also found that pre-service teachers had significantly higher mean scores on the personal teaching efficacy factor than in-service teachers. This finding suggests that pre-service teachers were more likely to believe that they have the ability to motivate their students and feel that they are responsible to explore other ways of knowing to facilitate the learning process.

There was no difference between pre-service and in-service teachers' teaching efficacy factor. Forty-seven percent of the sample believed that they knew a lot about the African American culture and values while 29% indicated that they did not know a lot

about the African American culture and values and 24% were uncertain. Pang and Sablan stated the most troubling finding included an item analysis of several items. Forty-one percent of the sample did not disagree with the statement that their classroom instruction had little influence on African American students when compared to the influence of their homes; 65% of the sample did not disagree with the statement that even a teacher with good teaching abilities may not reach African American youth; finally, 54% of the sample was uncertain or disagreed with the statement if an African American student did not remember information, then he or she would know how to increase his or her knowledge retention for the next lesson. In general, teachers in this sample did not feel confident about their personal abilities to teach African American students. The major shortcoming of this study is that it did not provide analysis of ethnic group differences among teachers.

<u>Culturally Relevant Teaching</u>

A conceptual frame for understanding culturally relevant teaching can best be made by examining the work of Paulo Freire. Culturally relevant teaching is a pedagogy that emphasizes empowerment. Empowerment fosters intellectual, emotional, and socio-political growth among students. Paulo Freire's work in critical pedagogy addresses similar issues in education in particular how they play out in the student-teacher relationship. Freire (1973) believes that traditional education and student-teacher relationship maintains the status quo in the classroom by subscribing to "banking" education. Banking education assumes that the teachers are the sole source of knowledge and deposit their "way of thinking" or knowledge, a mirror of social and political position of the society, into their students. This pedagogy assumes that the dominant member, the

teacher, sees his or her students with little knowledge to bring to the classroom. On the other hand, critical pedagogy emphasizes that teachers inspire their students to become co-creators of understanding knowledge.

> Provided with the proper tools for such encounter, the individual can gradually perceive personal and social reality as well as the contradictions in it, become conscious of his or her perception of that reality, and deal critically with it (Freire, 1973, p.14).

Much like critical pedagogy, CRT emphasizes empowering students and also transforming how teachers view selves as agents of change. Specifically, Ladson-Billings (1992) states that CRT serves to empower students to critically examine educational materials and ask how this information plays out in creating a democratic society. CRT also uses the context of the students' culture to facilitate their meaning and understanding of the world (Ladson-Billings, 1992).

The anthropology of education literature has applied several labels to the pedagogy of culturally relevant teaching (Ladson-Billings, 1992), such as "culturally congruent teaching," "culturally appropriate teaching" and "culturally compatible teaching." According to Osborne (1989), cultural congruence implies that a one-to-one association between the school and the home that such a relationship does not always exist between the school and home. Rather, school curriculum and messengers of the curriculum (e.g., teachers) reflect the status quo, while home environment can reflect some practices of resistance (Foster, 1994a; Foster, 1994b). Cultural appropriateness and cultural compatibility suggest that educational practices match students' cultural values. By contrast, culturally relevant teaching " . . . is designed to foster education that

empowers and enables learners to make changes in the society" (Ladson-Billings, 1990, p. 339).

Hence, it is more than educational practices that reflects students' culture. Rather, it is model of teaching that promotes critically thinking among students about selves in a social and cultural world. Facilitating this important skill, critical thinking, is the culturally relevant teacher. There have been several researchers, in particular Michele Foster and Gloria Ladson-Billings, who have studied the practices of successful teachers of African American children.

Ladson-Billings' (1992, 1994a, 1994b) work focused extensively on examining culturally relevant teaching (CRT) among successful teachers of African American students. Ladson-Billings' primary goal was to document the practices of successful teachers of African American students. She was able to document their behavior/practice through observation, interviews, and qualitative analyses of the data. Ladson-Billings interviewed and observed successful teachers of African American students in a small, low-income and predominantly African American kindergarten through 8th grade school district in the state of California. The purpose of the study was to discover the attributes of successful teachers of African American children and provide recommendations for teacher preparation programs out of which emerge the model of culturally relevant teaching. In the first phase of the study, Ladson-Billings selected the teachers through a nomination format called community nomination. Parents, principals, and teachers identified and nominated successful teachers. The investigator then crosschecked the nominations with other teachers on the school staff.

The second phase of the study captured details about CRT. Ladson-Billings interviewed, observed and videotaped eight female teachers from the community (five African Americans and three White). The third phase of the study included the teachers collaborating with the researcher to analyze and interpret classroom-teaching data. Ladson-Billings wanted to document these practices of culturally relevant teaching to illustrate its dichotomous relationship to assimilationist teaching. In 1994, Ladson-Billings presented an accumulation of her research in <u>Dreamkeepers: Successful teachers of African American students</u>. In this ethnographic work, she presents the characteristics of culturally relevant teaching. Ladson-Billings (1994a, 1994b) found three major characteristics of successful teachers of African American students:

1) informed perceptions of themselves as teachers and their students

2) an understanding of how social interaction impacts the classroom and

3) an in-depth understanding of knowledge acquisition and content.

In contrast to CRT, Ladson-Billings (1990) states that assimilationist teaching ". . . is designed to foster education that is utilitarian, . . . as preparation for an occupation" (p. 339).

Ladson-Billings distinguishes CRT from assimilationist teaching in several ways. The first distinction between assimilationist teaching and CRT is conception of self. Assimilationist teaching is a way of teaching to achieve a pre-determined end as defined by the authorities that be (e.g., teachers, guidance counselors). In her study, assimilationist teachers believe that they are the source of knowledge. Ownership of knowledge is a way of disconnecting self from a community. Alternatively, culturally relevant teachers viewed selves as part of the community and demonstrated a willingness

to integrate the uniqueness of their students into teaching. Culturally relevant teachers also believed that students' knowledge and selves were valuable and important contributions to the learning process. This approach created a collaboration in the classroom between the teacher and students and subsequently, among the students.

A CRT teacher's commitment to the learning process is not only to impart knowledge, but also to learn from his or her students. There is a belief that all students can succeed (Ladson-Billings, 1994a, 1994b). Table 1 illustrates the pedagogical distinction of the conception of self.

Table 1: Conceptions of self

Culturally Relevant Teaching	Assimilationist Teaching
Teacher facilitates with students making connections between self and community	Teacher promotes students to accept the "American" identity
Teacher is part of the community and provides time and energy to his/her community. He/she is a model for his/her students	Teacher creates an atmosphere that promotes the idea that achievement is to disconnect from the community
Teacher encourages students to make connections about ethnic self and the global community	Teacher promotes a mono-identity, e.g., one that is not determined or influenced by the environment
Teacher co-teaches knowledge	Teacher practices from an expert-approach

Further, culturally relevant teaching expresses the importance of positive and collaborative social relations while assimilationist teaching emphasized individualism and a hierarchy (Ladson-Billings, 1994a, 1994b). CRT teachers in the study reported their classrooms represented a "community or a family" as well as positive social relations (see Table 2).

Table 2: Social Relations

Culturally Relevant Teaching	Assimilationist Teaching
Teacher assigns cooperative activities	Teacher assigns individual competition activities
Teacher and student relationship extends beyond classroom with interaction in the community	Teacher and student relationship is maintained in the classroom
Teacher demonstrates a connection with all students	Teacher demonstrates favoritism for certain students

Finally, CRT teachers challenged the curriculum of the status quo. One teacher, involved in a statewide curriculum project, became involved in changing a curriculum that failed to recognize the experiences of African American students. These teachers actively made educational content decisions that would reflect the educational needs and socio-political identities of their students. Conversely, assimilationist teachers promoted a curriculum without considering how it may inversely impact the student's learning (Table 3).

Table 3: Conceptions of knowledge

Culturally Relevant Teaching	Assimilationist Teaching
Teacher critically reviews content.	Teacher considers content as infallible.
Teacher sees knowledge as continuously recycled, re-created, and shared.	Teacher sees knowledge as static and passed on to the student.
Teacher shares a personal connection to the content.	Teacher is detached from the content.

Ladson-Billings utilized a unique methodology to document and examine culturally relevant teaching. Ladson-Billings considered the ethnographic interview to be compatible with the African American value of oral recollection. The interviews ranged

from 50 minutes to two hours in length. The researcher had standard questions for all the teachers, with additional questions prompted by the teachers' responses.

This pioneering study provided the foundation for examining culturally relevant teaching. Ladson-Billings (1992) recommends that researchers begin to construct a training model of culturally relevant teaching for teacher education programs that would provide specific details of CRT practices. This model would inform how programs train pre-service teachers of color who will teach African American students. There is also a need to document the practice of pre-service teachers (Ladson-Billings, 1992).

Gustein, et al. (1997) investigated the intersection of culturally relevant teaching and mathematics education. The purpose of the study was to contribute to the empirical literature of culturally relevant teaching by documenting the incorporation of Hispanic students' cultural and experiential knowledge in the context of mathematics instruction. The researchers interviewed and observed five teachers from a large school, one of the largest Mexican American communities in the United States, in Chicago. Ninety-six percent of the students were Mexican American and 99% of the students were considered low income. Forty-three percent of the students were eligible for bilingual education. For one year, eight mathematics teachers were trained to extend critical thinking about math to broader aspects outside of the classroom. During the training, Gustein observed and participated in classes and helped teachers to plan lessons. Subsequently, five teachers were observed to document the practices of culturally relevant teaching with regard to math education. Based on the following criteria, the researchers selected five teachers to study who (1) believed that all children could learn; 2) valued the culture and language of

the children and their families; 3) cared about the children; and 4) saw their work as a calling (Gustein, et al., 1997, p. 716).

Because the researchers were interested in the explicit practices and beliefs of the teachers, they chose to use qualitative methods. The data consisted of field notes of classroom observations, open-ended interviews, materials used by teachers (lesson plans, class assignments, etc.), and other school documents (e.g., demographic data, school brochures, etc.). Another source of data included the teachers' group discussions and taped journals. Their students were also interviewed. The analysis of the data was collected from the coded field notes and transcriptions of themes from interviews and journals. From the analysis emerged the patterns and relationships of for a training model. In this study, teachers encouraged students to critically challenge knowledge and facilitated students finding their own voices to construct their own knowledge. For example, in the 26 observations of one teacher, the researchers observed how the teacher challenged her students to justify their answers. This process of questioning educational materials and justifying answers reflected active participation in a democratic process. The teachers in this study deliberately empowered students to acquire critical thinking skills through the democratic process. As a result of this process, the researchers noted that the students were active leaders in the whole classroom. The process of critical thinking is a characteristic of culturally relevant teaching.

Gustein and colleagues (1997) found that the teachers valued their students' cultural and experiential knowledge. For instance, one teacher used the students' informal knowledge of the geometry of roads as nonlinear objects to help the students to make the relationship of actual distances to road distances. In this instance, the teacher, although

the expert on geometry on road distances, used his students' informal knowledge to develop a mathematical concept. The teacher and the students become co-teachers. The last component of the training focused on the orientations to students' cultures and experiences. This focus parallels what Ladson-Billings (1992) described as social relations in culturally relevant teaching. The interviews with the teachers revealed that the teachers saw relations with the students as a form of solidarity. Their solidarity was understood as seeing themselves in their students:

> I came from the same background as these kids. . . . I identify myself with these kids. They struggled when they came to this new country, the language barrier, the new customs, the food, and the family structure. So rather than being more like a teacher, I'm more like a mirror. I'm trying to have the kids see me as a future image for the kids, if they keep working hard and learning. They have an example in the teachers (p. 728)

The idea of solidarity is contrary to assimilationist teaching (Ladson-Billings, 1994a, 1994b), where students and families from such backgrounds are seen as victims and without strengths or positive influences for students' academic achievements.

The strength of this study was the documentation of the practices of culturally relevant teaching in the context of mathematics education. However, the investigators did not describe how the data were validated. For instance, in Ladson-Billings' study, the researcher cross-validated the data with the teachers. The results call into question consensus of the patterns and relationships observed and recorded by the researchers.

The methodology of these two studies is intended to provide support for an in-depth approach to capture the patterns of culturally relevant teaching. Insomuch as it is to

capture these patterns, it will be important to document the transferability of these practices from the teacher education programs to the field. This approach is democratic in that it allows the investigator as well as the participants to examine what is happening in the classroom that facilitates an atmosphere of culturally relevant teaching. Ladson-Billings' methodology demonstrates a willingness to move from the traditional inquiry design of 'either-or' to a more inclusive, diverse 'both-and' design. Qualitative methodologies best capture efficacy beliefs of teachers and teacher candidates (Ashton & Webb, 1984; Brookhart & Freeman, 1992; Munby, 1984).

There is a need to investigate culturally relevant teaching further (Ladson-Billings, 1992). Documenting the successful practices of teachers of students of color would help inform teacher education and reform. As Foster (1994) and others (Dilworth, 1990; Gustein, et al., 1997) contend, the research has not focused specifically on the successful teachers who work with special populations. Hence, there is little information about how teachers apply their practice. This knowledge would help inform teacher education in developing strategies to train future teachers of color and White teachers who will teach an increasing ethnic minority student population. Ladson-Billings (1994a, 1994b) found that in her literature review of the ERIC database that research on preparing teachers for teaching African American students was " . . . virtually non-existent" (p. 132). It is the intent of this study to explicitly document the practices of pre-service teachers, trained in culturally relevant teaching, and their confidence in their abilities to teach students of color.

Although the research that exists of CRT is scant due to its relative recency, the pedagogy is valuable in engaging students in learning. Research should address how this

can be implemented in training pre-service teachers (Pang & Sablan, 1998) as well as pre-service teachers' confidence in their ability to teach students of color. The self-efficacy model as proposed by Albert Bandura (1977) provides a model to develop and examine beliefs and behaviors relative to teaching students of color.

<u>Self-Efficacy Theory</u>

Bandura's (1977) theory of self-efficacy proposes that a person's likelihood of performing a behavior is created and strengthened by the degree to which he or she believes the behavior/task can be performed successfully. The perceived ability to perform a task is called self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is based on four major sources of information: performance accomplishment, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal. Bandura proposes that behavior and belief system changes can be facilitated through these four sources of self-efficacy. Performance accomplishments are based on mastery skills and are considered the most influential source of information for self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977). As a person's success at a particular behavior improves, mastery expectations (beliefs) strengthen as well. The person's occasional failures are seen as less substantial to self-efficacy.

Vicarious experience is viewed as the modeling element. Seeing others perform a behavior and succeed with performance of the behavior strengthens the person's beliefs that he or she can accomplish some success at the task. Verbal persuasion or encouragement strengthens a person's beliefs of accomplishing a task successfully, but does not necessarily enhance self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977). Encouragement facilitates one's attempts to engage in a behavior. The final source of self-efficacy, emotional arousal, refers to engaging in a new behavior can be anxiety provoking. Desensitizing or

recognizing anxiety cues can facilitate the person working through the situation to achieve the desired behavior and/or expectation. If one has some control of his or her emotional state and can induce a less anxious state, then his or her beliefs strengthen; subsequently, he or she is more likely to perform the behavior.

Based on his early theory of social learning, Bandura (1977) suggested that a person's motivation is influenced by outcome expectations and efficacy expectations. Outcome expectations are those judgments that result in the likelihood of one or more behaviors occurring. Efficacy expectations are the individual's belief that he or she is capable of achieving a level of performance. Bandura contends that outcome and efficacy expectations are inter-related. Specifically, an outcome that is anticipated by an individual is largely based on his or her judgments of how well he or she will perform the task at hand (Bandura, 1977).

<u>Teacher Efficacy Research</u>

Early studies of teacher efficacy focused on clarifying the relevance of the premises to teacher beliefs and behaviors in the practice of teaching (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Guskey & Passaro, 1994; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). For example, Woolfolk & Hoy (1990) believe that teacher efficacy has two independent factors: teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy that are empirically supported (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Gibson & Dembo, 1984). Personal teaching efficacy is the teacher's beliefs that his or her personal ability to help students learn, while teaching efficacy considers the extent that the teacher believes teaching can overcome external influences that have an impact on students.

One of the first studies on teacher efficacy documented teacher efficacy beliefs via ethnographic observations and questionnaire (Ashton & Webb, 1986). Ashton and Webb systematically observed and described the relationships among teacher attitudes and behavior and student behavior and achievement. The researchers hypothesized that high teacher efficacy teachers differ from low teacher efficacy teachers in terms of their interactions with students. Forty-eight basic skill teachers (mathematics and communication) from a southeastern university community participated in the study. One basic skills class for each teacher was observed at least twice. Observations were carried out over a 2-month period in 9th, 10th, and 11th grade classes. To measure teacher attitudes, teachers completed a questionnaire that included several measures. Efficacy questions included two efficacy items developed by researchers from the Rand Corporation, an eight-item forced-choice measure called the Webb Efficacy (developed for the study), and a measure of personal teaching efficacy comprised of 15 vignettes, called the Efficacy Vignettes. The questionnaire also included two questions regarding the level of stress experienced by teachers in teaching basic skills and level of stress experienced in general with teaching, and one item regarding the degree of responsibility the teacher felt for his or her students' learning. Classroom observation measures included the Climate and Control System (CCS), the Teacher Practice Observation Record (TPOR), and Research for Better School Engagement Rate Form (RBS). The CCS provides a record of the climate and the control aspects of the classroom, by recording such aspects as teacher's control strategies, student's response to teacher's control, as well as teacher's reactions to student's response to his/her control strategies. TPOR consists of 62 items that analyzes the teacher's instructional methods. Half of the

items reflect a progressive or experimental approach to instruction, while the remainder reflects traditional or "banking" approach to instruction. With the RBS, the observer notes the number of students on-task in the basic skills classroom. On average there were five observations per classroom recorded during the first five minutes of the class period, five minutes before the end of the class, and then at intervals occurring after the coding of the TPOR and CCS observations.

Five observers were trained to use the instruments for the intensive 2-month period of observations. Each observer completed a data sheet for each class visit, which included the number of students, and any other identifying information about the classroom. After five minutes, the observer noted the engagement behavior on the RBS instrument, spent five minutes completing the CCS form, and eventually for five minutes completed the TPOR observation form. The observer finally noted the engagement behavior on the RBS form for the last five minutes of the class. Observers completed at least three sets of observations for most of the classroom visits.

The results confirmed the hypothesis that teacher efficacy is related to student achievement. The researchers found that when teacher efficacy was added to the regression equation, the variance accounted for a 24% increase in students' mathematics achievement mean score. Also, when teachers' personal teaching efficacy was added to the regression equation, the variance accounted for a 46% increase for student language achievement score. There was no relationship between reading achievement score and teacher efficacy. In general, teachers with a high teacher efficacy tend to have classrooms where students feel supported and have high achievement. These teachers also gave more positive feedback than teachers with low teacher efficacy. The researchers suggested that

the results might be limited because of the single-item measures of perceived efficacy. Another shortcoming of the study is the small and unique sample; thus the generalizability of the results is limited.

The Woolfolk & Hoy (1990) study examined the structure and the meaning of teacher efficacy using a sample of 182 prospective teachers. In the study, the nature of the construct, teacher efficacy, was examined via the development of efficacy during teacher education and the relationship between efficacy beliefs and prospective teachers' orientations toward discipline, order, control, and motivation (predicator variables). Woolfolk and Hoy measured teacher efficacy using a version of the Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson & Dembo, 1984). The researchers used twenty of the 30 original items. They also included two items from the Rand Corporation evaluations of projects funded by Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. The researchers labeled the two factors of the construct as teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy. The total measure included 22 items with acceptable reliability (Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). The measure used a 6-point Likert scale to indicate agreement from strongly agree to strongly disagree. To examine the relationship between control and teacher efficacy, the researchers used the Pupil Control Inventory, (PCI), a 20-item measure to assess a teacher's pupil control ideology. The measure estimated range of internal consistency is from .70 to .93. PCI has established validity across numerous studies. To assess prospective teachers' motivation the Problems in School Inventory was used. The measure contains eight vignettes describing typical school problems along with four possible solutions. Respondents rate each of the four solutions on a 7-point Likert scale from very inappropriate to very appropriate. The measure has acceptable reliability of

internal consistency and test-retest reliability as well as noted validity. Finally, the Work Environment Preference Scale, used to assess prospective teachers' bureaucratic orientation, is a 24-item instrument with a 5-point Likert response from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The scale has consistent reliability results with alpha coefficients in the .90s. Concurrent validity of the scale received support from other studies of organizational contexts. Woolfolk and Hoy expected to find both the factors of teacher efficacy, teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy to be negatively correlated with pupil control ideology, motivational orientation, and bureaucratic orientation.

The results of the study support previous research of the two-factor construct of teacher efficacy. In addition, the factor personal teaching efficacy was found to be more complex than previously considered. As hypothesized, teaching efficacy was negatively correlated to pupil control ideology and bureaucratic orientation. Higher levels of TE were significantly correlated with lower levels of beliefs favoring strong control over students and preferring a bureaucratic versus egalitarian orientation. On the other hand, personal teaching efficacy was not significantly correlated with pupil control ideology, but it was positively correlated to bureaucratic orientation. Motivational orientation was not significantly correlated to either factor. The researchers suggested that future studies must look beyond composite scores to identify samples of high and low efficacy teachers. They concluded that the use of Likert-type measure might present a response bias. Whereby, a respondent may guess the hypothesis of the study and respond in a manner to confirm the investigator's conjecture or to look socially desirable. The reliance on one method to capture a phenomenon is problematic.

Guskey and Passaro (1994) contend that the construct of teacher efficacy represents a continuum of locus of control based on the measurement developed by Gibson and Dembo (1986) instead of two independent factors. Guskey and Passaro point out that the items on the measure can be categorize by external or internal locus of control. Guskey and Passaro provide empirical support by sampling 342 participants, 283 experienced classroom teachers and 59 pre-service teachers. A 21-item measure was constructed based on the yielded significant factor loadings from Gibson and Dembo's (1986) original study and Woolfolk and Hoy's (1990) study. The purpose of the study was to examine the factor structure of teacher efficacy. Consistent with previous studies (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990), Guskey and Passaro's study confirmed two independent efficacy factors of teacher efficacy. However, their evidence did not support finding the factors of personal teaching efficacy and teaching efficacy. Rather, the findings support a locus-of-control distinction. The teachers surveyed in the study did not distinguish between their personal ability to teach and the potential of teachers to impact students in light of external forces. Guskey and Passaro found that the teachers' beliefs were based on their own influence on students' learning. The internal factor represents beliefs that personal influence impact teaching and learning situation, while the external factor represents beliefs that forces outside of the classroom (family, environment, etc.) are beyond the control of the teacher. The debate over the appropriate factor labels of teacher efficacy construct remains undecided with evidence for both sides. Thus far, however, more studies support the distinction of the factors of personal teaching efficacy and teaching efficacy rather than the locus of control

explanation (Ashton & Webb, 1984; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1990; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993; Pang & Sablan, 1998).

In a recent study, Soodak & Podell (1997) investigated the development of teacher efficacy over time among pre-service and in-service teachers. This cross-section study examined both personal teaching efficacy and teaching efficacy for 169 pre-service teachers and 457 in-service teachers. The sample was representative of ethnic groups in the United States. Seventy-one percent of the sample was White, 12% African American, 6% Latino, and 1% Asian American. Seventy-eight percent of the sample was female and 12% were male. Among the in-service teachers, 77% were elementary teachers and 23% were at the secondary level. Gibson and Dembo's (1984) Teacher Efficacy Scale was used to assess efficacy beliefs. Instructions for completing the two-page questionnaire were the same for pre-service and in-service teachers, except for one distinction. Pre-service teachers were asked to complete questionnaires about their field experiences and student teaching, whereas teachers were asked to respond according to their current experiences. Significance was found for personal teaching efficacy and experience level. Specifically, novice teachers with 1 to 2 years of experience had significantly lower personal teaching efficacy than both pre-service teachers and teachers with more than 6 years or more of experience. Secondary teachers reported significantly greater personal teaching efficacy than elementary teachers. Also, there was a significant finding in the interaction of experience level and school level. Findings reveal that elementary teachers, with 1-2 years of experience had significantly lower personal teaching efficacy than pre-service teachers and teachers with 6 or more years of experience. Furthermore, elementary-level teachers with 3-5 years and 6-8 years had significantly lower personal

teaching efficacy than the pre-service teachers. Finally, elementary teachers with 3-5 years had significantly lower personal teaching efficacy than their counterparts at the secondary-level.

Based on the teaching efficacy factor, no main effect was found for experience level. On the other hand, a main effect was found for teaching efficacy and school level. Elementary-level in-service and pre-service teachers had higher teaching efficacy than the secondary-level group (pre-service and in-service teachers). There was not an interaction between experience level and school level.

In general, the results suggest that novice teachers' personal teaching efficacy or confidence of effectiveness drops during their first year of teaching. Gradually, the teachers regain their confidence. This finding is consistent with previous research (Woolfolk & Hoy, 1993) that personal teaching efficacy increases with experience. But, this study notes that this gain is actually a recovery of confidence after entry into the field. Therefore, the finding suggests that teacher education programs approach training differently. In particular, pre-service teachers should be placed in the field early to facilitate high personal teaching efficacy (Soodak & Podell, 1997).

<u>Research on Transformative Individual & Group Change</u>

According to Wicker (1985), borrowing conceptual lenses from other fields of discipline can broaden researchers' perspectives and provide alternative explanations to traditional practices and ways of knowing in their own fields of discipline. In other words, broadening a domain or context to study an problem can lead the researcher to explore alternative explanations of the problem and subsequently consider multiple resolutions to intervene. In this study, the researcher has chosen to locate a specific issue,

culturally relevant teaching, alongside the domain of psychology by examining the process of transformative change. This approach seeks to link teacher reform efforts with psychological processing that have bearing on an individual's occupational practice. This strategy directs the researcher's attention outside of his or her familiar conceptual "rut" of knowing (Wicker, 1985). In this regard, ways of training pre-service teachers will be informed by those concepts familiar to change processes in psychotherapy. Although "learning" and "growth" can be viewed synonymously, it is proposed here that the extent of change described by the critical theorists in education (e.g., Freire, Ladson-Billings) and psychology (Helms, Thompson and Carter) reflects deep transformative change.

Depending on the literature, transformative change has been conceptualized as linear, superficial or deep, and stages. For example, in Lyddon's (1990) discussion of change, there is a distinction between first-order change, also known as remediation, and second-order change, reconstruction of the belief system. Put simply, first-order change is a successful attempt of controlling negative emotions by rationalizing the stimuli. In other words, the individual is able to preserve the basic assumptions, stereotypes, etc., of his or her belief system and still experience change, first-order change. With second-order change, there is an overhaul or breaking down of core beliefs that is marked by intense affective experiences and internal conflicts.

Transformative individual change has been documented throughout the literature of addictive behaviors, such as smoking, alcoholism, and over-eating (Prochaska & Norcross, 1994). The literature on individual change has also documented change in the context of systems of psychotherapy (Prochaska, Diclemete, & Norcross, 1992). However, as Prochaska, el. at, (1992) argue these studies have done little to explain how

people change. Prochaska and others have proposed a transtheoretical analysis of the stages and processes of change. This model of transformative change captures when and how people change (Prochaska & Norcross, 1994).

First, the stages of change or when people change have not been identified in any of the major systems of psychotherapy (Prochaska, et. al, 1992; Prochasaka & Norcross, 1994). Prochasaka and his colleagues contend that change unfolds over a series of five stages. In the precontemplation stage, the individual is unaware or underaware of his or her issue; therefore, he or she has no intention of changing. In therapy, the individual presents as feeling pressure to change by significant others and thus externalizes the problem. Prochaska and his colleagues found that resistance best describes persons in this stage of change. On the other hand, in the contemplation stage, the individual is aware of his or her problem and is seriously considering change, but he or she takes no action. This stage can be best characterized as awareness, unlike precontemplation. As cited in Prochaska, et. al (1992), Diclemente and Prochaska found that people could be stuck in contemplation for a long period of time. In particular, the 200 smokers in their study remained in the contemplation stage for two years. This stage can also be considered the evaluation stage. The individual at this stage weighs seriously the pros and cons of change.

The preparation stage combines the mental energy and behavior of change. The individual, in the preparation stage, reports a small reduction of change, such as smoking fewer cigarettes or delaying smoking a cigarette for a period of time (Diclemente, Prochaska, Fairhurst, Velicer, Velasqauez, & Rossi, as cited in Prochaska, et. al, 1992). Although there is a reduction in the identified problem, the individual has not reached the

criterion of effective change, in the case of smoking, the abstinence of smoking. In the action stage, the individual is modifying his or her behavior, experiences, and environment. However, the stage is mistakenly considered with change (Prochaska & Norcross, 1994). Rather, the stages of preparation and the maintenance are the important and necessary to facilitate change. Successful alterations of the problem behavior for a period of time categorize a person in the action stage.

According to Prochaska & Norcross (1994), the stage, maintenance, is of continuation, not of absence, of change. Being free of the identified problem for six months is considered the maintenance stage. Based on the norm, people make several action attempts before entering the maintenance stage. Termination as the final stage occurs when the individual is no longer is troubled or experiences the identified problem.

Clients' degree of success in psychotherapy is directly related to the stage they are in before beginning treatment (Prochaska & Norcross, 1994). For example, as cited in Prochaska and Norcross (1994), Medieros & Prochaska found that the clients' identified stages could predict which ones were likely to remain in psychotherapy. Forty percent of the clients identified at the precontemplation stage were the ones who dropped out of therapy. This study reinforces the importance of screening clients to determine prognosis for change. Next, the clinician or the researcher begins to identify those strategies to facilitate movement from one stage to the next.

Prochaska & Norcross (1994) identified these strategies as processes of change. These processes of change can be integrated with the stages of change. The application of processes of change at the appropriate stage makes for a more powerful and a greater likelihood of movement from stage to stage (Prochaska & Norcross, 1994). See table 4

for Prochaska & Norcross (1994) model of the integration between stages and processes of change. Also, for a more detail analysis of the processes of change review Prochaska & Norcross (1994). In sum, identifying the stage of change the person is in as well as applying the therapeutic interventions reflecting the processes of change maximizes the likelihood of movement from one stage to the other. For example, to facilitate transformative change from precontemplation to contemplation, a client would benefit from conscious-raising interventions such as confrontations, observations, and interpretations. Such interventions bring about awareness that is hallmark for contemplation. Bibliotherapy and self-assessment of self facilitate movement from contemplation to preparation. It is crucial for intervention to identify the stage and apply appropriate processes of change to maximize the likelihood of change.

Racial Identity Theory and Transformative Change

Helms (1995) and Helms and Cook (1999) have examined transformative change within the context of racial identity development. In sum, Helms contends that people's racial identity schemas, ways of operating, are their styles of expressing their internalized reactions to racism. Clients interact with the world based on their racial schemata. In therapy, both the therapist and client's racial schemata influence how they react to one another. When the client and therapist are congruent on their racial schemata then they get complementary responses from one another. The interaction is parallel. The client's and therapist's parallel movement does not move the client beyond the point from which he or she began with presenting issues of race in therapy. On the other hand, when a therapist attempts to impose a less sophisticated racial schema onto a client with a more sophisticated schema the interaction is described as regressive (Helms & Cook, 1999).

The therapist offers interpretations of racial events as subtle or unimportant events. This regressive interaction moves the client to a less mature way of filtering racial events. In contrast, when a client operates at a less mature racial status and the therapist operates at a sophisticated racial expression, the process is described as a progressive relationship. In this relationship, the client experiences a high level of arousal and involvement. This relationship is quite similar to Prochaska and Norcross (1994) stages of contemplation and preparation. The client is being educated and assisted with developing a mature racial schema, probably through confrontation, self-evaluation, and bibliotherapy.

Without transformative change, Thompson and Carter (1997) state that people in influential roles reinforce the messages about the status quo, perpetuate racial dilemmas, and stagnate racial identity development among those who also look to them for guidance. For example, if a group leader avoids or minimizes racial stimuli, then there is a greater likelihood that his or her subordinates may also model the avoidant behavior. The members, in positions of less power and influence, may also choose to resist with success and opt to leave the group. This example can also occur at the organizational level. Such ambivalent behavior by a group or organizational leader does little to promote a positive transformation of change. Rather, individuals in the groups or organizations can remain stagnate, learn regressive behavior, or choose to leave the system. At the group and organizational levels, transformative change needs to be fostered and modeled by individuals with positions of power and influence (Thompson & Carter, 1997). These individuals at advanced stages of racial identity development can create a dynamic learning experience for their members (Thompson & Carter, 1997).

The research, empirical and theoretical, on transformative change of individuals and groups is presented to demonstrate the necessary ingredients to facilitate change. Accordingly, for teachers of color to experience meaningful change about their beliefs about African American students, they should be involved in new experiences and practicing behaviors of culturally relevant teaching within a field experience. Hence, 1) What do we currently know about culturally relevant teaching and how can this study expand upon it?, 2) How can this study add to the literature about teachers of color?, and 3) What do we need to know about culturally relevant teaching?

<u>Purpose of Study</u>

It was the intent of this study to inform the literature of teacher education about the practice of culturally relevant teaching and concomitantly, to maximize the study of transformative change by merging critical theories in education and psychology.

The foci of this study were three-fold:(1) document changes, if any, in the teaching and personal teaching efficacy beliefs of three African American pre-service teachers over a span of 10 weeks of teaching and teaching preparation; (2) record behavioral changes in how they practiced culturally relevant teaching (in contrast to assimilationist teaching strategies); and (3) discern any additional teaching behaviors that are consistent with Ladson-Billings' definition and descriptions of CRT yet not previously documented in the research literature.

Quantitative data gleaned from teacher efficacy measures, administrated three times during the 10-week period, determined whether or not, and the extent of changes in teaching efficacy of the pre-service teachers. Participants' CRT and assimilationist teaching behaviors were also documented according to Ladson-Billings'

conceptualization of teaching behavior. Qualitative data gleaned from interviews, observations, and lesson plans, accompanied these analyses in order to supply "thick descriptions" of the process of change or lack of change.

Table 4: Stages of Change in which Changes of Processes are most emphasized

	Stages of Change				
	Precontemplation	Contemplation	Preparation	Action	Maintenance
Processes	Conscious raising				
	Dramatic relief				
	Environmental reevaluation				
		Self-reevaluation			
			Self-liberation		
					Contingency management
					Helping relationship
					Counterconditioning
					Stimulus control

Table adapted from Prochaska & Norcross (1994)

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Chapter 3: Methodology

The mixed-method design (Worthen, Sanders, & Fitzgerald, 1997) allowed the researcher to benefit from two rather than one paradigm of inquiry in the collection and analysis of data. Stated another way, both quantitative and qualitative research procedures were used. Greene, Caracelli, & Graham (1989) characterize 5 distinct purposes of mixed-method design: complementarity, triangulation, development, initiation, and expansion. Complementarity best describes the purpose of the currently proposed study. Complementarity seeks to explain, elaborate, and illustrate research results from one method with the results from the other method. "Complementarity . . . expect[s] to get somewhat different results but believe[s] that these differences will help us learn more about the object of interest" (Worthen, et al., 1997, p. 394). It is the intent of this study to shed more light on the phenomenon of culturally relevant teaching through a mixed-method design.

The study charted, over the course of 10 weeks, the teaching behaviors, teacher efficacy beliefs, and expressions of emergent self-other attitudes of three pre-service teachers who self-identify as African American or Black. It proposed that this collective body of variables would generate knowledge about the change processes that these pre-service teachers experienced as they receive training and constant instruction in CRT and as they translate (or alternatively, fail to translate) this learning onto actual teaching practice with children of color.

Participants

The pre-service teachers were recruited through the early field placement office of a predominantly White, Midwestern university and through informal networks. The

participants' field experience located in the Heritage School, a grassroots educational organization comprised of primarily African American parents who resided in or around the community where the university is located. The Heritage School met for 2 hours on Saturdays during the regular (district) academic school year. The 8-week school occurred 2 semesters, one in the fall and the other in the spring. Data collection was during the fall 2000 semester. Heritage School class size was limited to 10 students. Families participated in the class sessions including volunteering their time to speak to students. No monetary payment was solicited for enrollment.

Recruitment of participants was not limited by virtue of nationality, age, gender, or other sexual orientation. The possible participants who expressed interested in participating in the study were granted an interview. Selection of the participants was based on the interviews and the availability of the participant to complete additional responsibilities associated with the study, such as providing lesson plans, journal entries, and interviews. All the teachers in the Heritage Project participated in a 10-hour workshop prior to the teaching experience. During the workshop, the teachers were assigned readings or adaptations of Friere (1973), Ladson-Billings (1994a), and racial identity theory. Also, the teachers received training in culturally relevant teaching and racial identity theory and shown video of successful teaching practices relative to culturally relevant teaching. Throughout the teaching experience, the teacher had supervised meetings with the Coordinator to get feedback on teaching performance, lesson-planning, and other teaching responsibilities and professional development. Supervision was scheduled once a week with the co-teacher. Further, each classroom had a teacher advisor who assisted the teachers with what was planned for the classroom.

Each classroom in the Heritage Project had two teachers, a pairing for co-teaching. Because the pre-service teachers were relatively inexperienced, the HP administration wanted to experiment with an approach that would involve two teachers assisting each other in curriculum development and instruction. All teachers were responsible for teaching tasks including teaching, lesson-planning, and other teaching tasks. For participation in this study, each participant received $150.00 payment.

Demographic Sheet and Instrument

Demographic data sheet. This instrument collected key information about the pre-service teacher's training to date, including age, year in school, field experience, and course work (Appendix A).

Teacher Efficacy Scale. This version of the instrument was adapted from the work of Gibson & Dembo (1984), Woolfolk & Hoy (1990), and Riggs and Enochs (1990). The adaptation of the instrument has proven to support the two-factor teacher efficacy construct (Pang & Sablan, 1998) that has been observed in earlier work (Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). Although ethnic differences were not presented in the study conducted by Pang & Sablan (1998), the instrument was used with a small number of ethnic minority pre-service teachers. This instrument seemed appropriate to measure the teacher efficacy of African American pre-service teachers. This instrument collected data on pre-service teachers' beliefs about African American students (Appendix B). The 5-point Likert scale measured the pre-service teacher's expectations relative to teaching and the power of teaching to influence African American students, known as general teaching efficacy (TE). The scale also measured the pre-service teacher's beliefs about personal skills and abilities to help African American students learn, as known as personal teaching efficacy

(PE). The reliability for the two factors on the Teacher Efficacy Scale, thirty-item version, is adequate. Cronbach alpha coefficients for the personal teaching efficacy and teaching efficacy scales were .90 and .61 respectively.

Purpose of the Study

The foci of this study were three-fold:(1) document changes, if any, in the teaching and personal teaching efficacy beliefs of three African American pre-service teachers over a span of 10 weeks of teaching and teaching preparation; (2) record behavioral changes in how they practiced culturally relevant teaching (in contrast to assimilationist teaching strategies); and (3) discern any additional teaching behaviors that are consistent with Ladson-Billings' definition and descriptions of CRT yet not previously documented in the research literature.

Procedure

As described earlier, the mixed-method design used qualitative and quantitative approaches to describe, explain, and illustrate the change processes of three African-American pre-service teachers. Each participant is considered a case; consequently, the pursuit of the data involved an examination of 3 single participants with the framework of a multiple single-participant design. This multiple single-participant design consisted of observations of the participant's classrooms, journal entries, and participant interviews. Thus, single participant design was advantageous to examine the "black boxes" of the individual.

Quantitative Analysis

Quantitative data gleaned from the Teacher Efficacy Scale, taken three times during the 10-week period, determined the extent of change relative to participants' efficacy beliefs.

Qualitative Analysis

Qualitative data gleaned from interviews (Appendix C), observations, journals, and lesson plans, accompanied these analyses to supply "thick descriptions" of the process of change or lack of change. The interview questions were selected from the work of Gloria Ladson-Billings (1994a). These questions were modified to reflect appropriateness for pre-service teachers' experiences. Additional questions were used during the interviews, as deeper probes as the interviews occur. Interviews were audio-taped and transcribed. A series of three interviews per participant were conducted: one before the participation, during participation, and one nine weeks in the field experience.

The analysis of the interviews and journal entries was according to the procedures described by Wolcott (1994). Specifically, critical events were analyzed. According to Wolcott (1994), one way to capture the essence of a "story" is to focus on key events. For the purposes of this study, I reported the practices of CRT and assimilationist teaching as critical events. Guided by the literature, CRT is defined as those teaching behaviors and beliefs that empower and enable a student to critically examine educational materials and ask how the information play out in creating a democratic society and also use the context of the students' culture to facilitate their meaning and understanding of the world; while assimilationist teaching use those practices that transmit cultural beliefs and

ideology and indoctrinate students into roles of domination and subjugation as

determined by society without challenging the status quo (Ladson-Billings, 1992).

Critical events were identified from the interviews, observations, and journals that

describe and elaborate on culturally relevant teaching and assimilationist teaching, as

well as self-efficacy, and transformative change. The following table provides examples

of the critical events relative to the CRT and assimilationist teaching:

Table 5: Examples of Critical Events: CRT and Assimilationist Teaching

Culturally Relevant Teaching	Assimilationist Teaching
Teacher assigns students in pairs to collaboratively complete an assignment for learning countries of Africa.	Teacher assigns individual work and gives bonus points to students completing the assignment before the end of class.
Teacher uses students' cultural language as multiple interpretations for defining vocabulary words.	Teacher provides definitions of vocabulary words.
Teacher uses students' experiential and cultural knowledge for creating rules for the classroom.	Teacher decorates the classroom with themes of dominant society's holidays.

Using participant observations, participants' CRT and assimilationist teaching

behaviors were documented via participant observation. Observations were compared to

efficacy beliefs, such that participant's teaching practices indicated additional

information about teaching efficacy. Atkinson & Hammersley, (1994) defined participant

observation as the observer playing an established role in the study. In recent years, there

is a growing trend toward the application of ethnographic methods in applied fields.

Ladson-Billings and others (Gustien, et al., 1997) supported the use of ethnographic

methods such as participant observations, as well as interviews, to document the explicit

teaching practices. This trend toward ethnographic methods reflects collaborative

research in which there is a larger impact on social and political practice because the

researcher is engaged in the research process (Atkinson & Hammersley, 1994). In this study, the observations were in narrative form, which included three observations per participant.

Finally, qualitative results elaborated on quantitative results from the Teacher Efficacy Scale to explain somewhat different results of the qualitative analysis. In this study, change was considered as changes in TE and PTE beliefs, racial identity development and teaching behaviors.

Chapter Four: Results and Discussion

The focus of this study was to document changes among three African American pre-service teachers over the span of ten weeks of teaching and teaching preparation. More specifically, this researcher sought to record: (1) changes if any, in their teaching efficacy beliefs (TE) and personal teaching efficacy beliefs (PTE) and general attitudes toward the teaching experience; (2) behavioral alterations in how teachers practiced culturally relevant teaching (CRT; in contrast to assimilationist teaching); and (3) any additional teaching behaviors that were consistent with Ladson-Billings' definition and descriptions of CRT but not previously documented in the research literature.

To address these aims, the researcher combined quantitative and qualitative procedures. The Teacher Efficacy Scale was used to document changes in the teachers' PTE and TE beliefs. The PTE subscale measures the teacher's beliefs that he or she has the personal ability to produce change in a student's learning. The TE subscale measures the teacher's outcome expectations about the consequences of teaching. Perceived personal ability is contrasted with the extent to which teachers attributed external forces as having an influence on students' learning. Although the Teacher Efficacy Scale has been extensively used with pre-service teacher populations, the research has not produced normative data (Pang & Sablan, 1998; Soodak & Podell, 1997; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). Consequently, moderate, low, or high levels of efficacy are determined by the researcher's calculation of the normal bell-shaped curve. Low levels are those ratings in the disagree or strongly disagree categories (1 and 2), moderate levels are ascribed to the midpoint range (3), and high levels are ascribed to the agree and strongly agree categories (4 and 5). Further, only selected items are presented here because these items either

demonstrated change across all three administrations and/or supplemented qualitative data. As outlined by Woolfolk and Hoy (1990), the responses to the TE items were reversed so that the higher the score on both the PE and TE subscales, the more efficacious the response.

Interviews, observations and journals were also utilized in this study. Within certain applied fields, like education, the use of qualitative methods allows for thick descriptions of complex data (Ladson-Billings, 1992). Because this researcher has an interest in processes of change, it was believed that these qualitative methods could glean important information that will not be made readily apparent in pencil-and-paper measures. For example, it could be argued that CRT and assimilationist practices are not necessarily mutually exclusive. What might appear to be assimilationist practices in one teacher (like assuming the role of expert) might emerge later as impetus for students to engage in course material at a later time. It was believed that qualitative research conducted over a period of time could tap into the nuances of teaching practices and of the participant's contemplation of their experiences in the classroom. Furthermore, the combination of qualitative and quantitative measures could surface some contradictions in the data that could be resolved through the interview process. In sum, a mixed-method study was undertaken to draw benefit from both paradigms of inquiry.

This researcher examined each case independently and thusly, sought thorough knowledge about each pre-service teacher and his or her unique experience and processes of change. As such, this study does not focus on comparing these pre-service teachers in terms of similarities and differences.

Noteworthy in this study is the shift in demographic characteristics of the students of the pre-service teachers. Initially, the pre-service teachers were expected to teach primarily African American children. However, and probably due to expanded recruitment efforts, the families and children who enrolled their children in the Heritage Project reflected greater racial/ethnic diversity than those enrolled in prior semesters. All together, the demography of children attending Heritage Project classes during this period was composed of Korean, African American, and African Malaysian American backgrounds. Although the items cited in this chapter refer to teaching beliefs and attitudes as relating to African American students, this researcher instructed the participants to respond to these items as relating more generally to students of color. Furthermore, during the interviews and observations, questions and descriptions were in the context of teaching students of color.

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

<u>General Description of Informant and Initial Data</u>

Janiece, a sophomore at a Midwestern university in a teacher education program, was the first of several persons to express an interest in being considered as a research participant for this study. She expressed that she "was excited" about participating in the study in an email to the researcher. Accompanying this message was a list of times and dates convenient for us to meet in an initial interview.

<u>Results of the Teacher Efficacy Scale</u>

<u>Administration 1.</u>

    <u>PTE Subscale.</u>

On the first administration of the Teacher Efficacy Scale, given prior to the teaching experience, Janiece's mean score, on the personal efficacy subscale, indicates a moderate level of confidence in her teaching abilities (M= 3.18, SD= .81, Janice's item responses on the Teacher Efficacy Scale can be found in Appendix D). In general, Janiece's mean score suggests that her confidence to teach African American students is "middle of the road" or rather, neither strong nor weak. Areas in which she perceived as deficits were then examined more closely. On the items in which the participant was asked to assess her impact on students' learning, Janiece disagreed with the following items:

21. If an African American student masters a new math concept quickly, this might be because I knew the necessary steps in teaching the concepts.

24. If an African American student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson.

One possible explanation for Janiece's low efficacious beliefs is her limited teaching experience. She is a sophomore with no prior teaching experience. According to Pang and Sablan (1998), teachers who do not feel capable of reaching certain students will not provide the necessary steps to produce change in their students. Novice teachers rely on guides to implement instructions. Expert teachers rely on experience to guide their instruction of students. Janiece, unlike high efficacy teachers, does not have a repertoire

of instructional strategies to produce change in students. What is worthy of further explanation is whether Janiece's disagreement with this statement relates to specifically or solely African American students. According to Grant & Secada (1995), pre-service teachers tend generally to expect less from minority students. The explanations of Janiece's low efficacious beliefs are further explored in the interview section below.

On other items, Janiece endorsed with more confidence her ability to motivate and discipline difficult students:

15. When I really try, I can get through to the most difficult African American student (Agree).

18. If African American students are particularly disruptive one day, I ask myself what I have been doing differently (Agree).

A possible explanation for Janiece's relatively high efficacious beliefs about motivation may reflect her own experiences in disciplining or witnessing the disciplining of children from teachers and family members. Further, Bandura (1977) suggests that positive experiences influenced efficacious beliefs. Conversely, Soodak and Podell (1997) propose that pre-service teachers tend to inflate their beliefs about their personal abilities. Subsequently, Janiece's responses may reflect idealized beliefs that she can motivate and discipline all students. Janiece's endorsement of these items related to discipline, may imply an unrealistic belief in her ability to control classroom environments. Novice teachers are consumed with control and discipline (Soodak and Podell, 1997). Without experience, Janiece's responses reflect ideals, not realistic assessment of her personal teaching experience and beliefs. Moreover, it is still important to explore whether or not these beliefs relate to all children or solely or mostly to African American children.

Figure 1 graphs a selection of Janiece's PTE item responses across all administrations of Teacher Efficacy Scale.
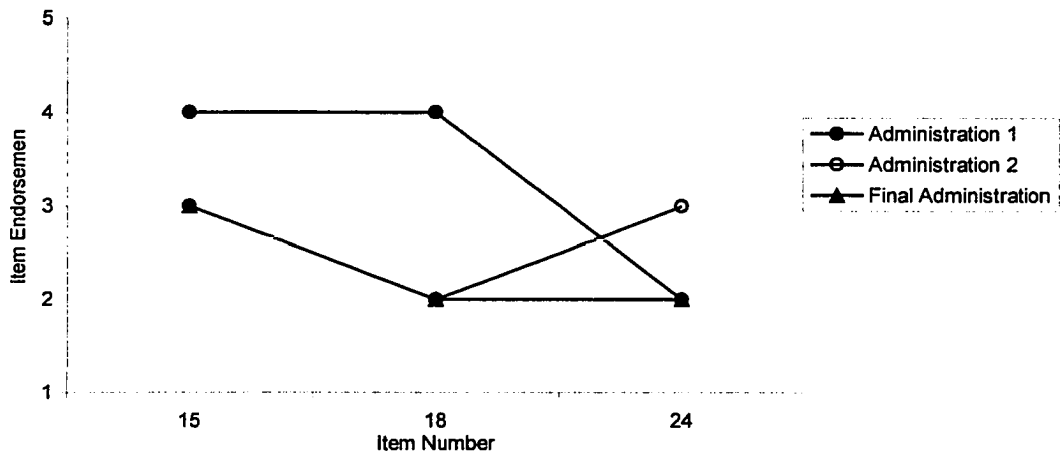
Figure 1. Janiece's item endorsement of PTE across all three administrations.

TE Subscale.

On the TE factor of the subscale, Janiece's mean score was 4.23 (SD= .83). This high mean score indicates, in general, that she believes that students could be taught regardless of such factors as family background, IQ, or school conditions. The following are items that comprise this subscale:

2. The hours in my class have little influence on African American students compared to the influence of their home environment (Strongly Disagree).

10. Some African American students need to be placed in slower groups so they are not subject to unrealistic expectations (Strongly Disagree).

26. School rules and policies hinder my doing the job I was hired to do (Disagree).

In sum, Janiece's responses were consistent with the literature, in that, high efficacy teachers, in the sense of TE, believe that teaching can be a powerful factor in student

learning (Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). She may also be expressing resistance to pervasive

beliefs about the relative inability of African American school children to achieve

academically (Grant & Secada, 1995), as shown by her "Strongly Disagree" responses in

items 2 and 10. There appears to be some acknowledgement that external forces (e.g.,

schools) can be a hindrance to her teaching (item 26), as reflected in a response of

"Disagree" as opposed to "Strongly Disagree." See Figure 2 for a selection Janiece's TE

response.
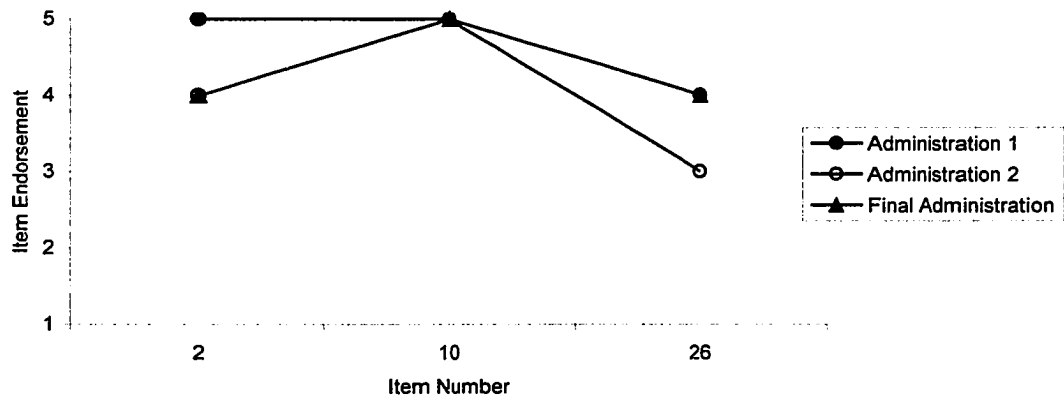
Figure 2. Janiece's item endorsement of TE across all three administrations.

Summary of Administration 1.

Not surprisingly, teachers high in TE, can believe that they personally lack the

skills to effect change in students' learning (PTE); hence the factors, PTE and TE, are

independent (Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). Possible explanations for Janiece's moderate

level of confidence in PTE relative to her high confidence level in TE include her limited

teaching experience and pejorative beliefs about African American students. However,

the pencil-and-paper measure limits the researcher's analysis of alternative explanations.

Hence, qualitative data, including interviews and journals, is necessary to explore these matters further.

Administration 2.

PTE Subscale.

On the second administration of the Teaching Efficacy Scale, Janiece's PTE beliefs weakened (M= 2.82, SD= .73; see Figure 1) in comparison to the first administration. Janiece's beliefs about her ability to motivate or discipline students weakened. On the motivation items of this subscale, Janiece reported the following items:

15. When I really try, I can get through to the most difficult African American students (Uncertain).

18. If African American students particularly disruptive one day, I ask myself what I have been doing wrong (Disagree).

Consistent with the research, the drop in novice teachers and pre-service teachers' PTE may be a reflection of the lack of confidence in their ability to be responsible for classroom instruction for the first time (Dembo & Gibson, 1984; Soodak & Podell, 1997). Janiece is experiencing a loss of confidence, due to her lack of experience with classroom instruction.

TE Subscale.

On the other hand, Janiece's beliefs about the impact of quality teaching on a student's academic outcome remained strong (M= 4.15, SD= .90). See Figure 2.

Summary of Administration 2.

Janiece's TE beliefs remained strong, but her PTE weakened. Interview data (below) provide some insights on these changes.

Final Administration.

PTE Subscale.

On the final administration, given the ninth week of the field experience,

Janiece's beliefs about her own ability to teach students of color, based on her PTE,

weakened (M= 2.24, SD= 1.09) compared to the first administration (M = 3.18, SD= .81)

and second administration (M= 2.82, SD= .73). See Figure 1. As Soodak and Podell

(1997) suggest in their discussion of pre-service teaching training, this decrease in PTE

may be a reflection of limited or inadequate training --- training that has not prepared her

for the challenges of classroom.

TE Subscale.

Janiece's beliefs about the consequences of teaching remained strong (M= 4.31,

SD= 1.11; see Figure 2). Her mean score suggests that she believes assuredly that

teaching can overcome external factors including home environment and school

atmosphere.

Summary of General Teaching Efficacy across Administrations.

The results of all administrations indicate stability and change. Specifically,

Janiece's mean score on the TE subscale remained stable over time. In their discussion of

pre-service teachers' TE, Soodak and Podell (1997) found that experience does not

influence pre-service teachers' view of the impact of their profession on students.

"Rather, TE appears to reflect a set of ideas unaffected by personal successes and

failures" (Soodak & Podell, 1997, p. 220). On the other hand, Janiece's PTE did not

maintain stability, but it decreased on each administration. Janiece's diminished mean

scores on the subscale are consistent with the research. Experience influences one's

beliefs about personal ability (Bandura, 1977; Soodak & Podell, 1997). Soodak and Podell (1997) contend that prior to teaching experience, pre-service teachers' beliefs about their ability to teach are inflated. Subsequently, over time the PTE decreases. Noteworthy, after some experience, novice teachers regain some confidence in their teaching. Janiece's final mean score on the subscale did not show a rebound; however, quantitative data is limited in its analysis. As the interview data will show, Janiece's confidence about her personal teaching ability after nine weeks does show strength, but also a realistic evaluation of her ability to teach.

<u>Interview Data</u>

<u>Time 1.</u>

Janiece reported that she is from "long line of teachers," including a mother who is an elementary school teacher, one sister who is a language arts teacher, another sister who teaches accounting at the college level, a father who holds two teaching licenses, and an aunt who is a principal. Janiece stated that her beliefs about self as a teacher in part are owed to her strong family background in teaching. Janiece stated that observing her relatives teach helped her to form her initials beliefs about her ability to teach including the belief that teaching makes a difference in students' lives and that she could be a good teacher. Bandura (1977) suggests that such vicarious experiences help to persuade the person to believe that they can perform the activity. Janiece also stated that she "always knew" that she wanted to teach.

Before her first field experience, Janiece expressed a desire to create a classroom that is student-centered that establishes a sense of cohesion among students, teachers, parents, and community. She appeared to be very enthusiastic about the prospect of

teaching and more particularly, about the opportunity to motivate students to learn. She reported that she plans to include music and dance as a means to motivate her students.

Janiece also stated that another way to help motivate her students was through speech and language. She stated that as a student herself, she found it difficult to grasp learning English. She recalled that she wanted to write the way that she talked. Using students' phonetic speech and popular music, Janiece stated that it is a creative way to motivate students to write.

Janiece's conceptions of knowledge are similar to the culturally relevant teachers' conceptions of knowledge found in the research (Gustein, et al., 1997; Ladson-Billings, 1994 a, 1994b). According to these authors, culturally relevant teachers have a deep conviction to use, as a teaching source, students' cultural and experiential knowledge. Ladson-Billings (1994a) found that the use of students' knowledge is the starting point for learning and not the teacher's knowledge base. Janiece reported that she believes that her students will come to the classroom with a rich source of cultural knowledge.

Janiece stated that she values tapping into her students' base of knowledge to help them acquire concepts and skills. Her job, she reported, is to create an atmosphere to "pull out" cultural knowledge. She expressed that knowledge is co-shared and not teacher-centered. In her own experiences as a student, Janiece recounted how teacher-centered classrooms hindered her learning and creativity. She expressed wanting to reverse this practice in her own teaching by providing ways to have her students feel comfortable in her classroom and building on their cultural knowledge.

During the interview, Janiece also expressed the importance of parent/community involvement in her classroom. Janiece stated her belief that the parents and the

community need to share in the responsibility of educating students. She reported that the parent should be the student's foundation of support and nurturer of self-esteem. She also stated that the community could be used as a source of learning for her students. Although Janiece did not elaborate on what the involvement of parents and community would look like in her classroom, she considered the connection between the classroom and the student's home life at least theoretically. Gustein, et al. (1997) found that culturally relevant teachers also make the connection between the classroom and community/culture. In collaboration with the community, teachers can help their students to reshape their understanding of the world. Janiece does not yet grasp the fundamental importance of making the connection between the classroom and the culture. Specifically, Janiece's explanation for the use of parents and community is simplistic. Novice teachers have simplistic views because of their limited experience (Avery & Walker, 1993). The use of parents and community is more developed than romanticizing culture and its manifestations. Rather, the use of culture, including parents and community, by a culturally relevant teacher is for empowerment. According to Gustein and his colleagues, culturally relevant teachers see their roles as helping their students to reshape their world that includes beyond their communities. In essence, the teachers encourage their students to see selves as contributors to not only their community, but to larger society- biculturalism. The connection is more than a romanticization or pathologizing of culture but rather, a deployment of specific skills as related to an understanding of culture and its impact on making meaning of reality (Gustein, et al., 1997). The teachers help the students to develop a critical eye of both worlds to inform their future. Janiece's explanation of the use of culture in the classroom is limited to show

and tell of culture, including use of language and parents. Janiece's first interview draws a picture of her initial appreciation of culture in the classroom as well as her naïveté of culture and personal teaching abilities.

Time 2.

By the second interview, Janiece was able to address the challenges related to her limited training, particularly in developing a curriculum and classroom management. She reported that her biggest challenge was developing a curriculum that reflected the interests of all the students in her class. Surprised that her classroom was predominantly Korean and not African American, she reported that the ever-changing curriculum is "trial and error." An emphasis in her curriculum, once she decided to cater to a more diverse classroom, was to build social relationships among her students. Janiece's classroom composition included African Americans, one Malaysian American, and Korean national students. To build social relationships among the students, Janiece reported that she had the students to bring objects from home. She encouraged the students to examine the similarities between them in their home lives.

But Janiece still faced challenges. She stated that some of the students behaved insensitively to others. For example, one of the Korean students told Janiece that she was not allowed to play with African American students. Also, an African American male student told a Korean male student to get his "Korean hat out of my face." Janiece reported that she was able to resolve these challenges by continuing her efforts to build community in the classroom and specifically, by urging the children to learn about each other. For example, Janiece used "show and tell" activities throughout the field experience. Although difficult to build community, by her report the show and tell

activity worked. The students talked about their objects with the significance of the objects. Fellow students were able to ask questions about the objects. Janiece reported that the activity helped the students to learn something about one another.

To facilitate community and positive social interactions, when the students had disagreements with one another, she or her co-teacher addressed the problems with one-on-one time and classroom discussions. She admitted that she was not specifically trained on how to address such problems in the classroom, but she still believed that such problems had to be addressed to make the classroom comfortable for all students.

Relative to culturally relevant and assimilationist teaching, Janiece's teaching experiences in the first three weeks of teaching was consistent with CRT approaches. Although she was surprised that the classroom was predominantly Korean in view of having prepared for African American students, she revised the curriculum. In the new curriculum, her emphasis on social relationships reflects the practice of CRT. Culturally relevant teachers encourage social relationships, but assimilationist teachers support competition. By her report and supported by observations of the classrooms, her practice of creating community in the classroom seemed successful. The children were engaged in learning and over time, communicated with one another in a cooperative and friendly manner.

Another challenge for Janiece was addressing her own preconceived ideas, or stereotypes, about African American students. Janiece reported that she initially, before this field experience, believed that she had to be especially hard on African American students to get them motivated. This "messiah complex" (Delpit, 1992) is assimilationist. Janiece had believed at an earlier time that she was on a mission to rescue these students.

To rescue, one must believe that the rescuee is deficient in some way(s). Janiece reported that she believed that African American students' deficit was a lack of motivation. Assimilationist teachers entertain oppressive thoughts about their students in regards to the observation that some African American students appear to lack the motivation to do well in school (Ladson- Billings, 1994 a, 1994b). Janiece reported being disturbed about harboring such negative beliefs about African American students. After three weeks of teaching, Janiece reports that her "savior mentality" views were erroneous. Janiece reported that African American students are just as engaged and motivated as her other students. She also stated that teachers should get to know their students, whether they are black, white, or other in order to teach them. Janiece stated that stereotypes could hinder a teacher from entertaining greater expectations for the students and thereby impact the students' learning; her awareness is supported by the literature (Soodak & Podell, 1997; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990).

Although Janiece is not able to clarify how this change in beliefs came about, the research suggests that Janiece experienced conflict of differences between experiences in the classroom and her beliefs. Via the experiences, Janiece experienced her students as coming to the table with something to offer; unlike her beliefs that she had to instill motivation. This change suggests an awareness of this conflict.

By the second interview, Janiece showed a greater appreciation of CRT practices; further, she also practiced the pedagogy by building social relationships among her students. She also realized her own stereotypes about African American and Korean national students and challenged to change them. Also, Janiece's report of feeling

unprepared is supported by the PTE profile over the three administrations. However, these beliefs did not appear to hinder her from implementing steps.

Time 3.

By the third interview, Janiece's report of feeling unprepared is more salient. Although Janiece stated that the experience to teach was a wonderful opportunity to put into practice theories from her training program, her ideas about the traditional classroom and her ability to teach were 'blown out of the water." For example, when handling a discipline problem, Janiece reported that she became very uncomfortable. She initially thought to contact the student's parents, but she opted not to do so. This opportunity would have been ideal for her to strengthen her skills to communicate beyond the classroom and work with parents. Albeit, Janiece is aware of the importance of the connection between the classroom and the student's home life, a feature of CRT, her behavior reflects assimilationist. But, a deeper analysis of her choice not to consult with parents suggests that maintaining the teacher and student relationship within the classroom was not to exclude the parents. Rather, she did not know how to approach the student's parents. Novice teachers tend to use the controls and resources of the school versus broadening their resources for discipline (Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). Possibly, Janiece did what came naturally with limited experience. She avoided the anxiety-producing situation. According to Bandura (1977), avoidance is the primary response to reduce anxiety.

Although she may have been limited in her strategies to discipline the children, Janiece reported change in her students' learning. Janiece reported that the experience of working with such a ethnically and culturally diverse classroom helped her to think and

work differently than from the way that she was trained, such as, incorporating Korean language into activities. She stated the students' participation increased when she incorporated the language component in the lesson plans. A culturally relevant teacher helps to strengthen students' skills by affirming their culture, identities, etc. (Gustein, et al., 1997; Ladson-Billings, 1994a, 1994b).

Janiece reported that she sees herself as a teacher who has a lot to learn. Janiece reported that she believes she is not the factor in producing change in her students, lacks the skills to motivate and discipline difficult students, and finds her training has yet to prepare her to be an effective teacher. She stated that pre-service teachers should be provided with early field experiences like the Heritage Project. Kagan (1992) supports this recommendation because pre-service teachers best understand their roles and abilities when they are given opportunities for self-reflection. Self-reflection is a product of experience. It is also an ingredient for change (Prochaska & Norcross, 1994). Through self-reflection, a process of change within the contemplation stage, individuals have the opportunity to assess themselves, in this case their abilities and beliefs. Self-reflection better prepares a person for action in changing behavior and beliefs.

Journal Entries/Communication

As Janiece spent more time in the field, her PTE diminished, as evident by her weakened PTE mean score across the administration of the Teaching Efficacy Scale and her report of lack of training to prepare her for challenges in the classroom. Despite this diminishment of PTE beliefs, her appreciation and practice of CRT appeared to increase. Evidence of this increase was included in her journal entries. In response to a selected reading from Freire's Pedagogy of the Oppressed, Janiece wrote:

> I realize that I have to do all I can to make sure that I provide an
>
> environment where students can develop to their greatest potential and I
>
> can not do that using a banking system.

Her appreciation of students' cultural knowledge and the rejection of banking education are clear in this reflection after her first class (October 21, 2000). In another entry, she was concerned about her susceptibility to banking education, in other words, assimilationist teaching:

> My biggest concern is that I will not be able to teach so that it is
>
> meaningful to them [students]. I can tell that they were bored and it tore
>
> me up inside because I did not know what to do.

She reported that it was difficult for her not to provide answers or guidelines to the assignments, but rather to facilitate the students' learning by a problem-posing approach. In a final entry, she stated that CRT as pedagogy helped her to develop as a teacher.

But, her diminished PTE on the quantitative measure was not conclusive. She reported that her own anxiety about her teaching lessened over time when she experienced the students' increased participation. Her practice of CRT allowed her to connect and instruct her students with success. It also afforded her valuable skills for future teaching. Unaware, Janiece is building upon her teaching abilities.

Observations

Culturally relevant teachers believe that their students come to the table with knowledge and that their job is to pull the knowledge out (Ladson-Billings, 1994a, 1994b). The following observation captures Janiece's use of cultural knowledge. The activity is called "Get on the Bus." The object of the activity is for each student to

recognize the pattern so they can "get on the bus." For example, Janiece states her name and says that she is bringing "jelly beans" on the bus. So, the pattern is matching the object with the letter of the student's first name. It sounds easy, but it was not.

Janiece faced a challenge- a language barrier. Janiece had four female students who were of Asian descent (three Korean and one Malaysian- African American). Of the four students, three spoke English. Janiece instructed the students to line up against the wall. She stated her name and the object that she was bringing on the bus with her. The students looked at one another. The first evolution of the activity ended without a student joining Janiece on "the bus." Janiece used her co-teacher as a second example. After the example, one student joined Janiece and the co-teacher on the bus. The English-limited student, confused, told another student in Korean that she did not understand. The bilingual Korean student told Janiece that fellow student did not understand the directions. Janiece looked confused initially. She looked around the room at the students and at her teacher-model. The same bilingual student volunteered to translate for the student. Janice oked the bilingual student to translate for the student. After several more turn taking of the game, all the students grasped the objective and were able to "get on the bus" including the English-limited student.

Using students' cultural knowledge, language, Janiece engaged the English-limited student in the activity. The use of language helped the English-limited as well as the English-speaking students make connection with the objective of the game. Also, here is the first realization by Janiece of uncertainty of her personal teaching to perform. On one hand, Janiece seemed confused and lost with how to handle such a situation;

however, her desire to have all her students engaged with some level of comfort was a priority for her, as evident by using cultural language in the activity.

By the second observation, four weeks into the teaching experience, Janiece seemed more comfortable with teaching, as evident by her addressing students' questions and the use of a Korean translator in the classroom to interpret her instructions. During another activity, a student made insensitive remarks about the dress of people in a book on Mexican culture. The student said, "They dress funny" and she and another student began to laugh aloud. Janiece walked around to the student's work area and began to question her comment. Instead of verbal reprimanding the student in front of her peers, Janiece encouraged the student to think about the reasons that the people may dress the way they do. Janiece could have easily given the student the explanation for dress, but she was encouraging critical thinking. In fact, the student's partner joined in the discussion. The students together were able to come up with multiple explanations for Mexican dress including protection from weather and use in "parties."

Janiece encouraged problem-solving. Consistent with Gustein and colleagues' findings, Janiece, like other culturally relevant teachers, provided students with some tools to be active in the construction of knowledge. Further, Janiece's approach is consistent with one developing a higher efficacy in a skill area. She was in the process of mastering her skill to use her students as a part of the classroom and guide their learning with little authority. In this second observation, she did not look like the same "wide-eyed deer caught in the headlights" that appeared several weeks ago during the first observation. In fact, as she talked, the students looked directly at her actions. Her approach seemed to encourage other students to participate because several students

talked about different reasons for wearing certain clothes within their working dyads. The assignment after the teasing incident took on more energy with the students talking about clothes in their homes and other clothing they have seen.

Lesson Plans

The final analysis of Janiece's teaching efficacy and use of CRT was of her lesson plans. First, Janiece's lesson plans reflect CRT. For example, Janiece's co-designed lesson plans encouraged students to share their knowledge. Through an activity called the language poster, students learned how to identify objects in English and Korean. This activity provided the students, both English-speaking and English-limited students, an opportunity to work in groups to identify and label objects in English and Korean. She allowed the students to demonstrate their own understanding and teaching for this activity. It helped to build communication skills of both groups of students. This activity was used for at least three of the class meetings.

Her lesson plans also demonstrated Janiece's appreciation of the importance of building social relations beyond the classroom into the community, as well as in the classroom. For example, she wrote of and later implemented a strategy for her students to create and present rationales for classroom rules. To build social relations beyond the classroom, students attended an Asian culture center in the community to become more familiar with aspects of the Asian culture. A culturally relevant teacher uses the resources (representatives and customs) to help to facilitate a connection between the community and its students. Janiece's class had the opportunity to meet with representatives, ask questions, and experience a cultural activity. The lesson helped the students to make connections with self and others beyond the classroom.

<u>Observations of Janiece's Change Processes and Interpretations</u>

A review of the counseling literature reveals that change has been measured from several indices including comparisons of pre and post change, moment-by-moment change, or outcome measures (Warwar & Greenberg, 2000). In recent research, the focus is how change occurs (Warwar & Greenberg, 2000). Different counseling theories identified key processes that lead to change. For example, the Humanistic approach has identified empathy and emotional arousal as keys that serve to bring about change in clients. For the purpose of this study, altering of the participant's belief system and increased behavioral experiences indicate change- a cognitive behavioral approach. According to Warmar and Greenberg (2000), "[c]ognitive theory maintains that an individual's emotional and behavioral responses to a situation are largely determined by how the individual perceives, interprets, an assigns meaning to that event" (p.585).

In Janiece's case, initial beliefs about her ability to teach were not based on behavioral experiences or events, but rather her ideas about teaching and vicarious learning. Therefore, her perceptions of personal teaching were not based on real or meaningful events. But, as Janiece experienced teaching at an emotional and behavioral level, her beliefs about her teaching abilities were informed as well as developing an appreciation and an increase use of CRT practices.

From a cognitive viewpoint, her initial beliefs were not reflective of prior teaching experiences, but ideals. The ideals, products of her experience as a student and a family history of teachers, were influential. For example, Janiece's experiences of her own parents and their involvement in her education influenced her beliefs about how she

believed that parents and the community would be involved in her classroom. Her ideal

statements were more a reflection of her limited experiences (Soodak & Podell, 1997).

According to Bandura (1977), vicarious experiences are not as influential on self-

efficacy compared to performance accomplishments. Janiece's use of CRT suggests

change. For example, building social relations is a practice of CRT. Janiece assigned a

regular activity where the students could see similarities with one another as well as

address an incident of insensitivity. An assimilationist teacher would have addressed the

incident with punishment and without exploring with the student the source of their

thinking.

As Janiece spent more time in the field, she began to be humble about her ability

to teach, by all accounts, including interviews, self-report measure, and journals. And,

although her students were acquiring the content, she reported that the challenge for her

was to teach in a way that was relevant for all her students. Once novice teachers

confront their unrealistic beliefs, they experience loss of confidence in personal teaching

(Soodak & Podell, 1997). Cognitively, Janiece has awareness of deficient skills; yet, she

is not aware of how her performance has increased her use of CRT. Janiece also used

students' language as a source of knowledge. The use of students' culture (language,

experiences, etc.) is a feature of CRT. Furthermore, her lesson plans reflected this feature

of CRT. From a behavioral viewpoint, an increase of CRT practices increased over time

suggests change.

Another indication of change in her belief system is her "informed" beliefs about

African American students and motivation. Gomez (1993) and others believe novice

teachers are likely to have negative stereotypes about students of color. Influenced by

these beliefs, they are more likely to reproduce inequality in the class (Gomez, 1993). But Janiece did not. The surprise of her own stereotypes did not leave her powerless to produce change in herself. Behaviorally, she increased her practice of CRT.

Furthermore, although Janiece's PTE lessened as evident by the Teacher Efficacy Scale, her performance accomplishments appear to counter this finding. Janiece's initial appraisal of her PTE was ideal, but over time she developed a more realistic appraisal of her ability to teach and subsequently implemented strategies (use of CRT practices, challenge beliefs) to meet the needs of her students. Having awareness constitutes change (Warwar & Greenberg, 2000). Combating stereotypes and implementing behavior suggest deeper change.

The final research question of documenting additional behaviors of CRT behaviors cannot be supported for this participant. However, evidence supports that thinking influences behavior. Perhaps, the research question should have explored the documentation of not only additional behaviors of CRT, but also the thinking process into the use of CRT.

Specifically, Janiece's thinking process or stage of thinking can be best characterized as contemplation. Janiece had become increasing aware of her limitations and pejorative beliefs. By her report, this awareness, a product of observations and self-reflection, prepared her to think about how her teaching could change. Subsequently, her thinking about the need for change indicated preparation. At the preparation stage, individuals think more concretely about developing a plan for change. Evidence of Janiece's small steps of change was her lesson plans and her journal entries. In these data, Janiece actively thought about her limitations and a plan to counter them. Her plans,

included in her lesson plans and journal entries, manifested as increased use of CRT. This novice teacher showed significant evidence in her thinking process that influenced her practice of CRT.

Nia

General Description

Nia, a sophomore at a Midwestern University teacher education program, chose a major in education because of her mother, a special education department head. Nia reported that her mother's positive interaction with her own students was a motivating force behind her decision to become a teacher. She stated that her mother would go out of her way to help her students. She stated, "I loved it!"

Results of the Teacher Efficacy Scale

Administration 1.

PTE Subscale.

On the first administration of the self-report measure of the Teaching Efficacy Scale, Nia reported a moderate level of confidence in her own ability to teach African American students (M= 3.53, SD=. 72, Nia's item responses on the Teacher Efficacy Scale can be found in Appendix D). Figure 3 graphs a selection of Nia's PTE item responses across all administrations. Nia believed that she has skills for disciplining and motivating students. But, her personal teaching beliefs were not consistent. Her beliefs about her ability to make changes or to incorporate a plan to address individual student differences were not strong:

8. My teacher training program and/or experience has given me the necessary skills to be an effective teacher (Uncertain).

20. If my principal suggested that I change some of my class curriculum, I would

feel confident that I have the necessary skills to implement the unfamiliar

curriculum (Uncertain).

25. If one of my African American students couldn't do a class assignment, I

would be able to accurately assess whether the assignment was at the correct

level of difficulty (Uncertain).

Nia's ambiguous profile suggests that she was experiencing some anxiety about

teaching. However, Bandura (1977) suggests that a person's efficacy beliefs are based on

their perceived success on a choice of behavioral situations and they tend to perceive

others as threatening. Therefore, a possible explanation of Nia's ambiguous endorsement

is that she may believe that she has greater confidence for performing certain behaviors

(e.g., disciplining students), but performing other behaviors (e.g., adjusting content for

student's level) exceed her personal teaching skills.
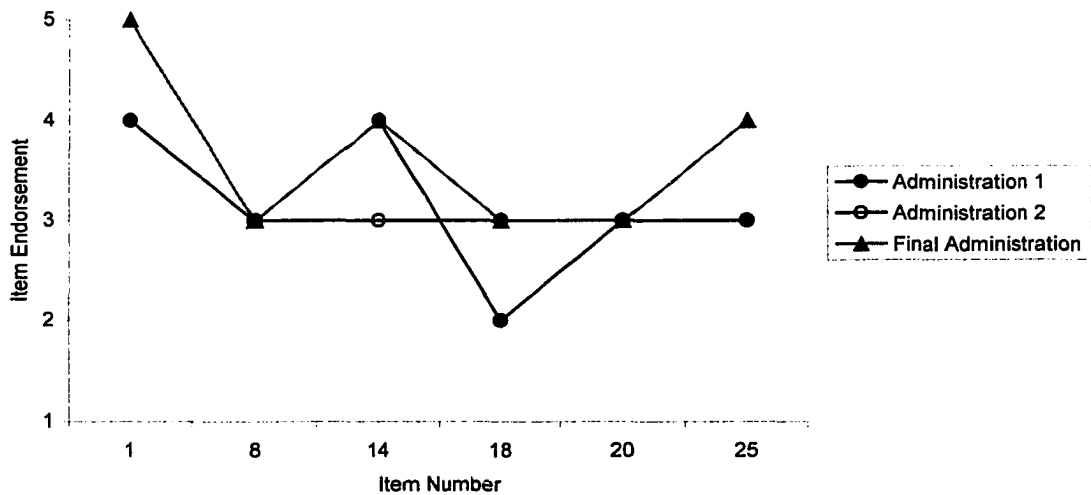

Figure 3. Nia's item endorsement of PTE across all three administrations.

<u>TE Subscale.</u>

Nia reported beliefs that teaching can overcome any factors such as family background, IQ, teacher variations, and school conditions (M= 3.54). For example,

2. The hours in my class have little influence on African American students compared to the influence of home life (Disagree).

10. Some African American students need to be placed in slower groups so they are not subject to unrealistic expectations (Strongly Disagree).

16. A teacher is very limited in what he/she can achieve because of an African American student's home environment is a large influence on his/her achievement (Disagree).

26. School rules and policies hinder my doing the job I was hired to do (Strongly Disagree).

Although Nia reported a moderate level of confidence of TE, item analysis reveals that her endorsement style was not consistent (SD= 1.05), particularly with the influence of home environment on the student's academic achievement:

3. The amount that an African American student can learn is primarily related to family background (Uncertain).

6. If African American students aren't discipline at home, they aren't likely to accept any discipline (Agree).

17. Teachers are not a very powerful influence on African American student achievement when all factors are considered (Uncertain).

This inconsistent endorsement suggests possibly that limited teaching experience did not give her sufficient confidence to believe that teaching can overcome all factors

including home environment. See Figure 4 for a selection of Nia's TE item responses

across all administrations.
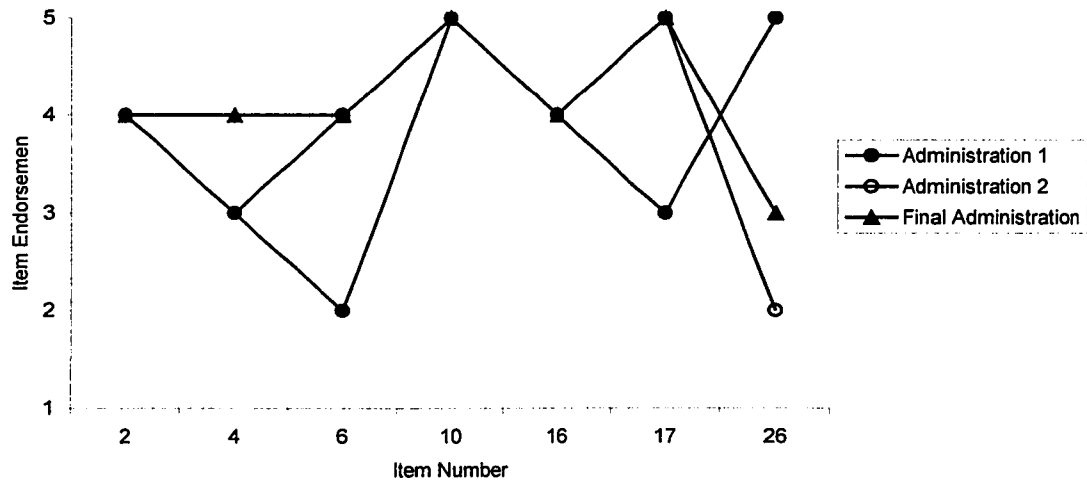
Figure 4. Nia's item endorsement of TE across all three administrations.

Summary of Administration 1.

In sum, Nia reported inconsistencies with TE and PTE. Relative to PTE, Nia

reported that she believe that she could perform some behaviors successfully while other

behaviors she did not endorse with confidence.

Administration 2.

PTE Subscale.

On the second administration, Nia's PTE mean score was slightly lower (M=

3.41, SD= 1.00; see Figure 3). She reported uncertainty about her ability to explore with

students what tasks would hold their attention for the learning process. For this

administration, Nia endorsed more items as uncertain, including:

> 8. My teacher training program and/or experience has given me the necessary
>
> skills to be an effective teacher.

14. When an African American student gets a better grade than he or she usually gets, it is usually because I found better ways of teaching that student.

18. If an African American student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson.

In sum, she reported more uncertainty about her personal teaching abilities.

TE Subscale.

On the other hand, Nia's TE mean score slightly increased (M= 3.69, SD= .95; first administration, M= 3.54, SD= 1.05). See Figure 4. In general, she believed that teaching could reach any student. She strongly believed that teachers are a powerful influence on their students. Furthermore, she believed that African American students should not be placed in slower groups based on prejudicial expectations. However, changes on TE subscale include her beliefs about school rules' impact on teacher's performance and teacher variations. Her endorsement of these items revealed that these factors could weaken a teaching effect on students.

Summary of Administration 2.

In sum, her TE mean score remained stable on this administration with a slight increase, while her PTE diminished after four weeks in the field. Both mean scores are consistent with other pre-service teachers' general teaching efficacy in that TE remains fairly stable during field experiences, but PTE tends to drop during the field experiences (Soodak & Podell, 1997). Overall, her TE increased and her PTE decreased.

<u>Final Administration.</u>

   <u>PTE Subscale.</u>

   Compared to the second administration, on the PTE subscale, Nia expressed more confidence in motivating and bringing about change in her students' learning process and behavior (see Figure 3):

1. When an African American student does better than usual, many times it is because I exerted a little extra effort (Strongly Agree).

14. When an African American student gets a better grade than he or she usually gets, it is usually because I found better ways of teaching that student (Agree).

25. If an African American student in my class becomes disruptive and noisy, I feel assured that I know some techniques to redirect him or her quickly (Agree).

But, Nia continued to express some uncertainty about her training. Soodak and Podell (1997) support her lack of confidence in her current level of training in that pre-service teachers are not adequately prepared to face the challenges in the field. For Nia, these challenges included making curriculum changes and providing discipline.

   <u>TE Subscale.</u>

   On the TE factor, Nia's belief that teaching can overcome external influences strengthened compared to the first and second administration (M= 3.92, SD= .92; see Figure 4). She believed that factors like family background and IQ have little influence compared to teaching on student's learning process. Item analysis reveals that although her mean score is higher, her beliefs about community support, teacher variations, and

school rules remained low. Nia's beliefs that quality teaching could be hindered by lack of community support, teacher variations and school rules were consistent across all three administrations. Nia believed that the work with the community or the impact of school rules were beyond the control of the teacher; therefore, quality teaching was not a match for these factors.

Summary of General Teaching Efficacy across all Administrations.

On the final administration of the measure, Nia's mean scores on both factors increased, indicating greater efficacy in teaching and personal teaching abilities (PTE, M= 3.65, SD= .70; TE, M= 3.92, SD= .95). This increase suggests that she was more confident about her personal teaching ability and the positive effect that teaching can have on students.

Consistent with some of the research, pre-service teachers' PTE drops when they begin their teaching experience. After the teaching experience, PTE rebounds (Soodak & Podell, 1997). However, the literature does not qualify the time frame of the rebound. Although Nia's PTE rebounded by the final administration, item analysis reveals that efficacy beliefs were not consistent for this administrations or across administrations which suggests that she was confident with some of her abilities to teach, while with others she indicated less confidence.

While her mean score on the TE subscale was higher by the final administration, it is more important to look at her beliefs about PTE to examine change and compare these beliefs with other indicators of change (interviews, observations, etc) as the research suggest (Soodak & Podell, 1997).

Interview Data

Time 1.

Nia was an eager and cooperative participant. After speaking with the Coordinator of the Heritage Project, she expressed an interest to be a part of the study. She contacted the researcher via email. The researcher interviewed the participant via phone for selection. During the interview, Nia stated a value for using culture to facilitate students' learning. She met the researcher for the first interview prior to her first field experience on time. In this first interview, Nia reported her desire to teach in a way that addresses the students' sociopolitical identities. She also stated that she was ambivalent about her ability to teach.

Nia reported that her parents had a significant influence on her decision to pursue teaching as a career. She observed how her mother, a teacher, would go the extra mile to be involved with her students beyond the classroom. Using her own children's old clothing, her mother clothed her students. Nia reported that she developed an appreciation of the interactions between a teacher and students by observing her mother. In her own words, she described the interaction as "close knit type thing." Consistent with her teaching philosophy, she stated that the teacher does more than sit behind a desk, she engages her students. Nia provided an example of how her fifth grade teacher treated the students like her own children.

Nia also described her family as different and "rare." For example, she reported that her parents called her teachers frequently and requested a weekly progress report. Nia reported that the teacher and parent relationship is important and needs to be open. Her father encouraged his children to explore their global identities and connect with the

world. Nia reported that she and her siblings learned about Africa at a young age. She recalled selling buttons so that she and her siblings could raise money to go to Africa. She stated that they learned about the different countries in Africa and also her family celebrated Kwanzaa, but not Christmas or other major holidays.

Nia stated that she felt left out during classroom celebration like Christmas time, because Kwanzaa was not recognized as a holiday. Nia was aware of her own socio-political identity early, in spite of the lack of recognition by her teachers.

Due to the lack of cultural relevance in her own formal education, Nia stated that she wanted to teach African American students so that they would learn how to be proud of their own culture. She commented that students are tired of hearing about African Americans only in the context of slavery. This oppressive view, she stated, "turns many students off to learning about their own cultures." She expressed that it so important to incorporate the many cultures in American education to help students feel a part of the learning process.

Nia reported that she does not have any training in culturally relevant teaching. Further, she has had little training on teaching African American students or other students of color. She expressed that she feels "weird" about raising the issue of teaching African American students in any of her classes because she is the only African American in the class. She stated that teachers are influenced by what they think of certain students and their stereotypes impact their teaching. Nia recommended that her teacher-training program should be more diverse including increasing the number of pre-service teachers of color and the number of multicultural classes for all pre-service teachers.

In this interview, Nia volunteered that she attributed her family background and teacher training as having shaped her concept of self. Nia reported that her teachers ignored her own cultural identity, but her family emphasized the importance of making the connection between self and Africa. Her home life, according to Ladson-Billings' model of teaching, demonstrated the idea of global identity with Nia learning very early on her connection to Africa. Nia managed to hold on to this conception of self in spite of her formal education and training. She reported that she wants to teach her students about the contributions of African Americans and help them to see selves in relation to Africa and the world. In this interview, Nia expressed appreciation of cultural relevant teaching because of her own home life and her education as a student.

Time 2

After four weeks of teaching with the Heritage Project, Nia expressed frustration with working with her co-teacher and with building a sense of community and global identity in the classroom. First, Nia reported that working with her co-leader, also a pre-service teacher of color has been tense and overwhelming.

She reported that she feels that she is "step [ping] on her (co-teacher's) feet." Nia stated that the co-teacher does not seem as invested in lesson planning for the class. Nia reported that it feels like she is doing all the work, such as developing the lesson plans. Nia stated that their classroom interactions were tense. She recounted that when giving instructions to the students, they both looked to one another to do the instruction-giving or looked to another to answer a student's questions. By Nia's account, she is the lead teacher. She developed a majority of the lesson plans and directed the classroom. But, to Nia's disadvantage, she has not ever worked with other people in a teaching situation.

When asked how the tension has impacted her teaching, Nia stated that she feels like her co-teacher is holding her back because of her [the co-teacher's] disinterest. Nia expressed some relief of the anxiety and tension when she had worked independently with the students.

Working with others is part of teaching and a new responsibility for Nia; a responsibility that she had not initially considered as a teacher. Hence, Nia's anxiety about co-teaching reflects a lack of preparation to manage such situations. Her PTE mean score on the second administration supported this anxiety. According to Bandura (1977), high emotional arousal can debilitate a person's performance. So, by her own report, Nia's teaching was hampered by her inexperience of working with others in a teaching relationship.

Also, working with the students was anxiety-provoking for Nia. Nia expressed frustration with building a sense of community in the classroom and helping the students to develop a global identity. By her report, Korean students did not want to learn about Africa and she also reported a similar disinterest among the African American students. She reported that it seems that the students "snubbed" the lesson on African vocabulary. But, the students' lukewarm reception to learning about African vocabulary did not stop Nia from trying to help them make connections to the assignment. To engage students, Nia reported she had the students look through several books on African language. Together, the students and Nia researched family names. By Nia's report, the students found it interesting to see the similarities in family names like "moma." Students were surprised and stated that they called their own mothers, "moma." Nia also used herself in this lesson to help the students develop sensitivity to learning about other languages and

making connections with larger society (world). Nia reported that she was able to connect with many of her Korean students because of her name is different. Nia told the students that she gets insensitive remarks from people because of her own name. One Korean student responded that she gets similar responses. Nia stated that personal examples help to develop students' sensitivity and connection with the world. Nia used students' informal knowledge, language, as a motivator with the lesson on Africa. Her objective was to have students learn about Africa, but first she had to engage them. She broadened their experiences and knowledge, beyond African American and Korean communities, and by couching their experiences in other worlds (Africa). Although Nia struggled with engaging students, her practice of CRT suggests change. But, her PTE beliefs were relative to her frustration. As her frustration increased, her beliefs about her ability to teach weakened.

Her diminished PTE was evident during the second interview. Nia reported that she did not want to "step on" parents' toes. She stated that she could not force her students to be interested, but also, her students' parents may not value what she believes about culture and its role in education. She expressed fear that she would not have the parents' support of the curriculum. In fact, she stated, "Everybody has different beliefs and I don't know quite how to do that and plus I don't have enough information myself. So, it's like I'm stuck in the middle, off to the side." It is clear that Nia struggled to develop her PTE, but she found the responsibilities of a teacher included more than working with students, but also working with parents.

Her diminished PTE may be a result of her training. By her report, her training had not provided prior experience to teach in a way that is culturally relevant. She stated

that she feels a lack of support in the general teacher education program. Nia stated that she shunned by her peers when she talks about issues of diversity in the classroom. Unfortunately, most teacher education programs fail to prepare their teachers with experiences, including experiences teaching students of color (Gomez, 1993; Soodak & Podell, 1997).

<u>Time 3.</u>

By the final interview, Nia expressed more confidence in her teaching abilities, including putting theory into practice, working with a less than engaged co-teacher and receiving additional training. First, Nia reported that she was fortunate to have the experience of teaching students of color. She stated that she was able to put theory into practice in her class. For instance, Nia described a lesson plan to facilitate social relations in the classroom and build students' knowledge base of Africa. Nia stated that the students were into "their little cliques" which hindered students' interactions. So, to break up the ethnic cliques, Nia and her co-teacher "randomly" assigned African American and Korean students to work together. In the cooperative activities, the students participated in round tables completing worksheets on different African countries and played a knowledge bowl game with actual buzzers. Nia stated that she "was really happy" with her students after this lesson on Africa.

This teaching experience in the Heritage Project gave Nia the opportunities to broaden her teaching skills. At the beginning of this field experience, Nia operated from vicarious experiences, but now she has performance accomplishments under her belt. According to Bandura (1977), performance accomplishments produce higher and stronger self-efficacy than vicarious experiences. The rebound in Nia's PTE mean score

may can be contributed to her successful and positive experiences of teaching students of color. Further, as Nia's practice of CRT increased, so increased her PTE mean score. Also, Nia's practice of CRT helped with facilitating social relations in her class. Nia emphasized the importance of collaborative social relationships among the diverse student body in her class. Her rationale for this emphasis was the concern that the ethnic cliques were interrupting the learning process, possibly turning into a hierarchy for teacher's attention. Nia intentionally assigned cooperative activities to build social relations among students and facilitate with a sense of community in the classroom. Unlike CRT, assimilationist teaching emphasizes individualism.

The identity of a teacher was new to Nia. She equated being a teacher to being an adult, which felt strange to her because she reported she does not see herself as an adult. She stated the responsibilities of a teacher had her rethinking her decision to become a teacher. For example, she reported that lesson planning was a difficult task for her; she spent six hours on one lesson plan. Then, there was the relationship with her co-teacher that frustrated her.

By her report, she and her co-teacher did not "click." Unlike the collaborative social relations among the students, her relationship with her co-teacher was not collaborative. Nia stated that most of the time it felt that she had to take control of everything. Nia stated that she felt bad because she did take control of the classroom most of the time. Nia thought she would be able to learn things from her co-teacher and wanted her input and feedback, but it did not happen. The tension in the relationship possibly impacted Nia's identity as a teacher, particularly her beliefs about her teaching abilities. For instance, she possibly wanted some feedback from her co-teacher to lessen the

anxiety about her own ability to teach. Although Nia was unable to create collaborative relationship with her co-teacher, she was able to isolate the tension from impacting her relationship with her students.

Finally, Nia reported that her concept of students of color has broadened from working with African American students to working with other students of color. She stated that it has been interesting working with Korean students because the experience helped her expand her knowledge about multicultural education. Although she did not report any changes in her beliefs about students of color, Nia's statement that her view of students of color has broadened indicates change. By including other students of color in her concept, she has found ways that CRT can be extended to meet a diverse classroom versus a mono-identity class.

Also, the teaching experience increased Nia's appreciation of her training. She reported the experience has deepened her conviction to take teaching more seriously. She went to the Dean of the school to report how she valued the teaching experience and she suggested to him that each pre-service teacher should be given the same opportunity to develop their identities as teachers. Her appreciation of the importance of training has also been strengthened by self-reflection. By the end of the experience, Nia developed a great deal of insight on her teaching abilities and development as teacher, as well as a greater appreciation of CRT.

Observations

The use of students' knowledge is a conception of CRT (Ladson-Billings, 1994a, 1994b). Culturally relevant teachers believe that students' cultural and experiential knowledge can be valuable resources for acquiring a new skill. On the first day of class,

Nia used her student's cultural and experiential knowledge to generate classroom rules. Nia announced that they would make a list of the classroom rules for the eight weeks. Immediately, students began to give responses. Nia quickly wrote all the responses on the board. Nia offered no feedback for the students' responses. This brainstorming of rules went for ten minutes. Nia wrote down all the responses in spite of some repetition. She then turned to her co-teacher and they whispered to one another for about 30 seconds. Next, Nia wrote an acronym on the board, R.E.S.P.E.C.T. She began to explain to the students the purpose of the acronym, but one student called out that she knew the purpose of it. Nia invited the student to explain and the student explained the purpose. Nia clarified they will identify which of the rules match with the letters in the acronym. After each letter was represented by the rule, Nia asked the students to elaborate on their reasons for the rules. Nia encouraged critical thinking by having the students clarify the rules with experiences. Students were excited by this exchange of probes and responses as evident by several students' numerous experiences and rationales. For example, for the letter "e," one student stated that it should represent emotions. Nia asked "What about emotions?" And, the student responded, "Emotions should go away." Nia further asked, "Why should emotions go away?" The student stated that emotions could be negative. Nia wrote the word emotion and a paraphrase of student's explanation. Other students began to talk about different emotions. By encouraging critical thinking, she also demonstrated that knowledge as being co-shared and co-created.

With the increased contact with the students, Nia's teaching appeared more impressive over time. During the first observation, Nia was quite timid to take the lead with introducing activities or generating discussions with students. For example, she

often paused and looked at her notes. One pause lasted about one minute. But, by the last observation, Nia was leading all activities and taking more of a lead role including generating lesson plans and instructing the students. While this study did not focus on the co-teacher relationships, there was no evidence that co- sharing and co-creation of knowledge was generalized to the co-teaching relationship. The imbalance in their relationship is supported by other data.

A culturally relevant teacher finds harmony with collaboration in all aspects of teaching including co-teaching. Although Nia was not collaborative in her relationship with her co-teacher, such was not evident with her students.

Lesson Plans

Probably the most prominent feature of Nia's lesson plans was the emphasis on community-building in the classroom. Over time this feature became a mechanism to develop students' global identities or connection with the world. For example, in the first two classes, the lesson plans' objectives were to engage students in an activity that would introduce them to one another including generating classroom rules and creating a storybook of selves to share with classmates. The subsequent classes began to build on students' global identities and helped them to make connections to the world. For instance, the objective for the lessons on Africa was to challenge and inform misconceptions about Africa. The lesson called for students to brainstorm and share their perceptions of Africa. To inform perceptions and/or misconceptions, the students listened to African music, viewed pictures, and dressed in African garb. They completed worksheets in teams and as teams played "Jeopardy." During the lesson on Korea, the students participated in a virtual tour of Korea and viewed a Korean folklore video.

Culturally relevant teachers appreciate the importance of students' culture relative to learning. But, a homogeneous culture can also be barriers to students' learning (Gustein, et al., 1997). Gustein and colleagues suggest that culturally relevant teachers do not pathologize or romanticize the culture. But, rather they proceed with helping their students to form bicultural identities or see selves as participants in multiple worlds. Culturally relevant teachers help their students to be potential leaders in their communities and larger society (Gustein, et al., 1997). Nia's lesson plans illustrated this conception of CRT, social relations. Her lesson plans demonstrated an appreciation of students' cultural and experiential knowledge (creation of rules and autobiographical stories) and development of global identities (research on Africa and Korea and experiences of cultural customs). Also, her use of CRT increased over time including the practice of community building, critical thinking, and acquiring global identities.

Journal Entries/Communication

Much of Nia's journal reflections and the communication with the Coordinator highlighted two areas of concern for her: personal teaching ability and co-teaching relationship. First, Nia wrote in several of her reflections that she felt unprepared for the students. For example, in an early reflection, she was frustrated with that a ten-minute icebreaker became forty-five minutes and she emphasized that the excessive time "was ridiculous." In another reflection, she described her frustration with engaging the students in a research assignment. But, she eventually added that she was able to engage the students by using their informal knowledge. For example, Nia wrote that one student is interested in animals, so that student researched animals indigenous to Africa.

Several reflections supported Nia's interview data about the strain in the co-teaching relationship. In one reflection, Nia wrote that although the class went well, she felt she and her co-teacher were unorganized. In an email to the Coordinator, Nia expressed concern that the co-teaching relationship was impacting the students' learning. But other data did not support this concern. She wrote that she finds it hard to work with someone that "might not be as interested" in teaching as she is. But, she also wrote that the tension in the co-teaching relationship could lie with her because she does not "slow down." Then, she ended the reflection with her uncertainty about where the blame lied for the tension in their relationship. Her solution was "we just need to talk." By her report, they were eventually able to meet to talk about their goals for the class. After this meeting, she wrote that setting the goals with her co-teacher helped to bring focus to the classroom including the teachers being prepared to explain activities to the students and the sharing of the ideas for lesson plans.

By the end of the field experience, Nia was more confident with her teaching abilities, but she remained unfulfilled with the co-teaching experience.

Observations of Nia's Change Processes and Interpretations

Nia chose a major in education because of her initial experiences with her mother. Bandura (1977) labeled such experiences as vicarious modeling. Nia's observations of her mother as a teacher provided her with expectations that if her mother had such positive interactions with students than Nia should be able to achieve at least some success with teaching. However, according to Bandura (1977), vicarious experiences are not a dependable source of self-efficacy. So, efficacy beliefs based on vicarious experiences alone are likely to lead to weaker efficacy beliefs. Consequently, it is not

surprising that after three weeks in the field experience, Nia's PTE mean score dropped. Further, as the research suggests, novice teachers tend to have inflated beliefs about their abilities to teach in the first years of their teaching (Soodak & Podell, 1997). Soodak and Podell suggest that pre-service teachers are ill-prepared for many challenges in the classroom.

Nia's profile demonstrated change. In short, change measured by the quantitative instrument was not drastic. But, the change was evident by the participant's increased use of practice of CRT.

Her transformative individual change can be best described by three stages of change: contemplation, preparation, and action. First, contemplation, according to Prochasaka & Norcross, (1994) is an awareness of the problem or deficit and the consideration of bringing about a solution for the deficit. Based on the first and second administrations of the quantitative measure, Nia was aware of her personal teaching skills may not be sufficient for teaching students of color. Further, in her first and second interviews and early reflections, her anxiety was evident with tension in her co-teaching relationship and frustration with students' seemingly lack of interest. After contemplating that she may not be prepared to meet some of the challenges of teaching, she evaluated her options for change including meeting with her co-teacher to focus on lesson planning and goals and using students' cultural and experiential knowledge.

Prochaska and Norcross (1994) label mental energy as preparation. A behavior change is also considered as preparation. In the preparation, there is a reduction in the identified deficit. In Nia's case, rather there was an increase in the practice of CRT, albeit, the second administration demonstrated a decrease in PTE. She reported that her

personal teaching skills were deficient, but observations and reflections show that she used culturally relevant pedagogy to produce change in her students' learning.

This study does not confirm that there was maintenance of change. According to Prochaska & Norcross (1994) and others, successful alteration in behavior for a period of time, for instance six months, constitutes change. But, Nia's practice and change in efficacy beliefs are sufficient for cognitive behaviorists to label change (Warwar & Greenberg, 2000). Because Nia actively practiced CRT and reduced her anxiety about personal teaching (higher PTE by the final administration), there is evidence of change.

Finally, the case analysis of this participant did not find additional practices or behaviors of CRT. But, to support the practice of CRT, research should consider how novice teachers implement the pedagogy. As novice teachers become more confident with teaching abilities, their practice of pedagogy or their interpretation of pedagogy would inform research. For instance, one culturally relevant teacher may emphasis critical knowledge while another emphasizes social relations. Such emphasis could inform researchers and teacher educators about the level of difficulty for the implementation of pedagogy and where to emphasize training within the pedagogy. In this case, Nia emphasized social relations, including building a community, developing global identities, as well as students' knowledge. Her PTE showed that she did not believe that she would have difficulty with processing an assignment with a student who does not understand it. Hence, the manner in which a novice teacher implements the practice of CRT or any pedagogy could imply a skill level.

Dewayne

General Description of Informant and Initial Data

Dewayne, a sophomore at a Midwestern university in a teacher education

program, reported that his negative experiences as a student himself motivated him to

choose teaching as a profession. Despite this expressed motivation, Dewayne was not

entirely a cooperative participant or teacher. From the initial interview to observations to

journal entries, Dewayne's participation was limited. The researcher spent several hours

attempting to contact Dewayne prior to the beginning of the study. But, phone calls and

emails from the researcher went unanswered. Eventually, there was a brief telephone

contact with him. He was selected from this contact. Prior to the teaching experience,

Dewayne did not have any experience teaching African American students or other

students of color. But, he did have some teaching experience, including working with an

after-school program.

Results of the Teacher Efficacy Scale

Administration 1.

PTE Subscale.

On the PTE factor, Dewayne's mean score of 4.0 was high. Dewayne's item

responses on the Teacher Efficacy Scale can be found in Appendix D. Dewayne believed

that he has the ability to teach African American students. He agreed that:

1. When an African American student does better than usual, many times it is

   because I exerted a little effort (Agree).

3. If African American parents comment to me that their child behaves much

   better at school than he/she does at home, it would probably be because I have

some specific techniques of managing his/her behavior which they may lack (Agree).

15. When I really try, I can get through to the most difficult African American students (Strongly Agree).

29. If one of my African American students couldn't do a class assignment, I would be able to accurately assess whether the assignment was at the correct level of difficulty (Strongly Agree).

Other researchers found significantly higher PTE and TE among pre-service teachers compared to in-service teachers (Pang & Sablan, 1998; Soodak & Podell, 1997). But, according to Pang & Sablan (1998), pre-service teachers' positive beliefs about their ability to teach African American students are influenced by lack of experience in the classroom. Whereas, in-service teachers' negative perceptions of African American students are influenced over time because of experience. Soodak & Podell (1997) found that prior to field experience, pre-service teachers' personal teaching beliefs are inflated. Therefore, these initial results suggest that Dewayne may be over-estimating his ability to teach. Figure 5 graphs a selection of Dewayne's PTE item responses across all administrations.
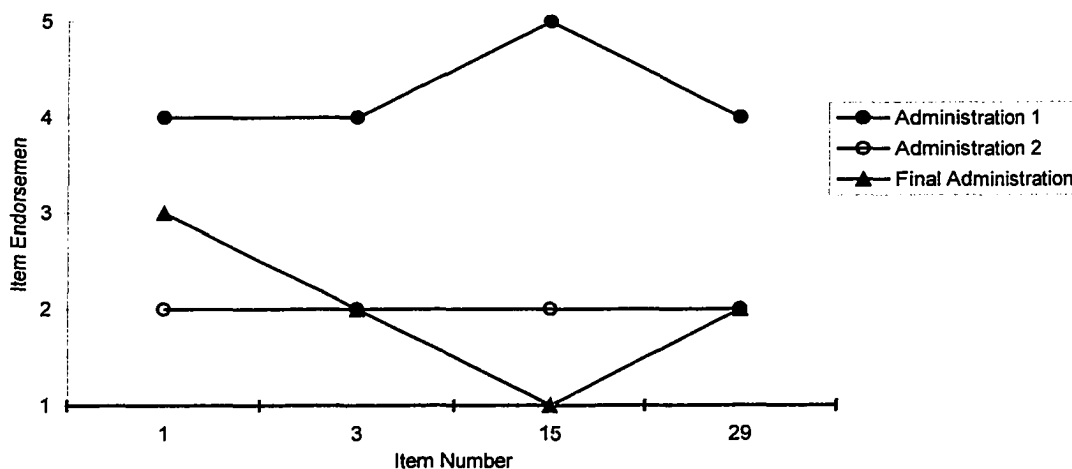
Figure 5. Dewayne's item endorsement of PTE across all three administrations.

TE Subscale.

Based on the results of the first administration of the Teaching Efficacy Scale,

Dewayne believed that teaching could overcome external factors such as home

environment, parenting, and school environment (M= 3.77, SD= 1.36). See Figure 6 for a

selection of Dewayne's TE responses across all administrations.

2. The hours in my class have little influence on African American students

compared to the influence of their home environment (Disagree).

4. The amount that an African American student can learn is primarily related to

family background (Strongly Disagree).

16. A teacher is very limited in what he/she can achieve because of an African

American student's home environment is large influence on his/her

achievement (Strongly Disagree).

27. The influences of an African American student's home experiences can be

overcome with good teaching (Agree).

However, item analysis revealed that the participant was not consistent with this belief:

23. If African American parents would do more with their children, I could do

more. (Agree).
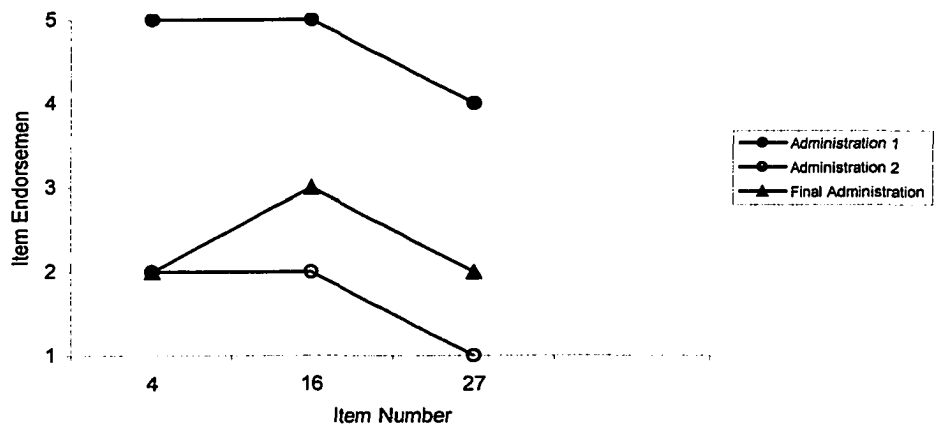
Figure 6. Dewayne's item endorsement of TE across all three administrations.

Summary of Administration 1.

Overall, on the first administration, Dewayne reported confidence that teaching

could overcome external factors as well as confidence that he had the ability to teach

African American students.

Administration 2.

PTE Subscale.

On the second administration of the instrument, Dewayne's mean scores on both

factors decreased (TE, mean= 2.54; PTE, mean= 3.00). By the second administration,

Dewayne's PTE weakened (See Figure 5):

1. When African American student does better than usual, many times it is

   because I exerted a little extra effort (Disagree).

3. If African American parents comment to me that their child behaves much

   better at school than he/she does at home, it would probably be because I have

some specific techniques of managing his/her behavior which they may lack

(Disagree).

15. When I really try, I can get through to the most difficult African American

students (Disagree).

29. If one of my African American students couldn't do a class assignment, I

would be able to accurately assess whether the assignment was at the correct

level of difficulty (Disagree).

Further analysis of the items, Dewayne endorsed half of the items on the PTE subscale as

uncertain.

<u>TE Subscale.</u>

By the second administration of the Teaching Efficacy Scale, Dewayne's TE

weakened (Figure 6). For instance,

3. The amount that an African American student can learn is primarily related to

family background (Agree).

16. A teacher is very limited in what he/she can achieve because of an African

American student's home environment is large influence on his/her

achievement. (Agree).

27. The influences of an African American student's home experiences can be

overcome with good teaching (Strongly Disagree).

<u>Summary of Administration 2.</u>

Both subscale mean scores decreased on the second administration. Dewayne's

drop in PTE is consistent with the research (Dembo & Gibson, 1985; Soodak & Podell,

1997). It is possible that Dewayne's uncertainty with instructional approaches and his competency is a reflection of inadequate training.

<u>Final Administration.</u>

<u>PTE Subscale.</u>

Dewayne's mean score on the PTE factor further diminished (M= 2.00, SD= .93; see Figure 5):

1. When African American student does better than usual, many times it is because I exerted a little extra effort (Uncertain).

3. If African American parents comment to me that their child behaves much better at school than he/she does at home, it would probably be because I have some specific techniques of managing his/her behavior which they may lack (Disagree).

14. When I really try, I can get through to the most difficult African American students (Strongly Disagree).

29. If one of my African American students couldn't do a class assignment, I would be able to accurately assess whether the assignment was at the correct level of difficulty (Disagree).

The lack of rebound in Dewayne's PTE suggests that the teaching experience caused a great deal of performance anxiety or his teaching performance did not improve. Bandura (1977) contends there is a direct relationship between efficacy beliefs and performance. The lower the expectation efficacy the less likely a person will perform the task.

<u>TE Subscale.</u>

By the final administration, Dewayne's TE mean score slightly increased (M= 2.62, SD= .96 as compared to M= 2.85, SD= 1.52, and M= 3.77, SD= 1.36, first and second administration, respectively; see Figure 6).

<u>Summary of General Teaching Efficacy across all Administrations.</u>

As other aspects of the participant's profile will reveal, Dewayne's teaching performance was minimal. In general, Dewayne's general teaching efficacy profile weakened by the final administration of the measure.

<u>Interview Data</u>

<u>Time 1.</u>

Several attempts were made to arrange an interview prior to the field experience. However, after waiting forty-five minutes for the participant to show for the initial interview, it was cancelled. The participant never showed. His reason for missing the interview was that he forgot. All three participants were sent an email reminding them of the interviews.

Dewayne's first interview, provided after his first day in the classroom, was difficult to follow at times because he did not complete his thoughts or respond indirectly to questions. The analysis posed some difficulty. The researcher wanted to remain neutral toward the data, but present the data with clarity. The best attempt at clarity and description follows.

Dewayne described his experience as a student as oppressive. He was primarily educated in a Catholic school system. Dewayne described himself as a student who was

labeled as one of "Black kids that could make it." But, Dewayne reported that his teachers intentionally sabotaged and frustrated him as a student. He recounted how one teacher claimed that he did not turn in assignments when he did. He believed that his teachers were surprised when he went on to college. On one hand, Dewayne stated that many White teachers intentionally tried to fail Blacks students; he also reported that specifically Black female teachers could and would do the same. As a student, he found the curriculum to be racist and oppressive. For example, Dewayne reported the depiction of slavery in the history books to be less than truthful and to encourage the idea that slavery was beneficial for not only the master, but also the slave.

Contrary to his self-report on the Teacher Efficacy Scale of the belief that teaching could overcome external factors, in the interview, Dewayne stated that students' lack of academic achievement is a by-product of poor parenting. He stated that today's parents are too young and they do not teach their children, in addition, the parents are not strong role models and are not interested in their children's education. He provided a personal example of an ex-girlfriend, a young single parent, who would rather go to the 'club' versus being a role model for her child.

Dewayne's view of his students' parents as a negative influence puts forward an assimilationist's view. Dewayne elevated himself above the parents by expressing that they do not care about their students' education and in general they were self-centered. His pathological view of the parents may be his attempt at separating himself from the students as well as other participants in the students' community. An assimilationist views students' community as a weak element of their education (Ladson-Billings,

1994a, 1994b). It is a view that holds students' culture and it accompaniments as deficits to their education (Pang & Sablan, 1998).

Dewayne reported an interest in using culture to facilitate students' learning. For example, Dewayne stated the use of African American authors to enthuse African American students about literature is one example of CRT. However, Dewayne reported that his practice of CRT was hampered by the make-up of the students. He expressed being surprised and unprepared for a classroom of majority of Korean national students. He also reported a preference for teaching high school students, instead of the fourth and fifth graders in his class. Further, he believed to teach anything related to Korean history would oppress the African American students in the class. So, he reported that he was revising his lesson plans. In fact, Dewayne stated that his goal is to try and teach what he wants and hopes they (the students) "grab on." Dewayne's view of his students is another example of assimilationist teaching. By his own report, he was not interested in creating a curriculum that reflects all cultures in his classroom.

Since the experience began, Dewayne reported that his beliefs about teaching African American students as well as students of color have not changed. He did not expand on this belief even after several probes. Due to cancelled interview, this researcher was unable to collect any qualitative data regarding his beliefs prior to the teaching experience.

Finally, Dewayne reported that teacher training does not adequately train teachers to work with African American students. Dewayne reported that the one course in multicultural education did not teach him anything that he did not already know. He believed that his White counterparts were ill prepared to teach African American students

because they had little interactions with the students. He recommended that they be placed in field experiences with African American teachers and be assigned to do readings on African American teachers and their practice. Dewayne's statements about his White counterparts may be an unwitting projection about his own lack of training to meet the challenges in his classroom. By his own report, Dewayne was not prepared to teach a predominantly Korean classroom. In sum, Dewayne reported a lack of confidence in parents to support their students' academic achievement, disappointment in the composition of his classroom, and inadequacy of teacher training.

<u>Time 2.</u>

In the final interview, Dewayne reported conflict with his co-teacher, detachment from students, and yet greater confidence in his teaching. Dewayne stated that he felt misled and confused about the curriculum used in the field experience. He reported the source of the confusion is his co-teacher. He asserted that she teaches from a "multipart perspective" which "lumps" everyone together. Dewayne expressed hating this approach, which he stated continues to oppress students and subsequently to oppress their creativity. By his report, their pedagogical approaches clashed. For example, his co-teacher presented the similarities between African and Korean cultures, which he did not like. He stated that he teaches the differences because the students need to know. He reported that there were several arguments over the content of the curriculum with little resolve.

Because of the tension in the co-teaching relationship, Dewayne reported that he has not been involved a great deal in the lesson planning that was reviewed by the Coordinator. Further, Dewayne stated his co-teacher's lesson plans met the approval of

the Coordinator, but his lesson plans were subjected to stronger critique. He reported that the Coordinator found him to be inattentive or disengaged in the class. Dewayne expressed that the inattentiveness was confusion. He reported being confused at times because he did not have time to go over the lesson plans with his co-teacher or he did not understand her teaching objectives for the students. Dewayne expressed concern that the content was unorganized and lacked meaningfulness for the students. Dewayne admitted that he just sits back and does very little because of this "confusion."

Additionally, the tension and un-organization have impacted his quality of connecting with his students. By his report, he was not part of "the imparting of knowledge." He felt left in the background. On the other hand, Dewayne's limited involvement can be possibly described as assimilationist teaching. By his own report, he found the culturally relevant approach of making connections with identities beyond what is familiar as inferior. He found no value in helping students draw connections between their ethnic identities and global identities. Helping students develop global identities empowers them to see selves as participants in the world (Gustein, et al., 1997). From an assimilationist's view, social relations are maintained only in the classroom and not beyond. Dewayne provided no evidence of encouraging students to develop bi-cultural identities. Subsequently, his interest in his students could possibly be explained as limited because of his emphasis on his own teaching philosophy or "expertise."

Finally, albeit he reported limited responsibilities, including lesson planning and teaching, he stated the field experience provided him an opportunity to be creative and to teach better. As support, Dewayne provided the example of the students' participation during one of the few lessons that he taught. He reported the students were engaged

because they asked questions and they listened closely to the guest speaker and a classmate. Yet, other data showed that Dewayne's report of improvement is unfounded. Based on the second administration of the Teaching Efficacy Scale, Dewayne's confidence in his ability to teach diminished. Possibly, as his PTE weakened, his attempts at the tasks of teaching, including lesson planning, classroom management, and instruction, decreased. Dewayne believed that the source of his lack of performance included his relationship with his co-teacher and the demography of the class. Alternatively, as the tension in his co-teaching relationship increased, his teaching ability and performance decreased.

Journal Entries/Communication

Dewayne did not turn in any of the reflective responses. An ingredient for change is awareness (Porchaska, et al., 1992). The lack of compliance with writing reflections suggests that he may resist the importance of self-reflection. Dewayne may not aware of difficulty or that he is externalizing the difficulty. On the other hand, the participant may have minimized the importance of certain responsibilities for participation in this study, as evident by the no-show for the first interview and non-compliance with turning in lesson plans.

Observations

Dewayne demonstrated a lack of interest in his teaching responsibilities. In one observation, Dewayne was out of the classroom for 40 minutes of the instruction conducted by his classroom co-teacher. During another observation, Dewayne appeared to be indifferent with the students' work as evident with little verbal and non-verbal interactions with the students. Dewayne spent most of the class time again outside of it.

At the time of the final observation, the participant led the class. An invited guest speaker talked about the Islamic holiday, Ramadan. Dewayne encouraged an Islamic student to share his experience of visiting Mecca and the custom of fasting. There was a great deal of discussion with students asking questions and Dewayne facilitating the discussion with explanations or encouraging the students to view a PowerPoint presentation. This observation may suggests that the participant was practicing CRT including using students' cultural and experiential knowledge to guide discussion. But, this event could also be considered an isolated event versus a critical event of change.

Lesson Plans

Dewayne's lesson plans provided little data about change. The outline of the lesson plans was generic. The goals and objectives were listed as activities without aims for students' learning. One of the lesson plans included community-building activity, but with no explanation of the activity. The lesson plans mirrored the participant's viewpoint.

Observations of Dewayne's Change Processes and Interpretations

Dewayne's profile could be best described as conflicted. It is a profile that showed more evidence of lack of change, caused by stagnation. Although Dewayne expressed a strong desire to become as a culturally relevant teacher, by the end of the study, Dewayne demonstrated more practices of an assimilationist teacher.

In particular, there was little evidence to support that Dewayne connected with his students. From an assimilationist viewpoint, Dewayne blamed his students for his detachment. He was surprised that he was not teaching a majority of African American students as well as not teaching older students. His conception of self, gathered from observations, lesson plans, and interviews, revealed that he promoted an expert-approach.

Because he did not find the curriculum's content to be meaningful at times, he was often not engaged with the students. The times that he found the curriculum's content to be meaningful were when he taught the lessons. A culturally relevant teacher not only imparts knowledge, but also learns with and from the students. No data support that Dewayne saw his students as collaborators in the learning process. The instance of the lesson on Ramadan does not support Dewayne's practice of CRT. The participant's intentions, not the behavior, suggest that the intentions were not by the process of CRT. Another example of assimilationist teaching was his limited social relations with his students. By his own report, he was distanced with his students. Observations showed that Dewayne spent more time outside of the classroom. His interactions with his students were limited and poor.

Dewayne's conceptions of knowledge can be best described as assimilationist. Although Dewayne criticized his own teachers who forced him to learn a curriculum that he reported as oppressive; his own approach to knowledge was static. It was not shared or co-created with the students. Even though Dewayne believed that students should not be subject to content that is not relevant to them, he demonstrates little, if any, flexibility to make a curriculum that reflected his diverse class. In one interview, he believed that the students would eventually catch on to the content whether or not it reflected their experience. A culturally relevant teacher considers how the curriculum may impact students. The curriculum reflects not only the educational needs, but also the socio-political identities of the students. A culturally relevant teacher sees knowledge as a dynamic process between self and the students, while the assimilationist views knowledge as hierarchical.

In the final interview, Dewayne reported that he was more confident in his personal teaching abilities; however, his responses on the Teaching Efficacy Scale indicated that Dewayne's PTE weakened over time. Other evidence for a weakened PTE was supported by his report of confusion and detachment.

Dewayne's stage of change or lack thereof can be best characterized as precontemplation. Although there appeared to be moments of conscious-raising, they proved to be fleeting in that they impacted the participant very little. The tension with his co-teacher, dissatisfaction with the curriculum, and the detachment from the students served to increase his anxiety. He coped with it by blaming. At a psychological level, Dewayne externalized his weaken PTE by blaming his students, parents, and co-teacher. He demonstrated no self-evaluation of his role in his heightened anxiety. For example, his limited opportunities to teach prior to this experience may have served to increase his anxiety. Put another way, his limited teaching experience weakened his beliefs that he could teach. However, he was unable to make the connection between his limited teaching experience and abilities. Instead, he explained his lack of success in the classroom as a result of the co-teacher and his students. As his anxiety increased, his inflexibility increased. He spent more time outside of the classroom. He did not turn in lesson plans on a timely fashion. His lesson plans did not reflect feedback from the Coordinator. In essence, he became more convicted with a philosophy of teaching that was "my way or no way."

From the change theory standpoint, precontemplators are prone to externalizing their problems (Prochaska, et al., 1992). They resist change because it is so disruptive to their schemata. They resist opportunities to alter impaired beliefs. Novice teachers, ill-

prepared, are overcome by challenges and subsequently their PTE are impacted as well as their performance (Soodak & Podell, 1997). Unaware, Dewayne lacked the insight to make this connection.

Overall, Dewayne's aspirations to teach in a way that is culturally relevant did not happen. Analysis of observations, interviews, and self-report measures revealed that as Dewayne externalized his anxiety, he became frustrated and inflexible. Dewayne's lack of interest in his students and externalization suggest a style of teaching that promotes one viewpoint- teacher as the expert. Dewayne's profile uncovered an assimilationist teaching style with no evidence of CRT as well as a lack of change to alleviate his anxiety of teaching or improve his teaching.

Discussion

In what ways can or should teacher education focus on the personal effects of social injustices on teachers? This study provides some support that belief systems about racism and social injustices can enter into teachers' perceptions about students and teaching and their abilities as teachers. Each case is quite different, however, with two participants demonstrating an eagerness to be engaged in the teaching and the research study itself, while the other conveying resistance and non-cooperation, even some personal adjustment issues that seem to unavoidably flow into the classroom. But what has been gleaned from the data is evidence that well-intended beliefs toward their need to help correct societal wrongs and the expression of teaching skills to realize these beliefs are not necessarily congruent. The teachers struggled with the unexpected, with their own individual problems with the Heritage Project classrooms and with their teaching partners, and with their zeal to do what seems fundamentally and morally right. This

struggle, and the participant's changes were witnessed (and with one case, observed to occur minimally) related to personal struggles that necessarily relate to perceptions of their ability as would-be professionals (Soodak & Podell, 1997). Their individual experiences are complex.

Janiece's beliefs about her teaching abilities and teaching African American students were limited to vicarious experiences. Vicarious experiences are not as influential source of self-efficacy compared to performance accomplishments (Bandura, 1977). As Janiece spent more time teaching, her practice of CRT increased. Based on self-efficacy theory, behavior that successfully negotiates a task increases efficacious beliefs. Yet, as a theory, it is limited to explaining change only as extra-psychic. The literature on change emphasizes that change is considered as intra-psychic and extra-psychic. It is almost paradoxical not to consider the change without examining the intra-psychic processes of an individual. So to examine these processes, the racial identity theory is utilized.

Dissonance best describes Janiece's racial identity status. As Janiece became more aware of her deficient teaching abilities, she also developed an awareness of deficiencies were influenced by her disparaging thoughts about African American children. Her awareness bought about the breakdown of the denial of her own immunity from internalized racism. This awareness contradicted how Janiece believed herself to be. But, the contradiction was between the group-depreciating and group-appreciating beliefs. The contradiction helped Janiece to question and alter her practice of teaching. This contradiction facilitated change to her resolve of a more realistic appraisal of her teaching abilities and self-exploration of her beliefs.

Similarly, Nia reported an awareness of deficient personal teaching abilities relative to teaching students of color. Within the theoretical framework of self-efficacy, changes in Nia's PTE were the result of unsuccessful teaching performances. However, as she increasingly practiced CRT, there were successful teaching performances, as evident by the qualitative data. But, here again, self-efficacy theory is limited to the behavioral domain for explaining change. On the other hand, racial identity theory explains Nia's change as a function of contradiction to process information. Here, the contradiction was between her beliefs about students of color and what she actually experienced. To her resolve, the contradiction facilitated in broadening her definition of students of color and using practices of CRT to develop an affiliation and respect for her students' cultural and experiential knowledge. Due contradiction and anxiety, Nia's racial identity development is best described primarily as dissonant status.

Dewayne's complex profile proved to be difficult to interpret. His diminished PTE could be explained, in part, as poor teaching performance. The strength of efficacious beliefs depends a large part on performance accomplishments (Bandura, 1977). Based on the qualitative data, including Dewayne's report in interviews, Dewayne performed a minimal number of teaching responsibilities. Therefore, he had few, if any, successful performances that could increased his PTE; rather, he reported difficulty with some teaching responsibilities and limited opportunities to teach and to perform other teaching tasks such as lesson planning. Self-efficacy theory explains changes in Dewayne's PTE as a function of performance. Because he did not perform the tasks of teaching successfully, Dewayne reported diminished efficacious beliefs about his ability to teach children of color. The self-efficacy theory does not take into account the

information processing system of the individual. But, other evidence suggests that Dewayne was experiencing cognitive contradictions that may have influenced his teaching practices and subsequently, informed the researcher about the lack of change with this participant.

Using racial identity theory to explain cognitive contradictions, Dewayne's lack of change is a reflection of his dissonance status. Dewayne reported disparaging beliefs about African American students and their families as well as the unfavorable attitude for teaching other students of color. Although he was quite vocal about his distrust of white teachers, he was equally distrustful of African American teachers, particularly African American female teachers. He held on to and continued to voice these group-deprecating beliefs throughout the course of the study. It was therefore no surprise that the participant did not change his practice of teaching. In colloquial terms, he dug in his heels.

In the next and final chapter, the researcher attempts to integrate these findings in terms of their conceptual underpinnings. What appears clear from the results, however, is that race and racism contributes to the process of learning as related to the schooling of children of color. Teachers who have little expectations of students academically implicitly display their expectations via limited interactions and insensitive statements of superiority and inferiority. This finding is alarming; especially with accompanying data that suggest that these teachers' seemingly genuine motivation in making a difference in the lives of children of color. As racial identity theory has revealed, and what will be explored in the final chapter; people with less developed racial identities are likely to convey messages of domination and subjugation without overtly intending to do so. Also,

consistent with this theory, vestiges of advanced level practices can help propel teachers

to conduct practices that resist these negative messages.

Chapter 5: Conclusions

Before attending to the results of this investigation and their implications to theory-building and research, this researcher will examine what is meant by <u>change</u>. Change is at the heart of this research and its discernment is essential to any deliberations pertaining to whether or not it was exhibited in the three participants and why it is even necessary.

What is change? Change, in this study, is defined as alteration of the participant's belief system and teaching behaviors, whether CRT or assimilationist teaching. Changes in the belief systems are considered here. Change happens due to an inability of individuals to psychologically avoid the contradictions between their beliefs about humanity and their perceptions of a reality influenced by dehumanizing aspects. Unable to successfully cope with the contradictions, individuals experience a psychological disturbance, characterized by some anxiety. Individuals can resolve the perceptual and cognitive contradictions by 1) remediation (often an avoidance of the stimuli that provokes the anxiety or a dismissal of the persons or events that spur the contradictions) or 2) reconstruction of his or her belief system.

Relative to racial identity development, change happens as a result of confronting the dissonance between individuals' belief systems and the anxiety-provoking racial stimuli. How individuals handle the dissonance determines, whether it is first-order or second-order change. This coping also suggests something about their racial identity development. For instance, those individuals operating at the lower statuses of racial identity use remediation to resolve contradictions between beliefs and racial stimuli. Thompson (in press) suggests that people at the lower statuses can cope with racial

stimuli and the attendant anxiety by using such strategies as "universalizing" and "reversal of power." These strategies seem like the remediation that Lyddon has written about. With the universalizing strategy, individuals generalize the experiences of marginalized people as "that's life" and therefore, with some deflection of a reality of racism. Everyone, regardless of race, is seen as experiencing life problems; racism is yet one problem that does not differ dramatically from other life problems, like joblessness or general interpersonal difficulties. A second strategy described by Thompson is for individuals to ascribe more power to marginalized people than to members of the dominant group. In both strategies, individuals are not changing their belief system, but rather distorting the racial stimuli. First-order change emphasizes controlling the dissonance by reorganizing beliefs to alleviate the anxiety associated with it. With first-order change, individuals avoid confronting the reality of racism. Change in this case is essentially superficial.

On the other hand, those individuals operating in advanced statuses of racial identity come to see race as a social construction that subjects racial minority to positions of subjugation, while allowing racial majority positions of domination and more likely to experience second-order change. According to Thompson (in press), those individuals operating with advanced racial identities, particularly integrative awareness, understand his or her sociopolitical self and its relations to society and do not avoid reality or racial stimuli unlike the those with less developed racial identity. With second-order change, the individuals' core beliefs are no longer functional for him or her because of confrontation about the reality of racism. Individuals begin to unravel the conditioned messages of a racial socialization. In place of these messages, individuals develop

cognitive and behavioral strategies to counteract these messages. Changes in the belief systems relative to racial identity were considered for the participants.

Evidence in this study showed that teachers of color are not excused from harboring pejorative beliefs about children of color. Teachers in this study faced the difficulty of translating their moral conviction to bring about change in their students and combat disparaging thoughts about children of color. Although, these issues are not exclusive for teachers of color, this study provided evidence that they do indeed face issues of internalized racism and subject their students, unknowingly, to messages of subjugation.

The Relevance of this Study to the Discussion on Change

This study found changes in personal teaching efficacy of all three pre-service teachers over a ten-week period, but the changes only tell part of the story. Quantitative measures, like the Teaching Efficacy Scale, have demand characteristics to which participants may have responded in a way they believe would be socially desirable- a threat to external validity. Then, the re-testing of the participants with the same measure was a threat to internal validity. Participants tend to learn the measure and the learning implies familiarity and not necessary change. So, the use of alternative methods of inquiry helped to explore the research questions more richly. Triangulation of the data allowed this researcher to look at alternative explanations of results. So, the changes in personal teaching efficacy suggest 1) change in confidence in teaching abilities and 2) beliefs about teaching students of color. Both sets of findings were scrutinized further with the use of qualitative methods including interviews, observations, and written documents.

Qualitative data revealed incidents of disparaging beliefs, social detachment, conflict between self-depreciating and self-appreciating beliefs and expressions of group-depreciating beliefs. Findings of internalized oppression supported existing research that pre-service teachers are not necessarily prepared <u>psychologically</u> to work with students of color. Teachers of color are not excused from the influences by larger society's treatment of marginalized groups. More importantly, the results of this study drew attention to the susceptibility of novice teachers who, despite with good intentions, demonstrated behaviors that perpetuate notions about children of color. Further, although the same teachers are aware of the influence of the role that larger society and school play in the perpetuating the status quo, they still remain ill-prepared to address the influences for self and with students' learning. In all three cases, the participants at some point blamed their classrooms of marginalized students for their own predicament (e.g., parents, community, lack of motivation, disinterest). Two of the participants, who did not avoid the dissonance, experienced a change in their racial identity and came to critically think about their sociopolitical identities and factors that continue to oppress marginalized people. Moreover, the two teachers decided to challenge racism, using more than lip service, with the practice of CRT. On the other hand, the male participant continued to blame his students for their predicament. He avoided racial stimuli (e.g., detaching from students, spending little time in the classroom, and not completing self-journals). This participant denied how he recreated positions of subjugation and domination in his own classroom. His use of assimilationist teaching also bears evidence of Dewayne's relatively inchoate of racial identity advancement.

For two of the participants, the dissonance led the participants to consider selves not as enlightened and their teaching practices limited relevant to students of color. Also, they reported affective experiences to racial stimuli. To alleviate dissonance, they sought to implement a strategy and pedagogy to sort out appropriate awareness and skills that were beneficial and relevant to the teaching students of color. But, the other participant's experiences of contradictions did not facilitate change, but rather a conviction not to change.

An Emergent Model of Racial Identity, Teacher Efficacy, and Culturally Relevant Teaching

Having conducted the investigation of the racial identity, teacher efficacy, and culturally relevant teaching relative to change, there is a new way of conceptualizing this study. Change was operationalized as the differences in teacher efficacy mean scores and in the practice (or lack thereof) of culturally relevant teaching. Further, pre-service teachers' racial identity development was found to be an important factor of transformative change. The model of change (below) initially used in this investigation proposed a linear explanation of change.
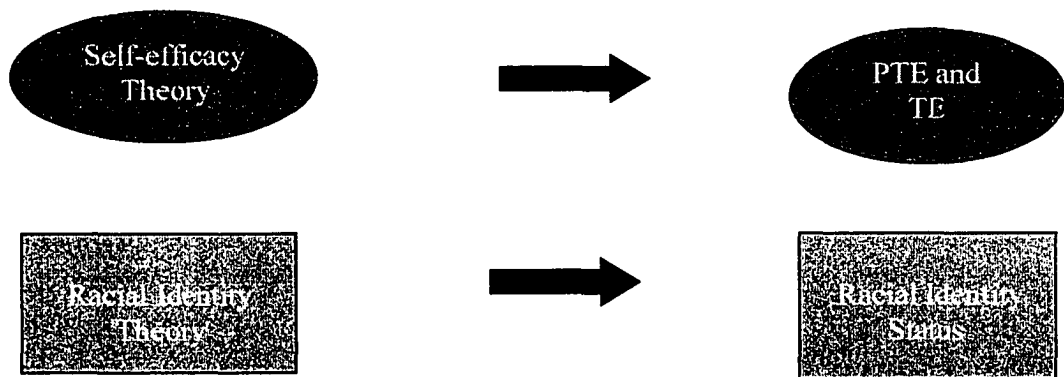
However, as the results of the study unfolded there emerged a complex model for explaining change, as depicted by the schema below:
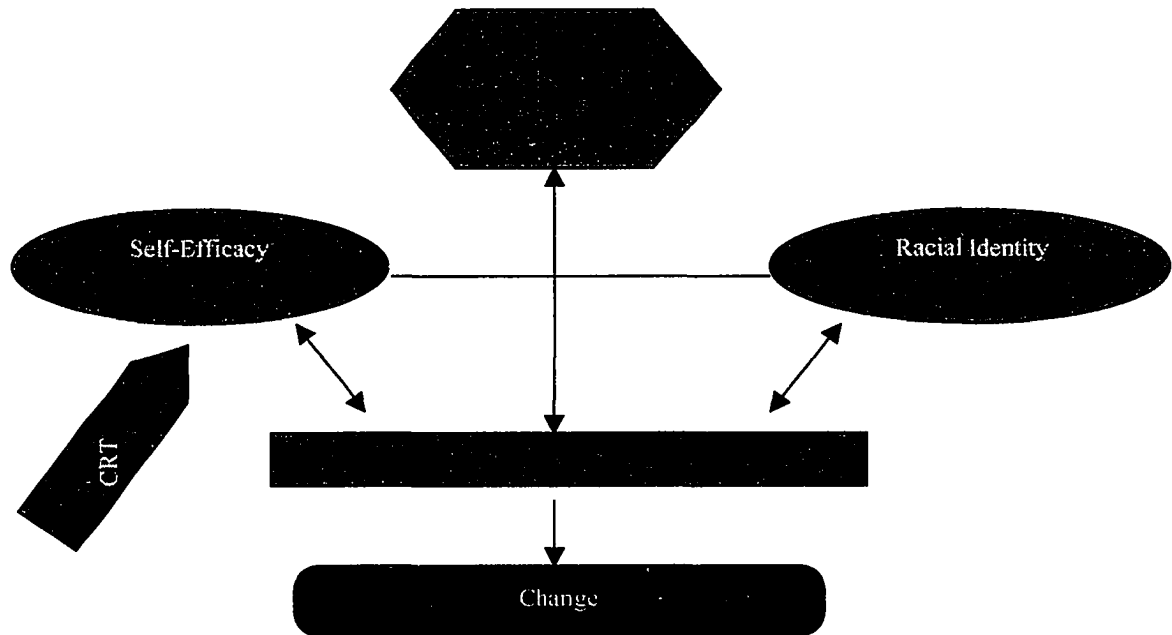
After analyzing the results, this researcher considers that transformative change is interactive. With the emergent model as a map, each aspect of the model deserves attention and is considered for its contribution to the emergent model.

Behavior Setting.

Applying theoretical concepts to a behavior setting is difficult (Schoggen, 1989). The setting not only abides to the roles and rules that it is ascribed, but it is responsive to the individuals' attitudes and beliefs which translate into behavior and subsequently impact the setting (Schoggen, 1989). Individuals can have a significant influence on the setting and its components (rules, roles, etc). In this behavior setting, the classroom was influenced by and responded to the behavior of the pre-service teachers. Environmental

psychologists found that the teachers' expectations of their students determined the quality of interactions between the two parties (Rivlin & Weinstein, 1984). For instance, in this study, the male participant's expectations of his students were not high. Consequently, his interactions with his students were limited and detached. Another example is each participant's surprise of the largely Korean student population. Each participant reported struggling with broadening his or her definition of teaching students of color. The struggle at times translated into frustration. The pre-service teachers who were receptive to feedback and willing to work through their preconceived stereotypes were also open to working with racial stimuli, in other words, dissonance in the classroom. This willingness translated into their students participating actively in their academic progress and subsequently, the teachers become more engaged in their students' academic performance. The dynamic process between the behavior setting and individuals influenced the quality of change. Again, it is important to note that individuals bring their values, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors to a setting to have an effect on it. In this model, basic personality traits were considered as a factor in the study.

<u>Basic Personality Traits</u>

For the participants in this study, basic personality traits influenced their expressions of social justice and impacted their quality of change. Basic personality traits are oftentimes overlooked or cursory addressed because their complexity. Personality traits include those attitudes, emotions, dispositions, personal experiences, and coping strategies that influence the capacity to change. In this study, the individuals' reactions to the classroom and its students were different and suggested coping differences in the presence of racial stimulus or dissonance. Further, individuals' level of tolerance affected

their capacity to change. The participants' coping strategies and level of tolerance in the presence of a racial stimulus tell something about the personality and subsequently the participants' capacity to change. Identifying aspects of personality, coping strategies and level of tolerance, inform this research about how the individuals change (or not change) and maintain behavior in the face of dissonance.

In the context of racial identity theory, coping strategies range from healthy confrontation to unhealthy distortions of reality including denial/selective attention, rationalization or transference of blame, intellectualization, identification or introjection, and projection (Thompson & Neville, 1999). Of the latter unhealthy distortions of reality, denial and selective attention are the most primitive strategies when coping with racial stimuli (Thompson & Neville, 1999). By denying racism and its effects, individuals are color-blinded and limited in their capacity to change. In a classroom, this distortion of reality translates into teachers who maintain behaviors that reinforce the status quo.

A distortion of reality used by all three participants was rationalization or transference of blame. According to Thompson and Neville (1999), this coping strategy "... moves beyond ignoring social reality to actively placing the blame on people of color" (p. 186). As a coping strategy, transference of blame allows individuals to provide a justifiable explanation for the condition of inequality of oppressed groups (Thompson & Neville, 1999). In this study, participants believed their students' lack of motivation to learn ranged from inherently apathy to poor parenting. For instance, Janiece assumed that it would be her primary task to motivate her students, particularly the African American students, because, as she believed, motivating these students is necessary. Similarly, Nia believed that her students in general were not interested in learning. By far, Dewayne's

transference of blame was more blatantly disturbing. He believed that his lack of interest

in his students reflected how poorly his students' parents were involved in their students'

academic achievement. In each case, the pre-service teachers assumed that the students,

who hold less power than the teachers, contributed to their condition and subsequently to

how the teacher interacted with them. Although systems-oriented theories relate to the

interactions between persons within a relationship as a co-construction of reality (and

consequently, as each person influencing the other), it is suggested here that each teacher

perceives the influence of this power relationship differently.

Relative to change, the transference of blame coping strategy makes it difficult for

individuals to critically think about other factors that contribute to their students'

academic attainment (Thompson & Neville, 1999). For example, Dewayne assumed that

all of his students would "grab on" and therefore, he believed that it was not necessary to

change his teaching approach. As his inflexibility increased over time, his involvement

with his students decreased. Blaming others for their oppressed position removes or

eliminates individuals with power from facilitating change in the condition (Thompson &

Neville, 1999). Blaming helps with the individuals to distance selves from students of

color (Thompson & Neville, 1999). In the classroom, the manifestation of transference of

blame included disengaging from the students, little or no planning of lessons, and

transmitting stereotypes. Initially, this strategy hindered their capacity to change, but for

two of the participants their level of tolerance facilitated with confronting the unhealthy

distortion of reality.

The threshold of tolerance, as a personality trait, influenced how the participants

interacted with students, collaborated with co-teachers and students, and managed

sources of nuances in the behavior setting. Teachers with greater threshold of tolerance, as evident by expanding their ideas of what a classroom is beyond the four walls and co-creating knowledge with their students, were more likely to report higher personal teaching efficacy and increased student participation by the end of the study. For instance, to facilitate with students making connections about ethnic selves and global community, Janiece used community resources, such as community elders and cultural centers. Another example of an increased threshold of tolerance was the use of culturally relevant teaching. As Nia's threshold of tolerance increased, her practice of culturally relevant teaching broadened with implementing cooperative and community-building activities and using students' experiential knowledge to critique content. It is important to recognize that a greater threshold of tolerance allows the individuals to consider self as an important role in what happens and what can happen in an environment. Greater thresholds of tolerance permit the individuals to consider creative ways to appreciate and include differences.

Lower thresholds of tolerance created difficulty with managing teaching responsibilities including working with students and others. For example, Dewayne verbalized how little tolerance he had for working with his co-teacher and students. He admitted that he did not see himself working with them because how different they were. He considered his co-teacher's teaching approach to be inferior. He also expressed how his students' lack of involvement (as he perceived it) was a reflection of their inferiority. Further, he found no value with connecting with his students or teaching in such a manner to engage his students. Lower thresholds of tolerance deter individuals from growth and social action. With lower thresholds of tolerance, individuals see differences

as problematic and infeasible to work. Social agents of change must be willing to broaden their knowledge and incorporate it into their behavior thereby finding more options to challenge to status quo.

By challenging distortions of reality and the status quo and appreciating differences, teachers who are responsible for empowering marginalized groups chose pedagogical practices with similar objectives.

Racial Identity Development and Culturally Relevant Teaching.

Individuals' racial identity status provides information about how he or she approaches racial stimuli (dissonance), cognitively and behaviorally (Thompson, in press). Individuals with an advanced racial identity status are less likely to distort and avoid racist ideology and behavior, but rather increase his or her exposure to the racism and work to dismantle it. Relative to the practice of teaching, individuals operating with an advanced racial identity status are more likely to practice a pedagogy that eradicates structures of oppression. In this study, the use or lack thereof of culturally relevant teaching depends in part on individuals' racial identity status. In the classroom, a microsystem of larger society, a teacher who operates primarily in an advanced racial identity status also copes complexly with a reality of racism and encourages a classroom where racism is discussed and dismantled via pedagogy. A teacher who operates primarily in a lower racial identity status may tend to avoid dissonance in the classroom. Teachers with these lower-status qualities may generally tend to make use of a pedagogy that reinforces pejorative beliefs and recreates positions of domination and subjugation in the classroom.

This emergent model illustrates the dynamic processes that happen to bring about any quality of change. In light of this model, recommendations for training should consider providing appropriate conditions for optimizing the possibility of change by meeting individuals where they are. For instance, individuals with lower status of racial identity would not adequately cope with a classroom with high and intense dissonance (racial stimulus). Rather, a more appropriate setting for promoting advancement of racial identity status and high personal teaching efficacy would be a guided experience with gradual exposure to dissonance marked with appropriate coping strategies. Additional recommendations follow with the emphasis that the training experiences match individuals' racial identity status to facilitate greater personal teaching efficacy and advanced racial identity status development.

Recommendations

When teacher education programs do not address *meaningfully* issues of race, social class, and gender within the context of American schools they ultimately reinforce messages of racial oppression (Grant & Koskela, 1986). In essence, they may unwittingly train novice teachers --- either through omission of material, or by downplaying the importance of these issues --- that to deny the contradictions beset in an unjust society. Education is considered a social transformative tool (LaFontant-Beauboeuf, 1999) whereby teachers can act as agents of change. But when teachers are trained not to challenge their beliefs about race, they collude in societal oppression.

According to LaFontant-Beauboeuf (1999), an American education should be a liberatory experience for students of color and, essentially, for all children. Students should experience freedom to voice inequalities between formal education and social

reality. The classroom should be the place to challenge the social structure by critical thinking and social action. However, teachers without a discernment of the connection between formal education and social structure are of little help in creating a liberatory education. Teachers with awareness of self and issues of race are necessary for liberatory education of students of color.

Therefore, it is important that teacher education considers not only training novice teachers for the tasks of teaching, but also facilitating teachers to take a hard look at reality and racism. Teachers who have high personal teaching efficacy, but also have advanced racial identity, will empower their students of color to challenge the status quo and successfully exist as bi-cultural beings. Because teachers are instrumental in children's socialization, it is important to train teachers who position themselves on the frontlines in the struggle against racism and social injustice in the classroom.

Recommendations are considered for teacher reform. There seems to be some parallel between psychological interventions to help people undergo transformative change. Psychological interventions can inform teacher education to train teachers who are prepared to teach students of color and who are aware and ready to make education a liberatory experience for children of color. Therefore, the following recommendations for practice and research are as follow:

1.   Place pre-service teachers in field experiences early and more frequently with students of color. Prolonged exposure to stimuli facilitates with challenging core beliefs. Pre-service teachers with such experience are more likely not to be overwhelmed with the novelty of the experience and use less time resolving anxiety.

2.   Capture the practice of culturally relevant teaching among pre-service teachers with additional studies. By examining their practice of CRT, a training model could be developed for teacher education.

3.   Deal with feelings of self-depreciating and group-depreciating through re-education. Open discussion of issues of race, gender, and class can be infused in all teacher education programs. Guided assignments required addressing the issues (papers, presentations, observations, etc.).

4.   Develop an awareness of conflict related to racial identity through re-education. Readings and journals assigned with opportunity for feedback from instructor.

On a broader scale, these recommendations have implications beyond teacher training. Teachers who are trained to recognize and act on the relationship between education and social justice will have classrooms ready to challenge the status quo. Creating classrooms that embrace diversity and social justice encourages students to see selves as powerful social agents. Empowerment creates agents that see their purpose beyond an ascribed role. Teachers can play such an important role in developing these social agents. It is crucial that teachers are ready for the task.

Appendix A- Demographic Sheet

Identification code: _____

Age: _____   Sex: FemaleMale

Year Classification in School (freshman, sophomore, junior, or senior):

_____

Major in Education: _____

Please list (by title) the classes you have completed in Multicultural Education:

_____

_____

_____

Have you had any prior field experience?   Yes   No

If yes, did you work with a predominately African American or Latino student

population?

Yes   No

Appendix B- Teacher Efficacy Scale

Teacher Efficacy Scale

To indicate agreement, please respond based on the following scale

Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

1. ____ When an African American student does better than usual, many times it is because I exerted a little extra effort.

2. ____ The hours in my class have little influence on African American students compared to the influence of their home environment.

3. ____ If African American parents comment to me that their child behaves much better at school than he/she does at home, it would probably be because I have some specific techniques of managing his/her behavior which they may lack.

4. ____ The amount that an African American student can learn is primarily related to family background.

5. ____ If a teacher has adequate skills and motivation, she/he can get through to the most difficult African American students.

6. ____ If African American students aren't discipline at home, they aren't likely to accept any discipline.

7. ____ I have enough training to deal with almost any learning problem.

8. ____ My teacher training program and/or experience has given me the necessary skills to be an effective teacher.

9. ____ Many teachers are stymied in their attempts to help African American students by lack of support from the community.

10. ____ Some African American students need to be placed in slower groups so they are not subject to unrealistic expectations.

11. ____ Individual differences among teachers account for the wide variations in African American student achievement.

12. ____ When an African American student is having difficulty with an assignment, I usually adjust it to his/her level.

13. ____ If one of my new African American students cannot remain on task for a particular assignment, there is little that I could do to increase his/her attention until he/she is ready.

14. ____ When an African American student gets a better grade than he or she usually gets, it is usually because I found better ways of teaching that student.

15. ____ When I really try, I can get through to the most difficult African American students.

16. ____ A teacher is very limited in what he/she can achieve because of an African American student's home environment is a large influence on his/her achievement.

17. ____ Teachers are not a very powerful influence on African American student achievement when all factors are considered.

18. ____ If African American students are particularly disruptive one day, I ask myself what I have been doing differently.

19. ____ When the grades of my African American students improve, it is usually because I found more effective teaching approaches.

20. ____ If my principal suggested that I change some of my class curriculum, I would feel confident that I have the necessary skills to implement the unfamiliar curriculum.

21. ____ If an African American student masters a new math concept quickly, this might be because I knew the necessary steps in teaching that concept.

22. ____ Parent conferences can help a teacher judge how much to expect from an African American student by giving the teacher an idea of the parent(s)' values toward education, discipline, etc.

23. ____ If African American parents would do more with their children, I could do more.

24. ____ If an African American student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson.

25. ____ If an African American student in my class because disruptive and noisy, I feel assured that I know some techniques to redirect him or her quickly.

26. ____ School rules and policies hinder my doing the job I was hired to do.

27. ____ The influences of an African American student's home experiences can be overcome by good teaching.

28. ____ When an African American children progresses after being placed in a slower group, it is usually because the teacher has had a change to give him/her extra attention.

29. ____ If one of my African American students couldn't do a class assignment, I would be able to accurately assess whether the assignment was at the correct level of difficulty.

30. ____ Even a teacher with good teaching abilities may not reach many African American students.

Appendix C- Interview Protocol

I would to ask you a number of questions regarding teaching African American students and the effective practices for teaching African American students.

1. Tell me something about your background? When and where were you educated? How did you come to choose a major in education?

2. How would you describe your philosophy of teaching? In other words, what do you believe "works?"

3. Can you think of any characteristics that African American youngsters as a group bring to the classroom that distinguishes them from White students?

4. What kinds of specific things do you believe that should be done in the classroom to facilitate the academic success of African American students?

5. How much of what you know about teaching African American children did you learn as a result of teacher training?

6. If you could revamp teacher education so that teachers would be more effective with African American students what changes would you make?

7. What kinds of roles do you believe parents play in the success of African American students? How would you describe the relationships you've had with parents of students you've taught?

8. What kinds of roles do you believe the community plays in the success of African American students? How would you describe the relationships you've had with parents of students you've taught?

9. How do you think the schooling experiences of the students that you plan to teach differs from that of white students in middle-class communities?

Appendix D- Participants' item responses and mean scores across all administrations of Teacher Efficacy Scale

	First	Second	Final
Item 1	3	2	1
Item 3	2	3	1
Item 5	4	4	1
Item 7	3	3	4
Item 8	4	4	1
Item 12	2	2	2
Item 14	4	3	2
Item 15	4	3	3
Item 18	4	2	2
Item 19	4	2	3
Item 20	3	3	2
Item 21	2	2	2
Item 22	3	3	4
Item 24	2	3	2
Item 25	4	4	3
Item 28	3	2	1
Item 29	3	3	4
SD	0.81	0.73	1.09
M	3.18	2.82	2.24

Janiece's Personal Teaching Efficacy responses across all three administrations of Teacher Efficacy Scale.

	First	Second	Final
Item 2	5	4	4
Item 4	5	5	5
Item 6	4	5	5
Item 9	3	4	5
Item 10	5	5	5
Item 11	3	5	4
Item 13	5	4	5
Item 16	5	4	4
Item 17	5	5	5
Item 23	4	4	4
Item 26	4	3	4
Item 27	3	2	1
Item 30	4	4	5
SD	0.83	0.90	1.11
M	4.23	4.15	4.31

Janiece's Teaching Efficacy responses across all three administrations of Teacher Efficacy Scale.

	First	Second	Final
Item 1	4	4	5
Item 3	4	4	4
Item 5	4	4	4
Item 7	3	1	3
Item 8	3	3	3
Item 12	5	4	4
Item 14	4	3	4
Item 15	4	5	4
Item 18	2	3	3
Item 19	4	5	4
Item 20	3	3	3
Item 21	3	4	4
Item 22	4	2	2
Item 24	3	3	4
Item 25	3	3	4
Item 28	4	4	4
Item 29	3	3	3
SD	0.72	1.00	0.70
M	3.53	3.41	3.65

Nia's Personal Teaching Efficacy responses across all three administrations of Teacher Efficacy Scale.

	First	Second	Final
Item 2	4	4	4
Item 4	3	3	4
Item 6	2	4	4
Item 9	2	2	3
Item 10	5	5	5
Item 11	4	3	2
Item 13	5	4	5
Item 16	4	4	4
Item 17	3	5	5
Item 23	3	4	5
Item 26	5	2	3
Item 27	3	4	5
Item 30	3	4	4
SD	1.05	0.95	0.95
M	3.54	3.69	3.92

Nia's Teaching Efficacy responses across all three administrations of Teacher Efficacy Scale.

	First	Second	Final
Item 1	4	2	3
Item 3	4	2	2
Item 5	3	3	1
Item 7	3	3	4
Item 8	2	3	4
Item 12	4	2	3
Item 14	5	3	2
Item 15	5	2	1
Item 18	3	4	2
Item 19	4	3	2
Item 20	4	3	2
Item 21	4	2	2
Item 22	1	2	4
Item 24	4	3	2
Item 25	5	2	2
Item 28	3	2	2
Item 29	4	2	2
SD	1.06	0.62	0.93
M	4.00	3.00	2.00

Dewayne's Personal Teaching Efficacy responses across all three administrations of Teacher Efficacy Scale.

	First	Second	Final
Item 2	4	4	2
Item 4	5	2	2
Item 6	4	4	2
Item 9	4	2	4
Item 10	5	1	2
Item 11	1	5	4
Item 13	5	2	1
Item 16	5	2	3
Item 17	5	1	3
Item 23	2	4	4
Item 26	2	4	2
Item 27	4	1	2
Item 30	3	1	3
SD	1.36	1.45	0.96
M	3.77	2.54	2.62

Dewayne's Teaching Efficacy responses across all three administrations of Teacher Efficacy Scale.

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