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The Effects of an Autobiographical Dialogue Journaling Activity on Student Teachers' Levels of Cultural Sensitivity and Reflective Skills

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ABSTRACT

THE EFFECTS OF AN AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL DIALOGUE JOURNALING ACTIVITY ON STUDENT TEACHERS' LEVELS OF CULTURAL SENSITIVITY AND REFLECTIVE SKILLS

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The purpose of this study was to examine the influence of a researcher-designed autobiographical dialogue journaling activity on student teachers' levels of cultural sensitivity and levels of reflection. Written feedback from the university supervisors and cooperating teachers was analyzed to identify differences and similarities in the structure and focus of their responses.

Data was collected from 30 student teachers assigned to urban elementary field placements following a six-week structured journaling activity. Student teachers were randomly assigned to one of three journaling conditions: autobiographical dialogue journaling with their cooperating teacher, autobiographical dialogue journaling with their university supervisor, or the traditional student teaching journaling assignment. All student teachers were administrated the *Quick Discrimination Index (QDI)* as a pre and post test assessment of their level of cultural sensitivity. The three levels of *Reflectivity of Deliberative Rationality* were used for qualitative analysis of the journals.

Dependent *t* tests, single-classification analysis of variances and an analysis of covariance were used to analyze differences in student teachers' levels of cultural sensitivity among the three groups. The results of the quantitative analysis revealed no statistically significant differences in the student teachers' levels of cultural sensitivity as measured by the *QDI* following the autobiographical journal activity.

However, qualitative analyses indicated that student teachers that used the autobiographical journaling instrument reflect at higher levels than those who used the traditional journaling tool. Student teachers reflecting at higher levels scored higher on the *QDI* and held different perspectives toward diversity than those student teachers that reflected at the lowest levels. There were also distinct differences in the style of the supervisors and cooperating teachers' written feedback with the supervisors' feedback including more explicit instructional strategies, probing comments, and questions.

The results of this study indicate that engaging student teachers in a dialogue journaling activity with university supervisors would encourage critical reflections. Student teachers' perspectives regarding diversity also appear to be related to their reflection skills and cultural sensitivity levels. Findings suggest that the structure of written feedback provided to student teachers might affect their reflection levels. It is recommended that cooperating teachers be trained in providing written feedback.

This dissertation is dedicated to my sons, Henley, Ricardo, and Ryan.

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

The demographic composition of the nation's public schools over the past three decades has reflected an increase in the number of minorities in the student body population. During the 1980s, minority students represented 30% of the public school population (Banks, 1991) with the Asians/Pacific Islanders and Hispanic student populations accounting for the highest increases, by 116.4% and 44 .7%, respectively (U.S. Department of Education, 1999). In 1987, the U. S. Center for Education Statistics reported that students of color comprised 70% of the total school enrollment in the 20 largest school districts (U.S. Department of Education, 1999). This trend continued through the 1990s, prevalent in the nation's largest urban school systems where ethnic students remained a majority of the school-age population (Guyton & Bryd, 2000; Pettus & Allain, 1999). Of public school students in Grades 1 through 12 in the U.S., 17.1% are African American students and 15.1% Hispanic (U.S. Department of Education, 2000). In addition, future projections indicate that children from minority groups will make up 46 percent of the United States entire school-aged population by 2020 (The Holmes Group, 1995) with a decline in the percentage of White students to fewer than half of all students by 2040 (Olson, 2000).

Unfortunately, this racial and ethnic diversity is not reflected in the predominately nonminority teaching population (Gay, 1993; Guyton & Bryd, 2000; National Education Association, 1987; Nieto, 1999; Sleeter, 2001). In 1986, only 10.4 percent of public school teachers were Hispanic, Black, Asian-American/Pacific Islander, or American Indian/Alaskan Native (The U.S. Department of Education, 1988). Recent statistics

indicate that only 14 percent of K-12 teachers are ethnic minorities (Recruiting New Teachers, 2000 as cited in Clark & Flores, 2002). The majority of U.S. public school teachers remain predominately white, middle class, and female (Cochran-Smith, 1995; Guyton & Byrd, 2000; Paese, 1996) who prefer to work in schools that are middle-class and suburban instead of poor and urban (The Holmes Group, 1995). Consequently, educational administrators in urban school districts continue to face critical shortages of qualified, ethnically diverse teachers (American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1987; Jones & Sandridge, 1997; King & Bey, 1995). Teacher education institutions and school districts are, therefore, challenged with the task of preparing, recruiting and retaining licensed teachers who are committed to educating the racially and ethnically diverse U.S. public school-aged population.

Major urban school systems are confronted with additional obstacles and challenges. The nation's poorest children tend to be concentrated in large urban school districts. Although the overall poverty rate for children under 18 years of age dropped to 16.9% in 1999, the lowest since 1979, the 2000 U. S. census reports indicated that 33.1% of African-American children and 30.3% of Hispanic children still live in poverty (Land & Legters, 2002). In addition, as illustrated in Table 1, poverty and race/ethnicity remain key indicators of poor academic achievement and school failure (Land & Legters, 2002). According to data published by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) (as cited in Land & Legters, 2002), in 1998 the percentages of students eligible for free or reduced lunch in grades 4, 8, and 12 who scored below basic levels in reading were nearly double the percentages of those students ineligible for free or reduced lunch. The 1996 results for math achievement scores reflected dismal disparities as well.

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Table 1

Poverty and Academic Achievement

Scoring Below Basic Levels	READING			MATHEMATICS		
	4th	8th	12th	4th	8th	12th
Percentage students eligible for free or reduced lunch	58%	44%	43%	58%	61%	60%
Percentage students ineligible for free or reduced lunch	27%	19%	20%	26%	29%	26%

Excessive gaps in math and reading achievement between Hispanic and White students and African American and White students persist according to the 1999 National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) surveys (Campbell, Hombo & Mazzeo, 2000). As noted in Table 2, African American and Hispanic students in grades 4, 8, and 12 continue to lag far behind their White classmates in basic reading and mathematical skills. For.example, only 27% of White fourth graders scored below basic levels in reading, compared to 64% of African American students and 60% of Hispanic fourth grade students.

Table 2

Race/Ethnicity and Academic Achievement

Percentage of Students Scoring Below Basic Levels	READING			MATHEMATICS		
	4th	8th	12th	4th	8th	12th
WHITE	27%	18%	17%	24%	26%	21%
AFRICAN-AMERICAN	64%	47%	43%	68%	72%	62%
HISPANIC	60%	46%	36%	59%	61%	50%

Schools in large cities also are faced with meeting the demand for classroom teachers as more and more qualified educators are choosing to leave the classroom and

the profession (King & Bey, 1995; Jones & Sandidge, 1997). Darling-Hammond (1994) noted that 57% of new teachers in the New York City school district were unlicensed in 1992. In addition, Schwartz (1996) as cited in Jones and Sandidge (1997) noted that high attrition rates plague major urban school systems with nearly one in every five beginning teachers leaving the profession after their first year.

Early studies indicated that teacher education students are reluctant to work in diverse urban educational environments (Avery & Walker, 1993). Larke (1990) reported that only one-fifth of the 51 female elementary preservice teachers assessed indicated a preference to work with students from diverse cultures even though they recognized that their students would be from diverse backgrounds. In addition, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (1987) reported that only 18% of undergraduate teacher education students would consider accepting a position in an urban school district. Teacher education institutions are therefore challenged with providing future teachers not only with effective pedagogical instruction, but also with experiences that encourage their graduates to accept positions in diverse, urban school districts.

Diversity and Teacher Education

The increasing diversity in the racial, ethnic, and socioeconomic makeup of the public school population has drawn attention to the importance of preparing inservice and preservice teachers to be culturally sensitive to the needs of all students. Gay (1993) asserted that because teachers and students live in very different socio-economic and cultural worlds, the experiences, perspectives and values of the educated, middle-class, Anglo teachers are very different from those of the poor minority students they may teach. Therefore, teacher preparation institutions must ensure that all teachers develop

the skills, attitudes, and knowledge to work effectively with students of color (Banks, 1991). Ladson-Billings (1995) articulated concern that the educational reform movement of the 1980's may have ignored the importance that all teachers, regardless of their ethnic, racial or cultural backgrounds, be prepared to meet the academic needs of all the students they may teach. The ethnic and cultural gap that exists between teachers and the nation's students emphasizes the importance of providing professional development programs about diversity (Banks et al., 2001).

Consequently, the restructuring of teacher preparation programs over the past two decades has included an emphasis on integrating multicultural education courses into professional studies (Ladson-Billings, 1995; Jones & Sandidge, 1997) as well as assigning preservice teachers to field experiences in schools with a diverse student body population (National Council for Accreditation on Teacher Education, 1995; Guyton & Byrd, 2000). Gollnick's research (as cited in Ladson-Billings, 1995) indicated that the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) required in 1979 that colleges and universities illustrate the procedure for multicultural education planning in their curricula. The adoption of this standard was instrumental in fostering the development of a multicultural education focus in teacher education programs nationally (Banks, 1993). In 1982, the first multicultural education standard appeared in the NCATE regulations (Gollnick, as cited in Ladson-Billings, 1995). In the 1995 NCATE guidelines, the separate multicultural standard was incorporated into Category I, Design of Professional Education, section H, Quality of Field Experiences (Guyton & Bryd, 2000).

More recently, the Association of Teacher Educators' task force on field experience standards stressed the importance of providing opportunities for the majority white teaching force to work with students of diverse backgrounds (Guyton & Byrd, 2000). As a result, Standard Eleven, *Field Experiences Occur With Diverse Student Populations and in Diverse Settings*, outlined the following three indicators for compliance with the diversity standard:

- Teacher candidates have extended field experiences with diverse school populations including students of different age levels, diverse racial and ethnic groups, diverse socio-economic backgrounds, and diverse special needs.

- The teacher education program has a systematic way of providing diverse placements for teacher candidates.

- Teacher candidates have field experiences in schools with diverse administrative, curricular, and structural features (Guyton & Byrd, 2000).

These explicit guidelines and national standards emphasizes the responsibility of teacher preparation programs to develop curricula that supports teaching and learning in a multicultural society (Villegas & Lucas, 2002) so that preservice teachers are prepared to meet the diverse ethnic, racial and socio-economic needs of the nation's increasingly diverse public school students. Nevertheless, Sleeter (2001) asserted that teacher education programs at predominately White institutions have "generally responded very slowing to the growing cultural gap" (p. 95).

Lack of Preparation for Diverse Student Populations

Multicultural teacher educators have articulated concern that preservice teachers may not possess the necessary skills and attitudes to work successfully with a diverse

school population (Avery & Walker, 1993; Gay, 1993; Guyton & Byrd, 2000; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Larke, 1990; Moore, 1996; Paine, 1990; Pettus & Allain, 1999; Tamura, Nelson, & Ford-Stevenson, 1996). Assessments of the impact of multicultural teacher education programs and professional development seminars have not produced encouraging results.

Although increased awareness and understanding of multicultural issues can occur, preservice teachers do not necessarily implement what they learn regarding multicultural education (McIntyre, Byrd and Foxx as cited in Guyton & Bryd, 2000) and they tend to oversimplify the concept by focusing on only one aspect of multicultural education (Banks, 1993). Following a two-year ethnographic study of 30 teachers who had completed an inservice seminar on multicultural education, the researcher (Sleeter, 1992) observed only a limited change in classroom teaching strategies although most teachers agreed that the sessions were useful and enjoyable. Likewise, prospective teachers had difficulties discussing their conceptions of diversity when relating them to equity and differences in a classroom context (Paine, 1990).

In addition, culturally diverse preservice educational experiences actually may reinforce the negative preconceptions and stereotypes preservice students may already possess (Cross, 1993; Haberman & Post, 1992; Wiggins & Follo, 1999). This supports the tendency of preservice teachers to use prior knowledge and beliefs that are firmly planted and resistant to change (Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1984) as filters for understanding and accepting new perspectives and information (Kagan, 1992). Sleeter (1992) noted that practicing teachers did not reconstruct their understanding of race following an extensive multicultural education program but instead tended to integrate

the newly acquired information about race into the knowledge they already possessed. If multicultural education courses are to be successful, teacher educators must increase their understanding of the mediating factors that preservice teachers use to filter newly acquired information into their preexisting racial attitudes and beliefs (Garmon, 1998). Teacher educators could focus on those factors that positively influence beliefs and attitudes (Avery & Walker, 1993; Garmon, 1998; Larke, 1990). This dissertation explored a structured process to engage preservice teachers in identifying their preexisting beliefs, attitudes, and preconceptions.

Need for the Study

Increasing preservice teachers' knowledge of the diverse ethnic, cultural, and socio-economic backgrounds of their students does not ensure that the perceptions, attitudes, and expectations of preservice teachers towards students of diverse backgrounds will be positive and supportive (Banks, 1991; Cross, 1993; Larke, 1990; Moore, 1996). Teacher educators have recognized the difficulty of changing prior attitudes, beliefs, and conceptions of preservice students (Joram & Gabriele, 1997; Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1984). Education graduates in fact could complete their programs without experiencing changes in their values, attitudes, or beliefs. Lortie (1975) argued that the major influences in shaping students' views of their role as teachers are the years they spend in the classroom as students rather than the formal training received in teacher education program. Grant & Secada (1990) reviewed seven studies conducted between 1972 and 1987 that focused on using short-term interventions to change teachers' attitudes and behaviors concerning multicultural education. Though

all studies reported some degree of success, the researchers agreed that teachers' behaviors and attitudes about multicultural education are intractable.

Nevertheless, multicultural educators continue to stress the importance of educating and preparing preservice teachers who are sensitive to the diverse needs of their students. In 1990, Paine interviewed 62 prospective education students at the beginning of their program to explore their understandings of learner diversity and the consequences for teaching. A majority of the respondents viewed cultural, social, racial and ethnic differences in their students as relevant in terms of their potential roadblocks to learning. The researcher concluded that these preservice teachers viewed and treated diversity as a problem instead of an asset and had difficulties explaining how they would pedagogically address student diversity (Paine, 1990). These findings support the tendency of preservice teachers to explain ethnic differences in academic achievement as the result of differences in cultural and ethnic values instead of due to societal influences (Avery & Walker, 1993). This view of ethnic disparity in achievement may imply a tendency to 'blame the victim' (Avery & Walker, 1993, p. 35) or de-emphasize racism and thus, ignore possible implications for action (Gay & Kirkland, 2003; Sleeter, 1992). Therefore, teacher educators have recognized the importance of examining the attitudes and beliefs of preservice education students towards diverse student populations (Avery & Walker, 1993; Garmon, 1998; Haberman, 1994; Paine, 1990; Terrill & Mark, 2000) in order to become more sensitive to the instructional needs of their culturally diverse students.

Providing preservice teachers with opportunities to explore their existing beliefs and preconceptions can increase their awareness of the social consequences that face

culturally diverse students (Banks et al., 2001; Davidman, 1993; Tamura et al., 1996).

Garmon (1998) explored the racial beliefs and attitudes of fourteen teacher candidates

enrolled in a diversity course both at the beginning and end of the course. The students,

seven with the most favorable attitudes toward racial minorities and seven with the least

favorable attitudes, were selected based on their scores on the Quick Discrimination

Index (Ponterotto & Pederson, 1993), a survey that assessed students' attitudes toward

racial groups. Although findings indicated that multicultural education courses may have

the most impact on those students who already possess favorable beliefs and attitudes

toward racial diversity (Garmon, 1998), researchers have stressed the importance of

challenging those students who enter with unfavorable beliefs and attitudes (Armaline &

Hoover, 1989; Beyer, 1984; Garmon, 1998; Larke, 1990).

Likewise, Joram and Gabriele (1997) posited that in order to influence and

modify preservice teachers' beliefs about learning and instruction, it was necessary to

address their prior conceptions within their teacher education program. After specifically

targeting the prior personal beliefs of preservice teachers enrolled in an educational

psychology course, the researchers concluded that more preservice teachers felt that their

perspectives of teaching were modified when their preconceptions were addressed than

when they were not. Consequently, these preservice teachers may now be more open to

examining and changing their existing belief systems in subsequent professional

education courses (Joram & Gabriele, 1997).

Teaching effectiveness in diverse classrooms has been linked closely to the ability

of classroom teachers to recognize, acknowledge, and clarify their own racial, ethnic, and

cultural identities and attitudes (Banks, 1991; Banks et al., 2001; Payne, 1994; Tamura et

al., 1996; Villegas & Lucas, 2002; Weiner, 1999). Tamura et al. (1996) found that one northeastern university required its teacher education candidates to understand the role their own family cultures have had on forming their perceptions of values and lifestyles that they may now view as the acceptable standard for all groups. In order to prepare teachers for the multicultural challenges of the 21st century classrooms, future teachers must engage in reflective discussions that prompt them to recognize the presence of conflicting preexisting paradigms (Banks, 1991). Therefore, assisting preservice teachers in understanding the origins of their beliefs, attitudes, and preconceptions in order to strengthen their cultural sensitivity towards students of diverse ethnic and socio-economic backgrounds has value and relevance in the field of teacher preparation.

This dissertation focused on engaging preservice teachers in a dialogue journaling process that involved exploration and reflections on the culture of their own educational experiences that could influence their attitudes, beliefs, and expectations of learners in from backgrounds different than their own. Research studies that examine ways to reduce teachers' biases about diverse student populations (Grant & Secada, 1990) and directly influence teacher education students' perceptions (Haberman & Post, 1992; Zeichner, 1992) have been highly encouraged and recommended. Engaging preservice teachers in the process of critical reflection can enable them to begin analyzing how their own instructional behaviors and expectations may or may not support students from various cultures and socio-economic backgrounds (Gay, 1993; Gay & Kirkland, 2003).

Significance of Teacher Expectations

Spanning four decades, research on the influence of teacher expectations was spurred by Rosenthal and Jacobson's 1968 study, Pygmalion in the Classroom. Though

researchers have disputed the extent of the influence of teacher expectations on the self-fulfilling prophecies of students (Brophy, 1983; Dusek & Joseph, 1983; Hurrell, 1995), teachers do develop expectations of their students based on a variety of possible factors that may or may not result in self-fulfilling prophecies (Brophy, 1983) but can impact student achievement (Cooper, 1979). In light of the dichotomy that exists between the diversity of the school-aged population and the lack of diversity of the teaching force as well the need to prepare teacher education candidates adequately, an examination of the impact of ethnicity, race and socio-economic status on teacher expectations is crucial to establishing the significance of this dissertation.

A broad range of research studies supports the relationship between race, ethnicity, and/or socio-economic class and teacher expectations (Clifton, Perry, Parsonson, & Hryniuk, 1986; Dusek & Joseph, 1983; Garmon, 1998; Hurrell, 1995; Marwit, Marwit, & Walker, 1978; Payne, 1994; Terrill & Mark, 2000; Tettegah, 1996). Paine (1990) asserted that preservice teachers' view of diversity in the classroom tend to be "a static, rather than dynamic conception of individuals and group" (p. 20) and frequently lead to expectations for students of differing backgrounds that may be unequal.

Consistent with teacher expectancy research, Tettegah (1996) concluded that the White prospective teachers sampled held different attitudes and expectations toward African American, Asian American, Latino and White student groups based on one of three behavioral dimensions: cognitive-autonomous-motivational behaviors, institutionally appropriate behaviors, and personal-social behaviors. African American and Latino students consistently received lower scores in cognitive ability than the other

two groups. Likewise, Clifton et al. (1986) confirmed that ethnicity did impact teachers' expectations of their junior high students. Results indicated that ethnicity had the second most powerful impact on both the cognitive (likelihood of success) and normative (social behaviors) expectations of the teachers. According to Banks (1991), the cultural deprivation paradigm assumes that low income and students of color are not successful in school because of the pathologies within their community and family cultures. Such expectations are likely to influence student behavior and achievement.

These studies reflect the presence and influence of teacher expectations based on the ethnic, racial and socio-economic characteristics of students and the need to challenge the beliefs, attitudes, and feelings that justify the expectations. Because of the demographics of urban school districts, these characteristics are particularly relevant to students, teachers, and preservice teachers in urban schools. As the field experiences of teacher education students include more ethnically and socio-economically diverse school populations, it is important that these preservice experiences also include an examination of the preservice teacher's assumptions and values (Armaline & Hoover, 1989; Banks, 1991; Ilmer, Synder, Erbaugh, Kurz, 1997; Tamura et al., 1996). Because teachers' viewpoints and values impact how they communicate and specifically what they teach (Banks, 1991), an understanding and exploration of the origins of preservice students' beliefs about diversity may be an essential starting point (Avery & Walker, 1993).

Diversity and Reflection

Because state regulations and national accreditation boards governing teacher preparation programs are requiring more frequent and longer field experiences in diverse

classroom settings (Ladson-Billings, 1995), teacher education programs have begun to recognize the need to provide preservice teachers with field experiences that enable them to learn about the communities and cultures of the students they will teach (Ilmer et al., 1997; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Wiggins & Follo, 1999). For example, Wiggins and Follo (1999) examined feedback from a select group of education students at various stages of the elementary education program to determine whether the program adequately developed the abilities and desire of the students to teach in diverse settings. The data indicated that the majority of students' negative responses resulted from a poor understanding of cultural differences. Therefore, the researchers concluded that the education candidates did not need more pedagogical knowledge, but instead needed to focus on developing "more personal relationships with and improved attitudes toward culturally diverse communities" (Wiggins & Follo, p. 103).

Successful urban teachers also have recognized the importance and value of understanding the culture of the communities in which they teach. Ilmer et al. (1997) examined the perceptions of seventy-three experienced urban teachers in order to identify those factors they believed were responsible for successful teaching practices. A teacher's knowledge of the students' culture and community emerged as the most frequent theme, accounting for 96% of the teachers' total responses. In addition, *Teachers' Needs and Attitudes* was the second most frequent theme indicating that these experienced urban teachers believed that teachers "must be aware of their personal biases and prejudices" (p. 381) in order to be open-minded with parents and students. This reaffirms the importance of addressing preconceptions and attitudes in order to better prepare teachers for classrooms of diverse learners.

Concomitantly, these diverse field experiences should include opportunities for preservice teachers to reflect on their practicum experiences in diverse classrooms (Banks, 1991; Davidman, 1993; Gay, 1993; Gomez & Tabachnick, 1992; Ilmer et al., 1997; Ladson-Billings, 1995; McBee, 1998; Tamura et al., 1996). These reflective activities could ensure that initial negative prejudices and preconceptions are not reinforced (Ladson-Billings, 1995; Proctor, Rentz, & Jackson, 2001) and enable preservice students to reflect on who they are as well as what they see (Powell, Zehm, & Garcia, 1996; Wiggins & Follo, 1999). Gay and Kirkland (2003) emphasized the value of teacher education programs that create learning communities to foster self-reflection and cultural and critical consciousness.

Researchers have suggested that reflective activity should become a vital component of professional development (Pavlovic & Friedland, 1997). Such activities would emphasize the social context of learning and educating (Tillman, 2003) and encourage the development of strategies that would foster changes in the experiences of students and teachers (Beyer, 1984; Weiner, 1999). Therefore, teachers would be better prepared to meet the academic needs of culturally different students (Gay, 1993). Davidman (1995) stressed that teacher education students need to realize that their self-perceptions and values direct them to self-connect culturally with selected groups. Specifically, preservice students should be able to examine critically the content of their own educational experiences in order to understand how these experiences influence their understanding and perceptions of the students they will teach (Ladson-Billings, 1989). As teacher education students engage in self-exploration and self-disclosure, they are able

to perceive better the differences and similarities between themselves and others of different cultural and socio-economic identities.

Student Teaching and Reflection

According to the Association of Teacher Educators Task Force on Field Experience Standards, the student teaching field experience, viewed as the capstone practicum for teacher education students, must provide opportunities for analysis of learning and teaching and ongoing reflection (Guyton & Byrd, 2000). Dewey (1933) first emphasized the importance of having student teachers reflect upon experiences that are real. Schon's (1983) work supported and expanded Dewey's concepts of reflective teaching and thinking, emphasizing that a reflective teacher decides how to solve problems using both professional knowledge and personal perspectives. It is through reflection that preservice teachers increase their knowledge about themselves as professional educators, therefore becoming reflective practitioners (Galvez-Martin, Bowman, & Morrison, 1998; Goethals & Howard, 2000).

Engaging preservice students in reflective activity during student teaching is crucial in order to provide experiences that foster critical analyses of the educational system including the classrooms in which they teach (Beyer, 1984). Armaline & Hoover (1989) noted that student teaching serves two related functions: 1) To provide an opportunity for practice teaching and 2) To foster reflection on practice primarily through a student teaching seminar. Brumfield and Leonard (1983) asserted that it is during student teaching that preservice teachers confirm or adjust their perceptions of effective teaching characteristics.

For example, an early effort to stimulate elementary preservice teachers' reflections about teaching was initiated through the student teaching field experience at the University of Wisconsin, Madison (Zeichner & Liston, 1987). One goal of the field experience was to develop an "inquiry-oriented" framework in order to develop student teachers' knowledge and understanding of the culture of their schools and communities (p. 25). Consequently, student teaching was viewed as an opportunity for developing pedagogical values and philosophies that emphasized continual professional learning and growth about teaching. With particular emphasis on critical reflection, the teacher education program sought to increase student teachers' awareness of the ethical and moral consequences of teaching and of their responsibility in defending their decisions. In addition, program goals addressed the importance of preparing future teachers to be sensitive to the diverse needs of all students (Zeichner & Liston, 1987).

Although teacher education scholars agree that fostering reflective practice should be an integral component of the student teaching field experience, there is much variation in the recommended scope and structure of the reflective activities. Beyer (1984) emphasized that student teaching be the culminating experience in a program where preservice teachers have analyzed, critiqued, interpreted, and discussed the "socially constructed nature of schooling" which dictates why schools function as they do and for whose benefit (p. 39). Other researchers have suggested the use of "teaching stories" to encourage preservice students to reflect on their field experiences in diverse classrooms (Carter & Gonzales, 1993; Gomez and Tabachnick, 1992) or cultural/personal autobiographies which would help education students to see themselves as culturally diverse beings (Hollins, 1990 as cited in Ladson-Billings, 2000; Hyun, 1997). Borko,

Michalec, Timmons, & Siddle (1997) reported that developing student teaching portfolios provided a satisfactory tool for student teachers to reflect on their field experience. For example, some students indicated that the portfolio allowed them to synthesize their field experience in a way that was notably different from using journals or small group discussions as reflective tools. Last, a reflection journal, reviewed by the either the cooperating teacher or university supervisor, can serve also to enhance the student teacher's consciousness regarding his/her understanding and awareness of the classroom culture and that of the students they will be teaching (Bolin, 1988; Colton & Sparks-Langer, 1993).

Zeichner (1992) cautioned against using a reflective focus in which the student teacher examines only "the means of instruction", specifically instructional strategies and skills. He warned against ignoring relevant issues of values, for example "what should be taught to whom and why, and whose perspectives and what values are represented in what is taught" (p. 298). During student teaching, reflective activity must engage preservice teachers in inquiry upon their individual experiences (Zeichner, 1992; Colton & Sparks-Langer, 1993) through activities focusing on awareness of values, feelings, and personal histories (Elbaz, 1988) and on how their biases and preconceptions influence their teaching (Gore, 1987).

Consequently, reflection during student teaching cannot be left to chance, but instead must be integrated into structured pedagogical opportunities (Elbaz, 1988). A directed dialogue journaling activity similar to the one used for this study can serve as a tool that student teachers view as a valuable resource (Dinkelman, 1998; Norton, 1997) in encouraging and refining reflective strategies. A key component of this reflective

experience involved written dialogue with the university supervisor or cooperating teacher in order to foster conversations critical to the development of reflective inquiry (Lyons, 1998). When used during the student teaching field experience (Colton & Sparks-Langer, 1993), reflective journals can be used by supervisors to support the "interns' inquiry into their development as learners and teachers" (Collier, 1999, p. 174).

Supervision and the Student Teaching Field Experience

A triad, consisting of the university supervisor, cooperating teacher, and the student teacher, remains the dominant supervisory model of the student teaching field experience. Much attention has been focused on understanding and improving the quality of supervision, mentoring and instruction that the teaching intern receives during this experience. Researchers have attempted to clarify the roles and influences of the university supervisor and cooperating teacher (Gibelhaus, 1995; Bowman, 1979; Zimpher, deVoss and Nott, 1980; Brennan, 1995). The professional development of preservice teachers is influenced to some extent by the involvement of both the university supervisor and the cooperating teacher. Veal and Rikard (1998) noted that a hierarchical decision making model is still common to the student teaching triad with the university supervisor perceived as the one exerting the most control. Consequently, the relationships between the university supervisor and cooperating teacher are sometimes characterized by conflict, lack of agreement about roles, unclear goals, and competition for control. Therefore, defining clear instructional and mentoring roles for supervisors of preservice teachers is critical in the development of an effective, supportive triad (Slick, 1995; Giebelhaus, 1995; Brennen, 1996).

Efforts have been made to clarify the role of the university supervisor. Zimpher et al. (1980) identified the university supervisor's responsibilities as: 1) defining and communicating the program's expectations to the student teacher and the cooperating teacher, 2) phasing the student teacher into the classroom's activities, and 3) providing evaluation and constructive criticism to the student teacher. In addition, McIntyre and Morris (1980) noted that the motivating presence of the university supervisor was necessary for the success of the student teacher. The university supervisor also has assumed an important role in fostering critical reflection about teaching during the student teaching field experience (Armaline & Hoover, 1989; Collier, 1999; Dinkelman, 1998; Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1984; Zeichner & Liston, 1987) through the use of reflective journals and course seminars.

The impact of the university supervisor's influence on the student teacher, however, has been described as minimal or insignificant (Bowman, 1979; Wilson, Banaszak, & McClelland, 1995; Veal & Rikard, 1998). A few even go so far as to suggest that the role of the university supervisor be discontinued (Bowman, 1979). McIntrye (1984) however, cautioned against eliminating this role because of the limited number of research studies examining the influence of the university supervisor as instructional leader. Contemporary researchers (Giebelhaus, 1995; Enz, Freeman, & Wallin, 1996) likewise agreed.

In response to these concerns, some teacher educators proposed supervisory models that empowered cooperating teachers to act as the sole supervisor of student teachers (Colton & Sparks-Langer, 1993; Page, Page, Warkentin & Dickinson, 1994). One such model, developed at the University of Alabama, was based on the premise that

the traditional triad is ineffective (Wilson et al., 1995). The cooperating teacher or clinical master teacher (CMT) is responsible for full supervision of the student teacher, whereas, the university supervisor assumes a supportive rather than dominant role in the triad. Slick (1995) concurred that university supervisors should be able to "become strong and deeply informed advocates for the student teacher and the cooperating teacher" (p. 7). These findings are consistent with Veal and Ricard's (1998) conclusions that emphasized a need to develop alternative supervisory models that minimize the hierarchical relationships currently present in the student teaching triad. Collaboration among the university supervisor, the cooperating teacher and the student teacher was highly encouraged.

Studies consistently document the cooperating teacher's influence on the student teacher's professional development. Researchers agree that the role of the cooperating teacher is important in the preparation of student teachers (Dinkelman, 1998; Gibelhaus, 1995; McIntyre, 1984; Conner & Killmer, 1995; Osunde, 1996). Student teachers view their cooperating teachers as important models (Dinkelman, 1998) and value their feedback (Connor & Killmer; 1995). In addition, studies consistently have documented the influence of the classroom teacher on the pedagogical behaviors of student teachers (Copeland, 1982; Coulon, 2000; Osunde, 1996) as well as the impact of the cooperating teacher on the attitudes and perspectives of student teachers toward teaching (Yee, 1969; Osunde, 1996; Bunting, 1988; Pellett, Strayve, & Pellett, 1999). Bunting (1988) investigated the relationship between changing educational perspectives of student teachers and the perspectives of cooperating teachers. Results suggested that student teachers experiencing moderate changes in perspectives worked with teachers who also

possessed moderate perspectives regarding student centered and directive teaching approaches. Though overall changes in student attitudes were not drastic, Bunting stressed the significance of the student teaching experience in enlarging the perspectives of the student teacher "to include a wider diversity of methods and practices" (p. 45).

Cooperating teachers are committed to the professional development of student teachers (Veal & Rikard, 1998). Because the student teacher and the cooperating teacher work closely together for extended periods, strong bonds between the two tend to develop. Veal and Rikard posited that in the absence of the university supervisor, the cooperating teacher assumes the role of supervisor in the "functional triad made up of the cooperating teacher at the apex of the hierarchy, the novice student teacher who becomes the teacher, and the pupils" (p. 112). As a result, some cooperating teachers felt comfortable fostering friendships with their student teachers and some reported learning from their student teachers as well.

As teacher preparation institutions become more involved in formal activities to prepare cooperating teachers, efforts have been made to clearly define the qualities, characteristics, and responsibilities of effective cooperating teachers (Conner & Killmer, 1995; Pellett et al., 1999; Shaw-Baker, 1995). Zeichner (1992) criticized cooperating teachers for failing to assist student teachers in examining their beliefs and preconceptions that underlie the tasks of teaching thereby culminating in an experience that may affirm and strengthen initial assumptions and perspectives. In an effort to prepare cooperating teachers to facilitate reflective practice for student teachers, San Diego State University's professional development partnership incorporated a course on effectively supervising student teachers as part of a masters graduate program (Ross,

2002). Course objectives included strategies to help student teachers become reflective practitioners and to assess their understanding of content-specific concepts in instructional planning for students in diverse urban schools.

Recognizing the unique challenges of teaching in urban schools, teacher educators recently have focused on identifying specific qualities and skills of effective urban classroom mentors, including cooperating teachers (Gay, 1995; Guyton & Hidalgo; 1995). Gay (1995) emphasized the importance of selecting individuals who are not only good models, but also possess the skills to be effective mentors. These skills include providing constructive feedback and engaging in conversations about teaching as well as exploring their mentees' attitudes, feelings, and prejudices regarding ethnic, economic or racial issues and differences (Guyton & Hidalgo, 1995).

Statement of the Problem

Because student teachers value their expertise and guidance (Osunde, 1996), cooperating teachers can be a valuable resource in fostering structured reflective experiences for preservice teachers during this important field experience. Teacher educators have begun to recognize the value and importance of building collaborative relationships with practicing teachers to bridge the gap between theory and practice in order to meet the multicultural needs of future teachers (Ilmer et al., 1997; Haberman, 1994). Experienced urban teachers must be provided opportunities to share their knowledge, best practices, and reflections with preservice teachers, colleagues, and teacher educators (Ilmer et al., 1997; Haberman, 1994; Ladson-Billings, 1989; Villegas & Lucas, 2002). Despite its value in preparing teachers, few studies have focused on examining the impact of a structured reflective activity between the cooperating teacher

and the student teacher. This dissertation expanded the role of the cooperating teacher as an active participant in a reflective dialogue journaling process with a student teacher in an urban classroom setting.

Purpose of the Study

This research study engaged early childhood preservice student teachers in dialogue with their cooperating teacher or university supervisor using a researcher-designed guided journaling tool during their urban field placement. The student teachers reflected on and responded to the written feedback received from their teachers or supervisors. It is expected that, as a result of this experience, the student teachers would better understand the culture of their educational experiences and realize the influence that these beliefs, attitudes, and values may have on their expectations of and behaviors toward their students.

All student teachers were administered a pre/post cultural sensitivity inventory, the Quick Discrimination Index (Ponterotto & Pederson, 1993) to determine changes in their levels of sensitivity toward diverse students. Comparisons in levels of cultural sensitivity were made between those student teachers dialoguing with their cooperating teachers and those dialoguing with their university supervisors and those who do not use the directed journals.

In addition, a qualitative assessment of journal entries was conducted to determine in the levels of critical reflection among student teachers used the autobiographical dialogue journaling tool. The written responses of the cooperating teachers and university supervisors also were analyzed to discover common and reoccurring themes. The data were interpreted to identity differences in levels of sensitivity based on the

origin and content of the feedback (Lange & Burroughs-Lange, 1994) and differences in the influences of the university supervisor and cooperating teacher on the student teacher (McIntyre, 1984). Because of the scarcity of research studies that examine journaling between student teachers and their cooperating teachers, this study also provided insight into this relatively unexplored but vitally important resource for student teachers, namely the classroom supervisor or cooperating teacher.

Therefore, the primary focus of this study was to examine the impact of the structured dialogue journaling activity on the student teachers' levels of cultural sensitivity and critical reflection. It is expected that those who journal with their cooperating teachers will experience the largest increase in cultural sensitivity toward diverse learners as compared to those who journal with their university supervisor and those who only journal and do not dialogue with either of the mentors.

Research Questions

Both quantitative and qualitative based research questions will guide the development of this research study. Quantitative analysis of data will explore the following:

1. To what extent does an autobiographical dialogue journaling activity between student teachers in urban elementary classrooms and their cooperating teachers increase the student teachers' levels of cultural sensitivity toward diverse learners?

2. To what extent does an autobiographical dialogue journaling activity between student teachers in urban elementary classrooms and their

university supervisors increase student teachers' levels of cultural

sensitivity toward diverse learners?

3.   Will there be significant differences between changes in levels of

cultural

sensitivity of student teachers who journal with their cooperating

teachers and university supervisors using the autobiographical dialogue

journal as compared to those student teachers who use the traditional

journaling instrument?

Qualitative analyses of journal entries will explore the following:

4.   Based on Van Manen's (1991) Levels of Reflectivity of Deliberative

Rationality, at what levels did student teachers reflect?

5.   Did common themes emerge in the journal entries of the student

teachers?

6.   What are the differences and similarities in the themes of the written

feedback from the university supervisors and cooperating teachers?

7.   To what extent did the participants perceive that the reflective dialogue

journaling activity contributed to the quality of the student teaching

experience?

Definition of Terms

The following definitions will be used in this study for these terms.

1. **Cultural Sensitivity** – being aware of the influences of personal biases and stereotypes that influence the learning processfor students or creates an unfavorable view of them (Powell, Zehm, & Garcia, 1996).

2. **Formative Feedback** – formal (structured, concrete) or informal (non-threatening, impromptu) responses given to a student teacher throughout a field experience for the purpose of guiding and aiding professional development through self-assessments and written or oral dialogue from professional mentors (Weasmer & Woods, 1997).

3. **Interactive Dialogue Journal** – a tool used for the exchange of discourse between a student teacher and a cooperating teacher or university supervisor that focuses on reflection and provides informal formative feedback (Weasmer & Woods, 1997).

4. **Levels of Reflection** – Three levels of reflectivity of Deliberative Rationality (Van Manen, 1977):

   • Technical rationality, the first level, focuses on the application of efficient and effective teaching strategies in order to attain accepted educational goals. The teacher's technical attitude emphasizes the means instead of the ends (Galvez-Martin & Bowman, 1998). At this level, the teacher does not view the ends nor the community, school, or classroom contexts as problematic (Zeichner & Liston, 1985).

- Practical reflection involves examining both the means and the ends or goals in order to select specific and appropriate teaching strategies (Galvez-Martin & Bowman, 1998). After clarifying predispositions and assumptions, the teacher evaluates the educational consequences of their actions and makes the appropriate decisions (Zeichner & Liston, 1985).

- Critical rationality incorporates past experiences in order to achieve deeper insights into everyday actions related to societal issues (Galvez-Martin & Bowman, 1998). Moral and ethical issues of fairness, equity, and justice are considered along with a problematic view of both the ends and means teaching and its institutional and community contexts (Sparks-Langer, Simmons, Pasch, Colton, & Stako, 1990; Zeichner & Liston, 1985).

5. **Reflective Thinking** – "the active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in light of the grounds that support it and the consequences to which it leads" (Zeichner & Liston, 1987, p. 24).

6. **Urban School** – a school in which one or more of the following conditions or characteristics are present: (King & Bey, 1995).

   a. A *diverse student population*; specifically one that is culturally diverse or with large percentages of students from ethnic, racial, and linguistic minority groups.

   b. *Inadequate resources* resulting in undesirable working conditions and the challenges of retaining and attracting qualified teachers.

   c. *Poverty,* despair, and unemployment present unique challenges to urban teachers.

    d. *Cultural experiences* and life experiences of urban school children are

       foreign to many urban teachers.

Summary

    This chapter has established the importance of adequately preparing future

teachers for the increasingly diverse classrooms and the unique challenges of urban

schools. With high teacher turnover and a concentration of poor children, the United

States large urban school districts are struggling to recruit and retain licensed teachers

committed to educating ethically and socio-economically diverse students.

Consequently, teacher education programs are tasked with the responsibility of ensuring

that preservice teachers develop the attitudes, skills, and knowledge to effectively teach

all students (Banks, 1991; Gay & Kirkland, 2003; Ladson-Billings, 2000; Terrill & Mark,

2000; Villegas & Lucas, 2002). Research efforts have turned to an examination of the

prior attitudes, beliefs, and preconceptions of preservice students and strategies that

might challenge and change existing belief systems. Providing teacher education

candidates extended field experiences with diverse school populations and engaging them

in reflective activities is highly recommended (Banks, 1991; Davidman, 1995; Gay &

Kirkland, 2003; Guyton & Bryd, 2000; McBee, 1998; Weiner, 1999). Through

engagement in an autobiographical dialogue journaling activity, student teachers in this

research study began to examine the culture of their prior educational experiences and its

influence on their attitudes and expectations of urban elementary students. It is critical

that teacher candidates examine the kind of education they received (Ladson-Billings,

1989) in order to understand the perspectives of students who come from racial and ethnic cultures very different from their own.

The remaining chapters will examine the value of reflection and feedback on the student teacher's level of cultural sensitivity through an autobiographical journaling process. Chapter two will present a review of the literature on teacher expectations, critical reflection, autobiographical journaling, and the role of the cooperating teacher. Chapter three will present the research method, an instrument validation study, and procedures for data collection and analysis. In Chapter four, following quantitative and qualitative analysis, the results of the journal process will be discussed. Chapter five present a discussion and interpretation of research findings, the limitations of the study, and implications and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2

Review of Literature

Much attention has been focused over the past two decades on the importance of preparing teachers to be multicultural educators. A number of teacher education and multicultural scholars have emphasized the importance of addressing the dichotomy that exists between the cultural, racial, and social perspectives and beliefs of teachers and the students they educate (Gay, 1993; Graybill, 1997; McBee, 1998; Payne, 1994; Proctor, Rentz & Jackson, 2001; Sleeter, 2001; Tamura, et al., 1996). Both inservice and preservice teachers bring into the classroom cultural and social perspectives and values that influence their perceptions of what is acceptable behavior (Graybill, 1997). These preconceptions can influence teachers' behaviors and responses toward students and may ultimately impact student attitude and performance (Banks, 1991; Cooper, 1979). Providing structured field experiences that enable preservice teachers to begin addressing these concerns is necessary in effectively preparing educators to meet the diverse needs of America's public school children. It is important to foster the development of critically reflective educators who recognize the influence of their prior educational experiences on their expectations of students. Teacher education students must be encouraged to reflect what they not only observe and encounter in the classroom, but also on who they are (Wiggins & Follo, 1999).

Therefore, it is important to begin this literature review by examining critically research studies regarding both inservice and preservice teachers' perceptions, beliefs, and expectations as they relate to student ethnicity, race, and socio-economic status with particular focus on the relevance of enhancing teachers' levels of cultural sensitivity

towards diverse students. Consequently, based on Dewey (1933) and Schon's (1983) frameworks, a theoretical base will be established for enhancing reflection in teachers, especially for preservice teachers during the urban student teaching field experience.

Reflective activity focusing on exploring the educational autobiographies of preservice teachers engaged in urban field experiences provides a medium for this process. Situated in a narrative framework of teaching stories (Robinson & DiNizo, 1996), the value of autobiographical journaling to enhancing preservice teachers' levels of critical reflection and cultural sensitivity will be explored. Finally, the qualities of urban mentors during student teaching are reviewed. This includes relevant studies indicating the influences of the cooperating teacher on the student teacher's perspectives as well as those citing the value that teaching interns place on the feedback they receive from their cooperating teachers. The purpose, therefore, is to support the utilization of a dialogue journaling process between the cooperating teacher and student teacher focusing on developing an educational autobiography that enhances the student teacher's reflective skills and sensitivity to the needs of diverse students.

Teacher Expectancies and Cultural Sensitivity

The source and extent of expectation effects on student achievement remains a disputed issue in teacher expectancy research. Brophy (1983) examined scholarly reviews conducted during the 1970s of the literature on self-fulfilling prophecy effects in classrooms. Although he found that teacher expectations often do have self-fulfilling prophecy effects, he concluded that the expectations of only a minority of teachers with certain personal characteristics is likely to effect their students' academic performance significantly. He noted discrepancies in the research about the strength, prevalence, and

predictability of teachers' expectations. However, researchers were in agreement

regarding the presence of teacher expectations and the probable influences on students'

performances. In fact, Brophy acknowledged, "the existence of a teacher expectation for

a particular student's performance increases the probability that the student's

performance will move in the direction expected, and not in the opposite direction"

(1983, p. 633). Therefore, for the purposes of this research, it is necessary to examine

critically research studies of teacher expectancies as they relate to urban educational

contexts.

A preponderance of studies related to teacher expectations has been conducted

since Pygmalion in the Classroom (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968). Therefore, this review

will focus on relevant studies (Avery & Walker, 1993; Clifton, et al., 1986; Dusek &

Joseph, 1983; Garmon, 1998; Hurrell, 1995; Payne, 1994; Terrill & Mark, 2000;

Tettegah, 1996) that examined teachers' biases in their perceptions and expectations of

pupils based specifically on ethnicity, race, and/or socio-economic status. These

variables significantly impact the cultural awareness and sensitivity of preservice teachers

as they prepare to educate the diverse school-aged population of the 21st century.

Expectations of Classroom Teachers

As some researchers attempted to determine the extent to which ascribed criteria

or specific student characteristics, such as ethnicity, race, gender or socio-economic

status, influence and determine teacher expectations, others focused on the impact of

achieved criteria or academic performance and student behavior on teacher expectancies.

Resolving this dilemma became the focus of the first study by Clifton et al. (1986). The

researchers studied 308 students representing six ethnic groups from three schools in

Winnipeg, Manitoba to determine the degree to which junior high school students' ethnicity and sex affect teachers' expectations. Unique to this study, the researchers examined three areas in teacher expectancy research that had not been previously examined: 1) teachers' expectations of their own students, 2) effects of student ethnicity on teachers' expectations when controlling for academic performance and intellectual ability, and 3) analyses of both normative and cognitive teacher expectations. A discussion of results pertinent to student ethnicity follows.

Clifton et al. (1986) collected from the results of two questionnaires, one for students and one for teachers. The teachers' expectations of their homeroom students were measured by five questions related to each student's normative (cooperation, industry, and reliability) and cognitive behaviors (questions concerning the likelihood of students completing grade 12 English and grade 12 mathematics). The independent variables were the students' socioeconomic status, ethnicity, and sex; the intervening variables were the students' academic performance and their cognitive and normative expectations of themselves, and the dependent variables were the teachers' cognitive and normative expectations of their students.

Following an analysis of correlations, means, and standard deviations for the variables, Clifton, et al. (1986) concluded that the students' ethnicity (ascribed criteria) and academic performance (achieved criteria) had virtually the same effect as well as the largest total effects on the teachers' normative expectations of their students. Concomitantly, it was discovered that students' ethnicity and sex influenced teachers' cognitive and normative expectations in the same way. In other words, there were no significant differences in teachers' expectations of students based on ethnicity.

Nevertheless, these results are particularly significant because they refute previous research studies that supported the dominance of either achieved criteria (Brophy, 1983) or ascribed criteria (Rist, 1970). To some extent, teachers do consider the ethnic backgrounds of their students when forming academic and behavioral expectations and consequently, may interact with students differently (Brophy, 1983; Clifton, et al., 1986; Dusek & Joseph, 1983). These conclusions are particularly relevant in academic settings where the majority of students are of a different ethnic background than their teacher.

In a more recent study, Hurrell (1995) redirected focus to the probable influence of ascribed characteristics on the classroom teacher's expectations of students. Using quantitative research techniques, the researcher hypothesized that the perceptions and expectations of teachers may actually be determined by the students' attitudes and behaviors instead of teachers' stereotypes based on social class or ethnicity. Hurrell, supporting Foster's contentions (as cited in Hurrell, 1995), concluded that teachers' perceptions of students are in fact valid descriptions of students' behavioral differences between ethnic groups with little evidence of racial or social class discrimination by teachers. However, a closer examination of Hurrell's analysis revealed arguments supported by a weak theoretical base.

Interestingly, Hurrell's (1995) review of the educational research on social discrimination presented overwhelming evidence against his stated hypothesis. Hurrell referenced twelve studies that supported the influence of students' ethnicity and social class in teachers' perceptions of their ability and subsequent assignment to courses, public examinations and career paths. In addition, nine studies concluded that teacher'

perceptions of the behavior of working class children, particularly black children, tended to be negative. On the other hand, Hurrell cited only Foster's arguments (1990, 1992 as cited in Hurrell, 1995) supporting the influence of the attitudes and behaviors on teachers' expectations of students from certain ethnic and cultural groups. Consequently, this limited review of literature supporting Hurrell's hypothesis weakens the credibility of the study. According to Hurrell, results of the study supported the influence of student behavior instead of social class on teacher perceptions. Further examination of the results, however, provided additional insight into the influence of ascribed criteria.

Hurrell (1995) administered a questionnaire to 974 students age 11-14 from first, second, and third year classes in four Oxfordshire schools to collect data on pupils' social characteristics, attitudes, behavior and the resulting punishment. In addition, information on pupil behavior was based on fifteen-minute observations of all 36 classes and data collected from the teachers. In order to determine how the teachers perceived their pupils, the teachers identified those students they felt were psychologically disturbed or disruptive.

Six logistic regression models were used to analyze the net effect of the following independent variables while controlling for other variables in the model: sex, age, social class, ethnic group, anti-social sub score, neurotic sub-score, school attitudes, cumulative behavior score and social relations (Hurrell, 1995). The dependent variables included teachers' nomination of pupils as disturbed, teachers' observed negative responses, and students referred to agencies, sent out of the classroom, or assigned detention.

Results indicated that all five dependent variables were related significantly to relevant aspects of students' behavior and none related to social class. In support of the

hypothesis, Hurrell concluded that when behavioral factors between students of various social groups are considered, teachers' biases based on social class may be eliminated.

However, with the dependent variable of the teachers' nomination of students as disruptive, the regression model indicated relevant data pointing to ethnicity as a predictor. Results of this analysis (Hurrell, 1995) showed that "black children were significantly more likely to be nominated (controlling for other variables in the model)" (p. 65) as disruptive by their teachers than the white students. Hurrell stated that additional research is needed, specifically qualitative, in order to understand the complex nature of teacher-pupil relationships, and stressed "the striking lack of a significant relationship" between ethnicity and other dependent variables being studied (p. 66).

Within the context of diversity and multicultural education, it is important that this data be considered relevant and not minimized. Teachers in Hurrel's study (1995) tended to identify as disruptive the group of black children as compared to those students identified as white. This labeling may have resulted from negative stereotypes that led teachers to misinterpret the performance and behavior of the black students and could subsequently inhibit the teaching-learning context (Payne, 1994). In light of this analysis, Hurrel's research does in fact substantiate previous studies which concluded that student ethnicity influences the attitudes, beliefs, and expectancies of teachers and subsequently their behavior towards and treatment of students.

Teachers tend to minimize or negate the influences of race in teaching rather than reconceptualize any negative attitudes they may have. Sleeter's (1992) two-year ethnographic study of 30 teachers, 26 of which were White, began following an extensive staff development program in multicultural education. The researcher attempted to

understand the White teachers' constructs of race in terms of their social class and gender life experiences, experiences that would ultimately influence their expectations of their students. Most of the teachers focused on those student characteristics that kept them from succeeding rather than social or institutional factors that create barriers. Specifically, they believed that anyone who worked hard could achieve success; though "the rules may not always be fair...they are acceptable and the processes for setting them are fair" (p. 29).

Subsequently, Sleeter (1992) noted that few teachers incorporated long term instructional changes. For example, eight taught one new unit, usually in an elective subject area, half attempted cooperative learning strategies more consistently, and for the first year, they redistributed more questions and praise to minorities. Unfortunately, by the second year teacher student interactions had resumed their normal pattern. Interestingly, the teachers felt that they were considering racial issues, not ignoring them. Sleeter concluded that the White teachers understanding of their ethnic experience, including sexism and class mobility, had lead them to minimize racism and ignore any implications for action as a multicultural educator.

The studies reviewed, thus far, individually support the influence of ethnicity, race, and socio-economic status on the expectations of the classroom teacher. In contrast, this next study examined this relationship by collectively analyzing the results of research studies conducted during the late 1960s, the 1970s, and early 1980s. This meta analysis (Dusek & Joseph, 1983) supported the general hypothesis that teachers formed expectations of their students' academic potential based on specific student characteristics, namely race, ethnicity, and social class.

Dusek & Joseph (1983) noted that previous reviews of expectancy studies had not focused directly on identifying the bases of teacher expectancies and had included a minimal number of studies. As a result, "false conclusions about the bases of expectancies may have been drawn" (p. 327) by reviewers and researchers. Therefore, Dusek & Joseph conducted a meta-analysis integrating the findings of a set of independent studies in order to determine "the probability that a set of studies exhibiting the reported results could have been generated if no real relationship existed" (p. 327). An overview of the methodology and results pertinent to racial, ethnic, and/or social class characteristics is summarized below.

The primary sources for the search were Dissertation Abstracts International, Psychological Abstracts, and ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center). Although a total of 77 studies were reviewed, only those containing the following were selected for the meta-analysis: 1) a measure of teacher expectancies; 2) a measure of a student characteristic that could be viewed as a potential basis for forming expectations; and 3) a test of the relationship between two measures (Dusek & Joseph, 1983).

The researchers (Dusek & Joseph, 1983) analyzed the relevant research studies using a method of adding zs developed by Stouffer in 1949. This statistical procedure involved changing p levels to z scores, adding those scores, and dividing the sum by the square root of the number of studies. The results of the meta analysis suggested that both race and social class are "potential bases for teacher expectations" (Dusek & Joseph, 1983, p. 335).

The researchers analyzed 24 studies that compared teacher expectancies for white versus black students with 11 studies reporting results that favor white students and 13

studies concluding no difference in expectancies existed. The statistical results indicated that about 54% of white students were expected by teachers to out perform the average black student. Consequently, Dusek and Joseph (1983) concluded that the meta analysis supported the race of students as a significant factor in the development of teacher expectations.

Similarly, the Dusek and Joseph (1983) examined 17 studies in which social class was identified as the basis of teacher expectations. Ten of the original studies concluded that there were no differences for middle and lower class students and seven studies indicated that teacher expectancies favored middle class students. Following the meta analysis of the 17 studies, Dusek and Joseph noted that approximately 64% of children from the middle socio-economic class were expected by their teachers to perform better than the average lower class student performed. This meta analysis provided "an objective summary of our knowledge" (p. 340) of early research studies on the bases of teacher expectancies for student academic performance. The researchers also noted that both socio-economic status and race, two positively identified bases, could "likely reflect stereotypic (perhaps prejudicial) expectancies for social behaviors" (p. 341).

The meta analysis by Dusek and Joseph (1983) clearly supports the results of the previously reviewed studies and affirms the importance of examining not only the expectations of practicing teachers, but also those of preservice teachers based on the student characteristics addressed in this dissertation, namely race and/or ethnicity and socio-economic status. Therefore, a discussion of key studies that examined the perceptions of prospective teachers based on the ethnic/racial and socio-economic backgrounds of students follows.

Expectancies of Preservice Teachers

Studies have indicated that teacher education students (Avery & Walker, 1993; Garmon, 1998; Gay & Kirkland, 2003; Larke, 1990; Paine, 1990) as well as inservice teachers (Grant & Secada, 1990; Sleeter, 1992) are not likely to view the teaching of minority students from a socially constructed perspective. Instead, the majority would essentially view educational success as achievable for all students within the structures and philosophies of existing school systems. The following studies focus specifically on the expectations of preservice teachers based on student ethnicity and socioeconomic status.

In an early study by Avery & Walker (1993), researchers focused on investigating the ways preservice teachers' perceive the disparities in student achievement based on race and gender. Using two open ended questions, the researchers elicited responses from 152 teacher education candidates at the University of Minnesota during the 1990-91 academic years. Students were given statistical data regarding gender differences in achievement and ethnic differences in high school graduation rates and asked to share in writing their reasons for these disparities. The data was analyzed in terms of content and quality of responses and compared across program areas. Responses to the ethnic question were coded based on three major categories: School (student-teacher interaction, teacher expectations, schooling), Society (discrimination, prejudice, norms), and Ethnic Culture (group values and attitudes, socioeconomic status). In addition, Avery and Walker investigated the differences in responses between elementary and secondary preservice teachers using the chi-square statistic.

Following an analyses of the students' responses, Avery and Walker (1993) noted striking differences in how teacher education students explained gender and ethnic disparities in academic achievement. Approximately 75% of the students associated inequalities in gender academic achievement to school-related factors with 87% linking social factors (Society) to such disparities. In contrast, the preservice teachers were more likely to ascribe ethnic differences in achievement to factors related to the students' Ethnic Cultures rather than to School or Society (56% and 54%, respectively). Although the researchers did not explore the implications of the preservice teachers' beliefs on instruction, Avery and Walker agreed with others who stressed the connection between teachers' expectations and beliefs and their interactions with diverse learners (Banks, 1991; Paine, 1990; Payne, 1994; Sleeter, 1992).

In addition, Avery and Walker (1993) noted "statistically significant differences between elementary and secondary preservice teachers in the content and quality of their explanations" (p. 34). Secondary preservice teachers provided not only more complex explanations than the students in the elementary programs but also tended to attribute more disparities to Society (75%) than did the elementary preservice students (42%). School was cited more frequently as a factor by secondary students (72%) than by those enrolled in elementary programs (47%). These results prompted the researchers to question whether there are differences in the experiences, perspectives, or backgrounds of the two groups of students that might have influenced their responses.

This study (Avery & Walker, 1993) reinforced the significance of examining preservice teachers' attitudes regarding diversity as well as their background and experiences. The researchers posited that the prospective teachers' explanations for such

outcomes would reflect their values, beliefs, and attitudes and therefore be "considered a more direct indication of their predisposition and preparedness to work with diverse populations than the more conventional assessments of teacher knowledge and attitudes" (p. 29). Consequently, by involving preservice teachers in reflective activities that focus on their prior educational experiences, teacher educators might begin to explore the answers to such critical questions (Grant & Secada, 1990).

In another study, Tettegah (1996) extended the discussion of teacher expectations beyond the examination of the racial attitudes and perceptions of preservice teachers to an analysis of their probable influence in the classroom, an area of research warranting investigation (Grant & Secada, 1990). As referenced in Chapter 1, the purpose of this study was to determine whether a sample of White prospective teachers enrolled in a cross-cultural teacher education course perceived the teachability of students from four racial/ethnic groups in different ways.

The 96 student teachers were administered a background questionnaire, the Oklahoma Racial Attitude Scale (ORAS) which measured racial attitudes as well as an individual's level of achieved White racial consciousness. White racial consciousness refers to "the characteristic attitudes held by a person regarding the significance of being White, particularly in terms of what those attitudes imply relative to those who do not share White group membership" (Tettegah, 1996, pp. 152-3). Researchers have identified the following four white racial consciousness personality types (Bennet et al., 1992 as cited in Tettegah, 1996):

1) Conflictive – reflects white attitudes that do not foster overt discrimination, but instead support traditional, conservative, Western attitudes and values.

2) Integrative – reflects views regarding racial/ethnic minorities based on the characteristics and qualities of the individual instead of stereotypical views.

3) Dominative – holds beliefs and attitudes supporting White superiority.

4) Reactive – reflects strong, sincere, feelings against discrimination and racism, often leading to personal blame or guilt.

In addition, the preservice students were administrated the Teachable Pupil Survey (TPS). The TPS determined the student teacher's perceptions of students ability to learn based on three behavioral dimensions: 1) cognitive, autonomous, motivational behaviors, 2) institutionally appropriate behaviors; 3) personal-social behaviors (Tettegah, 1996). Each prospective teacher rated eighth grade boys and girls in four hypothetical classrooms each predominately made up of students from one of the following racial/ethnic groups: African American, Asian American, Latino, White/Euro-American.

Data analysis and results indicated that Tettegah's (1996) study was consistent with the findings of those studies previously reviewed, namely that preservice teachers' expectations of students' academic performance and classroom behaviors vary dependent upon the racial/ethnic backgrounds of the students. The results of the ORAS indicated that only 27% of the white prospective teachers would likely relate to non-Whites with an integrative attitude. In fact, 46% of those tested were identified as having either a conflictive or dominative racial personality type.

An analysis of variance of the prospective teachers' ratings of the three TPS dimensions indicated that for institutionally appropriate behaviors there was a significant main effect for race/ethnicity (Tettegah, 1996). All four racial consciousness personality

types rated Asian American students higher in this category. In addition, all four groups ranked African American and Latino students lower in the cognitive-autonomous-motivational category and assigned Asian and White/Euro-American students the higher scores. Contrary to expected results, Tettegah also noted that African American students received the highest ranking in the personal-social dimension by three personality types including the dominative group.

Though limited by sample size, instruments, and the possibility that teacher education students provided socially desirable responses, Tettegah's (1996) study nonetheless implies a valid link between the racial attitudes of White prospective teachers and their rankings of racially and ethnically different groups based on academic, behavioral, and social characteristics. Consequently, Tettegh supported developing a theory that might provide guidelines for "facilitating cross-cultural competencies in teaching and learning for teachers and students of diverse racial/ethnic groups" (p. 160).

Last, Terrill and Mark (2000) explored the expectations that preservice teachers hold for learners in different school settings and from different racial and linguistic backgrounds. The researchers administered a 37-item questionnaire to 97 undergraduates who were enrolled in the teacher preparation program at Central Michigan University during the summer 1998 semester. Results indicated that preservice teachers did hold significantly different expectations for learners. For example, in predominately African American urban schools, they expected fewer talented and gifted students, lower levels of motivation and parental support, and higher levels of child abuse and discipline problems. These expectations were significantly different from those the preservice teachers held for the majority White learners in suburban schools. In addition,

results indicated that the teacher education students were not comfortable with second-language and African American learners and would not feel safe conducting home visits in the urban African American community.

Consequently, Terrill and Mark (2000) concluded that teacher education institutions must identify the expectations of their candidates and implement interventions that include opportunities to "explore and reflect...how knowledge is culture and language bound, and examine how teachers' cultural, aracial , and linguistic backgrounds bias their perceptions [of students] (p. 154). It is critical, therefore, that multicultural education extend beyond simply requiring field experiences in diverse school settings (Haberman & Post, 1992; Tettegah, 1996) to include reflection upon one's own ethnic and racial values, assumptions and beliefs (Banks et al, 2001; Grant & Secada, 1990; Sleeter, 1992; Tettegah, 1996).

Teachers' Perceptions, Beliefs and Cultural Sensitivity

Ensuring that all teachers are prepared to meet the diverse racial, cultural, and socio-economic needs of their students has emerged as a priority for public school systems (Powell, Zehm, & Garcia, 1996) as well as schools and colleges of education (Guyton & Byrd, 2000). Multicultural scholars have pointed to increasing ethnic cultures and interracial conflicts (Banks, 1993), discontinuity between the student population and teaching force demographics (Grant & Secada, 1990; Sleeter, 2001), multicultural teaching requirements by local school districts, and the influence of teachers' unintentional cultural biases (Powell et al., 1996) as justifications for increasing educators' level of cultural sensitivity or multicultural readiness. Consequently, teacher education scholars have emphasized the importance of preparing educators who are

sensitive to diversity in order to "validate others' experiences, beliefs, values, and customs while affirming our own" (Goethals & Howard, 2000, p. 52) and to minimize the influence of existing beliefs and preconceptions on teachers' expectations of students (Avery & Walker, 1993; Clifton et al., 1986; Tettegah, 1996). It is, therefore, important to examine the qualities of culturally responsive classroom teachers and students' and administrators' perceptions of their influence in the classroom.

Culturally responsive teachers. Multicultural teacher educators (Gay and Kirkland, 2003; Powell et al., 1996; Schon, 1983; Sleeter, 2001; Villegas & Lucas, 2002; Zeichner & Liston, 1996) strongly support teacher preparation curricula that focus on preparing culturally responsive teachers for the diverse student population. According to Gay and Kirkland, the necessity of culturally responsive teaching is based on three premises:

> (a) Multicultural education and education equity and excellence are deeply interconnected; (b) teacher accountability involves being more self-conscious, critical, and analytical of one's own teaching beliefs and behaviors; and (c) teachers need to develop deeper knowledge and consciousness about what is to be taught, how, and to whom. (p. 182).

Villegas and Lucas (2002) proposed a curriculum for preparing culturally responsive teachers derived from six qualities of culturally responsive educators: sociocultural consciousness, an affirming attitude toward students from culturally diverse backgrounds, commitment and skills to act as agents of change, constructivist views of learning, learning about students, and culturally responsive teaching practices.

Based on the work of Dewey (1933) and Freire (1972), Powell et al. (1996) identified the following five personal characteristics teachers must be willing to enhance in order to increase their effectiveness in culturally diverse classrooms:

1)   Alternative Flexible Teaching – Educators and administrators are willing to implement nontraditional curricula and instructional practices in order to meet the needs of all students.

2)   Open-Mindedness – The changing student population requires that teachers are flexible and open to change based on meeting student needs and learning styles due to cultural differences.

3)   Patience and Perseverance – Developing a multicultural approach to teaching must be integrated into one's long-term professional development process of reflection and growth.

4)   Responsibility – Culturally sensitive educators recognize the impact of their cultural values in the formation of individual beliefs about instructional practices and accept responsibility for changing those beliefs if necessary.

5)   Whole-Heartedness – Educators committed to meeting the academic needs of their diverse students must be willing to try and to adopt new instructional strategies and evaluate their effectiveness for individual students.

Significance to students. Educators exhibiting multicultural readiness qualities have been described as being more significant to students as compared to those teachers who are unresponsive to the diverse needs of their students. Payne (1994) speculated that

the impact of teachers' beliefs regarding cultural diversity become even more relevant in situations where the cultural and economic backgrounds of the students and teachers are different; therefore it is extremely important that all teachers "become aware of their attitudes and beliefs and what impact these have on students" (p. 181). Therefore, the researcher examined the significance of the teacher to lower socioeconomic status (LSES) African American and Hispanic students in four U.S. urban public junior high schools based on the following teacher characteristics: sex, subject taught, race/ethnicity, dogmatism, efficacy, and number of years having taught in an urban school. The ethnic distribution in each school ranged from 64% to 80% African American and Hispanic students.

A pool of 83 teachers was identified as more or less significant based on approximately 1,600 students' responses to the Significant Teacher Survey (STS). Subsequently, a self-selected group of 12 male and 23 female teachers with 1-26 years of teaching experience and an average of nine years in urban schools was identified for the total sample. Twenty-one were Caucasian American, 3 Asian American and 11 African American.

The thirty-five volunteer teachers were administered the Dogmatism Scale Form E (DS-E) and the Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES). Payne (1984) utilized the Dogmatism Scale Form to determine whether the teachers surveyed had open or closed belief systems. The second instrument, the Teacher Efficacy Scale assessed the teachers' general perceptions of teaching (teaching efficacy) and their perceptions of their own abilities to teach effectively (personal teaching efficacy). Payne asserted that teachers are

less likely to display negative behaviors and instructional techniques if they "strongly believe that students can learn and that they can teach" (p. 183).

Payne then selected a subset of eight teachers to observe in the classroom and interview. This small sample was representative in terms of sex and race/ethnicity of the larger study sample and were selected based on their Significant Teacher Survey scores: three were identified as less significant teachers, two were more significant, and three were average teachers.

Payne (1994) analyzed the data using several regression models based on the variables collected from the sample of teachers. Payne noted that non-African American teachers increased in both personal teaching efficacy and teacher significance with the years taught in urban schools. These teachers were identified as significant by their LSES minority students, reported themselves as being less dogmatic, implying an open belief system, and did not exhibit dogmatic behaviors in the classroom. Payne speculated that the open belief systems of these teachers assisted them in establishing positive rapport with minority LSES students and a classroom climate of mutual respect. These results support the importance of open-mindedness as a quality for multicultural readiness (Powell et al., 1996).

The qualitative analyses of the interviews also revealed information about the teachers' beliefs and feelings about their students (Payne, 1994). Of particular interest were the nonsignificant teachers' reactions to issues related to the ethnic or cultural differences of their students. Payne noted that these teachers seem to be unaware of their own cultural beliefs and their expression of them in the classroom, thereby, feeling "helpless to deal with cultural differences and diversity of language, worldviews, learning

styles, and so forth" (p. 190) of their students. The nonsignificant teachers also shared

feelings of being insecure around their students and reported feelings of frustration

because of their inability to identify and adapt to the strengths and weaknesses of their

students. Consequently, these teachers felt that some students "were either unreachable

or unteachable" (p. 193).

By contrast, significant teachers were genuinely concerned about the successes

and failures of every student and did not feel hampered by language barriers or the

ethnic/cultural differences of their students (Payne, 1994). These teachers developed and

valued rapport with their students as well as demonstrated classroom behaviors

communicating respect for all students. Payne concluded that these teachers were

unequivocally confident that their students could be successful.

Although the sample size limits the generalization of this study to all inner-city

teachers of LSES minority students, the findings support similar research studies

(Brookhart & Rusnak, 1993; Haberman, 1991; Ladson-Billings, 1994; Weiner, 1999) that

examined characteristics and qualities of successful urban teachers. Payne's (1994)

conclusions emphasized the importance of investigating and improving the behaviors and

attitudes of teachers working with LSES minority students in order to impact their

effectiveness in the classrooms. Teacher preparation and professional development must

expand beyond developing technical skills to include an examination of personal qualities

such as openness, social consciousness, level of expectations, and the ability to be

reflective (Brookhart & Rusnak, 1993; Weiner, 1999).

Significant to administrators. Culturally aware and sensitive educators also are

recognized as effective teachers by administrators and teacher education researchers

(Ladson-Billings, 1994; Stallings & Quinn, 1991). Seventy-five student teachers from the Houston Teaching Academy (HTA), a University of Houston urban teacher preparation program, were studied in a three-year follow-up study (Stallings & Quinn, 1991). Eighty-five percent of the graduates were teaching in multiethnic or inner-city schools. Notably, principals awarded graduates of the HTA higher ratings than other first year teachers the principals had hired.

In an ethnographic study, Ladson-Billings (1994) sought to identify common instructional behaviors and teaching philosophies that are effective with African American students. The researcher did not use traditional objective measures, such as test scores and student attendance, as measures of effective teaching. Instead, parents and principals were asked to identify those teachers they felt were successful teachers. The parents submitted a list of more than twenty teachers who met the children's cultural and academic needs. In contrast, the principals considered student satisfaction, attendance, discipline, and test scores in selecting exemplary teachers. Eight of the nine teachers whose names appeared on both lists agreed to participate in the study.

The eight teachers identified by parents and administrators as successful educators shared similar teaching philosophies and recognized the importance of high student expectations and making connections with the community, nation, and world (Ladson-Billings, 1994). In addition, these effective teachers developed and nurtured social relations with their students and within the community fostering collaborative, equitable interactions. Ladson-Billings concluded that the teachers viewed knowledge as being constructed socially from a "culturally relevant" perspective (p. 81). Consequently, these exemplary teachers of African American elementary students valued the knowledge that

each student brought to the classroom and integrated it into their teaching. Respecting

diversity and being culturally sensitive to the needs of students are recognized as assets in

today's heterogeneous classrooms.

Relevance of prior beliefs and experiences. Targeting prior experiences of

prospective teachers is critical in fostering a culturally sensitive teaching perspective.

Garmon's (1998) qualitative study confirmed the importance of examining and

understanding preservice teachers' prior experiences in order to analyze and alter their

expectations of students based on individual racial, ethnic, or socio-economic

characteristics. The researcher's identified two factors, the ability to be self-reflective

and one's level of openness, as influencing changes in the existing racial attitudes and

beliefs of preservice teachers enrolled in a multicultural teacher education course.

Using an adapted version of Ponterro and Burkard's Quick Discrimination Index

(Ponterotto & Pederson, 1993), Garmon (1998) surveyed the 31 teacher candidate

volunteers to assess their attitudes toward specific racial groups near the beginning and

end of the course. Next, the researcher identified the seven students who showed the

most favorable attitudes and the seven who displayed the least favorable attitudes towards

racial minorities on the initial survey. For the remainder of the semester, these students

were interviewed every two weeks to solicit their perceptions of what they were learning

in the course.

Although only three students, representing a range of the students in the target

group, were selected for Garmon's (1998) sub study, the analyses of their responses were

consistent with the results of the studies reviewed above. For example, consider Claire,

the student who represented the attitudes and beliefs regarding cultural diversity of four

other low-scoring students on the Quick Discrimination Index (Ponterotto & Pederson, 1993). Garmon noted that though Claire acknowledged that a lack of money could limit the opportunities for minority children, she also attributed their lower academic achievement to a home environment plagued with problems or possibly "... it's hereditary and the genes don't carry through to carry a lot of information" (p. 3). This tendency of preservice teachers to blame the student or culture instead of recognizing the possibility that teachers or schools could have influenced the discrepancies in achievement was also noted in earlier research studies (Avery & Walker, 1993; Graybill, 1997; Larke, 1990; Paine, 1990).

In addition, Garmon (1998) noted that Claire repeatedly insisted that everyone has equal opportunities to be successful even though she was presented with contradictory information, including statistics on the differences in income between minorities and Whites and disparities in unemployment rates by races. This student stated that though she did not know the reason for the discrepancies, she was convinced it was not due to racial discrimination. Garmon concluded that Claire's failure to acknowledge the presence of discrimination was consistent with her belief that everyone has equal opportunities for educational and economic success. Researchers have asserted that some preservice teachers filter and reconstruct new information regarding racial diversity into their existing frameworks rather than change their belief systems (Cross, 1993; Haberman & Post, 1992; Paine, 1990; Sleeter, 1992).

In contrast, Garmon (1998) analyzed the beliefs and attitudes of Terri, representative of six other students who scored high on the Quick Discrimination Index (Ponterotto & Pederson, 1993). The researcher noted that Terri began the course already

possessing many of the attitudes and beliefs regarding diversity the professors hoped to develop throughout the semester. In fact, in the first interview, this student recognized how different her background and awareness of racial and ethnic issues was from that of her classmates. Consequently, the activities and class discussions reinforced and affirmed what Terri knew from personal experience about the prevalence and impact of racial discrimination in society and schools.

By examining the differences and similarities in the racial beliefs of these students, their prior interracial experiences, and specific personal characteristics, Garmon (1998) identified two attributes that affected changes in the students' attitudes about diversity, their ability to be self-reflective and their openness. Those students, like Terri, who were open-minded, tend to be more accepting of others' disagreements and ideas as well as issues related to diversity. These findings are consistent with Payne's (1994) results on the relationship between teachers and their lower socioeconomic status (LSES) minority students. Payne concluded that those teachers whom students identified as significant possessed an open belief system that "helps these teachers establish mutual respect and rapport with LSES minority students sooner" (p. 192). On the other hand, nonsignificant teachers tended to exhibit behaviors resulting from a closed belief system, such as a lack of flexibility, unawareness of students' needs, lowered expectations, and negative feelings about their students (Payne, 1994).

The second personal quality identified by Garmon (1998), self-reflection, involves understanding and thinking critically about one's attitudes and beliefs. Garmon's observations are especially relevant because they support the position of teacher educators who insist that all teachers should develop reflective skills, especially

those working in schools with large diverse student populations (Banks, 1991; Davidman, 1995; Gay, 1993; Gomez & Tabachnick, 1992; Ilmer et al, 1997; Ladson-Billings, 1995; McBee, 1998; Tamura et al., 1996; Weiner, 1999). Garmon noted that, with the exception of the final interview, Claire chose not to reflect on ideas opposed to her own, but instead defended her positions, reluctant to be critical of her own viewpoints and attitudes. By contrast, Joy who also scored low on the racial attitude survey appeared open to new information and to others' ideas even those that conflicted with her beliefs. She, therefore, exhibited qualities of a reflective nature. Garmon's qualitative study not only confirmed the presence of preservice teachers' expectations based on racial, ethnic, or socio-economic characteristics, but also identified personal qualities that impacted the preservice teacher's willingness or resistance to change.

Conclusion

The studies reviewed above affirm the importance of considering the influence of race, ethnicity, and socio-economic class on inservice and preservice teachers' expectancies and level of sensitivity towards diversity. A review of early studies by Brophy (1983) supported the presence of expectations in educational settings. An examination of studies specific to racial, ethnic, and socio-economic characteristics of students, relevant in diverse classrooms, continues to direct attention to this critical issue. Studies by Clifton et al. (1986), Hurrell (1995), Sleeter (1992), and Dusek and Joseph (1983) supported the tendency of classroom teachers to attribute their expectations of students' cognitive and behavioral responses to ethnicity or socio-economic factors. In addition, research studies (Avery & Walker, 1993; Terrill & Mark, 2000; Tettegah, 1996,

though limited, clearly linked prospective teachers' expectations of student achievement to socio-economic and racial characteristics.

Therefore, according to Powell et al. (1996) culturally sensitive teachers should possess five personal qualities: open-mindedness, responsibility, whole-heartedness, alternative flexible teaching, and patience and perseverance. Consequently, a review of relevant studies by Villegas and Lucas (2002), Payne (1994), Ladson-Billings (1994), and Stallings and Quinn (1991) substantiated the recognition and significance of culturally sensitive teachers to students, parents, administrators, and teacher educators.

Given the existing demographics of the urban school population, namely minority and poor students, preservice teachers must be educated to be "culturally sensitive" (Larke, 1990, p. 23) and to realize that their beliefs and perceptions of minority students, especially African American, interfere with their ability to be effective teachers for them (Ladson-Billings, 1994, 2000; Hale, 1994; Irvine, 1991). Therefore, multicultural teacher educators consistently have stressed the importance of assisting prospective teachers in recognizing conflicting paradigms and developing a critical awareness of their cultural and racial values, beliefs, and assumptions (Banks, 1991; Gay & Kirkland, 2003; Sleeter, 2001; Tettegah, 1996). Providing opportunities for preservice teachers to reflect upon the impact of their perspectives and preconceptions regarding their students, the content of their lessons and how they teach is crucial. Over a decade ago, Banks (1991) emphasized the importance of developing this skill:

> They [teacher education students] also need experiences that will enable them to
>
> learn about the values and attitudes they hold toward other ethnic and cultural
>
> groups, to clarify and analyze those values, to reflect upon the consequences of

their values and attitudes, to consider alternative attitudes and values, and to

personally confront some of their latent values and attitudes toward other groups

and races (p. 141).

The next section of the literature review establishes a theoretical framework for critical

reflection in an environment of ethnically, racially, and socio-economically diverse

students.

Critical Reflection and the Urban Preservice Teacher

Introduced by Dewey (1933) at the turn of the century, engaging teachers in

reflective activity has assumed prominence for teacher educators, researchers, and

practicing teachers during the 1980s and 1990s (Galvez-Martin, 1996; Zeichner & Liston,

1996). Focusing on developing students into critical thinkers, the school reform

movement of the 1980s asserted that teachers must also become reflective practitioners

(Lyons, 1998). As a result state departments of education, national boards for teaching

standards, and teacher education programs began to focus on structuring reflective

experiences for both preservice and inservice teachers.

Developing the reflective abilities of urban teachers and preservice students in

urban field experiences is especially critical (Banks et al., 2001; Villegas & Lucas, 2002).

Weiner (1999) asserted that Dewey's framework for reflection enabled her to adapt to

and become a successful urban teacher "despite my inadequate preparation in education

courses" (p. 17). Consequently, Weiner strongly recommends that novice urban teachers

acquire the ability to reflect in order to develop a framework to assess how they will

make decisions as a teacher. In addition, engaging teachers in reflective activities about

pedagogy is essential in understanding the influence of values and attitudes on classroom

practice (Nieto, 1999). Armaline and Hoover (1989) asserted that when preservice

students reflected upon their field experiences they could begin to examine how political,

social, and economic issues impact and influence pedagogical decisions. Therefore, the

focus of this section is to present a theoretical base for reflection, especially for urban

educators, and to support autobiographical journaling as a viable reflective process for

preservice students in urban field experiences.

Theoretical Framework

Contemporary educational researchers (Armaline & Hoover, 1989; Collier, 1999;

Colton & Sparks-Langer, 1993; Galvez-Martin, et al., 1996, 1998; Gore, 1987;

Kottkamp, 1990; Osterman, 1990; Smyth, 1989; Sparks-Langer, et al., 1990; Zeichner &

Liston, 1996; Weiner, 1999) consistently have referenced Dewey's (1933) framework

and Schon's (1983) theories of action for reflective practitioners. Their philosophies

provided a theoretical base for research conducted over the past two decades on the

importance of reflection for both inservice and preservice educators.

Based on Dewey's (1933) definition of reflective action, Zeichner and Liston

(1987, p. 24) defined reflective thinking as "the active, persistent, and careful

consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in light of the grounds that

support it and the consequences to which it leads". A reflective teacher employs more

than a rational process when solving problems and, instead, carefully and actively

considers the reasons that support one's beliefs and decisions and the consequences of

them (Dewey, 1933). Consequently, Zeichner and Liston (1996) stressed the importance

of approaching teaching as a holistic practitioner, one who utilizes both emotional and

rational resources when reflecting about students and practice. An educator engaged in

reflection is aware of his/her philosophies and therefore, able to apply them intentionally (Stickel & Waltman, 1996).

Characteristics of reflective activity. Van Manen (1991) likewise, stressed the importance of teachers responding and reflecting as a whole person to unexpected and unpredictable situations. Based on his research on reflectivity and pedagogical thinking, he identified four categories of reflection that guide a practitioner's interactions with children. The first, anticipatory reflection occurs during the planning phase of instruction as lessons are being prepared, activities identified, and anticipated results and actions reviewed. This activity is what Schon (1983) called reflection-on-action which occurs prior to an event. Active or interactive reflection, Van Manen's second form of reflection, occurs when one must immediately acknowledge and react to the situation or problem, in other words reflection-in-action (Schon, 1989). Third, recollective reflection is essential in order to utilize knowledge based on prior experiences thus gaining "new or deeper insights into the meaning of the experiences we have with children" (Van Manen, 1991, p. 512). The last category of reflection, mindfulness, interacts with the pedagogical experience, not as a separate reflective thought. Van Manen described this presence of mindful action as "pedagogical tact, a sentient awareness of our subjective self as we act" (p. 519).

Dewey (1933) emphasized the difference between teacher action that is routine and action that is reflective. Teachers guided by routine action make decisions based on tradition, authority, impulse or expectations defined by the institution (Pollard & Tann, 1987). Dewey (as cited in Zeichner & Liston, 1996) believed that unreflective teachers would used the school's "collective code" (p. 9) to identify the most efficient strategies to

solve problems rather than generating ideas of their own. Schon (1989) described this "hunger for formal models" or "research-based techniques" in order to make appropriate professional decisions a "model of technical rationality" (p. 196). For example, practitioners would attempted to resolve their dilemmas by using previously determined solutions or by simply ignoring issues or problems that do not fit into their framework of professional problem-solving.

Schon (1989) argued that the reliance on equating professional rigor with being able to identify clearly defined problems and subsequent research based theories and solutions undermines the value of "knowing in action" (p. 199). This philosophical view of professional knowledge advanced the belief that practitioners make intelligent decisions based on spontaneous, practical knowledge. Though the practitioner is often unaware of and unable to explain the specific reasons or knowledge that determined their actions, Schon affirmed that inquiry indeed was occurring and identified it as reflection in action. The "know how" utilized to approach an issue or dilemma is essentially embedded in the action (Schon, 1989). Schon explained:

> It is a kind of process in which, when people are presented with a surprise, they turn thought back on itself, thinking what they are doing as they do it, setting anew the problem of the situation in which they find themselves, conducting on-the-spot an action experiment by which they seek to solve the new problem they have set - an experiment in which they try both to test their new way of seeing the situation and change the situation for the better (p. 204).

In addition, Schon (1983) identified reflection on action, which can occur prior to an action or after an action has occurred. In this case, the teacher would engage in

reflection prior to instruction when preparing lesson plans and when assessing student learning. Usually initiated as a result of uncertainty or confusion due to the results of data generated, reflective teachers examine the rationale for their actions, the appropriateness of these choices, and utilize this information to identify alternative instructional strategies (Osterman, 1990) or to redefine their situation by analyzing it from a new perspective (Zeichner & Liston, 1999).

Qualities of Reflective Teachers

Dewey (1933) identified three attitudes as being essential to reflective action. In fact, Weiner (1999) asserted that urban teachers in particular exemplify these qualities in order to cope with the demands of teaching in challenging academic environments.

Openmindedness. Teachers who are openminded seek solutions from a variety of sources by analyzing problems from different perspectives. Reflective teachers are willing to consider alternative options and recognize that all perspectives have strengths and weaknesses. They reflect consistently upon the reasons for their actions (Zeichner & Liston, 1996).

Responsibility. Dewey referred to this trait as the ability of reflective teachers to analyze their beliefs and actions based on their values. Reflective teachers extend the question of why they are doing what they are doing, to consider why and for whom it is working (Weiner, 1999). Such a process of uncovering motives and assumptions according to Waldron, Collie and Davies (1999), may create uncomfortable and dissatisfied feelings. Important to the growth of reflection in beginning teachers (Sparks-Langer et al., 1990), 'why' questions serve as an opportunity for understanding the value and purpose of their teaching. Zeichner & Liston (1996) proposed that responsible

teachers would consider three kinds of consequences of their teaching: "(a) personal consequences – the effects of one's teaching on pupil self-concepts; (b) academic consequences – the effects of one's teaching on pupils' intellectual development; and (c) social and political consequences – the projected effects of one's teaching on the life chances of various pupils" (p. 11).

Wholeheartedness. This attitude encourages teachers to explore options to meet personal commitments to students, developing trust and credibility (Weiner, 1999). Zeichner and Liston (1996) described wholehearted teachers as those who reflect upon their assumptions, beliefs, and the impact of their actions, encountering all situations with an open, responsible mind-set. This willingness to analyze one's educational, cultural and social background as well as teaching roles, interests, and qualifications comprises a "personal biography" essential in reflective teaching (Pollard & Tann, 1987, p. 37).

Colton and Sparks-Langer (1993) likewise identified four attributes important to reflective teachers engaged in the decision making process: "efficacy, flexibility, social responsibility, and consciousness" (p. 49). Such qualities are necessary to empower and motivate teachers to become reflective educators. The first, efficacy, is present in teachers who believe that they can make a difference in schools and in the lives of children. Second, flexibility refers to the ability to assume another's viewpoint – "looking at the world through another's eyes to find new meanings and interpretations" (p. 50). Third, socially responsible teachers participate actively in school, community, and civic activities to further democratic principles and values. Finally, reflective teachers possess the conscious ability to clarify and justify their thinking, decisions, and

actions to others, especially novice teachers. These personal attributes parallel the attitudes of a reflective practitioner noted by Dewey (1933).

Advantages of Becoming a Reflective Practitioner

The professional development of teachers is enhanced through reflective practice. In other words, teachers who reflect are inspired to grow (Colton & Sparks-Langer, 1993) by describing, exploring, questioning, and evaluating their professional development (Rodriguez & Sjostrom, 1998; Stickel & Waltman, 1994). Osterman (1990) noted that reflection enhances self-awareness, develops new professional knowledge, and leads to a wider understanding of the problems confronting teachers. Self-awareness involves the process of identifying new ideas and changing or discarding irrelevant ones that have been determining courses of action. Often, old theories and philosophies dictate behaviors even though the practitioner may have acknowledged the validity of updated ideas (Osterman, 1990; Van Manen, 1991). Osterman (1990) explained, "deeply-engrained assumptions...may contradict what we espouse, many shape our behavior in ways that may not have the desired impact, and may defeat our best efforts to change" (p. 136). Consequently, reflective activity enables teachers to uncover old ideas and assumptions that interfere with their desire to change and provide opportunities to change critical ideas into instructional practices (Gay & Kirkland, 2003). This is especially important when teachers are working with students who have life experiences and values very different from those of the classroom teacher (Weiner, 1999).

Reflective practice also provides professionals with an avenue to focus on their personal philosophies and instructional strategies that have been effective and to articulate specific theories that have guided these successful strategies (Osterman, 1990).

This new professional awareness can be encouraging and affirming to the classroom teacher who generally has few opportunities to share effective practices. Lyons (1998) discovered that reflective processes were "facilitated through critical conversations evoking the knowledge of practice" (p. 123). Although these conversations among colleagues can promote an atmosphere of collaboration and caring in schools that enhances an understanding of self and others (Lyons, 1998; Osterman, 1990), Weiner (1999) underscored the value of acquiring the ability to reflect as a tool for assessing one's own professional growth, especially when teaching in urban schools. Confronted with situations outside the classroom and an educational system that provides limited personal support, the urban teacher constantly must reflect upon their own cultural frame of reference (Weiner, 1999) in order to examine and reexamine their personal experiences, ideas, assumptions, and values about learning philosophies, students, and the school and community in which they teach (Zeichner & Liston, 1996).

In addition, teachers who reflect are committed to increasing their "understanding and awareness of the problems of practice" (Osterman, 1990, p. 138). Personal reflections and collaborative conversations become avenues for approaching problems and issues as opportunities to create new knowledge and foster positive change. Teachers are encouraged to identify problems, assumed to be "a normal part of the reality of practice...often rooted in the system, rather than in personal inadequacies", and to generate possible solutions (Osterman, p. 138).

For practicing teachers, however, recognizing that multiple approaches and viewpoints exist is not always easy. In a graduate seminar on "teacher thinking", Elbaz (1988) discovered that when faced with contradictory issues, teachers limit their own

abilities to change even after engaging in critical reflection. Elbaz posited that these teachers did not recognize the "dialectical relationship between reflection and action" (p. 178). In other words, although they were aware of their successes and options, they equally were aware of their limitations. Consequently, they focused only on the obstacles, stifling their ability to generate alternative solutions. Developing the ability to reflect in order to cope with difficult situations is especially critical for teachers in urban classrooms, who often are confronted with many problems that have no clearly acceptable solutions (Weiner, 1999).

Importance of Reflection to Preservice Teachers

Researchers (Gay & Kirkland, 2003; Ladson-Billings, 2000; Osterman, 1990; Sleeter, 2001; Zeichner & Liston, 1996) have stressed the importance that teacher education students understand and reflect upon the social conditions and context of schooling in order to meet the diverse needs and challenges of learners in public educational institutions. This value-based perspective maintains that educators' values, especially those supporting equality and diversity, must be examined as an integral part of the reflection process (Zeichner & Liston, 1996). In order to cope with the challenges of urban bureaucratic systems, urban teachers, in particular, must develop an understanding of how the economic, social, and political contexts of the school and community impact their instructional decisions (Ladson-Billings, 2000; Weiner, 1999). Through self-reflection and critical analysis, teacher education students are able to develop in their role as change agents in urban schools (Gay, 1993; Villegas & Lucas, 2002). Gay asserted that these skills are essential in assisting preservice teachers to

"analyze systematically the structures and procedures in schools and classrooms and their own habitual ways of behaving in instructional settings, from various cultural vantage points; to identify points of conflict between the culture of the school and different ethnic groups; and to determine which of these offer the best and worst opportunities for negotiation and change to serve the academic needs of culturally different students better" (p. 295).

Teacher educators have suggested reflective activities aimed at eliciting and affirming individual values, feelings and histories (Elbaz, 1988; Nieto, 1999), analyzing and critiquing instruction and curricula in schools (Beyer, 1984; Tillman, 2003), correcting and evaluating practices due to habit or repetition (Schon, 1989), and writing and analyzing how their biographies shaped their values (Ladson-Billings, 2000; Pollard & Tann, 1987; Smyth, 1989). Galvez-Martin and Bowman (1998) noted that preservice teachers who reflect are learning not only how to connect theory to practice based on students' learning styles and course content, but also are motivated to question their own assumptions and actions in order to improve instruction.

In the mid 1980s, the University of Wisconsin, Madison's elementary student teaching program initiated a paradigm shift from an apprenticeship model to one that focused on engaging preservice teachers in reflective teaching (Zeichner & Liston, 1987). Whereas the conventional model taught pedagogical skills from an established body of knowledge, this alternative approach sought to provide student teachers with pedagogical skills and knowledge that would enable them to direct their own professional growth as active participants in educational policies.

This heightened awareness of self as a teacher can also result in a deeper understanding of one's teaching philosophy. A longitudinal study (Lyons, 1998) of teacher education graduates in their first or second years of teaching indicated that those who were engaged in reflective activities as interns had acquired a conscious knowledge of practice identified as part of their teaching philosophies. One student, for example, recognized three years later that her teaching philosophy had developed and emerged through personal reflections and dialogue with her classmates as a student teacher. In addition, she noted that as a teacher she continues to engage in reflective practices in order to make instructional decisions based on her philosophy. Lyons concluded that teaching interns must be engaged in reflective activities in order to develop connections between their educational philosophies, values, and instructional decisions creating "habits of mind" that support continual professional development (p. 125). These findings support Stickel and Waltman's (1994) contention that through reflection, teachers are able to discuss, analyze, and evaluate their developing professional growth based on a sound theoretical framework.

Critical Reflection and the Student Teaching Field Experience

Engaging preservice teachers in reflective activities during field experiences can enhance and broaden their understanding of their roles as teachers. For the past two decades, teacher educators have recognized the importance of structuring field experiences that provide diverse learning opportunities and emphasize decisions based on deliberate reflective activities (Dinkelman, 1998; Hopkins, 1995; Ross, 2002). In a recent study by Proctor, Rentz and Jackson (2001) examining the role of field experiences in urban schools, researchers concluded that preservice students must be

provided with opportunities to reflect on their perceptions, beliefs, and experiences with diverse learners during their field experiences. Brumfield and Leonard (1983) posited that it was during student teaching that preservice teachers' perceptions about effective teacher characteristics were formulated. Collier (1999) agreed, and emphasized the necessity that preservice teachers understand the connection between their personal belief systems and their professional growth.

Structured reflective activities during student teaching have been recognized as an important tool in this process of growth and discovery. Consequently, Collier (1999) sought to determine the specific reflective characteristics student teachers exhibited during their field experience. Using data from reflective journals and interviews, peer observation conferences and group seminars, the researcher created a profile of the reflective dispositions of four student teachers. Conclusions indicated that: 1) reflection is a personal, unique process; 2) student teachers' perceptions of their experiences are subjective; and 3) through their own voices, student teachers became aware of how they think and how they transmit "what they think to others through their words and actions" (p. 179).

Characteristics of reflective activity. Teacher education programs have incorporated reflective experiences into student teaching using a variety of avenues and strategies. Regardless of the specific reflective activity, they all share the following five common characteristics identified by Kottkamp (1990). The first dimension, temporal, refers to the focus of the reflective activity, past or present experiences. Schon (1983) differentiated between reflection-on-action (a past event) and reflection-in-action (a present experience). Kottkamp posited that most preservice teachers are engaged in

reflecting-on-action. Second, the medium dimension describes the various tools used for identifying, organizing, and presenting data for reflection. For example, reflective experiences may involve observing, listening, talking, reading, oral or videotaping, and/or writing. The third dimension, number, denotes whether students are reflecting individually or as a group. The student teaching field experience typically engages students in private and collective activities. Fourth, locus of initiation describes whether the topics for reflection are selected by the students, structured by the teacher education program, or facilitated by student teaching supervisors.

Assessing reflective activity. Researchers have developed a variety of frameworks to assess the levels at which preservice and student teachers reflect based on the type of specific reflective experience or medium (Kottkamp, 1990) in which they are engaged. Van Manen (1977, 1991) identified three levels of Reflectivity of Deliberative Rationality applicable in situations when one can consider possible alternatives (Zeichner & Liston, 1987) or when reflecting on action (Schon, 1983). The first level, technical rationality, focuses on examining how effective educational knowledge or teaching strategies are in attaining an acceptable level of student achievement (Galvez-Martin & Bowman, 1998; Zeichner & Liston, 1987). Practical reflection, the second level, involves clarifying and analyzing the means and goals simultaneously in consideration of the practitioner's personal experiences (Van Manen, 1977). Zeichner & Liston (1987) noted that all action is reviewed in terms of the beliefs, assumptions and values associated with it. Third, critical reflection engages the preservice teacher in systematic analyses of experiences to achieve self-understanding (Galvez-Martin & Bowman, 1998) using moral and ethical criteria to assess practice (Zeichner & Liston, 1987).

Van Manen's (1977) work on levels of reflection has been incorporated into conceptual frameworks, adapted by scholars who developed their own reflective instruments, and used as an assessment tool in research studies. The College of Education at the University of Wisconsin, Madison based its conceptual framework for the student teaching program on Van Manen's levels of reflectivity (Zeichner & Liston, 1987). One of the goals of the program was to engage students in reflection at all three levels. Sparks-Langer et al. (1990) developed a coding scheme for reflective journal entries incorporating Van Manen's theories of reflection. The *Framework for Reflective Pedagogical Thinking* (Sparks-Langer et al., 1990) was used quantitatively to analyze the language, theories, and concepts student teachers employed in describing instructional events occurring in the classroom. Comprised of seven levels, the coding descriptors ranged from no description of a teaching event, Level 1; events labeled using pedagogical concepts, Level 3; and explanations based on ethical, political, or moral values and issues, Level 7.

In addition, studies by Galvez-Martin and Bowman (1998) and Collier (1999) used the Levels of Reflectivity of Deliberative Rationality (Van Manen, 1977) as an assessment tool to ascertain at what level student teachers were reflecting. The quantitative study by Galvez-Martin and Bowman assessed the reflective levels of 42 elementary school preservice teachers using their journal writings based on selected readings, class discussions, early field experiences, and student teaching. The researchers employed five different instruments for assessment. Ross' (1989, as cited in Galvez-Martin & Bowman, 1998) Criteria for Assessing Levels of Reflection was used for reflections on selected readings. Zeichner and Liston's (1985) Conceptual Framework

for Analyzing Practical Reasoning and Shulman's (1987) Model of Pedagogical Reasoning and Action were used to analyze student responses to class discussions. Van Manen's (1977) Levels of Reflectivity of Deliberative Rationality and Galvez's (1995) Assessment for Levels of Reflection, along with Zeichner and Liston's (1985) framework, were applied to student reflections on field experiences and student teaching.

In order to determine the impact of instruction on reflective practice, the participants were divided into experimental and control groups. The students in the control group attended a 30-minute orientation session that provided guidelines for writing class journals, whereas, the experimental group had a three hour seminar on reflective theory and thinking and its importance for teachers. Results indicated that when preservice teachers receive instruction on reflective thinking along with a structured format for reflection, their levels of reflectively improved considerably. However, the students in the control group, over time, also exhibited some improvement and growth in reflection. The researchers also noted that even with direction and instruction, preservice teachers do not reach the highest levels of reflection regardless of the reflective activity or the instrument utilized.

In contrast, Collier (1999) conducted a qualitative study to identify the reflective characteristics that student teachers exhibit when engaged in reflective journaling and interviewing, peer observation conferences, and group seminar discussions. Using Van Manen's (1977) three Levels of Reflectivity of Deliberative Rationality, the researcher analyzed the oral and written reflections of four student teachers in elementary education. Qualitative data analyses procedures of "unitization and categorization" were utilized to create student profiles identifying the levels of reflection employed (Collier, 1999, p.

176). Collier concluded that all student teachers reflected at both the technical (Level 1) and practical levels (Level 2) with only one preservice student reaching the critical level (Level 3). The majority (three of the four) of student teachers reflected from a technical perspective (Level 1). However, when provided opportunities to reflect the student teachers "learned how they think and how they convey what they think to others through their words and actions" (p. 179). Both qualitative and quantitative research studies clearly document the importance of engaging preservice teachers in reflective activities during student teaching. Such involvement not only enhances their professional development as teachers but also is critical to an understanding of the students they teach.

Conclusion

Reflection in and on practice provides preservice teachers with opportunities to discover and uncover their experiential knowledge, beliefs, values, and assumptions about learning and teaching (Terrill & Mark, 2000; Zeichner & Liston, 1996). Especially relevant to urban teachers (Weiner, 1999), engaging teachers in critical reflection develops educators who are openminded, responsible, and wholehearted educators (Dewey, 1933). Based on the works of Dewey (1933), Schon (1983) shifted attention to this critical skill. Consequently, teacher educators have begun to recognize the value of motivating and empowering teachers to become reflective educators (Colton & Sparks-Langer, 1993; Galvez-Martin, Bowman & Morrison, 1996, 1998; Gay & Kirkland, 2003; Kottkamp, 1990, Smyth, 1989; Zeichner & Liston, 1996; Weiner, 1999).

Teachers and preservice teacher candidates engaged in reflective activity become responsible for their own professional development (Colton & Sparks-Langer, 1993), are able to articulate philosophies and instructional strategies that are effective (Osterman,

1990), better understand the social and political implications of educating a diverse student population (Gay & Kirkland, 2003; Liston & Zeichner, 1987, Smyth, 1989; Weiner, 1999), and are motivated to rethink and question their own actions in order to become effective teachers (Galvez-Martin & Bowman, 1998). Subsequently, both quantitative (Galvez-Martin & Bowman, 1998) and qualitative (Collier, 1999) research studies supported the engagement and assessment of preservice students in reflection during student teaching. Student teachers who participated in structured reflective activities were more likely to reflect at critical levels. More importantly, however, prospective teachers began to understand how they think and how that impacted their instruction (Collier, 1999).

It is the focus of this study to engage preservice teachers in the construction of an educational autobiography to foster critical reflection. Recognized in teacher education scholarship (Ladson-Billings, 1995, 2000), autobiographical journaling can foster the development of critically reflective teachers who are sensitive to the needs of diverse students. A review of the literature follows establishing a theoretical base for engaging preservice teachers in an autobiographical journaling process.

Autobiographical Journaling, Critical Reflection, and Cultural Sensitivity

Researchers have supported using journals during the student teaching field experience to provide opportunities for student teachers to reflect-on-action (Borko, et al., 1997; Collier, 1999; Colton & Sparks-Langer, 1993; Galvez-Martin, Bowman & Morrison, 1998; Kottkamp, 1990; Pavlovic & Friedland, 1997). Journaling experiences have also enabled teacher candidates to examine their existing beliefs regarding teaching through critically reflective questions (Armaline & Hoover, 1989; Bolin, 1988; Stickel &

Waltman, 1994; Yost, 1997) and allowed for the analysis of teaching interns' perceptions

of how culture impacts instruction (Jarchow, McKay, Powell, Quinn, 1996). Kottkamp

(1990) emphasized that writing, in-and-of itself, is an excellent tool for fostering

reflective thoughts. He elaborated:

> "Writing is both process and product...Writing is self-produced feedback,
>
> available for immediate review and re-evaluation, and, because of its slower and
>
> self-regulating pace, it allows for a moving back and forth among past, present,
>
> and future. Writing, as a product, leaves a trail of the evolution of ideas as a form
>
> of long-term feedback. It is an active, engaging, and personal process" (pp. 184-
>
> 185).

In fact, Schiller, Shumard, & Homan (1994) stressed the value of journal writing for

preservice art students in particular. Because substance and content were more critical

than mechanics, the journals provided a non-threatening opportunity for students to refine

their writing skills and share student teaching experiences. Journals are recognized as a

valuable reflective resource for preservice teachers as well as teacher educators.

It is recommended that reflective experiences engage preservice teachers in the

creation of their personal biographies (Ellsworth & Buss, 2000; Hyun, 1997; Pollard &

Tann, 1987; Robinson & DiNizo, 1996; Smyth, 1989; Talsma, 1996). Specifically,

Pollard and Tann (1987) focused on examining one's educational, social and cultural

experiences and background because of their influences in interpreting situations and

determining action. Especially relevant for educators, reflective practitioners should

"consider their own values carefully and be aware of their implications" (Pollard & Tann,

1987, p. 38). Prospective teachers can become more culturally sensitive to the diverse

needs of their students by understanding their values and culture through the construction of educational autobiographies (Goethals & Howard, 2000; Stewart & Bennett, 1991 as cited in Hyun, 1997; Powell et al., 1996). An autobiographical approach that focuses on discovering more about oneself is essential to assisting preservice teachers in developing a culturally diverse perspective toward teaching (Hyun, 1977) as well as honing the skills of a reflective educator (Ladson-Billings, 2000; Pollard & Tann, 1987; Robinson & DiNizo, 1996; Rodriguez & Sjostrom, 1998).

Autobiographical Journaling: A Theoretical Framework

Situated in a narrative framework, biographical experiences are created through analyzing and sharing personal stories (Robinson & DiNizo, 1996). The use of narratives or stories has emerged as the basis for conducting research and inquiry in teacher education (Carter & Gonzales, 1993; Ladson-Billings, 1994; Miller, 2000; Robinson & DiNizo, 1996; Waldron, et al., 1999). For example, Hollingsworth (1989) used story to analyze changes in preservice teachers beliefs about teaching and learning. Gomez and Tabachnick (1992) extended that focus to include the contributions of teaching stories to their understanding of diverse learners. Carter (1993) supported the use of story in contemporary teacher education research because of its value in representing "a way of knowing and thinking that is particularly suited to explicating the issues with which we deal" (p. 6). Articulating teachers' stories provides access to the knowledge base developed though their practice in classrooms (Carter, 1993; Gomez & Tabachnick, 1992). Miller (2000) stressed that in using autobiography one must consider its social foundations and cultural implications.

Involving prospective teachers in the construction of autobiographical stories is relevant to their professional development and can serve as a valuable tool in analyzing and critiquing preservice education experiences. In fact, Ladson-Billings (1995, 2000) recognized the increased use of autobiographies in contemporary urban teacher education research. For example, the elementary teacher preparation program at the University of Wisconsin-Madison engaged preservice students in course work, field experiences, and seminars to prepare them for the academic needs of the diverse student populations (Gomez & Tabachnick, 1992). Through the articulation of personal stories, preservice teachers recognized the teacher's role in perpetuating and solving the problems students face, enhanced their realization of the consequences of their teaching, and both strengthened and challenged their individual values and educational philosophies.

In addition, by analyzing the teaching stories of their students, teacher educators acquired new insights into the unique and complex relationships developed through teaching and the significance of the meanings educators attach to others' behaviors. Both teacher educators and prospective teachers began to reflect upon their roles as educators, questioning their educational objectives and investigating alternative practices and behaviors. Through this reflective activity, Gomez and Tabachnick (1992) focused preservice teachers on the search and creation of meanings rather than a problem solving perspective.

Carter (1993) analyzed the use of teachers' stories in contemporary teacher preparation research. Though acknowledging the value of story as "a way of knowing and thinking that is suited particularly to explicating the issues with which we deal" (p. 6), Carter also cautioned researches against taking an extreme position regarding the

personal meaning stories suggest. Stories are constructed from shared events and experiences, shaping knowledge and decisions (Gomez & Tabachnick, 1992; Robinson & DiNizo, 1996; Waldron, et al., 1999) and become significant when listeners and readers attach meaning to them. Therefore, according to Carter, teachers do not own their stories and researchers must consider problematic issues surrounding accuracy and generalizations about teaching. Because stories are based on an individual's interpretations of reality, "the relationship between story and reality is, at best, troublesome" (Carter, 1993, p. 10). Consequently, Carter warned against forming abstract generalizations from stories unless the researcher's goal was to identify patterns of behaviors based on specific themes. In addition, she recommended using case stories to teach preservice teachers because of their value in portraying the complexities of teaching. Teacher educators must, however, confront and explore the challenges of situating stories within teacher education pedagogy (Carter, 1993).

Understanding the teaching of science and mathematics. In response to Carter's (1993) suggestion, autobiographical stories are analyzed in three qualitative studies that investigated preservice teachers' attitudes toward teaching science and math. Constructing meaning through reflective autobiographical stories was the objective of Robinson and DiNizo's (1996) qualitative study that examined the development of a preservice secondary science teacher. The focus was to engage a prospective teacher in reflection-on-action (Schon, 1993) of her personal teaching experiences in order to better understand and inform instructional practices. Themes that emerged through weekly journal entries became the focus of the autobiography.

The second study by Talsma (1996) explored preservice elementary teachers' attitudes concerning science and science teaching by using science autobiographies. The researcher hoped to understand the influence of the preservice teachers' elementary, middle, and high school educational experiences in science on their attitudes as elementary teachers of science. Subjects were asked to reflect upon their early academic experiences as well as non-formal ones in science instruction and to write their science autobiographies. Five themes were identified. Pertinent to this study were the preservice teachers' reflections of their prior educational experiences and how these stimulated positive images of teaching science in their future classrooms. Prospective teachers began to consider how they would structure positive science experiences for their students. Talsma concluded that this autobiographical assignment "is one type of reflective exercise that can be used to initiate an attitude adjustment process" (p. 12).

The third study analyzed autobiographies of elementary education students to identify the kinds experiences in college content courses and K-12 schooling that affected the preservice teachers' perceptions of mathematics or science (Ellsworth & Buss, 2000). The researchers concluded that the rich autobiographical data provided depth and clarity in the preservice teachers' accounts of their experiences. They credited the use of an autobiographical format for fostering detailed explanations of the reasons why students held certain attitudes as well as for noting changes in those attitudes.

Exploring Prior Experiences. Teacher education researchers have also acknowledged the value of using autobiographical reflective tools to assist prospective teachers in recognizing the importance of exploring how their current teaching situations relates to their prior experiences (Colton & Sparks-Langer, 1993; Hyun, 1997; Rodriquez

& Sjostrom, 1998; Smyth, 1989). On a conceptual level, Colton and Sparks-Langer (1993) developed a framework for the development of the teacher as a reflective educator. Two of the seven categories of professional knowledge in a reflective teacher include awareness of and value for prior experiences and acceptance of the impact of one's personal and social values on daily decisions as an educator. Both Smyth (1989) and Hyun (1997) advocated having educators write their autobiographies and reflect on the influence of their biographical experiences in developing their value system and their expectations of students. In addition, Smyth recommended that teacher educators supply preservice students with specific questions to guide their reflective thoughts when writing their autobiographies.

Specifically, Hyun (1997) investigated the interrelationships among preservice teachers, autobiographical writing, and cultural sensitivity. Prospective teachers were engaged in an autobiographical self-examination of their own and others' ethnicity in order to enhance their sensitivity for diversity. Data from the students' academic journals, personal reflections, and the researcher's notes from group discussions were triangulated to identify relevant and reoccurring themes. Hyun concluded that the autobiographical reflective activity assisted preservice teachers to:

1) Develop a conceptual sense of perspective-taking ability other than oneself;

2) Critically look at teachers' pedagogical behavior with children from diverse backgrounds;

3) See individual uniqueness based on family culture that is beyond the ethnic or group/race orientation and ... make a connection to the issue of equal education;

4) Realize the need for creating diverse interaction and teaching styles in conjunction with their development of ...multiple/multiethnic perspective-taking abilities (pp. 4-6).

In order to prepare teachers who will recognize and value the unique and multiple learning needs of all students, it is necessary to assist preservice teachers in understanding and analyzing their individual cultures and educational biographies. Consequently, the focus of this research study was to examine the extent to which autobiographical journaling would influence preservice teachers' levels of cultural sensitivity.

Autobiographical journals have provided rich data for researchers examining the impact of student teachers' beliefs on their instructional choices. Rodriguez and Sjostrom (1998) conducted a study to compare the professional development of traditional and nontraditional adult teacher candidates (over 25 years old with varied life experiences) using autobiographical reflections written during student teaching. Using critical reflection entries as teaching and data collection tools, the researchers sought to facilitate the teacher candidates' "comprehension of the relationship between teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning and their pedagogical decisions" (p. 178). During two 16-week semesters, forty-five preservice teachers responded weekly to structured questions in an autobiographical journal. A content analysis was conducted to organize the data chronologically and identify patterns, themes, and concerns the preservice teachers noted.

Although the comparative results indicated relevant differences between the professional development of traditional and nontraditional adult student teachers, the

process of data collection is especially relevant to this literature review. Rodriguez and Sjostrom (1998) concurred with other researchers (Ellsworth & Buss; 2000; Hyun, 1997; Ladson-Billings, 2000; Robinson & DiNizo, 1996; Smyth, 1989; Talsma, 1996; Trapedo-Dworsky & Cole, 1996) as to the value of engaging preservice teachers in autobiographical critically reflective writing activities. Such experiences can provide a "clear, concise, and authentic process for teaching future teachers to become reflective practitioners" (Rodriquez & Sjostrom, 1998, p. 185).

Conclusion

The studies cited above support the utilization of an autobiographical journaling process to engage prospective teachers in critically reflective activities during the student teaching experience. This process has been shown to support professional development by assisting the preservice teacher in defining and redefining philosophical goals and visions for praxis (Rodriquez & Sjostrom, 1998) and developing multiple perspectives toward student learning (Goethals & Howard, 2000; Hyun, 1997; Powell et al., 1996). Reflection upon personal stories of teaching and learning can also foster internal dialogue (Colton & Sparks-Langer, 1993; Ellsworth & Buss, 2000) thereby raising consciousness regarding the influence of one's values and beliefs on their actions in the classroom (Gay & Kirkland, 2003; Gomez & Tabachnick, 1992; Pollard & Tann, 1987, Smyth, 1989). Consequently, this research study focused on furthering the knowledge base regarding the use of autobiographical journaling during urban student teaching experiences and examined its impact on the cultural sensitivity and critical reflectivity of preservice teachers.

In addition, because dialogue between the student teacher and a supervisor or mentor is an important part of this educational process (Colton & Sparks-Langer, 1993), a comparative analysis of the written dialogue between student teachers, the university supervisors, and cooperating teachers was conducted. Therefore, a review of the literature relevant to mentoring beginning and preservice teachers in urban schools with specific focus on the role of the cooperating teachers follows. Systematic studies focusing on the student teacher/cooperating teacher relationships have been recommended (Bunting, 1988) in order to define more clearly the role of the cooperating teacher as field mentor (Connor & Killmer, 1995; Ross, 2002).

Cooperating Teachers: Mentoring in Urban Schools

Mentorship in teacher education has been used to describe the relationship between the cooperating teacher and the student teacher (Conner & Killmer, 1995; King & Bey, 1995). Studies have supported the importance and influence of the cooperating teacher on the professional development of the student teacher (Yost, 1997; Pellett, et al., 1999; Veal & Rikard, 1998; Osunde, 1996). Recent research, though limited, also has focused on identifying mentoring models and practices to improve the effective preparation of both urban teachers and preservice teachers (King & Bey, 1995; Guyton & Hidalgo, 1995; Gay, 1995; Brookhart & Rusnak, 1993). Guyton and Hidalgo (1995) concluded that because of the demands of the urban school environment and the importance of role models for beginning urban teachers, urban mentors should have not only characteristics and skills of mentors in general, but also mentoring skills to support new teachers in the urban environment.

The following review of the literature establishes a theoretical model for urban mentoring and identifies the unique characteristics, qualities, and responsibilities of effective urban mentors. The second section focuses on the influence and value of the cooperating teacher's feedback to the student teacher's professional and reflective growth. Finally, section three discusses the benefits of engaging cooperating teachers and student teachers in a dialogue journaling process that focuses on enhancing reflective skills.

Urban Mentoring Model

Gay's (1995) discussion of urban modeling and mentoring is grounded in the belief that "the power of models and mentors resides more in the processes of their being and behaving than in the finished products" (p. 104). Urban mentors must possess a unique set of personal traits that sustains them as classroom teachers and motivates them to share their expertise and experience with others. In addition, it is through the "doing aspects of good teaching" (Gay, p. 105) that mentors would demonstrate these attributes as they guide others through the professional development process. Therefore, the mentoring of new teachers should not be based on the imitation of personal or professional skills and attributes, but rather on the unique behaviors and strategies employed by the mentor in specific teaching situations. Gay stressed that preservice and novice teachers would then determine how, or if, these behaviors could be modified for their own use.

Based on the assumption that effective teaching requires both technical and personal skills, it is also important that urban mentor honestly assess their personal qualities, attitudes, and dispositions (Gay, 1995). Gay asserted that urban mentors must

willingly develop facilitative and caring relationships that are based on a sincere interest in being "affiliated with self and others" and assuming "some responsibility for the quality of the people around them" (p. 106).

Supervision in field experiences. Gay's (1995) model of mentoring in urban teacher education discussed above is supported by Costa's (1995) discussion of the new mission of supervision in field experiences. This new psychology of supervision is based on the premise that five internal psychological states of mind drive human growth and enhances cognitive abilities (Costa & Garmston, 1994). Effective supervisors, Costa (1995) asserted, should access these five states of mind as benchmarks to assess the growth of those being mentored as well as to gauge their own professional development.

Efficacy, the first psychological state of mind, describes supervising teachers and preservice teachers who are resourceful and self-actualizing. Efficacious educators are engaged in cause-effect analyses driven by an "internal locus of control" (Costa, 1995, p. 22). These qualities parallel Gay's (1995) description of urban mentors as pioneers and trailblazers.

Second, flexibility ensures that the preservice or novice teacher will understand the diverse perspectives of others, generate a wide range of alternatives and their consequences, and readily change their positions as they receive new information. Likewise, Gay (1995) described urban mentors as being more encompassing and flexible in all aspects of their professional selves.

Craftsmanship, the third psychological state, is similar to Gay's (1995) personal responsibility and integrity trait. Here, Costa (1995) described teachers who strive for perfection, have goals and visions consistent with their values, and who "test, revise, and

constantly hone instructional strategies to reach learning goals" (p. 22). Therefore, supervision should include the modeling and teaching of effective communication and time management skills.

Costa (1995) described consciousness, trait four, as the ability to monitor one's own and others' professional growth including values, behaviors, ideas and progress toward goals. These mentors promote the development of a clearly defined system of values that is clearly articulated to others. This, in turn, becomes the basis for improving teaching strategies and making instructional decisions. It is important that urban mentors also evaluate the effectiveness of their teaching based on their own values and standards while understanding the impact of racial and ethnic perceptions in academic settings (Gay, 1995).

The fifth trait, interdependence, underscores the overall goal of Costa's (1995) new psychology of supervision, creating "communities of continual learners" (p. 23). Similarly, Gay (1995) emphasized that urban mentors must help preservice teachers recognize their ethical responsibility of assisting others to achieve to their potential by fostering a sense of affiliation and community with their students. Costa, likewise, described interdependent teachers as altruistic, collegial, consensus-builders, and community conscious.

Although there has been limited research on the cooperating teacher/student teacher mentoring processes in urban field experiences, the model provided by Gay (1995) and supported by Costa's (1995) new psychology of supervision provides a theoretical base for this study. Specifically, the mentoring of urban preservice teachers should focus on process instead of the product (Gay, 1995), develop in the supervisor and

those being supervised the skills to self-evaluate and self-analyze (Costa, 1995), and

foster the continual intellectual growth and professional development of both the mentor

and mentee.

Responsibilities and Characteristics of Urban Mentors

Following a review of the literature on the qualities of effective urban teachers,

Guyton and Hidalgo (1995) identified eight special abilities of urban mentors necessary

to ensure personal and professional growth in beginning teachers. These qualities were

developed based on "the proposition that mentors for teachers in urban schools have a

different role from mentors in schools serving middle-class children" (Guyton & Hidalgo,

1995, p. 40). In addition, Gay (1995) also identified eight specific personal traits for

mentors and instructional models in urban schools.

The first trait describes the mentor as a change agent/mediator of the urban

environment. Guyton and Hidalgo (1995) asserted that these mentors must be able to

communicate to beginning teachers the hostilities and obstacles they may encounter as

well as differentiate between what they can change and what is beyond their control. In

addition, because these mentor teachers recognize that problems and conflicts are

inevitable they must be able to articulate their problem-solving strategies to their

mentees. Urban mentors also must be cognizant of school-community relations and be

willing to articulate the dynamics operating between the school and the community to the

novice or beginning teacher.

Second, Guyton and Hidalgo (1995) described successful urban mentors as

efficacious teachers who recognize the limits of their influence in the classroom. These

teachers evaluate their worth as a teacher based "on individual successes with students,

not on being able to change the world" (p. 43). Consequently, urban mentors assist preservice teachers in setting and achieving realistic goals.

Third, effective urban teachers are collaborators. They willingly interact with other teachers, parents, school and community resource personnel, and administrators in order to meet the needs of their students. Guyton & Hidalgo (1995) noted that urban mentors must be able to communicate the importance of being a collaborator, model collaborative skills, and include the beginning teacher in interactions with others. In addition, as they observe new teachers, mentors should be comfortable providing feedback about how they are able to get others to collaborate with them.

Effective urban mentors must have a clear sense of self, specifically their own ethnic and cultural identities. Guyton and Hidalgo (1995) stressed that this fourth quality enables them to move beyond the racial, economic, and ethnic differences between themselves and their students and families. Consequently, as they mentor preservice and inservice teachers they are comfortable discussing their ethnic background. These urban teachers willingly seek out the feelings of those they mentor, openly questioning behaviors that exhibit biases and prejudices in the classroom.

Fifth, mentors in urban schools are pedagogues. These effective urban teachers respond to the individual needs of their students by using a variety of instructional strategies, reflecting diverse cultural perspectives in the curriculum, and addressing both the cognitive and affective domains of their students (Guyton and Hidalgo, 1995). As they work with new and beginning teachers, these mentors assist by helping them find appropriate resources and encouraging questions and reflection about instruction. In addition, urban mentors should communicate to the mentees the high expectations they

have of their students and assist their mentees in developing realistic and challenging expectations for their students. Effective urban mentors also support new and beginning teachers as they struggle to balance district and school curricular mandates with the needs of their students.

Last, effective mentor teachers possess strong interpersonal skills. Guyton and Hidalgo (1995) noted that these urban educators need not only to hear what others say, but also listen openly in order to understand others rather than to judge. They ask challenging questions of their mentees and encourage questions and reflective comments. Urban mentors should be comfortable communicating with their mentees their personal joys and satisfactions in teaching young people.

Personal qualities. Gay (1995) also identified eight specific personal traits that urban mentors should possess. Based on Edwards and Polite's (1992, as cited in Gay, 1995) set of attributes for successful African Americans, the following characteristics are applicable to teaching models and mentors in urban schools.

First, effective urban mentors have achieved cultural consciousness and a positive ethnic identity (Gay, 1995). When urban mentors value and accept their own culture, they possess a strong sense of personal efficacy and will therefore be committed to helping others develop pride in their own ethnic identities. Second, urban mentors feel personally responsible for the success of their students. These teachers do not use excuses such as race, poverty, immigration or familial circumstances for not setting high levels of expectations for their students' performances (Ladson-Billings, 1994).

The third quality of urban mentors relates specifically to empowerment and personal efficacy (Gay, 1995). Gay noted that successful mentors are engaged in

continuous professional development and self-reflection about their teaching. Gay's fourth characteristic is the mentor's ability to manage others' racial and ethnic perceptions. Mentor teachers with a strong sense of their own ethnic identities were also cognizant of the influence of their students' racial identities on educational experiences. They understood that "the teacher plays an important role in ascribing status and identify to children in the classroom" (Hale, 1994, p. 157).

Fifth, urban mentors are not reluctant to become pioneers and trailblazers (Gay, 1995). Challenged by change and the drive to improve the quality of education for all students, these teachers were motivated internally to succeed and preserve, acting alone if necessary. Sixth, being self-reliant and self-accepting ensures that urban mentors are comfortable working independently both personally and professionally. Gay (1995) noted that these individuals recognized the importance of learning from others and readily participated in learning communities. These mentors communicated to their mentees the importance of being confident, competent, and collegial.

Seventh, urban mentors understand the value of reaching out to their students and giving back to the community and school. It is their ethical and moral obligation to support and guide others in achieving their fullest potential (Gay, 1995). Finally, urban role models believe that they are guided spiritually, and consequently, respect the innate good and potential found in every student (Gay, 1995). These eight attributes guide urban mentors as they assist other teachers and those preparing to become teachers to successfully meet the challenges of teaching in urban schools.

Summary. Grounded in a new psychology of supervision (Costa, 1995), research studies (Gay, 1995; Guyton & Hildago, 1995) on urban mentoring established a

theoretical framework for mentoring new teachers in urban schools. This clearly supports the need to articulate the responsibilities of and develop specific qualities in urban mentors because of the unique challenges, needs, and demands of their diverse students. The research by Gay (1995) and Guyton and Hidalgo (1995) was based on the shared assumption that all successful urban teachers are not automatically effective mentors, but all have the potential to become good urban mentors. Because mentors guide and encourage the personal and pedagogical development of another professional (Gay, 1995), urban school mentors must possess particular qualities and skills that enable them to facilitate this growth (Guyton & Hidalgo, 1995) in preservice and novice teachers. The urban student teaching field experience should encourage cooperating teachers to practice and develop the characteristics and skills outlined within this theoretical framework.

The Cooperating Teacher and the Urban Student Teaching Field Experience

Two decades ago, researchers stressed the importance of studying the influences of the relationship between the cooperating teacher and the student teacher. Copeland (1980) concluded that this relationship may be determined by the "ecological system of the classroom", an interrelationship of teaching and learning based on the dynamics present in the particular environment (p. 197). A clearer understanding of the realities of the student teaching environment, therefore, would prepare teacher candidates to utilize specific instructional strategies learned in teacher education courses. Such knowledge is especially important in structuring preservice urban field experiences. Ilmer et al. (1997) and Haberman (1994) recommended fostering working collaborations between experienced urban teachers and teacher educators that would "empower practitioners to

share their knowledge and experience in the urban setting" (Ilmer, et al., 1997, p. 383).

Understanding and analyzing the relationships between the participants in the triad is

important (Bunting, 1988; McIntrye, 1984), especially in acknowledging the value of the

cooperating teacher as a source of data in structuring the student teaching field

experience (Connor & Killmer, 1995). Consequently, a knowledge base for multicultural

teacher education based on dialogue and collaboration between practitioners and

researchers is emerging (Ladson-Billings, 1995).

    Influences of the cooperating teacher. Research has acknowledged the influences

of the cooperating teacher in the field experience (Yee, 1969; Osunde, 1996; Bunting,

1988; Pellett et al., 1999). Bunting (1988) investigated the impact of the cooperating

teachers on student teachers changing views toward student-centered or teacher-directed

instructional approaches. Although none of the student teachers experienced

fundamental changes in his or her perspectives, the teaching views of ten of the seventeen

were more flexible at the conclusion of the student teaching experience. These students

were working with cooperating teachers who scored in the moderate range on the

Educational Attitudes Inventory (Bunting, 1984, 1985 as cited in Bunting, 1988). When

comparing these cooperating teachers with those of student teachers who indicated no

change in their beliefs, the researcher noted differences in teacher beliefs and

subsequently, teaching models. Four of the seven teacher candidates worked with

cooperating teachers who possessed extreme teacher-directed views. These results

supported the findings of a more recent study by Osunde (1996) in which student teachers

reported that their experiences with their cooperating teachers had affected their

perceptions about teaching.

In addition, Bunting's (1988) study contradicted the findings of an earlier one by Tabachnick and Zeichner (1984) that signified the tendency of teacher candidates to solidify their entering beliefs during student teaching rather than change them. Although the preservice teachers' fundamental beliefs and perspectives about teaching did not change drastically, Bunting's findings, as described above, suggested that the student teaching experience broadened their viewpoints to include a variety of instructional strategies and approaches. Consequently, the possible influences of the cooperating teachers should be considered when structuring field experiences.

Cooperating teachers also influence the extent to which teaching interns adapt instruction for diverse learners. In a qualitative study, Moore (1996) investigated those factors that empower student teachers to use a multicultural perspective during instruction. Though limited by the small sample studied, the researcher concluded that the cooperating teacher or university supervisor could restrict or limit the efforts of student teachers to incorporate culturally diverse strategies. It is, therefore, critical that the supervisors of teacher education candidates support diversity, recognize student teachers' efforts to implement such strategies, and foster reflection on culturally diverse learning and teaching (Moore, 1996).

Value of feedback. Urban mentors assume a unique role in the student teaching triad. Supervisors of student teachers play a crucial role by encouraging reflective practice (Moore, 1996) and providing "constructive feedback about the beginner's teaching in ways that promote growth rather than defensiveness" (Guyton & Hidalgo, 1995, p. 45). The urban mentor or cooperating teacher is responsible for helping preservice teachers explore their personal values, attitudes, feelings and expectations

regarding ethnic and cultural differences and identify prejudices and biases that may

interfere with their instructional effectiveness (Guyton & Hidalgo, 1995; Gay, 1995).

Therefore, communication is central for professional growth during field experiences

(Kottkamp, 1990; Moore, 1996; O'Hair & O'Hair, 1996; Shaw-Baker, 1995).

Researchers have agreed that providing feedback is one of the most important

responsibilities of the cooperating teacher (Giebelhaus, 1995; Henry, 1995; Pellett et al.,

1999; O'Hair & O'Hair, 1996). The quantity of interaction between the cooperating

teacher and student teacher (Giebelhaus, 1995; O'Hair & O'Hair, 1996) coupled with the

value teaching interns place on feedback from their cooperating teachers (Copeland,

1992; Connor & Killmer, 1995) legitimizes this important task. Veal and Rikard (1998)

explored the student teaching triad from the cooperating teachers' viewpoints. Their

results indicated the development of a strong bond with the student teacher resulting from

"daily sharing of time and space; learning from one another; developing bonds of

friendship; and working together in the real world" (p. 113). In Connor and Killmer's

(1995) study, student teachers indicated that their cooperating teachers provided the most

support and assistance through feedback. Also confirmed by Giebelhaus (1995), teaching

interns requested more and consistent feedback from their cooperating teachers.

Researchers have concluded that student teachers benefit most from systematic,

constructive, and collegial feedback that is based on an objective classroom observation

system (Cogan, 1973; Henry, 1995; Pellett et al., 1999; Shaw-Baker, 1995). It is

therefore recommended that supervisors receive training in effective observation

techniques and conferencing skills in order to evaluate student teachers effectively

(Giebelhaus, 1995; Henry, 1995). Specifically, Connor and Killmer (1995) stressed that

the professional development activities for cooperating teachers include a "focus on building strong feedback techniques, and the willingness to share ideas and materials, along with tips for promoting a positive learning environment that provides the freedom to experiment" (p.7). Few cooperating teachers, however, receive training about effective communication skills and feedback techniques (Connor & Killmer, 1995; Wilkins-Canter, 1996).

Formative feedback. Equally important, however, emphasized O'Hair and O'Hair (1996) is communication between the student teacher and cooperating teacher that fosters connections through shared meanings. Classroom mentors must provide on going formative feedback to student teachers. Tellez (1996) highlighted the value of the numerous informal but formative assessments cooperating teachers provide to student teachers throughout the field experience. Such suggestions serve as authentic evaluations designed to enhance the intern's teaching effectiveness. Consequently, practicum supervisors, including cooperating teachers, can assume a critical role in fostering reflective practice and cultural sensitivity through the feedback they provide to preservice teachers (Armaline & Hoover, 1989; Fishman & Raver, 1989; Haberman & Post, 1992; Zeichner, 1992). Lyons (1998) noted that reflective processes for teacher candidates were enhanced through conversations surrounding practice. Paradoxically, it was through collaborative, public discussions that the teaching interns began "learning about self, about the values one holds for teaching and learning" (p. 124).

Concomitantly, the student teaching field experience should provide opportunities for teacher candidates to reflect upon their preconceived beliefs, values, biases, and expectations of students from ethnic and socio-economic backgrounds different from

their own thus enhancing cultural sensitivity. In fact, Zeichner (1992) stressed the need

for supervisors to discuss social justice and equity issues in practicum courses so that

student teachers develop into critically reflective educators. Armaline and Hoover (1989)

posited a set of questions that supervisors can use with teacher candidates to stimulate

dialogue relating to the social, economic, and political nature of pedagogical practice in

diverse classrooms. Journal writing facilitates this process of reflective practice

(Armaline & Hoover, 1989; Zeichner, 1992) enabling the supervisor to dialogue through

written feedback on a regular basis with their student teachers (Sparks-Langer, 1993) in a

non-threatening way.

Dialogue Journaling

Teacher educators have recognized the advantages of engaging supervisors and

preservice students in dialogue using journals. First, dialogue journals support university

supervisors in building collegial relationships with their student teachers (Bolin, 1988;

Schiller et al., 1994). In addition, Bolin (1998) noted that university supervisors tended

to rely upon the journals as a tool to connect them to the student teacher's classroom and

to foster reflective growth. For example, Norton (1997) examined the levels of reflective

thought of twelve preservice teachers enrolled in a twenty hour supervised teaching

practicum. Results indicated that the preservice teachers identified the dialogue journals

as instrumental in developing and polishing their reflective thinking skills. The

preservice teachers noted that "extensive and probing feedback from the field

supervisors" encouraged reflection (Norton, 1997, p. 9).

Unfortunately, limited data is available regarding the quality and quantity of

feedback shared between cooperating teachers and their student teachers (Wilkins-Canter,

1997). Therefore, utilization and analysis of a dialogue journaling process can be a valuable tool for examining the content and impact of feedback on reflective thinking during student teaching. Fishman and Raver (1989) explored the value of such a journaling activity between an English education student teacher and her cooperating teacher. The journals became an important tool in the process of developing, uncovering, and reinforcing meanings between the cooperating teacher and student teacher. Their dialogues provided an orientation into teaching and encouraged both professionals to critically analyze and mold the experiences they shared. Initially, the two participants utilized the journals to assist them in clarifying their roles in this new professional relationship. As their relationship developed, the journals "brought insight, complexity, and stability...increasing the personal and professional value of the experience for both of us" (p. 92).

Value to student teacher. Fishman and Raver's (1989) qualitative study also indicated that both the teacher candidate and the cooperating teacher could benefit from a dialogue journaling experience. For B. J., the student teacher, responding through the dialogue journal gave her the confidence to be assertive in resolving issues. In addition, she became more reflective and self-conscious of the implications of her daily pedagogical decisions on a broader, social basis. For example, her analysis of student assessments and discipline focused on the value and equity of "neat boxes", i.e. the only correct answers or one-size-fits-all conduct policies (Fishman & Raver, 1989, p. 97). The dialogue journals provided B. J. opportunities to express her thoughts, feelings, and opinions without fear of negative reactions from her cooperating teacher. The student teacher was empowered to direct, redirect, and focus her professional development

(Lyons, 1998; Stickel & Waltman, 1994). Fishman credited the journaling process for providing "the space and time" that allowed her student teacher to transition from "herself as herself to herself as a teacher" (p. 104). Subsequently, the dialogue journaling process allowed the cooperating teacher access to B.J.'s concerns, thoughts, ideas, and feelings in order to assist and support as she developed professionally.

Value to cooperating teacher. Not only did B. J., the student teacher, benefit from the dialogue journaling process, but her cooperating teacher also was empowered by the experience. First, the journaling process enabled the cooperating teacher to more effectively assess the student teacher's performance. Fishman and Raver (1989) noted that through the journals the cooperating teacher became more aware of changes and growth in the student teacher's instructional methods and classroom practice. Consequently, she was able to provide feedback that was relevant, specific, and reflective.

Second, through written dialogue the cooperating teacher was forced to reflect upon and communicate her values and beliefs that influenced years of teaching practice and instructional decisions (Fishman & Raver, 1989). Therefore, the journals served to raise the professional awareness of the cooperating teacher.

Third, the cooperating teacher increased her conscious awareness of her own instructional styles and pedagogies (Fishman & Raver, 1989). Fishman, the cooperating teacher, realized that B.J.'s responses and reactions to the teaching experience were unique and very different from her own reactions and interpretations. Specifically, it was noted that through the dialogue journal the cooperating teacher became conscious of a paradigm shift, namely from an egocentric view of the classroom to an interactive one,

responsible for the development of her current disciplinary style. The researchers noted, "despite the dramatic nature of this switch, however, I was unaware of it when it happened; not until I described it in my journal did I realize what I'd learned (Fishman & Raver, 1989, p. 103). Therefore, on-going dialogue between the preservice teacher and cooperating teacher resulted in a unique professional learning experience for both.

Conclusion

Teacher education researchers have begun to recognize the importance of structuring opportunities that engage teaching interns in dialogue about their student teaching experiences. Dialogue journals can serve as an excellent medium for engaging student teachers and cooperating teachers in reflective conversations about the challenges of teaching in diverse and complex schools (Schiller et al., 1994). Specifically, through these journals student teachers can begin the process of reflecting upon the impact of their preconceived beliefs and expectations of students from diverse cultural and socio economic backgrounds. In addition, the dialogue journals can be used as a formative evaluation tool by helping "student teachers assess and appreciate what they have learned, what they are learning, and what they have yet to learn" (Fishman & Raver, 1989, p. 106). By engaging cooperating teachers in this process of authentic self-assessment, student teachers will benefit from the expertise and insight of experienced urban teachers, voices that should be heard in order to prepare future teachers to successfully teach diverse students (Ilmer et al., 1997; Tellez, 1996; Villegas & Lucas, 2002; Wiggins & Follo, 1999).

Summary of Literature Review

The racial, ethnic, and socio economic dichotomies that currently exist between the makeup of the urban public school student population and the teachers who are responsible for educating them pose valid concerns for teacher educators. Researchers have investigated the impact of students' socio-economic status and race on both inservice and preservice teacher expectancies. Clifton, Perry, Parsonson, and Hryniuk (1986) concluded that students' academic performance and their ethnicity had the same effect as well as the largest total effects on teachers' expectations of their students' behaviors. Likewise, Hurrell's (1995) study emphasized ethnicity as a factor when teachers were asked to label students as disruptive. Focusing specifically on race, ethnicity, and social class, Dusek and Joseph's (1983) meta-analysis reviewed expectancy studies spanning three decades. The results supported the hypothesis that teachers based expectations of their students' academic potential on specific student characteristics.

The review and discussion of these studies support the need to address the preservice teachers' expectations of their students' academic potential based on race, ethnicity, and socio-economic status. Though available studies are limited, three specific to preservice teachers expectations based on race and socio-economic status were reviewed. Teacher education students are likely to explain ethnically based disparities in academic achievement to student characteristics linked to cultural factors (Avery & Walker, 1993) and hold different expectations for students from different racial and linguistic backgrounds (Terrill & Mark, 2000). Not surprisingly, Tettegah (1997) also noted that preservice teachers' expectations of students' academic performance and classroom behaviors vary dependent upon the racial/ethnic backgrounds of the students.

In addition, researchers have been able to identify common qualities in teachers who are considered significant by their students, principals, and parents. Consequently, preservice teachers must be engaged in field experiences, discussions, and reflections that foster the development of these qualities. A crucial starting point should be reflection on their values and assumptions based on ethnicity and socio economic status resulting from their prior educational background and experiences. A review of Payne's (1994) study supported the influence of race/ethnicity when teachers were asked to identify which ethnic group of students they expected to behavior in institutionally appropriate ways. Payne (1994) and Garmon's (1998) qualitative studies revealed information about teachers' and preservice teachers' level of openness with their students and their beliefs and feelings regarding their ability to teach diverse students.

Next, a theoretical base was established for the development of reflective skills in preservice teachers. Based on the philosophies of Dewey (1933) and Schon (1988), characteristics of critically reflective educators were identified and emphasized as essential for urban teachers (Weiner, 1999). The advantages of reflection for educators, preservice and inservice, were discussed including enhancement and assessment of one's own professional development (Rodriguez & Sjostrom, 1998; Stickel & Waltman, 1994), commitment to addressing challenging problems and concerns (Terrill & Mark, 2000; Osterman, 1990), and reflection upon the social and political context of public schooling (Elbaz, 1988; Gay, 1993; Gay & Kirkland, 2003; Liston & Zeichner, 1987; Smyth, 1989). Using Van Manen's (1991) levels of reflectivity of deliberative rationality, the inclusion and assessment of structured reflective activities during the student teaching field

experience was supported through relevant research studies (Collier, 1999; Galvez-Martin, 1998).

Consequently, the literature review established a framework for incorporating an autobiographical journaling process for preservice teachers during student teaching. The use of journals has traditionally been encouraged as an important communication tool between preservice teachers and their supervisors. More recently, however, journaling experiences have been developed to engage teacher candidates in reflection upon their existing beliefs and values regarding teaching through critical questions (Armaline & Hoover, 1989; Bolin, 1988; Ellsworth & Buss, 2000; Gay & Kirkland, 2003; Stickel & Waltman, 1994; Yost, 1997). Both Smyth (1989) and Hyun (1997) advocated having educators write their autobiographies and reflect on the influence of their biographical experiences in developing their value system and their expectations of students.

Qualitative studies were reviewed involving prospective teachers of science and math who were engaged in the autobiographical journaling process. Robinson and DiNizo (1996) studied a secondary science preservice teacher in reflection-on-action (Schon, 1993) of her personal science teaching experiences in order to better understand and inform subsequent instructional practices. Talsma's (1996) and Ellsworth and Buss (2000) research studies are especially pertinent to this dissertation because elementary preservice teachers reflected upon their earlier educational experiences as students of science and math. The influences of the prospective teachers' elementary, middle, and high school educational experiences in science and math classes on their attitudes as elementary teachers were examined. Based on their science autobiographies, the

researchers noted that the prospective teachers began to consider how they would structure positive science or math experiences for their own students.

In addition, Hyun's (1997) study was noted because it specifically linked sensitivity for diversity and the autobiographical writing experience for preservice teachers. Rodriguez and Sjostrom (1998) concurred with other researchers (Hyun, 1997; Robinson & DiNizo, 1996; Smyth, 1989; Talsma, 1996; Trapedo-Dworsky & Cole, 1996) in support of engaging preservice teachers in critically reflective autobiographical writing activities.

The final section of this literature review examined the role of the cooperating teacher as a mentor in urban field experiences. Based upon the research of Guyton and Hidalgo (1995) and Gay (1995), urban mentors should possess unique skills and specific personal qualities. One important responsibility is to provide feedback and guidance to prospective teachers so that they can adapt to the needs of the diverse student population. Urban teachers must be encouraged to disclose their personal and pedagogical expertise of the urban educational context with preservice teachers (Ilmer et al., 1997; Ladson-Billings, 2000; Villegas & Lucas, 2002; Wiggins & Follo, 1999). Therefore, researchers support the expansion of the cooperating teacher's role as a valuable data source for improving urban teacher education, especially field experiences (Carter & Gonzalez, 1993; Connor & Killmer, 1995; Ilmer et al., 1997; Ladson-Billings, 1989, 2000).

The use of dialogue journals is supported as important teaching and learning tools (Bolin, 1988; Fishman & Raver, 1989; Schiller, et al., 1994; Tillman, 2003). The qualitative study by Fishman and Raver (1989) highlighted the value of the dialogue journaling process to both the student teacher and the cooperating teacher. Teacher

education scholars support the use of dialogue journals to initiate and sustain reflective conversations between student teachers and their cooperating teachers about the challenges of teaching in diverse schools (Schiller et al., 1994). Therefore, a research framework has been established for the utilization of a reflective dialogue journaling process between student teachers in urban field placements and their cooperating teachers.

Structured from an autobiographical perspective, this guided journaling process focused preservice teachers' reflections on the culture of their prior educational experiences, their values, expectations, attitudes and beliefs and how they differ from the educational culture of their urban students. Subsequently, it was hypothesized that these prospective teachers would realize and reflect upon the instructional consequences of their preconceived beliefs and expectations of students from diverse cultural and socio-economic backgrounds.

CHAPTER 3

Methodology

Research Design

The primary focus of this dissertation was to evaluate the impact of a reflective

dialogue journaling process between student teachers and their cooperating teachers on

the student teachers' level of cultural sensitivity toward racially and ethnically diverse

learners while examining their levels of reflection. Both quantitative and qualitative

methodologies were used in this study. The experimental design involved randomly

assigning subjects to one of three journaling conditions or levels: reflective dialogue

journaling with their cooperating teacher, reflective dialogue journaling with their

university supervisor, or the traditional student teaching journaling assignment. In other

words, the independent variable, the type of journaling process, had three levels. Along

with treatment, the source of feedback was examined in a single-classification analysis of

variance design. This between-subjects design allowed for an examination of mean

changes in the dependent variable based on the levels of the independent variable. The

dependent variable was the measure of the student teachers' levels of cultural sensitivity

toward racial and multicultural diversity.

The qualitative research design that was used in this study is based upon a

phenomenological tradition of inquiry (Creswell, 1998) and accepted assumptions about

the methodology of qualitative research. The focus of the qualitative approach is to

describe the meaning of an experience for several individuals (student teachers,

university supervisors, and cooperating teachers) about a concept or phenomenon

(reflective dialogue journaling). Focusing on processes and meanings provided insight into the participants' responses and reactions to the journaling experience.

The qualitative analysis used primarily assessed all student teachers' journals to determine the various levels of critical reflection used by the three groups of student teachers. Van Manen's (1991) three levels of reflectivity of deliberative rationality were used to analyze whether student teachers reflected at the technical, practical or critical levels. A student teacher reflecting at the first level, technical rationality, focused on practical instructional concerns and tended to examine how teaching strategies might impact acceptable levels of student achievement (Galvez-Martin & Bowman, 1998; Zeichner & Liston, 1987). Primarily, the means necessary to achieve goals is tantamount to the end results (McMahon, 1997). Practical reflection, the second level, involved clarifying and analyzing the means and goals simultaneously in consideration of the practitioner's personal experiences (Van Manen, 1977). Zeicher & Liston (1987) noted that all action is reviewed in terms of the beliefs, assumptions and values associated with it. Third, critical reflection engaged the preservice teacher in systematic analyses of past experiences to achieve self-understanding (Galvez-Martin & Bowman, 1998) using moral and ethical criteria to assess practice (Zeichner & Liston, 1987). This data was also triangulated with the quantitative results to provide additional insight into factors that influence changes in student teachers' sensitivity towards diverse learners.

Additionally, the reflective dialogue journals were analyzed to identify themes reflected in the university supervisors and cooperating teachers' responses and reactions to the journaling process. Of particular importance, were the relevance of the cooperating teachers' responses to the student teachers' journals. Not typically involved

in structured journaling experiences with student teachers, the cooperating teachers entries provided insight into the value of enhancing their engagement with student teachers during the culminating field experience.

Description of Subjects

Participants in the study included 30 female preservice students completing their certification in either Early Childhood Education or Elementary Education at a mid-size urban university, two university supervisors, and ten cooperating teachers. The subjects were a convenience sample of students enrolled in ESSE 586, Student Teaching for the spring 2003 semester and completed either a ten-week or seven-week internship in the Norfolk Public School system. In addition, because journaling is an important component of all student teaching internships, each student teacher received credit for their participation in this assignment. No one enrolled in the course was excluded from participation.

Demographic data was collected from all student teachers participating in the study using the *Demographic Data Questionnaire* (See Appendix B). Questions focused on areas of certification, gender, age, racial identification, and description of schools (rural, suburban, or urban). Eighty-three percent of the student teachers were Caucasian, 1% African American and .06% other. Ten student teachers were over 25 years old and 25 (67%) were between 22 and 25 years of age. Eighty percent (24 student teachers) described the schools their hometown during their school years as suburban, 13% (4) as rural, and .06% (2) as urban. Eighty percent were enrolled in the Early Childhood Education certification program and 20% in Elementary Education. Seventeen percent

(5) student teachers were seeking certification only, with the remainder, 83%, completing a master of education degree with certification.

Ten cooperating teachers from the Norfolk Public School District agreed to participate in the study by providing written feedback to their student teachers using the *A Reflective Dialogue Journal for Student Teachers: An Autobiographical Approach* (see Appendix A). Due to time constraints, one cooperating teacher decided not to participate after completing the second journal entry. In addition, the two adjunct university instructors who supervised all thirty student teachers agreed to journal with five student teachers using the dialogue journaling tool. Both cooperating teachers and university supervisors were given written information regarding the journaling process and specific strategies on encouraging reflective responses when providing feedback (see Appendix C).

For the purposes of this study, each university supervisor provided feedback to five student teachers using the reflective dialogue journaling instrument and used the traditional journaling tool with 5 other student teachers. The traditional journaling tool consisted of a list of ten open-ended generic questions about the student teacher's instructional focus each week. It was used solely as a communication tool between the student teacher and university supervisor (See Appendix D- *Weekly Journal*).

Setting

The Norfolk Public School System serves over 37,000 students of diverse racial, ethnic, and socio-economic backgrounds (National Center for Education Statistics, 2002). It is identified as a large central city school district with an under 18 population of 56, 352. According to 2000 census data (NCES, 2002), the racial distribution included:

African-American, 31,080; Asian, 1,199; Hispanic, 2,397; and White, 20,321. The total

number of teachers for the 2001-02 academic year was 2, 755 (NCES, 2002).

All student teachers were assigned to an elementary school in the Norfolk Public

School system for either a 7- or 10-week student teaching placement. All student

teachers were assigned a cooperating teacher (classroom teacher) and a university

supervisor. For the purposes of this investigation, the student teachers were engaged in a

journaling process with either their cooperating teacher or university supervisors for the

first six weeks of their student teaching internship. It was critical that the journaling

occur while the student teachers were completing their urban placements, the majority of

which were 7 weeks long. In an earlier qualitative study, the cooperating teacher noted

that the through the journaling process the student teacher's thinking had progressed to a

more critical level in only six weeks (Fishman & Raver, 1989).

Instrumentation

The student teachers in the two experimental groups used a researcher-developed

instrument, *A Reflective Dialogue Journal for Student Teachers: An Autobiographical

Approach* (see Appendix A). The *Reflective Dialogue Journal for Student Teachers*

directed the student teachers in the two experimental groups to develop an educational

autobiography. In addition, these student teachers journaled with either a cooperating

teacher or university supervisor and reflected upon the feedback they received.

Based on *Field Experience: Strategies for Exploring Diversity in Schools* by

Powell, Zehm, and Garcia (1996), The *Reflective Dialogue Journal for Student Teachers:

An Autobiographical Approach* guided student teachers through a structured process that

encouraged recognition of the influence of their prior educational experiences and

reflection upon the beliefs, values, and assumptions they possessed about the role of family and community in the educational process. Because it is important that this increased awareness be linked to classroom instruction (Powell, Zehm, and Garcia, 1996), student teachers also reflected upon the implications of their values and prior experiences on their instructional strategies and behaviors as teachers. Therefore, journal topics and questions were designed to direct student teachers to examine their preconceived beliefs and values and how they shape and impact their expectations and practices for teaching culturally diverse students (Goethals & Howard, 2000; Powell, Zehm, & Garcia, 1996). Through this dialogue journaling process, student teachers also examined their strengths and weaknesses as prospective teachers and recognized the value of becoming a reflective teacher (Colton & Sparks-Langer, 1993; Goethals & Howard, 2000; Zeichner & Liston, 1987).

Instrument design. A Reflective Dialogue Journal for Student Teachers: An Autobiographical Approach (See Appendix A) is structured for use during a six-week period by student teachers in an urban field experience. Each week student teachers were directed to reflect upon a different topic by responding to a series of questions. The six topics are: Week 1 – Influential Teachers; Week 2 – Schooling: A Personal Experience; Week 3 - Family Values Toward Education; Week 4 – Schools and the Community; Week 5 – Teaching-Related Experiences; Week 6 – My Educational Autobiography. The questions that accompany each reflection topic provided the student teachers with a framework for structuring their responses. Questions were adapted from *Field Experience: Strategies for Exploring Diversity in Schools*, Chapter 3, "Examining Your

Autobiography and Beliefs," Activities 3.1 - 3.4 (Powell, Zehm, & Garcia, 1996, pp. 43-54).

Other teacher educators have emphasized also the importance of encouraging student teachers to think about teaching (Armaline & Hoover, 1989; Surbeck, Han, & Moyer, 1991) and to reflect upon the implications of their prior educational experiences, values, assumptions, and beliefs upon their instructional practices (Canning, 1991; Grant & Zeichner, 1984) through journaling activities. Providing structure and focus by specifying journal topics and questions has been recommended as a catalyst to encourage more in-depth sharing by preservice teachers (Elbaz, 1988). In addition, the final reflective topic, "My Educational Autobiography" encouraged student teachers to review the five previous journal entries, cumulatively reflecting upon the feelings, thoughts, and concerns that emerged throughout the six weeks of journaling (Powell, Zehm, & Garcia, 1996).

A Reflective Dialogue Journal for Student Teachers: An Autobiographical Approach differed in two distinct ways in comparison to Powell, Zehm, and Garcia's (1996) journaling activities. First, each student teacher's cooperating teacher or university supervisor provided written feedback to the student teacher each week. Viewed as a critical component of the student teaching supervisory relationship, formative written feedback is essential to the professional growth of the teaching intern (Bolin, 1988; Colton & Sparks-Langer, 1993; McMahon, 1997). In fact, though university supervisors provided consistent written feedback (McMahon, 1997), the majority of feedback from cooperating teachers tended to be informal, non-specific, and verbal (Wilkins-Canter, 1997). Therefore, this journaling experience required both the cooperating teachers and

university supervisors to respond in writing to the student teachers' journal entries. This feedback was in the form of probing questions, affirmations, supportive comments, or reflective remarks (Canning, 1991).

Second, the *Reflective Dialogue Journal for Student Teachers* directed student teachers to reflect and respond in writing to the feedback provided by their cooperating teacher or university supervisor. This reflective dialogue was qualitatively analyzed to examine at what levels student teachers reflected (Van Manen, 1977) and the nature of the written feedback provided by the university supervisors and cooperating teachers. Limited student teachers' reflections about practice and the amount of written feedback from cooperating teachers have been directly linked to the quality and quantity of feedback provided to student teachers during clinical experiences (Wilkins-Canter, 1997).

Instrument validation. During the spring 2002 semester, nine student teachers, five cooperating teachers, and two university supervisors volunteered to use the *Reflective Dialogue Journal for Student Teachers: An Autobiographical Approach* for six weeks in order to provide feedback to the researcher regarding the usability and clarity of the instrument. Prior to the beginning of student teaching, the researcher met briefly with all volunteers and reviewed the journaling activity. A copy of the instrument was distributed to everyone. Five student teachers were randomly selected to journal with their cooperating teachers and of the remaining 4, two were assigned to each university supervisor. All student teachers were instructed to turn in a completed dialogue journal entry each week during their weekly student teaching seminars. All student teachers completed the six-week reflective dialogue journaling experience.

To assess the clarity and relevance of the *Reflective Dialogue Journal for Student Teachers: An Autobiographical Approach*, all participants were asked to rate each set of reflective topics and/or questions (on a 3-point Likert-type scale) on clarity, level of thoughtfulness and relevance. The student teachers also indicated the degree to which they felt comfortable responding to each question. In addition, each responded in writing to five open-ended questions regarding the dialogue journaling process itself (see Appendix D – *Instrument Validation Study*).

The *Reflective Dialogue Journal for Student Teachers: An Autobiographical Approach* was the subject of a 90-minute focus group conducted by the researcher with the nine student teachers who used the instrument during their final field experience. Each participant completed the questionnaire and then discussed their reactions (cognitive and affective) to each item. An analysis of each criterion for the six reflection topics generated an overall mean score for each set of topics or questions. The following reflection topics receiving a mean of less than 2.75 (a "3" rating indicated very clear, thoughtful, comfortable and relevant items) were either rewritten or eliminated: Week 2, Week 5, Topic B, and Week 6. The majority of the student teachers critiques' addressed the length and repetitiveness of these questions. Consequently, the written and verbal feedback received from the validation study was used to revise the reflection topics and questions, eliminating repetition and verbose prompts.

Overall, eight of the nine student teachers agreed that the *Reflective Dialogue Journal for Student Teachers: An Autobiographical Approach* was a valuable reflective tool and enjoyed the process in spite of their time constraints. Three of the nine felt that if they had had more time to answer each question they would have provided more

thoughtful and reflective responses. All nine student teachers stated they felt comfortable sharing their personal feelings, thoughts, and perspectives with their university supervisors or cooperating teachers. It was also recommended that the journaling instrument be redesigned to allow student teachers to either type or write their entries without space constraints. Consequently, student teachers participating in the actual study were given that option.

Three of the five cooperating teachers and one of the two university supervisors returned feedback forms. All reflection topics and/or questions received a mean of 2.5 or higher (a "3" rating indicated very clear, thoughtful, and relevant items) in all three areas rated. However, the following topics received a mean of less than 2.75 and were revised: Week 5, Topics A & B and Week 6. The student teachers also rated Week 5, Reflection Topic B and Week 6, Reflection Topic below 2.75 as well.

An analysis of the written responses indicated that all five mentors felt they had adequate time to respond to the student teachers' entries and were comfortable responding to entries of this nature. Two respondents suggested that Reflection Topic-Week 5, A & B, be condensed to shorter, more focused questions that would encourage more thoughtful, specific responses from the student teachers. Additionally, the university supervisor suggested that student teachers have the option of typing their responses and securing them in a binder or folder. These suggestions were incorporated into the design of the actual study.

Independent Variables

A pretest posttest control group experimental design examined the manipulation of one independent variable: type of journaling condition. The three journaling

conditions or levels included reflective dialogue journaling with a cooperating teacher, reflective dialogue journaling with a university supervisor, or traditional journaling with a university supervisor. All student teachers were randomly assigned to one of the three groups. The three groups were compared to determine the influence of using a reflective dialogue journaling tool on the student teachers' level of cultural sensitivity toward diverse learners.

To limit the potential effects of subject reactivity to experimental conditions, all student teachers were involved in a journaling assignment during their student teaching field experience. Although there were differences in the journaling processes in which they were engaged, it was expected that all student teachers would participate and receive feedback from either their university supervisor or cooperating teacher throughout their field experience.

Role of university supervisors. It is important to address the role of the university supervisors in this study. Both supervisors were participants in the study as they dialogued with student teachers that were randomly assigned to their groups. Therefore, it was important that they remained "blind" to the experimental hypotheses. Additionally, because the university supervisors were also responsible for structuring and monitoring the student teaching field experience for all students, they were instructed not to discuss or elaborate on the journal reflection topics during student teaching seminars. This was to ensure that student teachers' dialogues relating to journal topics occurred only within the conditions of the level of the independent variable to which the students were assigned. It was appropriate, however, for the supervisor to assist any student teacher who was having logistical problems in journaling with their cooperating teacher.

The supervisors also were asked to remind all student teachers of the importance of completing the journal entries weekly in order to receive credit for the assignment. No additional training of supervisors was necessary.

Role of cooperating teachers. Because classroom teachers are not required to attend training/in-service sessions prior to serving as a cooperating teacher, instructions were provided in writing to all participating teachers (see Appendix F). The cooperating teachers were asked to provide written supportive feedback to the student teachers' reflections. This feedback could include probing questions, reflective thoughts, and affirming responses (Canning, 1990 as cited in Sparks-Langer & Colton, 1991).

Bolin (1988) noted that such responses in journals from university supervisors often form the basis for extensive dialogue with student teachers. Consequently, by using a structured journaling activity, this study examined this interactive process between the cooperating teacher and student teacher. Though cooperating teachers are encouraged to share conceptual knowledge about teaching with student teachers (Carter & Gonzalez, 1993), few field experiences provide structured opportunities for doing so.

Dependent Variables

The dependent variable in this study was the student teachers' level of cultural sensitivity. The levels of cultural sensitivity toward diversity were measured quantitatively using the *Quick Discrimination Index (QDI)* (Ponterro & Pederson, 1993) (see Appendix G – *Social Attitude Survey*). Each student teacher was administered the QDI at the beginning of their student teaching field experience and following the six-week journaling activity to assess changes in their levels of cultural sensitivity toward diverse learners. Dependent *t* tests were performed to compare the pre and post test

means of the two subscale scores of the *QDI* for both experimental groups. Using an

analysis of covariance, QDI scores were tested to determine whether the mean scores of

the students in the three groups differed significantly. Consequently, between, within,

and total group variances also were examined. In addition, comparisons were computed

to determine:

1.   Are treatment methods 1 (journaling with a cooperative teacher) and 2

        (journaling with a university supervisor) significantly different from

        each other?

2.   Are methods 1 and 2, together, significantly different from control

        method 3 (traditional journaling)?

Data Collection Instrument

        The Quick Discrimination Index (QDI) (Ponterro & Pederson, 1993) is a 30-item,

Likert-type self-report inventory that measures attitudes toward racial diversity and

women's equality. To control for possible evaluation apprehension, the title "Social

Attitude Survey" appears on the instrument instead of "Quick Discrimination Index"

(Ponterotto, Burkard, Rieger, Grieger, D'Onofrio, Dubuisson, et al., 1995). Applicable

across racial and ethnic groups, it is appropriate for late adolescents and adults. Factor

analyses indicated the instrument measures three dimensions of attitudes: 1) cognitive

attitudes about racial diversity and multiculturalism, 2) affective attitudes relative to

racial diversity in one's personal life, and 3) general attitudes regarding women's equity

issues (Ponterotto et al, 1995).

        Instructions for completing the survey were printed on each survey form.

Subjects were informed that the survey is anonymous and that there are no right or wrong

answers. All 30 items were placed on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly

disagree (1), not sure (3), to strongly agree (5). Approximately half of the survey items

were written in reverse order to control for response bias.

The QDI can be scored using two methods (Ponterotto et al, 1995) (see Appendix

G for scoring directions). Method 1 uses the total QDI score that measures one's overall

awareness, receptivity and sensitivity to cultural diversity and gender equality. The

second method, the Three-Factor Model, involves scoring three sets of items separately.

This scoring procedure generates three separate subscales: Factor 1: General (Cognitive)

Attitudes toward Racial Diversity/Multiculturalism; Factor 2: Affective Attitudes toward

More Personal Contact (Closeness) with Racial Diversity; and Factor 3: Attitudes toward

Women's Equity. Because this study focuses specifically on one's attitudes, personal

views, and perceptions toward racial and ethnic diversity, the surveys were scored using

the three-factor model method. Subscales 1 and 2 were used for the statistical analyses.

Ponterotto et al. (1995) recommended using this scoring method instead of the QDI total

score because confirmatory factor analysis studies supported the construct validity of this

scoring model.

Reliability of the QDI. Reliability analyses include the different ways in which

data collected from the Quick Discrimination Index (Ponterotto & Pederson, 1993) could

be generalized. An examination of the following three forms of reliability was most

appropriate for this study: 1) scorer generalizability, 2) temporal stability, and 3) internal

consistency.

It is often assumed by users of self-report measures such as the QDI that it is not

necessary to ensure scorer reliability because most are scored using keys or computers

(Cone & Foster, 1993). Even when this is the case, however, it is recommended that researchers test the reliability of their scoring procedures. Although Ponterotto and Pederson (1993) provided detailed instructions (see Appendix G, Scoring Directions for the Quick Discrimination Index) to hand-score the QDI surveys, scorer reliability was checked during the scoring process. This was important because the scorer is directed to score only selected items (Method Two) and to reverse-score specific items (both Methods One and Two increasing the possibility for errors. Consequently, when scoring both pre-and post-test QDI surveys collected for this study, a second person, other than the researcher, independently scored 25% of the answer sheets (Cone & Foster, 1993). The two sets of scores were compared for discrepancies in scoring and corrected. This double-scoring procedure provided evidence that the dependent variable, attitudes towards racial and ethnic diversity, was being reliably scored.

The second form of reliability, temporal generalizability, referred to the test retest stability of the QDI over time. Ponterotto et al. (1995) conducted 15-week test-retest coefficients on the QDI factors using 37 college undergraduate students enrolled in a psychology class and two business classes. The mean stability coefficients across the three classes for each factor were: Factor 1-.90, Factor 2-.82, and Factor 3- .81. The researchers concluded that for a 15-week interval, the stability coefficients were satisfactory. However, they did recognize the need for additional test-retest studies of varying time intervals.

Because the current study examined changes in the student teachers' sensitivity toward racial diversity over a 6-week interval, it was important to know mean differences in scores that are normally expected over a 6-week interval. Therefore, the inclusion of a

control group allowed the researcher not only to examine the stability of the scores of student teachers in the experimental groups on the QDI over a 6-week interval, but also to assess the mean differences in the scores of the experimental groups as compared to the control group.

Internal consistency studies (Ponterotto et al., 1995; Utsey & Ponterotto, 1999) were conducted on the Quick Discrimination Index to determine whether each score adequately measured cognitive attitudes toward racial and multicultural diversity, affective attitudes towards racial diversity, and attitudes toward women's equity. In the initial studies, Ponterotto et al. (1995) conducted separate item correlation studies on both the total QDI score and the subscales scores. Focusing on the total QDI score, Study 1 generated a Cronbach's alpha of .89 and a mean corrected item-total correlation of .45 (Ponterotto et al., 1995). These findings were consistent with the results of Study 2, which included a more diverse sample population (Ponterotto et al., 1995). The mean corrected item-total correlation was .42 with a Cronbach's alpha of .88.

In addition, two studies validated the internal consistency of QDI subscale scores. Study 2 (Ponterotto et al., 1995) also examined the coefficient alphas of the QDI separate subscales. Moderate, but significant correlations, p less than .01, were noted. In a third study, Utsey and Ponterotto (1999) concluded that Factor 1 had strong indicators of internal consistency with satisfactory levels for Factors II and III.

Validity of the QDI. The Quick Discrimination Index (QDI) has been validated through a series of empirical studies (Ponterotto et al., 1995; Utsey & Ponterotto, 1999). Initial validation studies using item and factor structure analyses established face and content validity (Ponterotto et al., 1995). Criterion-related validity studies were also

conducted assessing the total score in one study and examining each of the QDI subscales separately in a subsequent study. Both scoring models were found to be criterion valid and internally consistent.

When assessing a psychological construct such as one's sensitivity to racial and ethnic diversity, it was important to examine the construct validity of the instrument being used. The QDI has both convergent and discriminant validity. In Study 3, Ponterotto et al. (1995) established convergent validity by correlating the QDI's three subscales with two other instruments that focused on racial attitudes and multicultural sensitivity, respectfully: 1) The New Racism Scale (NRS) (Jacobson, 1985 as cited in Ponterotto et al., 1995) and 2) The Multicultural Counseling Awareness Scale (MCAS) (Ponterotto et al., 1993 as cited in Ponterotto et al., 1995). As expected, the NRS correlated significantly with all three QDI factors. Four of the six comparisons between the MCAS and QDI were significant. Consequently, the researchers concluded that the collective results supported the convergent validity of the QDI (Ponterotto et al., 1995, p.1028).

Of particular significance when using self-report measures was the establishment of the instrument's discriminant validity (Cone & Foster, 1993). In Study 3, Ponterotto et al. (1995) also correlated the QDI subscale scores with the Social Desirability Scale (SDS) (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960 as cited in Ponterotto et al., 1995). The SDS measured an individual's need for approval in a "culturally acceptable manner" (p. 1027). The ODI correlations with the SDS ranged from -.04 to -.19 indicating that the ODI was independent of social desirability contamination. Therefore, it was expected that

individuals, 17 years old and older, likely would respond honestly to the QDI survey questions.

Qualitative Analysis

The qualitative analyses process for this study was primarily inductive, focusing on cataloging and analyzing data in journal entries written by the student teachers, cooperating teachers and university supervisors. Codes created from the research questions, conceptual frameworks, and key variables used in this study (Miles & Huberman, (1994) were used as labels to assign meanings to descriptive and inferential information written in the journals.

The student teachers' entries were coded to identify patterns in their responses according to Van Manen's (1997) three levels of reflectivity (see List of Codes in Appendix H). The first level, technical rationality, identified focus on teaching strategies and student achievement. Student teachers reflecting at this level were not likely to recognize institutional issues relating to classroom, school, community, or society as problematic (Zeichner & Liston, 1987). Practical reflection, the second level, was coded to identify a focus on the application of teaching strategies and student achievement simultaneously as well as self-reflective activity (Van Manen, 1977). Reflecting at this level included questioning one's motives and decisions in a critical context (McMahon, 1997) in terms of the beliefs, assumptions and values associated with it (Liston, 1987). The last level, critical reflection, identified the preservice teacher engaged in systematic analyses of past experiences to achieve self-understanding (Galvez-Martin & Bowman, 1998) using moral, ethical, and political criteria to assess practice and critique social institutions (McMahon, 1997; Zeichner & Liston, 1987). This level of reflective activity

was coded to note a focus on past experiences, societal issues, and use of questioning and self-criticism.

Comparisons were made between the reflective levels and categories of student teachers who journaled with their cooperating teachers and those who journaled with a university supervisor. Additionally, data from this qualitative analysis on reflection was triangulated with the results of the quantitative data regarding sensitivity towards racial and cultural diversity. As previously noted, the literature suggested a relationship between one's reflective abilities and their sensitivity and attitudes towards learners with diverse racial and cultural backgrounds (Garmon, 1998; Ladson-Billing, 1994; Weiner, 1999). Therefore, through analytic induction (Silverman, 2001), both quantitative (racial and cultural sensitivity) and qualitative (reflective levels) data were explored to more fully understand their relationship within the dialogue journaling process. Consequently, internal validity of the qualitative analysis was addressed.

In addition, journal entries written by the cooperating teachers and university supervisors were coded to identify reoccurring themes and comments. Creswell (1994) suggested the identification of categories denoting major and minor themes. Consequently, during the analysis the data was organized categorically, reviewed repeatedly, and continually coded. This process of data reduction allowed the researcher to compare and contrast themes (Creswell, 1994) that emerged from the journal responses written by the cooperating teachers and university supervisors.

It is important to note that this data was generated based on student teachers' responses without specific guidelines to structure the responses from the university supervisors or cooperating teachers. Therefore, a systematic process of analyzing

unstructured textual data was used (Tesch, 1990 as cited in Creswell, 1994). Miles and

Huberman (1994) recommended using codes to retrieve and organize segments of data.

Based on conceptual frameworks established in Chapter 2, the cooperating teachers and

university supervisors' responses were analyzed based on the six qualities of urban

mentors (Gay, 1995; Guyton & Hildago, 1995). (See List of Codes in Appendix H.)

Following this first level coding process, the summaries of the cooperating

teachers and university supervisors' journal responses were analyzed to identify themes,

causes and explanations, relationships among participants, and emerging constructs

(Miles & Huberman, 1994). This process of pattern coding linked pieces of data together

for inferential analysis. As a result, the process of mentoring that includes providing

feedback to student teachers was better understood through an examination of patterns,

recurrences, and explanations.

Last, student teachers and cooperating teachers were asked to complete a brief

Likert-type survey to assess their degree of satisfaction and comfort with the reflective

dialogue journaling activity (see Appendix C). The written responses were analyzed to

identify common themes in the student teachers, cooperating teachers, and university

supervisors' perceptions of the journaling process.

Procedure

All student teachers enrolled in ESSE 586, Student Teaching for the spring 2003

semester were randomly assigned to one of three groups using a table of random numbers

(Spatz, 1993). Two groups of student teachers engaged in dialogue journaling with either

their cooperating teachers (Group 1) or their university supervisors (Group 2) during their

final teaching internship course. A third group (Group 3) used the traditional journaling

instrument required by the teacher education program. A letter was sent to the cooperating teachers of those student teachers in Group 1 explaining the journaling study and requesting their participation (see Appendix F for copies of the letter and informed consent form).

Prior to beginning their student teaching field experience, all student teachers were administered the Quick Discrimination Index (Ponterro & Pederson, 1993) as a pretest to assess their attitudes toward racial diversity and gender equity. Demographic data and informed consent were also obtained at this time (see Appendix F). All student teachers were given a journaling instrument to be used during their field experience with written instructions. Due to the nature of the assignment, the content of the journal entries were not graded, however, participation points were awarded for turning in a completed journal. Instructions were given so that all groups believed their journaling experience was unique.

A Reflective Dialogue Journal for Student Teachers: An Autobiographical Approach is a structured journaling process. Student teachers in the two experimental groups responded to a different reflective topic each week for six weeks. They turned in their journals weekly to either their cooperating teacher or university supervisor who wrote a reflective response to the student teachers' entries. After reading their cooperating teachers' or university supervisors' comments, the student teachers shared a final reflective comment in their journal. The group of student teachers journaling with their cooperating teachers was not engaged in a written journaling activity with their university supervisors. Likewise, those journaling with their university supervisor did not journal with their cooperating teachers.

The third group of student teachers or control group used the weekly feedback forms required of all student teachers enrolled in the college's teacher education program. They responded to a list of topics or questions in order to provide feedback to their university supervisors regarding their internship experience. There were no written journaling between this group of student teachers and their cooperating teachers.

During weekly seminars, university supervisors reminded student teachers of the importance of responding to the weekly reflection topics and adhering to the specified timeline. To limit the influence of interaction effects, the university supervisors were instructed not to discuss the journal questions or topics during the weekly student teaching seminars.

At the conclusion of the six-week journaling experience, the researcher met with all student teachers during a scheduled seminar. At this time, all journals were collected and copied. Student teachers were administered the Quick Discrimination Index (Ponterro & Pederson, 1993) as a post-test to assess any changes in their levels of cultural sensitivity. In addition, each student teacher completed *The Teaching Interns' Feedback Survey* to gather information regarding their perceptions of the journaling activity. University supervisors and cooperating teachers completed a similar survey, *University Supervisors/Cooperating Teachers' Feedback Survey.*

CHAPTER 4

Analysis of Data

Both quantitative and qualitative methods of analysis were used to determine the influence of an autobiographical dialogue journaling activity on student teachers' levels of cultural sensitivity and reflection skills. Quantitative analysis was used to determine the significance of the journaling experience on cultural sensitivity levels and the participants' attitudes toward the journaling experiences. Qualitative data analysis examined the content of journal entries to determine the student teachers' levels of reflection (Van Manen's, 1991) and the content of written feedback provided by the cooperating teachers and university supervisors. Consequently, data analysis responded to these research questions:

1. To what extent does an autobiographical dialogue journaling activity between student teachers in urban elementary classrooms and their cooperating teachers increase the student teachers' levels of cultural sensitivity toward diverse learners?

2. To what extent does an autobiographical dialogue journaling activity between student teachers in urban elementary classrooms and their university supervisors increase student teachers' levels of cultural sensitivity toward diverse learners?

3. Were there significant differences between changes in levels of cultural sensitivity of student teachers who journal with their cooperating teachers and university supervisors using the autobiographical dialogue journal as

compared to those student teachers who use the traditional journaling instrument?

Qualitative analyses of journal entries explored the following:

4. Based on Van Manen's (1991) Levels of Reflectivity of Deliberative Rationality, at what levels did student teachers reflect?

5. Did common themes emerge in the journal entries of the student teachers?

6. What were the differences and similarities in the themes of the written feedback from the university supervisors and cooperating teachers?

7. To what extent did the participants perceive that the reflective dialogue journaling activity contributed to the quality of the student teaching experience?

Twenty-nine student teachers were administered the *Quick Discrimination Index (QDI)* (Ponterro & Pederson, 1993) as a pre and posttest assessment of their level of cultural sensitivity. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests were used to determined significant differences in pretest QDI scores. Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) tests assessed differences in posttest scores among the three groups and dependent *t*-tests assessed significant increases in pre and posttest scores of Group 1 and Group 2. All tests utilized the two subscale scores for each student teacher: Factor 1: General (Cognitive) Attitudes Toward Racial Diversity/Multiculturalism and Factor 2: Affective Attitudes Toward More Personal Contact (Closeness) with Racial Diversity in order to answer the three quantitative research questions.

Autobiographical Journaling with Cooperating Teachers

Research question 1: To what extent does an autobiographical dialogue journaling activity between student teachers in urban elementary classrooms and their cooperating teachers increase the student teachers' levels of cultural sensitivity toward diverse learners as measured by their scores on the Quick Discrimination Index (QDI)? Dependent *t* tests were used to compare the pre and posttest means of the two subscale scores for the first treatment group, student teachers who journaled with a cooperating teacher (ST/CT). The pretest mean score for Factor 1: General (Cognitive) Attitudes Toward Multiculturalism (score range = 9 - 45) was 29.40; the mean posttest score was 30.30 (see Table 3). The paired test comparison was not significant at p <.05 level (see Table 4). There was no significant difference in this group of student teachers' cognitive level of cultural sensitivity following the six-week journaling activity.

Paried samples tests for Factor 2: Affective Attitudes Toward More Personal Contact (Closeness) with Racial Diversity (score range = 7 – 35) scores did not result in significant values for changes in the students' levels of cultural sensitivity (see Table 6). The mean posttest score was .20 points lower than the students' pretest scores. The mean pretest score for this group was 25.20; the mean posttest score was 25.00 (see Table 5).

Table 3

Paired Samples Statistics for QDI Factor 1 Scores

Group	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error of Mean
ST/CT Pretest	29.40	10	3.77	1.19
ST/CT Posttest	30.30	10	7.02	2.22
ST/US Pretest	32.50	10	3.57	1.13
ST/US Posttest	32.60	10	3.03	.96
ST	33.89	9	3.82	1.27

ST	35.33	9	3.87		1.29

Table 4

Paired Samples Differences Test for QDI Factor 1 Scores

Group Pair	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
ST/CT Pre/Posttest	-.9000	4.25	-.67	9	.52
ST/US Pre/Posttest	-.1000	2.47	-.13	9	.90
ST	-1.44	2.24	-1.93	8	.09

Table 5

Paired Samples Statistics for QDI Factor 2 Scores

Group	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error of Mean
ST/CT Pretest	25.20	10	4.76	1.50
ST/CT Posttest	25.00	10	4.35	1.37
ST/US Pretest	24.10	10	2.77	.87
ST/US Posttest	25.70	10	3.34	1.05
ST	27.56	9	3.50	1.17
ST	27.44	9	3.05	1.02

Table 6

Paired Samples Differences Test for QDI Factor 2 Scores

Group Pair	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
ST/CT Pre/Posttest	.20	1.75	.36	9	.73
ST/US Pre/Posttest	-1.60	2.76	-1.84	9	.10
ST	.11	2.57	.13	8	.90

Autobiographical Journaling with University Supervisors

Research question 2: To what extent does an autobiographical dialogue journaling activity between student teachers in urban elementary classrooms and their university supervisors increase student teachers' levels of cultural sensitivity toward diverse learners as measured by their scores on the Quick Discrimination Index (QDI)? The *t* test comparison of Factor 1 resulted in no significant difference in the student teachers' cognitive level of cultural sensitivity after journaling with their university supervisors (see Table 4). The mean pretest score for Factor 1: General (Cognitive) Attitudes Toward Multiculturalism (score range = 9 - 45) was 32.50; the mean posttest score was 32.60 (see Table 3).

The mean pretest score of 24.10 and posttest mean of 25.70 for Factor 2: Affective Attitudes Toward More Personal Contact (Closeness) with Racial Diversity (score range = 7 – 35) also resulted in a statistically insignificant *t* test comparison for this group (see Table 6). The mean score of student teachers in this treatment group was the largest of the three groups. However, the use of the autobiographical dialogue journaling tool did not result in any increases in the students' levels of cultural sensitivity as measured by the QDI.

Analysis of Changes in Cultural Sensitivity among Groups

Research question 3: Results of the comparisons between mean posttest scores on the QDI for student teachers in the two treatment groups and the control group were calculated to answer question 3: Will there be significant differences between changes in levels of cultural sensitivity of student teachers who journal with their cooperating teachers and university supervisors using the autobiographical dialogue journal as

compared to those student teachers who use the traditional journaling instrument? The three treatment groups or levels were Group 1- Autobiographical Dialogue Journaling with a Cooperating Teacher (ST/CT), Group 2- Autobiographical Dialogue Journaling with a University Supervisor (ST/US), and Group 3- Traditional Journaling Activity (ST).

Although student teachers were assigned randomly to the treatment and control groups, the pretest scores of each group were not equal, so separate ANOVAs were conducted using Factors 1 and 2 QDI pretest scores to determine if the groups differed significantly in their initial levels of cultural sensitivity. The results showed a statistically significant difference at the .04 level for Factor 1 pretest scores. A Bonferroni post hoc test indicated significant differences in pretest scores of student teachers in Group 1 (ST/CT, autobiographical) and Group 3 (ST, traditional) (see Table 7). The ANOVA for Factor 2 pretest scores resulted in no significant differences among groups; however, the means were not equal. To statistically control for the influence of the student teachers' entering levels of cultural sensitivity, analysis of covariances (ANCOVA) were conducted using the pretest score as a covariate.

Table 7

Analysis of Variance – Factor 1 Pretest Scores

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between Groups	101.66	2	50.83	3.67	.04
Within Groups	359.79	26	13.84		
Total	461.49	28			

Bonferroni Multiple Comparisons – Factor 1 Pretest Scores

	Mean Difference	Standard Error	Sig.
ST & ST/CT	4.49	1.71	.04

Separate ANCOVAs were calculated for Factor 1: General (Cognitive) Attitudes Toward Multiculturalism and Factor 2: Affective Attitudes Toward More Personal Contact (Closeness) with Racial Diversity using QDI pretest scores as the covariate. Single factor analysis of covariances (ANCOVA) resulted in no significant differences among the mean posttest scores of the three groups of student teachers for either factor of the QDI (see Table 8). An examination of the differences in the F values between Factors 1 and 2 indicated that the groups of student teachers varied more in their personal affective attitudes toward cultural diversity than in their cognitive attitudes. Adjusted posttest means for Factors 1 and 2 are noted in Table 8. F values of .41 for Factor 1 and .37 for Factor 2 resulted in significance levels of .67 and .37 respectively.

Table 8

Analysis of Covariance Results for QDI Posttest Scores – Factors 1 & 2

Factors		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Between Groups	8.51	2	4.26	.41	.67
2	Between Groups	11.67	2	5.84	1.14	.37

Groups	Factor 1 – Adjusted Means	Factor 2 – Adjusted Means
ST/CT	32.86	25.27
ST/US	31.94	26.81
ST	33.27	25.91

Results of the ANCOVA indicated that there were no significant differences in the levels of cultural sensitivity as measured by posttest scores on the QDI between the groups of student teachers participating in the study. The use of *A Reflective Dialogue Journal for Student Teachers: An Autobiographical Approach* did not lead to statistically significant differences in the cultural sensitivity of student teachers that dialogued with their cooperating teachers or university supervisors and those student teachers that used the traditional journaling tool as measured by the *Quick Discrimination Index (QDI)*.

Qualitative methodologies were employed to analyze the student teachers' journal responses, written feedback provided by the cooperating teachers and university supervisors, and the participants' reactions and responses to the journaling process. These research questions and the conceptual frameworks upon which this study was based were used to assign meanings to the descriptive and inferential information in the journals and feedback surveys.

Student Teachers' Reflection Levels

Research question 4: Based on Van Manen's (1991) Levels of Reflectivity of Deliberative Rationality, at what levels did student teachers in each group tend to reflect? Overall, student teachers using the autobiographical dialogue journaling tool reflected at higher levels than student teachers in the control group. Using Van Manen's three levels of reflection (1991), a code list was developed to identify and label student teachers' written reflective comments (see List of Codes in Appendix H). Data was also catalogued and coded to identify reoccurring themes and patterns (Creswell, 1994; Miles & Huberman, 1994) for examination and interpretation.

Qualitative analysis of reflective levels. Using the list of codes (See Appendix H

for List of Codes) developed from Van Manen's (1991) Levels of Reflectivity of

Deliberative Rationality, twenty-nine journals were read and analyzed to determine the

levels at which the student teachers reflected. A process of intracoder (Miles &

Huberman, 1994) agreement was used to verify the qualitative coding of journal entries

and to clarify the list of codes. To verify the coding system, two journals were randomly

selected from each group (student teachers who journaled with a cooperating teacher,

student teachers who journaled with a university supervisor, and student teachers who

used the traditional journaling tool) and coded by the researcher using the list of codes

based on Van Manen's three levels of reflection. Results were recorded in a data

summary chart and initial reflection levels indicated. After approximately 1 to 2 weeks,

the researcher reread and recoded the journals using uncoded copies of the same journals.

Internal consistency was checked by comparing the coding of randomly selected entries

in the six journals. The researcher noted discrepancies in the coding of the student

teachers' entries. Operational definitions of each reflective level were then reviewed and

changes made in coding questionable entries based on the most relevant coding

designation.

Using the list of codes, the researcher read and coded the remaining twenty-three

journals. Key words and concepts associated with each reflective level were highlighted

and labeled using the list of Van Manen's codes. In addition, the researcher used

marginal notes to denote interpretations, raise questions, and point out important

concerns. Following the coding of each journal, the frequencies of reflective comments

at each level were recorded on data summary charts (see Appendix I for *Data Summary*

Charts). Data were charted for each student teacher based on the categories reflected in the coding matrix. A pattern of their reflective responses was examined to determine at what level reflection occurred. Recurrent responses of a particular level represented consistency (Miles & Huberman, 1994) in reflecting at that level; therefore, each journal was coded with an overall reflection level. In coding overall reflection levels, it was assumed that reflections at a higher level presumed that lower level reflections had occurred as well. Therefore, when student teachers reflected at the critical level they were also applying reflective skills at the two lower levels. The researcher also summarized marginal notes for each student teacher on the *Data Summary Chart*. (See Appendix I for *Data Summary Charts* for each group of student teachers.)

The following examples were extracted from the student teachers' journals to illustrate characteristics of reflective entries at each level. To provide further clarification of the coding process and delineation among entries at the various reflective levels, examples of coded entries for each reflective level are included in Appendix J for each group of student teachers.

Technical reflection. Student teachers reflecting at the first level, Technical Reflection, focused on particular teaching strategies without considering why the strategies would or would not be appropriate for their students. The entries reflected only what the student teacher would do and did not include elaborations on why a particular teaching strategies was chosen or how it would improve individual student achievement. For example, student teachers reflecting on the Technical Level wrote:

- I created a more challenging Math Talk for the children on my first day (ST 6). (No additional details or explanations were provided.)

- I would write bigger and clearer on the chart paper (ST12).

- I have learned that I need to involve the community, along with the student, when I teach (ST/US5).

Student teachers responses were coded as technical because reflection centered on routines without explanations of how or why the student teacher made that decision.

Practical reflection. Student teachers who reflected at the Practical Reflection Level (level 2) consistently emphasized both teaching strategies and linked these to meeting instructional goals or student learning (Galvez-Martin & Bowman, 1998). These student teachers focused on how and why they used or would use specific instructional strategies. Their decisions may have reflected their own personal experiences or their students' personal experiences or background knowledge. Also included in this category were journals entries of a self-reflective or self-evaluative nature. Sample journal entries at level 2 with the rational for coding included:

- Today we were learning about the concept of measurement and how we can use different units to measure different objects. I started out with them brainstorming what units they could use to measure different things (ST 10). (Student teacher explained not only what would be taught (measurement) but also how they would do so using different units/objects through brainstorming.)

- I worry about actually CONFUSING students in areas like math. Doing math is one thing...explaining HOW to do it is another (ST 7). (Student teacher was connecting a self-reflective comment regarding her strategies in teaching math and how student learning might be affected.)

- Now I have my own personal library and plan to teach through modeling how important reading is and how much fun it can be (ST/US 1). (In addition to providing a focus for teaching reading, the student teacher explained how (using her personal library and modeling) and why (important and fun) she would approach the task that way.)

Critical reflection. Student teachers who reflected at level 3, Critical Reflection, consistently linked every day instructional activities to past experiences (either their own or their students) and societal issues (Galvez-Martin & Bowman, 1998) facing educators, students, and their parents. These journal entries exemplified a high level of critical self-evaluation, constant questioning, and self-critique (Van Manen, 1991). Examples from journal entries included:

- I know I will definitely take my experiences to heart when I begin to teach. I will have a positive disciplined classroom environment...I hope that I will be able to reach all "types" of family environments in order to encourage their involvement with their own child's education (ST/US5).

  (This reflective entry included a strategy (positive disciplined classroom) and the impact of prior experiences and attention to students' family background.)

- There is significantly less parental involvement and the students are not nearly as concerned with achievement as I was at their age. Many times parents do not care about school success and that attitude transfers to the students...I think, as a teacher, I have to have high expectations of my students regardless of their family's attitude and/or involvement (ST/CT9).

(This journal entry included student teachers' personal reflections, a connection to the students' social environment and presented a course of action.)

- ...I will encounter many students who are not enthusiastic about learning and school. This is when learning becomes a chore to the child...I would make sure to make learning as authentic and personal to each child in some way (ST/CT3).

(Comments were self-reflective, included a consideration of students' responses and provided a course of action.)

After the journals were coded and overall reflective levels for all 29 student teachers determined, results indicated that the levels of reflective activity differed dependent upon the journaling instrument used. As indicated in Table 9, the majority of student teachers using the autobiographical dialogue tool reflected at the practical and critical levels; whereas, those student teachers using the traditional journaling tool reflected at the technical level.

Table 9

Student Teachers' Levels of Reflection

Group	Technical	Practical	Critical
Traditional Journaling	7	2	0
Autobiographical Journal - University Supervisor	1	5	4
Autobiographical Journal - Cooperating Teacher	1	4	4

Consistent with analysis procedures involving numerical counts of qualitative data (Miles & Huberman, 1994), the frequencies of entries recorded in the *Data Summary*

Charts at each reflective level were examined to determine patterns in reflection across groups. As noted in Table 10, the majority of responses written by student teachers using the traditional journaling tool were at the Technical Level with only 2 reflective entries coded at level 3, Critical. A comparison of coded entries by student teachers using the *Autobiographical Dialogue Journaling* tool indicated the majority of reflection occurring at the Practical and Critical Levels. Student teachers who dialogued with their university supervisors had more reflective comments overall. However, in examining the comments at each level between the two groups, the percentages were very similar with slightly higher numbers of reflective comments at the Practical Level (7%) written by student teachers that dialogued with their cooperating teachers. At the Technical Level, there were 8% more comments by student teachers that dialogued with their university supervisors (see Table 10).

Table 10

Summary of Coded Entries by Reflective Level Across Groups

Reflection Levels	GRP 1 – ST/CT		GRP 2 – ST/US		GRP 3 – ST	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
Technical	35	18%	65	26%	59	52%
Practical	92	47%	101	40%	52	46%
Critical	68	35%	88	37%	3	.02%

Overall, student teachers using the structured autobiographical journaling tool consistently reflected at higher levels than those using the traditional journal format. An examination of the *Data Summary Charts* in Appendix I and the summary in Table 10 clearly indicates that the autobiographical dialogue journaling tool prompted students to

write more reflective entries at the Practical and Critical levels. The differences in the total number of reflective comments were further analyzed by examining patterns and themes across groups.

Levels of reflection and cultural sensitivity. Teacher educators have suggested a relationship between a teacher's reflective abilities and their sensitivity and attitudes towards learners with diverse racial and cultural backgrounds (Adler, 2002; Garmon, 1998; Ladson-Billing, 1994; Weiner, 1999) and their disposition to change (Haberman, 1996). Therefore, it was critical to examine the relationship between the student teachers' cultural sensitivity scores and their reflection levels.

Both quantitative and qualitative procedures were used to investigate this possible relationship. Extreme scores on the *Quick Discrimination Index (QDI)* were examined in light of the reflection levels of the student teachers. The trustworthiness of the qualitative analyses (Creswell, 1998) was enhanced by considering data from multiple sources to identify patterns and reoccurring themes in student teachers' journal entries relative to their cultural sensitivity levels.

Qualitative analysis. The researcher examined the scores of the four student teachers in each group who received the two highest and lowest scores on the Quick Discrimination Index (QDI) and their respective reflection levels. In all three groups (Traditional journaling, Autobiographical journaling with university supervisor and Autobiographical journaling with cooperating teachers), those student teachers with high cultural sensitivity scores reflected at the higher levels in their respective group (see Table 11). Likewise, in each group the two lowest scoring students on the QDI also reflected at the lower levels (see Table 12).

Table 11

Student Teachers with Highest Post QDI Scores and Reflection Levels

Student Teachers	QDI Scores*	Reflection Levels
ST 9	75	Practical – Level 2
ST 5	67	Practical – Level 2
ST/US 9	66	Critical – Level 3
ST/US 5	62	Critical – Level 3
ST/CT 4	68	Critical – Level 3
ST/CT 2	66	Critical – Level 3

*Combined Factors 1 & 2 scores.

Table 12

Student Teachers with Lowest Post QDI Scores and Reflection Levels

Student Teachers	QDI Scores*	Reflection Levels
ST 8	56	Technical – Level 1
ST 2	53	Technical – Level 1
ST/US 4	55	Practical – Level 2
ST/US 8	55	Technical – Level 1
ST/US 10	52	Practical – Level 2
ST/CT 5	49	Practical – Level 2
ST/CT 1	40	Technical – Level 1

*Combined Factors 1 & 2 scores.

The thirteen journals (belonging to the student teachers with the highest and lowest QDI scores from each group) were then analyzed to identify common themes and perspectives among these participants using a pattern coding method (Miles &

Huberman, 1994). The journals were separated into two groups, those with high QDI scores and those with low QDI scores. The journals in each group were reviewed and initial descriptors of reoccurring items were noted. These items were then color-coded and grouped into clusters of items with similar characteristics. Each cluster was identified as a thematic category. The journals were then reread carefully to identify specific examples of reflective comments for each theme. Modifications were made to the thematic categories resulting in a list of themes for each group, high QDI scoring journals and low QDI scoring journals.

Common Themes and Patterns in Student Teachers' Journals

Research question 5: Did common themes emerge in the journal entries of the student teachers? As referenced in Table 13, student teachers with high QDI scores and reflection levels commonly discussed the following themes: Student Engagement, Teacher Expectations (for students and parents), View of Diversity, State SOL (Standards of Learning Student Performance Assessment), and the Value of Teaching and Education. The themes that emerged from an analysis of the journals of those student teachers with low QDI scores and reflection levels were: Student Achievement, Teacher Expectations (for students and parents), View of Diversity, and Teaching Values.

Table 13

Themes of Journals with High/Low Post QDI Scores and Reflection Levels

High QDI Scores/Reflection Levels	Low QDI Scores/Reflection Levels
Student Engagement	Student Achievement
Teacher Expectations (for students/parents)	Teacher Expectations
View of Diversity	View of Diversity

State Standards of Learning (SOLs)   Teaching Values

Value of Teaching & Education

The analysis of these themes revealed similarities among student teachers within each group as well as differences in perspectives between the two groups. Predominate themes are described below using citations from the student teachers' journals to illustrate their significance and plausibility.

Student Engagement – Student Achievement. Both student teachers with high and low QDI scores and reflection levels focused on student learning. Those student teachers with high QDI scores and reflection levels emphasized how they would engage their students (ST/US 9) in instructional lessons using "hands-on centers and visuals" (ST 5, ST 9) to "create meaningful experiences for students" (ST/CT 4). These student teachers focused on the teacher's responsibility in creating "effective lessons that target the SOLs" (Standards of Learning, ST 9) and involving students in their own learning (ST/US 5). Their use of educational jargon and terms such as constructivism, positive discipline strategies, Socratic method, zone of proximal development, differentiated instruction was in sharp contrast to the general, non-specific language used by the student teachers with low QDI scores and reflection levels.

Student achievement rather than engagement was the dominant focus of the journal entries of the six student teachers with low scores. Although they did recognize the variety of learning styles and students' interests in a classroom (ST 2, ST/CT 8), only one of the six student teachers suggested implementing a specific instructional strategy, "hands-on, verbal cues" (ST 2). Their focus instead remained on the challenges the teacher faces in the urban classroom related to differing levels of student achievement.

The student teachers wrote that the children "arrive at school with a handicap..." (ST/CT 8), "do not care about their grades" (ST/US 4), and "need more work" (ST 2). Only one student teacher noted that teachers should "check and recheck that your students are grasping what is being taught and that you are teaching in a creative and interesting way" (ST/US 8). In contrast with those student teachers with high reflection levels and QDI scores, none of the student teachers with low QDI scores and reflection levels used pedagogical language or educational terms to describe or suggest instructional strategies they would employ with their students.

Teacher expectations for high QDI/reflection levels. Eleven of the twelve journals included entries referring to the student teachers' expectations for their students and their students' parents. However, the nature of their reflections differed based on whether those expectations were explicitly or implicitly stated.

The group of six student teachers with high QDI scores and reflection levels felt that they, as the teacher, must clearly communicate high expectations for all students (ST/CT 2, ST/US 5). Two student teachers, ST/CT 4 and ST/CT 5, noted that teachers during their elementary and high school years seemed to have different expectations for students based on their academic abilities and gender. ST/CT 4 explained that in the schools she attended students were grouped by academic ability:

> You could always see the difference in the way that the high group was treated
>
> compared to the low group. The high group always received the seasoned
>
> teachers, the teachers that cared. The low group either received the brand new
>
> first year teachers or the old teachers, who were near retirement and who were set
>
> in their ways of teaching and were not willing to change. Through my prior

educational experiences, I think that the message that was conveyed to me subtly from the academic ability based classrooms was that if you had a lower I.Q. you didn't matter as much (ST/CT 4).

These student teachers emphasized that teachers should communicate positive and encouraging behaviors when they teach because "students will meet the expectations set for them, so if we set high expectations, we will have high quality and motivated students" (ST/CT 2).

Four of these student teachers also shared their positive expectations for the parents of their students. One wrote, "Parental involvement in the classroom is welcomed and valued" (ST/US 5). Another noted that it was especially important to establish a working relationship with parents who were seldom in the classroom (ST/US 9). Two of the student teachers explained that they were already thinking of ways to invite and involve unmotivated parents (ST/CT 2, ST/US 9). In addition, ST/CT 2 stated that teachers must have "high expectations of parents and parents must know of the teacher's expectations".

Teacher expectations for low QDI/Reflection levels. Only one of the six student teachers in this group explicitly stated that it was important for a teacher to have high expectations of their students (ST/CT 1). Others explained that teachers should get to know each student and their interests (ST/CT 8, ST/US 4) and "expect students to place emphasis on hard work and progress" (ST/US 4). Another wrote that teachers should believe in and care about their students by "letting them know that I believe in them and their ability to be successful" (ST/CT 8). Unlike those student teachers with high reflection levels and QDI scores, this group of student teachers did not explicitly state the

importance of having high expectations of their students or communicating those expectations to students.

This group of student teachers tended to emphasize the challenges that teachers face in the classroom because of their students' family values toward education. They wrote that the teacher would have to do so much more in the classroom (ST/US 4), such as becoming a role model (ST/CT 8) and working one-on-one with the lower students "to give them the help they should be receiving from a tutor" (ST/US 10). ST/US 10 also shared that the lack of parental involvement was "extremely frustrating for me, because I see how important it is for children to have help and support at home".

The student teachers with the lowest QDI scores and reflection levels did not have high expectations for their students' families. They did not expect their students to have positive role models who supported the value of education at home (ST/CT 8, ST/US 10, ST/US 4, ST/US 8). Consequently, one student teacher could not "understand why parents appear so disinterested in their child's education" (ST/CT 8) and another was "shocked" when introduced to the students because she "just didn't realize that not everyone had a family like mine" (ST/CT 1). ST/US 4 noted that only a small number of parents place an emphasis on education so she knows that "they [students] don't get support at home..." Another student teacher wrote that the parents today do not care as much about their child's education as her family did when she was a student (ST/US 8) and ST 2 noted that "politics from the parent aspect is horrible...there seems to be no way of pleasing certain parents". None of the student teachers reflected on ways to include parents or suggested any strategies for working with them.

View of diversity – High QDI/Reflection levels. Addressing diversity was a

common theme for both groups of student teachers. Those student teachers with high

QDI scores and reflection levels discussed diversity in terms of either academic needs or

cultural differences. Three student teachers stressed that, as teacher, they respond to the

diverse academic needs of all students through individualized instruction (ST 5),

differentiated instruction (ST/CT 4) and cooperative learning groups (ST 9). In reflecting

upon prior experiences with diverse groups, ST/CT 4 wrote: "I have learned that each

individual has their own unique style of processing information".

The other three student teachers in this group addressed the value of having

experience working with children of diverse cultures, races, and religions. For example,

ST/US 5 shared her experiences working with two *English as a Second Language (ESL)*

students during a practicum experience. The students, from Bulgaria and Indonesia,

would revert to their native language when they became excited or upset. The student

teacher reflected that she had learned a "very valuable lesson from this experience. I

learned that sometimes we rely too heavily on verbal communications...I also learned

that children and adults enjoy sharing unique experiences from their cultures." After

frequent conversations with one of the children's mother about their native country, this

student teacher believed that the parent felt more respected by the teacher.

ST/CT 2 described her experiences working with people of diverse ethnic groups

and religions as having had the "opportunity to experience countries I have never been

to". Like ST/US 5, she recalled the native countries, specifically Japan, Yemen and

Spain, of individuals she'd gotten to know through her work experiences. As a teacher

she hopes "to instill in my students the same sense of adventure towards new cultures...to

teach them that people who are different than them have a lot to teach them". In addition, ST/CT 2 criticized the State Standard of Learning (SOL) requirement regarding diversity. In response to her cooperating teacher's remarks, this student teacher wrote, "We as teachers have to go above and beyond the SOL expectation. Even the SOL discussion of diversity is very sterile and staged. We need to use teachable moments to incorporate diversity."

In contrast, ST/US 9 had no prior experiences working with diverse cultures. However, she reflected upon her lack of experiences with individuals of other cultures and strategies she might employ to infuse diversity into instruction:

> In thinking about this topic, I realize that previous experience has left me ill prepared for dealing with cultural differences in the classroom. I am, however, a firm believer in celebrating diverse cultures in the classroom every day, not just during special times of the year. I plan to accomplish this goal by showcasing literary works by authors of diverse cultures, as well as highlighting scientific and historical contributions by people of diverse cultures. (ST/US 9)

In addition, she pointed out that in spite of her limited interactions with others of diverse backgrounds, the most influential teacher in her life was, interestingly, an African-American male from Chicago (ST/US 9). Overall, this group of student teachers viewed diversity as a strength and spoke of their prior experiences with individuals from diverse cultures from a personal perspective.

View of diversity – Low QDI/Reflection levels. Two of the seven student teachers with low QDI scores and reflection levels wrote of having had prior experiences with students of diverse cultures. ST/US 8 described her experience in an undergraduate

practicum as being "limited in my contact with students from other cultures [though] I do not feel that this has hurt me. There may be some different challenges in multi-cultural schools, but every school has some problems...It is important to expose the children in your classroom to different cultures and make them aware of the differences that exist in one classroom." ST/CT 8 reflected upon her experiences with diverse cultures while in the military. She noted that ethnic and religious holidays were recognized and celebrated and records were maintained to ensure punishment was fair for all groups of people. The second student teacher, ST/US 10, described her experience as having "coached girls of different backgrounds", but did not identify how they were different.

ST/US 4 who had no prior experience with individuals of diverse cultures discussed the importance of recognizing cultural differences because it "...would allow one to break down barriers and find common ground...the teacher should recognize barriers that may exist and find ways to overcome them ... the teacher may need to take extra time or alter instruction". This discussion of diversity, written in the third person, was very similar to ST/CT 8's remarks that "the educator must develop a sense of community and tolerance for all different cultures." Other student teachers without prior experiences with diverse cultures articulated their apprehensions about working with urban students. ST/CT 1 felt she could not "rely on my own experiences to educate these children" and ST/US 10 found student teaching challenging because "I know very little about the environment that these children come from; I have never experienced it and therefore I have a hard time connecting with the children." ST 2 described diversity in terms of the teacher adapting to a variety of learning styles to meet student needs. None of the seven student teachers in this group described any interactions or relationships they

had had with individuals who belonged to specific cultural, ethnic, religious or racial groups different than their own. In addition, they tended to describe the impact of diversity in classrooms from an abstract, detached perspective.

Teaching values. Four student teachers with low QDI and reflection levels also shared a common perspective regarding the importance of teaching values to urban students (ST/CT 8, ST/US 4, ST/US 8, ST/US 10). Because they believed that their students come "from homes where education is not valued" (ST/CT 8), these student teachers felt that as the teacher they were responsible for teaching their students both academics and values. In her educational autobiography, ST/US 10 concluded that "these children taught me that not only do I have to teach them curriculum but life values and morals as well." Likewise, ST/US 4 asserted, "I welcome the opportunity to instill those values (school, hard work, and progress) in them". ST/US 8 also concluded that as a teacher she felt she was responsible for teaching life skills. This focus on teaching values implied that the student teachers believed the values the students possessed were inappropriate and would not support instructional goals.

Dialogue with cooperating teacher or university supervisor. Analyses of the nine autobiographical dialogue journals also indicated that student teachers with high QDI and reflection levels responded more consistently to their university supervisor or cooperating teacher's dialogue. Of the four high scoring journals, one student teacher (ST/CT 4) did not respond to any of the six dialogue entries; one (ST/US 5) responded to four of the six; and the other two student teachers (ST/US 9, ST/CT 2) responded to all dialogue entries.

In contrast, none of the five student teachers with low QDI and reflection levels responded to all six of the dialogue entries. One student teacher (ST/CT 8) responded to

five of the six dialogue entries. ST/US 8 and ST/US 10 responded to two of the six

entries, and two student teachers (ST/CT 1, ST/US 4) did not write any responses to their

supervisor or cooperating teacher's written dialogue.

An overview of the themes identified in the journal entries of student teachers

with high and low posttest QDI scores reflected patterns in their perspectives and

reactions to the urban student, teacher expectations, and diversity. Those patterns are

summarized in Table 14.

Table 14

Summary of Student Teachers' Perspectives Based on Journal Themes

High QDI/Reflection Levels	Low/QDI Reflection Levels
These student teachers tended to:	*These student teachers tended to:*
Discuss strategies to engage students in learning	Focus on lack of achievement
Use specific educational jargon	Not use pedagogical terms
Focus on teacher's role in student learning	Focus on challenges teacher faces
State high teacher expectations for students	Imply importance of expectations
Hold positive expectations for parents	Focus on lack of parental interest
Speak of diversity from a personal level	Speak of diversity abstractly
Recognize cultural differences in learning	Be apprehensive as urban teacher
Share prior experiences with diverse groups	Share no experiences with diversity
Recognize value of diversity in teaching	Treat diversity as a challenge
Reflect on and respond to feedback	Limit their responses to feedback

This qualitative analysis resulted in consistent themes and interesting patterns yet

differing perspectives held by the student teachers in the two groups regarding their

teaching experience in an urban setting. The suggestions in the literature of a possible

relationship between one's cultural sensitivity and reflective abilities appeared to be

corroborated by this analysis. Therefore, an examination of this relationship between

these factors was explored quantitatively through the use of a mixed factorial analysis of

variance.

Quantitative analysis. A mixed factorial analysis was used to examine the

relationship between the two variables: Quick Discrimination Index, pre and posttest

combined scores (Factors 1 and 2); and Reflection Levels 1 (Technical) and 3 (Critical).

The pre and posttest scores on the QDI of the 8 student teachers who reflected at the

Critical Level was compared to the scores of the 8 student teachers who reflected at the

Technical Level to determine the presence of any significant differences between changes

in the pre and post QDI scores, differences in scores within a particular level of

reflection, and any interaction effects resulting from changes in QDI scores based on

one's level of reflection. Student teachers were selected from across all three groups.

Results of the mixed factorial are shown in Table 15. Statistical analyses

indicated that there were no significant differences between student teachers pre and post

QDI scores. In addition, interaction effect analysis resulted in insignificant differences

(.34) in changes in student teachers QDI scores based on their reflective levels (see Table

17). However, the .07 significance level in between-subject effects suggested the

possibility of marginal differences (see Table 15) in reflective activity at the Critical

(group 2) or Technical Levels (group 1) and high or low scores on the QDI.

Table 15

Mixed Factorial ANOVA

Descriptive Statistics	Reflective Group	Mean	SD	n
Pretest QDI	1	56.25	5.39	8
	2	60.00	3.38	8
	Total	58.13	4.76	16
Posttest QDI	1	56.50	7.76	8
	2	62.50	4.47	8
	Total	59.50	6.86	16

Within-Subjects Contrasts	Mean Square	df	F	Significance
QDI	15.13	1	1.48	.24
QDI * Reflective Group	10.13	1	.99	.34

Univariate Tests	Mean Square	df	F	Significance
Contrast	95.06	1	3.79	.07

(Effects of Reflective Group)

Themes of Cooperating Teachers' and University Supervisors' Written Feedback

Research Question 6: What were the differences and similarities in the themes of the written feedback from the university supervisors and cooperating teachers? The process of coding and categorizing the written responses provided by the two university supervisors and ten cooperating teachers as part of the autobiographical dialogue journaling process was used for the purpose of identifying any differences and similarities in the themes of their written responses. Although the focus of qualitative analysis was to identify common themes or topics of the feedback responses, differences

and similarities in the structure and style of the cooperating teachers and university supervisors' feedback emerged instead.

The cooperating teachers and university supervisors' responses were read and organized based on Guyton and Hildago's (1995) six qualities of effective urban mentors: 1) Mediator of the Urban Environment; 2) Efficacy; 3) Collaborator; 4) Ethnic/Cultural Identities; 5) Pedagogues; and 6) Interpersonal Skills (see List of Codes in Appendix H). The analyses identified similarities and differences in the structure of responses between the two groups of mentors as well as notable differences in the structure of the cooperating teachers' responses. The results are discussed below.

Similarities in feedback. Both university supervisors and cooperating teachers provided responses to the student teachers that reflected all six qualities of an effective urban mentor (Guyton and Hildago, 1995). Examples of their responses included:

1) MEDIATOR OF THE URBAN ENVIRONMENT: It can be difficult to send some students home into situations you are unsure of. It is so important to make these students feel safe and loved while they are here with you (CT1).

- ...but we mustn't jump to the wrong conclusions. In some cases, parents are very interested but unable to make a contribution of time spent at school on their child's behalf, because of other responsibilities, etc (US 2).

2) EFFICACY: I agree – our classroom has such a wide range of levels and abilities. But what's great is that you have recognized all of those needs – that's great (CT 3)

- Good for you! You're right in thinking that teachers have the responsibility for introducing and creating ways to incorporate diversity (& the study of) in their classroom curriculum (US 2).

3) COLLABORATOR: Great observation. Education is constantly changing. The key is being able to change for the better with it (CT 1).

- Just try to remember that we all have roadblocks and we find ways to overcome them. Our students sometimes have roadblocks and it is our job to help the students find their own ways to overcome their roadblocks (US 1).

4) ETHNIC/CULTURAL: In my classroom there are students with different religious backgrounds. Some...don't celebrate Christmas...I encouraged the students to explain why (if they felt comfortable) and I explained, myself, to the students how all people are different and believe different things (CT 2).

- I think that you could even see a great cultural difference between your AM group and PM group. Why do you think the ability grouping pulled the two cultural groups apart? Or did it? (US 1)

5) PEDADOGUES: I try to remember my own education when I teach. I bring in fun foods to eat or cook and spend much of my own money to add enrichment activities and new stories to my lessons (CT 4).
   - As a teacher, I try to emphasize that learning is the primary goal as opposed to grades....The emphasis of mastery and loving to learn is what is dominant (CT 3).

- I guess that we teach our students by modeling the appropriate behavior and discussing the right choices at class meetings (US 1).

6) INTERPERSONAL SKILLS: I'll tell you what, the learning starts when you

get in the classroom with your own children (smile) (CT 5).

- You sound like the kind of teacher that all children would feel safe and secure

with…(smile) (US 2).

Styles of cooperating teachers' feedback. The analysis of the written responses of

the cooperating teachers were categorized into one of following styles: 1) Self-

disclosure; 2) Philosophical or Theoretical; and 3) Teacher's Roles and Responsibilities

(see Table 16). Each style is described below using examples from the cooperating

teachers' feedback entries.

The focus of the written dialogue of some cooperating teachers with their student

teacher was primarily self-disclosing in nature. These cooperating teachers used the

autobiographical journal tool to reflect upon their own educational experiences (CT 4, CT

9). Consequently, the cooperating teachers were, in essence, writing their own

educational autobiography. References made to the student teachers' entries were

supportive, but limited. For example, in response to entry #1, CT 4 noted that her student

teacher's observations of the positive and negative behaviors and attitudes of her former

teachers were interesting. The cooperating teacher's remaining response focused on her

belief that "many teachers have lost their 'zest' for teaching" because of the "new clerical

role" teachers have had to assume and the "pressure of the SOL (Standards of Learning)".

CT 4 concluded this lengthy entry on a "lighter note" by affirming her belief in the

educational system. She added:

"I'm determined to teach the textbook standards but do it in my own "enriched"

way. Our first grade team incorporates the SOLS into many colorful units...I

agree that there must be some type of standard to follow but it is sad and

frightening to hear that some individuals believe that teachers should be restricted

to teach within an 'institutional box' that was designed by many people who were

never even educators."

Throughout their journal entries, both CT 4 and CT 9 responded to the journal prompts

with reflections on their own educational experiences. They referred very briefly to their

student teachers' reflective entries, but did not pose questions or suggest constructive

instructional strategies to the student teachers.

Responses labeled as philosophical or theoretical (CT 1, CT 5) characterized other

cooperating teachers' entries. Although these mentors did acknowledge their student

teacher's reflective comments, their discussions of the topics were general, vague, and

brief. For example, in response to entry 3 one cooperating teacher wrote, "That's so

wonderful that your parents exposed you to so much while you were growing up...The

more the students hear positive praise and are encouraged to expand their ideas, the more

likely they are to begin doing that" (CT 5). In response to the topic of community

involvement, CT 1 stated that students should be aware of the community's involvement

in the school because it provides them with the opportunity to "see things and learn about

things that they normally wouldn't know about". Neither cooperating teachers focused

their responses on the classroom teacher's role in school/community relationships nor did

they provide examples of strategies they've used or would use.

The third group of cooperating teachers provided feedback responses to their

student teachers' journal entries that focused on the teacher's roles and responsibilities

relative to the topic being discussed (CT 2, CT 3, CT 8, CT 10). Analysis of these entries

noted similarities in their organizational structures. This group of cooperating teachers

tended to write lengthy comments that included three categories of information: 1)

personable acknowledgement of the student teacher's reflections; 2) cooperating

teachers' personal reflections on the topics; and 3) connections of the issue being posed

to the teacher's effectiveness in urban classrooms. For example, CT 10 wrote a two-page

response to her student teachers entry on family values toward education (see *A*

Reflective Dialogue Journal for Student Teachers: An Autobiographical Approach,

Week 3, Appendix A). Opening statements from each paragraph of the response

included:

Paragraph 1: "You are so lucky to have such a special mom."

Paragraph 2: "My parents were also great."

Paragraph 3: "Now, what about the poor children who don't have any

encouragement to do well in school?"

Paragraph 4: "That's where we come in. We have to make the connection with

the children who aren't getting any home support." (CT 10)

Similarly, CT 8 and CT 3 provided reflective dialogue to their student teachers'

entries through supportive comments, "I totally agree – community involvement is

critical (CT 3)" and "You do indeed begin to mold your own style..."(CT 8). Like CT

10, they continued with a brief sharing of their personal experiences, for example with

their students' parents or as a student themselves. Both then concluded by stressing the

importance of the topic to their classroom or school experiences as a teacher. In addition,

CT 3 posed questions to her student teacher at the conclusion of the first four entries.

Two examples of those questions included: a) "Karen, how do you think you'll handle a class that may come to you without a love of learning, and b) Karen, what do you think you'd do as a teacher if you're in a school in which the parents aren't actively involved?"

Table 16

Feedback Responses of University Supervisors and Cooperating Teachers

Source of Feedback	Style of Responding
Cooperating Teachers	Self-Disclosing
Cooperating Teachers	Philosophical or Theoretical
Cooperating Teachers	Teacher's Roles & Responsibilities (General, Non-specific, Generic)
University Supervisors	Teachers' Roles and Responsibilities (Explicit, Specific strategies, Relevant)

University supervisors' feedback responses. As previously noted, the university supervisors' feedback also reflected comments expected of effective urban mentors (Guyton & Hildago, 1995). Further content analysis of the university supervisors' responses indicated that they too followed a structure similar to the third group of cooperating teachers (see Table 16). Their responses included support for the student teacher's reflections, their own personal reflections, and implications for the classroom teacher. However, this feedback differed from the cooperating teachers responses by providing more explicit, specific strategies that focused on the student teacher's roles and responsibilities in planning instruction based on objectives and student needs.

Examples of the university supervisors' responses with the key elements included:

- I agree, children learn what is important by how their parents react... (Personal reflections)

- You seem fully aware of the role you need to play in these children's school lives... (Support for student teacher's remarks)

- We can let parents know this at classroom parent meetings, conferences, etc. in hopes that they will begin to support their child's efforts at school...(US 2) (Specific strategies)

US 1 wrote:

- You are so right. (Support for student teacher)

- The teacher should recognize the barriers and find a way that enables the student to succeed!! (Specific suggestion)

- I really believe in that statement. There are no excuses and with high expectations everyone can make it. (Personal reflections)

One university supervisor (US 1) consistently used questions to probe and direct the student teacher's reflective thoughts. Excerpts of questions from her responses are noted below:

- Why is it that we remember the negative experiences and we still see it over and over in our schools today?

- It is amazing how all the students live within walking distance and the parents don't come up to the school. I wonder why?

- I wonder what we as teachers can do to break this cycle? I would never want to give up hope! Would you?

- Why do you think the ability grouping pulled the two cultural groups apart or did it?

Participants' Responses to Autobiographical Dialogue Journaling Activity

Feedback surveys were used to gather data from all participants in response to Research Question 7: To what extent did the participants perceive that the reflective dialogue journaling activity contributed to the quality of their student teaching experience? All student teachers completed the *Teaching Interns' Feedback Survey*, a ten-item Likert questionnaire (see Appendix I). University supervisors and cooperating teachers were asked to complete and return a similar questionnaire, *University Supervisors/Cooperating Teachers' Feedback Survey* (see Appendix I). The results of their responses based on the surveys as well as excerpts from the participants' written comments are discussed below.

Teaching interns' feedback survey. In addition to qualitative analysis, descriptive and nonparametric quantitative tests were used to analyze the student teachers satisfaction with their journaling experience. Thirty student teachers responded to the 10-item *Teaching Interns' Feedback Survey.* Of a possible 40 points, the overall mean score for all three groups was 25.93 (see Table 17). Student teachers who dialogued with their university supervisor (Group 2, ST/US) were on average more satisfied with the experience than student teachers in the other two groups. Group 2's mean score was 28.70. On the other hand, student teachers in Group 3 who dialogued with their cooperating teachers (ST/CT) were least satisfied with a mean score of 24.40. Student teachers using the traditional journaling instrument had a mean score of 24.70 (see Table 17).

Table 17

Descriptive Statistics Comparing Teaching Interns' Response to Feedback Survey

Group	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
1 – ST	27.70	25.00	4.35	1.37
2 – ST/US	28.70	27.50	4.72	1.49
3 – ST/CT	24.40	24.00	6.83	2.16
OVERALL	25.93		5.59	

Additional nonparametric quantitative tests were used to assess whether there were significant differences in the levels of satisfaction among the three groups of student teachers in the study. The Kruskal-Wallis Test was selected because the values on the feedback surveys were considered ordinal rather than interval. Quantitative analysis resulted in a chi-square value of 3.37 and a significance level of .19. The difference among groups was not statistically significant. Qualitative analyses allowed for further examination of the participants' perceptions of the journaling activity.

A qualitative analysis of the feedback survey for each group of participants included an examination of the frequency of responses and the written rationale given by the student teachers. The percentages of student teachers in each group who selected "somewhat or definitely" in response to each question is shown in Table 18. Combined percentages for the entire group (OVERALL) were computed for each question as well as separate percentages (when applicable) for the two groups of student teachers that used the autobiographical dialogue journal tool.

Table 18

Teaching Interns' Percentages of "Somewhat/Definitely" Responses

QUESTION	ST	ST/US	ST/CT	(US/CT)*	OVERALL

How relevant do you believe the journaling activity was to student teaching?

1	60%	80%	40%	(60%)	60%

How important do you believe the topics were to your professional growth?

2	70%	90%	80%	(85%)	80%

To what extent did the journaling activity lead to conversations with your cooperating teacher or university supervisor about the urban teaching experience?

3	10%	30%	20%	(20%)	17%

To what extent would you describe the level of collegiality in your relationship with your cooperating teacher or university supervisor?

4	80%	80%	80%		80%

Do you believe you and your CT or US had adequate time to respond to the entries?

5	30%	50%	40%		40%

To what extent would you describe your responses as reflective and thoughtful?

6	80%	90%	50%		73%

To what extent did the journaling activity help you in preparing instruction for the urban elementary student?

7	40%	30%	10%	(20%)	27%

To what extent did your responses center on common themes, issues, or concerns?

8	40%	90%	70%		67%

To what extent would you recommend this journaling activity to future teaching interns?

| 9 | 30% | 60% | 50% | (55%) |

Overall, to what extent were you satisfied with your urban student teaching experience?

| 10 | 100% | 90% | 80% | 90% |

*Combined percentages for two groups of student teachers using autobiographical journal

Analysis of the student teachers' responses to the feedback survey revealed information regarding three aspects of the student teaching journaling process. The first set of questions (# 2, #5, # 6, #8) referred to the student teachers' perceptions of the relevance of specific aspects of the journaling experience. Questions 1, 3, 7, and 9 probed for reactions to the journaling activity and its link to the urban field experience. The last group, questions 2, 4, and 10, explored the student teachers' perceptions of the student teaching experience in terms of their professional growth.

In the first category, student teachers' perceptions of the journaling experience, 80% of all student teachers who participated felt the journal topics were important to their professional development (85% of those using the autobiographical dialogue journal) (Table 18, #2). Sixty percent noted that their university supervisors and cooperating teachers needed more time to respond to the entries (Table 18, #5). Those who dialogued with their university supervisors described their journal entries as reflective and centering on common themes and issues (90%); whereas, only 50% of those dialoguing with a cooperating teacher described their own responses as thoughtful and reflective (Table 18, #6).

The second category of reactions to the journaling experience involved the student teachers' perceptions of how their journaling experience related to the urban field experience. Although the student teachers recognized certain aspects of the journaling

experience as beneficial, only 60% believed their journaling experience was relevant to student teaching (Table 18, #1). An examination of the percentages by groups identified distinct differences as well. Those student teachers journaling with their cooperating teachers saw less relevance in the activity (40%) than student teachers using the traditional tool (60%). In contrast, 80% of the student teachers that dialogued with their university supervisors felt the activity was pertinent to student teaching (see Table 18, #1). Student teachers' written responses to the relevance of the journaling process included:

- I think it is important to reflect on our past experiences to see how they mold our impressions. (ST/US 7)

- I enjoyed the feedback I received from my supervisor. (ST/US 9)

- It took too much time so I had to always rush through. (ST/US 5)

- I did not feel that the journaling benefited me in my experience. (ST/CT 5)

- I had a chance to see how my teacher felt about issues we would have otherwise not discussed. (ST/CT 2)

- Keeps you thinking – where are you going? (ST/CT 7)

- When we both took our time to write and reflect, it was wonderful! If not, it was pointless. (ST/CT 10)

- Sometimes it was helpful to vent/express my feelings while journaling. (ST 5)

- It let me address issues or concepts I felt were important, but I was not overwhelmed by daily journaling. (ST 10)

Related to the question of relevance to student teaching, question #7 solicited the student teachers' perceptions regarding the usefulness of the journals in helping prepare them to teach urban students. Overall, only 20 % of the student teachers that used the autobiographical dialogue journals believed the activity helped in preparing them to teach the urban student (see Table 18, #7). Interestingly, 40% who used the traditional tool described it as being relevant to teaching the urban student. In addition, only 17% of the student teachers felt the journaling activity prompted conversations with their mentors regarding the urban teaching experience. Overall, those using the autobiographical journaling tool had more conversations than student teachers using the traditional tool, with the highest percentage (30%) occurring between student teachers and their university supervisors (Table 18, #3). Examples of their written responses provided further insight into the student teachers' perspectives.

- Helps to examine all perspectives. (ST 5)

- Realized that student behavior and previous knowledge guided instruction preparation. (ST 6)

- I asked higher level thinking questions. (ST 3)

- The questions were thought provoking and made me think about how I teach. (ST/US 5)

- Getting to know the individuality and background of each child. (ST/US 6)

- I was already aware of the issues. (ST/CT 1)

- Helps you gain an understanding of the community. (ST/CT 7)

Fifty-five percent of student teachers using the autobiographical dialogue journals recommended its use by future teaching interns (see Table 18, #9). They explained that it was beneficial to reflect on their past experiences (ST/US 3, ST/US 8) in order to identify their strengths and weaknesses (ST/US 7). The student teachers also noted that the journal activity was valuable because it engaged them in more reflective activities (ST/CT 7, ST/CT 10, ST/US 4, ST/US 9). ST/CT 7 added, "I enjoyed this journaling activity so much more than the typical 'Write about your experiences this week.' It gave specifics and I enjoyed going back to my school experiences." Also, ST/CT 2 felt that "if used effectively, this could really build a great relationship with the teacher candidate and clinical faculty."

In contrast, those student teachers that would not recommend the autobiographical dialogue journaling activity either did not give a reason (ST/CT 1, ST/CT 6) or felt it was too structured and time consuming (ST/US 5, ST/CT 8, ST/US 10). ST/CT 5 added that the journaling activity did not benefit her because her cooperating teacher was reluctant to participate and responded to all of the entries at the end of the placement.

Only 30% of student teachers using the traditional tool recommended that future interns use it (see Table 18, #9). Although one student teacher (ST 10) felt the journal addressed the necessary issues and another thought it prompted reflection (ST 5), ST 3 felt that future interns would "benefit more from interactive reflection." Another student teacher adamantly agreed, " [I would] recommend only if the questions were varied! It was boring! Please recommend a change in the traditional journal to my supervisors for the next group of student teachers." (ST 8)

The final category of reactions from student teachers engaged in the journal experience related to their perceptions of the student teaching experience in general. Overall, the student teachers participating in the study were satisfied with their urban student teaching field experience and comfortable with the relationship they had established with their journaling mentor (either cooperating teacher of university supervisor).

Eighty percent of all student teachers described their relationship with their university supervisor or cooperating teacher as collegial (see Table 18, #4). ST/US 4 felt her university supervisor was "supportive and understanding" and ST/US 6 described their responses to each other as "detailed and providing feedback." Likewise, those student teachers journaling with their cooperating teachers shared positive comments about their interactions. STCT 5 wrote, "She treated me as a colleague and I treated her with respect." Two student teachers (ST/CT 4 & 8) felt that their approaches to instruction were similar to their cooperating teachers' and ST/CT 10 felt that they shared a close relationship because "we were able to learn a lot about each other."

Ninety percent of all student teachers were satisfied with their urban student teaching experience (see Table 18, #10). Some student teachers enjoyed working with their students (ST/CT 2, ST 1, ST 7, ST/US 6). Others felt supported by their cooperating teacher (ST/CT 6, ST 6, ST 7, ST/US 6) and some appreciated the learning experience the placement provided (ST/US 10, ST 3, ST 8, ST/CT 7). One student teacher who was not satisfied explained that it was due to "all of the negativity that was in my school" (ST/US 4).

In her final journal entry (Final Reflection to Cooperating Teacher's Dialogue),

one student teacher shared her enthusiasm and support for the autobiographical

journaling activity:

> I think this was great. I was glad that I had an opportunity to share with you my
>
> feelings and then see how you felt about what I said. Our dialogue was very
>
> enlightening. It was nice to see some of the struggles and challenges that you
>
> faced as a new teacher, and how you handle them. I have a clearer picture of
>
> teaching because I was able to "get into your teaching brain" a little through your
>
> own reflections about what you do. (ST/CT 2)

University supervisors/cooperating teachers' feedback survey. At the conclusion

of the journaling activity, the university supervisors and cooperating teachers were asked

to completed a ten item Likert-format feedback survey, *University*

Supervisors/Cooperating Teachers' Feedback Survey (see Appendix I), to gather data

regarding their reactions to the autobiographical dialogue journaling activity. Both

university supervisors (US) and five of the ten cooperating teachers (CT) returned the

Feedback Survey. Overall, their responses to the activity were generally favorable. As

discussed below, excerpts from their written responses provided further explanations of

their perceptions.

Three of the five cooperating teachers and the two university supervisors (71%)

agreed that the autobiographical dialogue journaling activity was relevant to the student

teaching experience and to the professional growth of the beginning teacher. US 1 noted

that the topics "allowed the student teacher to reflect on their past personal experiences

and how they are molded to being a teacher." CT 1 believed that the journals allowed

student teachers to share thoughts on paper that they might have been reluctant to talk about. In contrast, one cooperating teacher (CT 8) who kept a classroom journal with her student teacher wrote, "The urban journal tended to have such a broadness to it that we did not feel it was relevant to this student teaching experience."

Three of the seven mentors (43%) believed the autobiographical journaling activity led to conversations about teaching urban students. The discussions centered on issues facing teachers in urban schools (US 1, CT 1, CT 8) and the challenges urban students deal with (CT 3). Other mentors (US 2, CT 10) felt that the lack of time for conversations may have impeded further discussions. In fact, both university supervisors suggested journaling once every two weeks for the entire 14-week student teaching experience rather than weekly.

Both university supervisors and three of the five cooperating teachers felt that student teachers benefited from the autobiographical journaling experience and a majority of mentors (86%) believed their student teachers' responses were reflective and thoughtful. One cooperating teacher (CT 3) added that although she wasn't sure if her student teacher took the journaling seriously, she felt that journaling is extremely important and powerful because of its interactive nature. Both university supervisors supported the use of journals because as one noted they encouraged "personal reflection concerning various topics discussed" (US 2).

Additionally, 86% of all mentors felt that they were able to dialogue comfortably with their student teachers. Sixty percent of cooperating teachers agreed that journaling was relevant to their role as mentor and allowed them to get to know their student teachers better (CT 1, CT 3, CT 10). Fifty-seven percent of the mentors recommend that

future teaching interns use the autobiographical dialogue journaling activity; although one of the university supervisors felt that it was too time-consuming and a cooperating teacher noted that it was "a good idea, but they [student teachers] have so much to do" (CT 1).

Summary

The data collected from the student teachers, cooperating teachers, and university supervisors involved in this study was analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively to evaluate the influence of an autobiographical dialogue journaling activity on the student teachers' levels of cultural sensitivity and reflection skills. Results obtained from the QDI cultural sensitivity inventory, participants' feedback surveys, and written journal entries were examined through a number of different quantitative statistical analyses and qualitative analytic induction techniques.

Quantitative analyses procedures resulted in acceptance of the null hypothesis for the first three research questions:

1. To what extent does an autobiographical dialogue journaling activity between student teachers in urban elementary classrooms and their cooperating teachers increase the student teachers' levels of cultural sensitivity toward diverse learners?

2. To what extent does an autobiographical dialogue journaling activity between student teachers in urban elementary classrooms and their university supervisors increase student teachers' levels of cultural sensitivity toward diverse learners?

3. Were there significant differences between changes in levels of cultural

sensitivity of student teachers who journal with their cooperating teachers and university supervisors using the autobiographical dialogue journal as compared to those student teachers who use the traditional journaling instrument?

There were no statistically significant differences between the levels of cultural sensitivity of those student teachers who used the autobiographical dialogue tool and those who used the traditional journaling tool nor between pre and posttest scores on the QDI within the groups of student teachers using the autobiographical dialogue tool.

Qualitative analysis of the journal entries of all student teachers demonstrated differences in reflection skills within each group and among all three groups. Student teachers that used *A Reflective Dialogue Journal for Student Teachers: An Autobiographical Approach* reflected at higher levels than those student teachers using the traditional journal tool. Data was summarized in Table 10 showing the number and percentages of responses at each reflective level for the three groups of student teachers.

In addition, by comparing reflection data with the extreme cultural sensitivity scores for each group, it was revealed that those student teachers with the two highest and lowest scores in each group also reflected at the highest and lowest levels within their groups. Excerpts from the student teachers' journals documented common themes shared by the two groups as well as distinct differences between the groups in their perspectives and reflections of these themes. In response to Research Question 5, qualitative analysis of journal entries did identify reoccurring themes and patterns in the journal entries of student teachers.

Furthermore, a mixed factorial ANOVA using pre and posttest QDI scores for the 8 student teachers who reflected at the Critical level and the 8 who reflected at the Technical level examined the relationship between cultural sensitivity and reflection skills as suggested in the literature. Statistical analysis resulted in no significant interaction effect in changes in QDI scores based on the reflective level of the student teachers. However, between-subjects effects resulted in marginal differences in reflection levels and QDI scores.

Research question 6 prompted qualitative investigation of the similarities and differences in the feedback responses written by the university supervisors and cooperating teachers to student teachers using the autobiographical dialogue journaling tool. Both groups of mentors responded using comments reflective of effective urban mentors (Guyton & Hildago, 1995). Differences and similarities in the structure and content of the feedback responses of the ten cooperating teachers revealed three distinct styles: 1) Self-disclosure; 2) Philosophical or Theoretical; and 3) Teacher's Roles and Responsibilities. However, the university supervisors consistently wrote responses following the third style, Teacher's Roles and Responsibilities. Examples were provided to illustrate this structure.

Feedback gathered from the participants at the conclusion of the study corroborated both differences and similarities in the reactions of the student teachers, cooperating teachers and university supervisors to the journal activity. A nonparametic test resulted in no significant differences in the overall level of satisfaction among the three groups of student teachers that participated in the study. Qualitative analysis assessed the percentages of "somewhat/definitely" responses to each question on the

Teaching Interns' Feedback Survey for each group of student teachers and their written responses. Overall, 60% of the student teachers felt that their journaling experience was relevant to their student teaching field experience. Additional results indicated that the group of student teachers that dialogued with their university supervisors perceived the autobiographical journaling experience as being more relevant to their student teaching experience (80%) than those who dialogued with their cooperating teacher (40%). Only 27 % of all student teachers felt the journaling activity was somewhat or definitely helpful in preparing them for teaching in urban elementary schools. Fifty-five percent would recommend using the autobiographical journal with future interns and only 30 % recommended using the traditional journaling instrument.

The reactions of five cooperating teachers and both university supervisors to the autobiographical dialogue journaling activity were summarized. Percentages of their responses to the *University Supervisors/Cooperating Teachers' Feedback Survey* were presented with excerpts from their written responses. Overall, 71% agreed that the journaling activity was relevant to the student teaching experience and to the professional growth of the student teacher. Eighty-percent felt comfortable dialoguing with their student teacher with 57% recommending the use of the journal with future student teachers.

This chapter presented analyses of both quantitative and qualitative data generated through this study. A discussion of the results, their implications, and limitations will be presented in Chapter 5 along with recommendations for further study.

CHAPTER 5

Summary, Implications, and Recommendations

Teacher education programs are challenged to prepare teachers to serve an increasingly diverse student population from a variety of ethnic and socioeconomic backgrounds. Research on teacher expectations documents the influence of students' race, ethnicity, and socioeconomic status on the expectations of their teachers. Despite the focused efforts of teacher preparations programs to increase experiences with diverse populations, changing the beliefs and attitudes of preservice students is a complex and difficult task. Multicultural scholars (Banks, 1993; Davidman, 1993; Garmon, 1998; Gay, 1995; Joram & Gabriele, 1997; Nieto, 1999; Sleeter, 2001; Tamura, et al., 1996; Terrill & Mark, 2000; Wiggins & Follo, 1999) agree that to become more culturally sensitive prospective teachers must examine their attitudes and beliefs about teaching that were developed through their educational experiences. Teacher education researchers have begun to investigate the integration of reflective activities into practicum and student teaching field experiences. Few recent studies, however, examine the influence of autobiographical journaling on cultural sensitivity or reflection skills and the roles of the cooperating teachers and university supervisors in this process.

The primary focus of this research was to investigate the effects of an autobiographical dialogue journaling activity on the cultural sensitivity and reflection levels of preservice teachers during an urban field experience. Quantitative and qualitative analyses provided data to address seven research questions. Grounded in a narrative framework, the researcher designed an autobiographical journaling instrument that encouraged reflective activities through guided topics and questions. Random

assignment of student teachers to one of three groups, autobiographical journaling with a cooperating teacher, autobiographical journaling with a university supervisor, or traditional journaling activity, allowed for a quantitative analysis of differences in student teachers' levels of cultural sensitivity within the groups and among the three groups. Equally important was data on student teachers' reflection skills generated through the content analysis of the journal entries. Finally, an examination of the cooperating teachers and university supervisors' responses revealed common themes and elements as well as relevant and notable differences.

This chapter will begin with a discussion of the results presented in Chapter 4 and the limitations of these findings. Next, the implications of the results with recommendations for future research and practice will be presented.

Discussion of Results

Overall, the findings of this study indicated that engaging student teachers in a six-week autobiographical dialogue journaling activity during their urban student teaching placement did not result in statistically significant changes in the student teachers' levels of cultural sensitivity as measured by their posttest scores on the *Quick Discrimination Index* (Ponterotto & Pederson, 1993). These findings are consistent with previous studies that indicated the difficulty of changing teachers and preservice teachers' beliefs and attitudes (Cabello & Burstein, 1995; Haberman, 1996; Joram & Gabriele, 1997; Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1984).

Qualitative analyses did indicate, however, that the use of *A Reflective Dialogue Journal for Student Teachers: An Autobiographical Approach* prompted student teachers to reflect at higher levels than those who used the traditional journal tool and revealed

that student teachers that reflect at higher levels tended to hold different perspectives toward diversity and teacher expectations than those reflecting at the lowest level. Additional analyses noted distinct differences in the styles and structures of feedback given by the university supervisors and cooperating teachers. An explanation of these results and conclusions follow.

Impact on Cultural Sensitivity of Student Teachers

Quantitative analyses used to assess the impact of the autobiographical dialogue tool on increasing student teachers' level of cultural sensitivity led to insignificant statistical results. Research questions one, two and three explored the extent that student teachers dialoguing with their cooperating teachers or university supervisors would experience changes in their levels of cultural sensitivity after participating in the autobiographical dialogue journaling activity. A lack of statistical significance in the posttest QDI scores of student teachers in the three groups raises questions regarding the sensitivity of the *Quick Discrimination Index* in assessing changes in cultural sensitivity following a six-week journaling experience. As noted in Chapter 3, internal consistency and construct validity studies confirmed the adequacy of the instrument to measure cognitive and affective attitudes toward racial and multicultural diversity with satisfactory test-retest results (Ponterotto et al., 1995; Utsey & Ponterotto, 1999). However, the intractable nature of teachers' behaviors and attitudes about multicultural education (Grant & Secada, 1990; Joram & Gabriele, 1997; Moore, 1996) and their predisposition to change (Garmon, 1998; Haberman, 1996; Terrill & Mark, 2000) may have limited the influence of the autobiographical journaling activity in changing the student teachers' levels of cultural sensitivity over the six-week period journaling period.

Impact on Reflection Levels of Student Teachers

Results of this study clearly indicated that student teachers using *A Reflective Dialogue Journal for Student Teachers: An Autobiographical Approach* wrote more entries representative of the Critical Level than the student teachers using the traditional journal tool. Reflections at the critical level included discussions of the personal and social consequences of instructional practice (see Appendix K). Researchers have recognized the relationship between exploring ones' existing beliefs and preconceptions, which was prompted through the *Reflective Dialogue Journal*, and an increased awareness of the social consequences that face culturally diverse students (Davidman, 1993; Tamura, et al., 1996). Although the results of the *Teaching Interns Feedback Survey* indicated that student teachers did not view the autobiographical journaling experience as useful in preparing them to teach in urban classrooms (Table 18, #7), journaling at the Critical Level does indicated that some student teachers using the autobiographical instruments were moving beyond reflecting just on "what to do as a teacher" to "how and why" based on broader social implications and consequences.

Furthermore, these results suggest that the design of the tool or medium (Kottkamp, 1990) used to guide and organize journaling and reflective activities did prompt the level of reflectivity of the participants. The journaling tool used in this study, *A Reflective Dialogue Journal for Student Teachers: An Autobiographical Approach*, provided structured topics, incorporated dialogue (feedback from the cooperating teacher or university supervisor), and encouraged student teachers to reflect on the feedback responses of their mentor.

Overall, analysis of the student teachers' journal entries found that most of the participants in the study reflected at the Technical and Practical Levels (Van Manen, 1991) (see Table 10). This minimal level of engagement at the highest level, Critical, is supported in other studies that assessed reflection levels (Collier, 1999; Galvez-Martin, 1998).

This study also provided additional data regarding the link between ones' level of cultural sensitivity and reflective skills. Earlier studies (Banks, 1991; Davidman, 1995; Gay, 1993; Gomez & Tabachnick, 1992; Hyun, 1997; Ilmer et al, 1997; Ladson-Billings, 1995; McBee, 1998; Tamura et al., 1996; Weiner, 1999) suggested that educators who reflect critically are also likely to be sensitive to issues of diversity and equality. This relationship was investigated in this study using the QDI scores of student teachers who reflected at the extreme levels (Technical and Critical). Based on the quantitative analysis in this study, there were no interactions between student teachers' cultural sensitivity scores and their levels of reflections. Further study of this relationship using a larger sample size is suggested.

Differing Perspectives of Student Teachers

Perspectives toward diversity. Qualitative analysis of journal entries also revealed that student teachers reflecting at different levels have different views of diversity. Student teachers with high cultural sensitivity and reflection levels and those with low cultural sensitivity and reflection levels revealed distinct differences in their approaches to diversity academically and in their personal experiences with individuals from cultures other than their own (see Table 14).

The group of student teachers with high levels of cultural sensitivity and reflection skills were more likely to identify specific pedagogical strategies they would employ to respond to the diverse academic needs of their students. Their use of specific pedagogical language reflected confidence in their abilities to make instructional decisions based on students' needs. These behaviors are characteristic of critically reflective individuals (Armaline & Hoover, 1989; Colton & Sparks-Langer, 1993; Nieto, 1999; Stickel & Waltman, 1996; Zeichner & Liston, 1996) and culturally aware and responsive teachers (Ladson-Billings, 1994; Powell et al., 1996; Weiner, 1999). Researchers also have agreed that this quality is critical to success and survival in urban classrooms (Payne, 1994; Weiner, 1999).

In addition, these student teachers spoke of their prior experiences with individuals of diverse cultures in personal terms and reflected on how these experiences might benefit them as a teacher. These findings support Hyun's (1997) conclusions that through an autobiographical reflective activity preservice teachers began to recognize the importance of developing diverse teaching styles as they fostered a multiethnic perspective. The qualitative analysis of autobiographical journal entries in this study revealed the tendencies of some student teachers to articulate this perspective.

In contrast, those student teachers with low cultural sensitivity and reflection levels did not identify specific instructional techniques they would employ to address the diverse cultural and academic needs of their students. This group tended to view diversity in schools as problematic, expressed personal apprehensions because of their lack of knowledge about the environment and culture of the students they were teaching, or used a detached third person voice to articulate the teacher's responsibility in

addressing diversity in the classroom (see Table 14). This impersonal approach may be attributed to the fact that this group of student teachers had little or no prior experiences with individuals who belonged to ethnic, religious, or racial groups different than their own. Previous studies also have stressed the relevance of an understanding of the urban community and its cultural norms and behaviors in order to influence teachers' and preservice teachers attitudes and appreciation for cultural differences (Gay, 1993; Ladson-Billings, 1994; Weiner, 1999; Wiggins & Follo, 1999).

These differing perspectives toward diversity of the student teachers examined in this study also suggests that certain individuals may be predisposed to multicultural awareness and sensitivity based on prior life experiences. Some teacher educators have proposed criteria for the selection of teacher candidates based on their entering predispositions, attitudes, beliefs and experiences (Garmon, 1998; Haberman, 1996; Terrill & Mark, 2000). The results described in this study tend to support the influence of prior experiences and predispositions toward cultural sensitivity.

Teacher expectations. Qualitative analysis of the journal entries also revealed that student teachers articulated their expectations of their students and their students' parents differently based on the student teachers' reflection levels and cultural sensitivity scores. As noted in Table 14, student teachers with high cultural sensitivity scores and reflective skills held high expectations for themselves as teacher, for their students, and for their students' parents. Their critical reflective entries illustrated their efforts to begin establishing connections between their values, educational philosophies, and instructional decisions. These student teachers were more likely to focus on their role as teacher in engaging students and parents in the learning process and in communicating clear,

positive, and high expectations for both students and their parents. Although they recognized the unique challenges of the urban classroom, they consistently described strategies they might employ to improve student learning and engage parental support.

In contrast, those student teachers with low cultural sensitivity scores and low reflection levels were less likely to articulate high expectations for their students or their students' parents (see Table 14). Their reflections focused on the challenges teachers faced without parental support because of the complex and varied needs of the students in their classes. They wrote of their frustrations and apprehensions in not being able to meet the needs of all students especially without parental involvement and support. Consequently, these student teachers did not expect parents to be involved in their child's learning, be capable of assisting their child, or be an appropriate role model for education. This tendency to shift responsibility to the family or ethnic culture (group values, attitudes, socioeconomic status) was described in previous research studies (Avery & Walker, 1993; Garmon, 1993; Gay, 1995; Graybill, 1997; Larke, 1990; Paine, 1990; Sleeter, 1992). In fact, student teachers with low cultural sensitivity and reflection levels felt it was their responsibility to teach their students the values and morals that they were not learning at home. This tendency to feel accountable for more than academic responsibilities may have contributed to their feelings of frustration and inadequacy.

Similarities and Differences in Cooperating teachers' and University Supervisor's Feedback

Unique to this study was the data that emerged through a comparison of the feedback student teachers received from their cooperating teachers and university supervisors. Although both types of feedback included responses expected of effective

urban mentors (Guyton & Hildago, 1995), cooperating teachers' responses reflected patterns in which three distinct feedback styles emerged: a) Self-disclosing; b) Philosophical or Theoretical; and c) Teacher Roles and Responsibilities. The analysis of the university supervisors' feedback revealed a pattern similar to the third style identified in the cooperating teachers' responses (see Table 18). However, the university supervisor's feedback included more explicit strategies related to instructional practices than did the cooperating teachers' responses. In addition, overall, the university supervisors' feedback tended to include more questioning and probing comments than the cooperating teachers' feedback responses.

Examination of the summary data on coded reflective entries across groups (Table 10) revealed that student teachers that used the autobiographical dialogue journal with their university supervisors wrote more reflective comments at all three levels, Technical, Practical, and Critical, than did student teachers in the other two groups. In light of the specific, probing nature of the university supervisors' feedback responses, questions arise regarding the influence of those feedback responses on fostering more reflective responses from student teachers. Other studies (Armaline & Hoover, 1989; Fishman & Raver, 1989; Haberman & O'Hair & O'Hair, 1996; Post, 1992; Zeichner, 1992) affirmed the importance of providing structured, written, formative feedback to preservice teachers. Data from the *Teaching Interns' Feedback Survey* also indicated that the majority of those student teachers journaling with their university supervisors (90%) described their own journal entries as being reflective and centering on common themes and issues as compared to only 50% of student teachers journaling with their cooperating teachers (Table 18, #6).

However, the perceptions of the significance of journaling may have impacted the level of involvement of the student teachers in the dialogue journaling activity. Results indicated that more student teachers (80%) that dialogued with their university supervisors viewed the journaling activity as relevant to student teaching than those journaling with their cooperating teacher (40%). Additional research with larger numbers of supervisors and student teachers would be beneficial in clarifying the influence of the structure and content of university supervisors' feedback responses in a similar journaling activity.

Participants' Responses to Autobiographical Dialogue Journaling

Overall, student teachers and their mentors were positive about the journaling experience as indicated on the feedback surveys. Both groups expressed satisfaction with the level of comfort they felt during the experience. Student teachers were pleased with their urban student teaching experience in general and described their relationships with their mentors as being collegial. They also appreciated the feedback, support, and understanding they received from their mentors. These findings are reflected in previous research studies that recognized the value of dialogue journals in building collegial relationships between university supervisors and their student teachers and in engaging student teachers in reflective activities (Bolin, 1998; Fishman & Raver, 1989; Schiller, et al., 1994).

It was anticipated that student teachers using the autobiographical dialogue tool would feel it helpful in preparing them to teach the urban student and would encourage more conversations between student teachers and their mentors about the urban student teaching experience. However, only 20 % of student teachers using the autobiographical

dialogue instrument believed it assisted them with preparing for instruction in the urban classroom (Table 18, #7) compared to 40% of those using the traditional journaling tool. Results also indicated that only 20% of those student teachers using the autobiographical dialogue tool felt the activity prompted conversations with their mentors about teaching in urban classrooms. This view of the relevance of the autobiographical journaling activity was also reflected in the limited number of student teachers (55%) and mentors (57%) who would recommend its use with future student teachers.

Despite the overall positive results of the instrument validation study that was conducted on *A Reflective Dialogue Journal for Student Teachers: An Autobiographical Approach*, these findings suggested that student teachers involved in this study did not connect the value of reflecting on their prior educational experiences and how those experiences differed from their urban students' educational experiences with appropriate instructional planning and practice in urban classrooms. These results differ from earlier conclusions found in studies that emphasized the development of educational biographies by prospective teachers. These researchers noted that through biographies teacher candidates were better able to understand their own values and culture and subsequently become more culturally sensitive to the diverse instructional needs of their students (Goethals & Howard, 2000; Hyun, 1997; Powell et al., 1996). Although student teachers using the autobiographical dialogue journaling tool did reflect at higher levels than those using the traditional journal, these findings support a re-examination of the reflection topics in *A Reflective Dialogue Journal for Student Teachers: An Autobiographical Approach*. Reflection entries could be clarified in terms of their relationship to the urban

learner. This might increase the student teachers' perceptions of the journal's relevance to their instructional practices in the urban classroom.

The university supervisors and cooperating teachers' evaluation of the autobiographical dialogue activity indicated that they perceived the activity as relevant to the professional growth of the beginning teacher. They felt that the student teachers benefited from reflecting about past educational experiences. Although some mentors felt the activity was too general in focus or time-consuming, most concurred that the student teachers' responses were thoughtful and reflective. Due to the limited number of feedback responses returned from cooperating teachers (50%), caution must be exercised when making interpretations based on their comments.

Limitations

Three limitations of this study must be considered when interpreting the findings. First, one possible threat to the external validity of the study is generalizability of results to a population other than early childhood and elementary preservice teachers. It is possible that preservice students enrolled in secondary programs would have had different results on the *QDI* cultural sensitivity inventory because of experiences and courses unique to their specific teacher education program. In fact, an earlier study noted differences between elementary and secondary preservice teachers' responses to items regarding ethnic disparities (Avery & Walker, 1993).

A second concern relates to treatment diffusion. Because of the interactive role of dialogue between university supervisors and student teachers and cooperating teachers and student teachers, it was impossible to control for the content of discussions between the student teachers and their mentors outside of the journaling activity. Such

conversations may have included dialogue on topics that could have influenced the participants' reflections and journaling responses.

A third limitation involves lack of time and access to cooperating teachers for formal training in supervisory skills. Although all participants were given written strategies to prompt reflective activity (see Appendix C), it was not determine which cooperating teachers possessed skills or had had training in supervisory or coaching strategies prior to the student teaching placement. In addition, the limited number of university supervisors and cooperating teachers that participated in the study limits generalizability of results. Both of these factors are potential confounding variables that limit interpretation of the results of the study.

Implications and Recommendations

Findings in this study identified the role of the university supervisor as being critical to the student teachers' reflective process. Engaging student teachers in an autobiographical dialogue journaling activity, such as *A Reflective Dialogue Journal for Student Teachers: An Autobiographical Approach,* with their university supervisor can encourage reflections at a critical level. These results support earlier research studies (Armaline & Hoover, 1989; Collier, 1999; Dinkelman, 1998; Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1984; Zeichner & Liston, 1987) that emphasized the importance of the university supervisor's role in fostering critical reflection during the student teaching field experience. This contradicts those studies that minimized the value and influence of the university supervisor in the professional development of the student teacher (Bowman, 1979; Wilson et al., 1995; Veal & Rikard, 1998). It is recommended that further research studies examine the role of the university supervisor as a "socializing influence"

(Bunting, 1988, p. 46) through an examination of student teachers' reflective practice, especially for preservice students engaged in urban field placements.

Findings also indicate that the structure of university supervisors and cooperating teachers' feedback dialogue with student teachers may affect the depth at which their student teachers reflect. This affirms previous findings regarding the critical role that field supervisors assume in this process by supporting and modeling reflection on practice (Brookhart & Rusnak, 1993; Bunting, 1988; Gay, 1995; Guyton & Hidalgo, 1995; King & Bey, 1995). Further study on the impact of the structure and style of feedback from cooperating teachers and university supervisors would improve the generalization and reliability of the data collected regarding the influence of field mentors' feedback responses on the student teachers' reflection skills.

Concomitantly, teacher preparation programs are encouraged to collaborate with local school systems to provide training to cooperating teachers to enhance their effectiveness and refine their feedback skills (Baker, 1991; McIntyre & Killian, 1987; Wilkins-Canter, 1997). The qualitative analysis of the cooperating teachers' feedback in this study revealed distinct patterns in structure, one of which was similar to the format of the university supervisors' responses. Given the student teachers' positive responses to their university supervisors' feedback, cooperating teachers would benefit from training that focuses on effective mentoring skills (Gay, 1995; Guyton & Hidalgo, 1995), especially relevant to providing constructive, reflective, formative feedback during urban field experiences.

The results of this study also presented mixed findings regarding student teachers' perspectives and attitudes towards their culturally diverse urban students. The use of the

researcher-designed *A Reflective Dialogue Journal for Student Teachers: An Autobiographical Approach* did not significantly change student teachers' levels of cultural sensitivity after a six-week journaling experience. There are concerns, however, regarding the stability of the *QDI* scores over variable time periods (Utsey & Ponterotto, 1999).

However, the results of the qualitative analyses of journal entries do suggest that certain perspectives regarding diversity are related to one's reflection skills and level of cultural sensitivity. Garmon (1998) reported similar findings and suggested that by identifying these factors and focusing on them during multicultural instruction teacher educators may begin to influence preservice teachers' cultural attitudes and beliefs. Student teachers could be encouraged to become more actively involved in self-assessment and monitoring of their own cultural sensitivity throughout their teacher preparation program (Colville-Hall, MacDonald, & Smolen, 1995). Also, additional research studies could investigate what factors are likely to contribute to the development of certain perspectives toward diversity based on the differences identified in this study.

Identification of these critical factors also could have implications for multicultural teacher education curricula that prepare preservice teachers to address the instructional needs of learners from diverse backgrounds. This data suggests that teacher education students may benefit from engagement in discussions regarding their expectations for students and their parents from urban communities, particularly regarding the teaching of values and morals. Such conversations could focus on pedagogical strengths in order to identify solutions to the problems preservice teachers perceive as hindrances to their success with urban learners (Elbaz, 1988; Payne, 1994).

Linking the academic success of the urban student with the instructional tools the

preservice students are learning and implementing may decrease their feelings of not

being prepared. Additionally, imbedding this focus in every phase of teacher preparation

programs is recommended (Colville-Hall et al., 1995; Terrill & Mark, 2000).

This study also indicated that student teachers having prior experiences with

individuals of cultures different than their own bring perspectives, attitudes, and

expectations to the urban student teaching field experience that may contribute to their

positive responsiveness toward cultural diversity. Researchers agree that efforts must be

made to provide preservice teachers with more experiences interacting with students and

parents of diverse cultures (Haberman, 1994, 1996; Ladson-Billings, 1994; Terrill &

Mark, 2000; Wiggins & Follo, 1999). This is especially critical because of the increasing

differences between the ethnic and socioeconomic characteristics of the teaching force

and the public school population. Continued research is necessary to identify

components that contribute to this process of cultural growth and awareness for

preservice teachers through their reflections on experiences with individuals of diverse

cultures (Colville-Hall et al., 1995; Garmon, 1998; Gay & Kirkland, 2003).

Experiencing growth and changes in one's levels of cultural sensitivity is a

continuous and ever-changing process of which reflection is a critical component

(Colville-Hall et al., 1995; Yost, 1997). Self-assessment tools and journaling

experiences, such as *A Reflective Dialogue Journal for Student Teachers: An

Autobiographical Approach*, that address cultural and socioeconomic diversity and its

instructional implications could complement required field experiences. Such

experiences may provide opportunities to examine the roles of teacher expectations on

the instruction of urban students and how biases regarding diverse students can best be minimized or eliminated (Grant & Secada, 1990; Sleeter; 2001; Terrill & Mark, 2000).

Continued investigations into the impact of dialogue journaling between the cooperating teacher and student teacher to impact cultural sensitivity would further an understanding of the skills and qualities of effective urban teachers (Avery & Walker, 1993; Schiller et al., 1994; Wiggins & Follo, 1999). This study does support previous findings that student teachers value feedback from their university supervisors and cooperating teachers (Pellett, et al., 1999; Veal & Rikard, 1998; Osunde, 1996).

Participants' feedback survey on their perceptions of the journaling activity indicated that the length of the journaling process should extend throughout the field experience. Additional data collected supports the revision of journal reflection topics to more clearly link an understanding of one's educational autobiography with its implications to teachers' expectations, appropriate pedagogical decisions, and student achievement. It is also recommended that subsequent studies include preservice teachers who are representative of all education certification programs.

In conclusion, the results of this study are mixed, yet encouraging. Statistical analysis of the influence of the autobiographical dialogue journaling tool showed no significant differences in the cultural sensitivity levels among the three groups of student teachers. However, qualitative findings indicated that there were differences in the student teachers' expectations of their students and in their view of diversity and its impact on instructional decisions. In addition, the use of the intervention instrument, *A Reflective Dialogue Journal for Student Teachers: An Autobiographical Approach,* did prompt student teachers to reflect at more critical levels. Participants also agreed that the

dialogue journaling process contributed to the development of a collegial relationship between the student teachers and either their cooperating teacher or university supervisor. Further analysis of journal entries revealed interesting patterns in the structure of the feedback responses of the cooperating teachers and university supervisors.

Additional investigations examining the effects of these variables on the cultural sensitivity of student teachers are necessary in order to prepare teachers who will meet the instructional needs of culturally diverse students. It is suggested that efforts be focused on increasing awareness of the factors that shape the beliefs, attitudes, biases, and expectations of preservice students and the influence of urban field experiences in redefining those expectations. A critical component of understanding this process would involve deeper investigations into the dynamics of the process of mentoring prospective teachers in urban schools that considers the "voices" of all involved.

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A Reflective Dialogue Journal for Student Teachers

An Autobiographical Approach
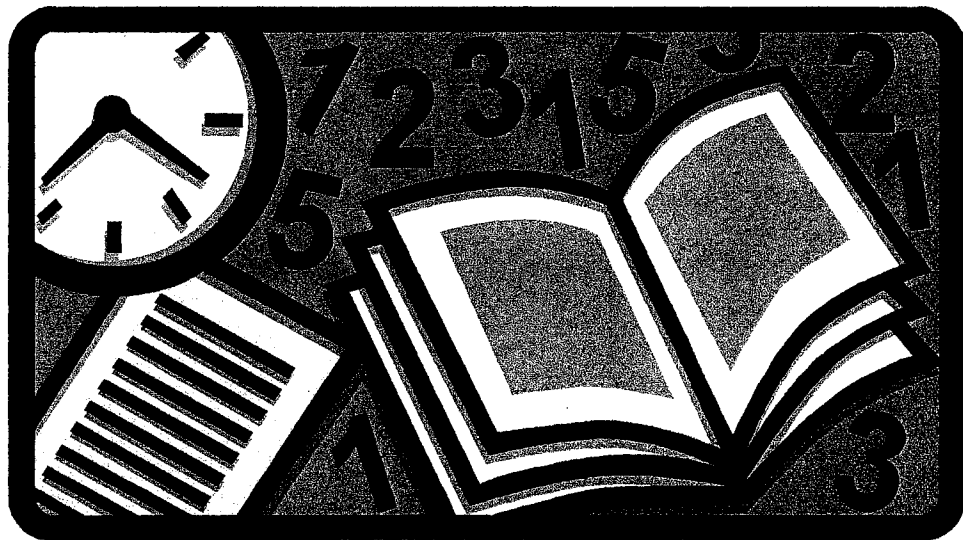
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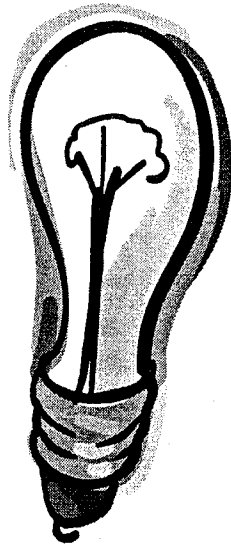
This Journal Belongs To:

_____

For the next six weeks you will be engaged in the process of "Exploring and Writing Your Educational Autobiography".

Your **Cooperating Teacher** will respond to your journal entries weekly. If you choose, you may type your responses instead of writing in the _Reflective Journal_. Please insert your typed journal entries in the pockets and turn in the entire journal when instructed to do so.
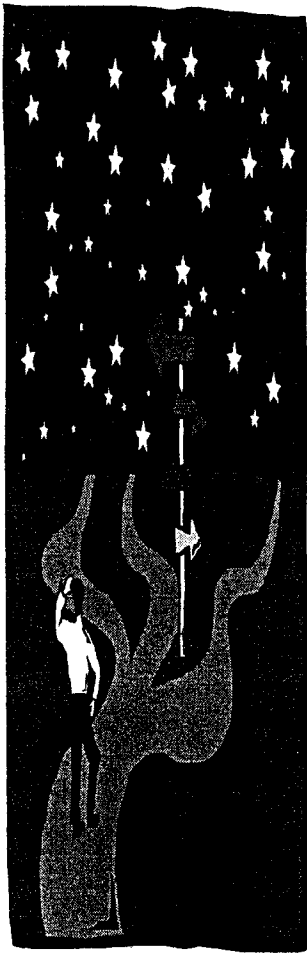
"...IF THERE IS ANYTHING THAT WE WISH TO CHANGE IN THE CHILD, WE SHOULD FIRST EXAMINE IT AND SEE WHETHER IT IS NOT SOMETHING THAT COULD BETTER BE CHANGED IN OURSELVES." C. S. JUNG

TO THE STUDENT TEACHER:

Congratulations! You have reached an exciting and challenging phase in your teacher education program.

This *Reflective Dialogue Journal* will encourage you to explore your own educational experiences, to reflect upon the beliefs, values, and assumptions you possess, and their implications in culturally and socio-economically diverse classrooms. By writing and reflecting upon your own educational autobiography and dialoguing with your cooperating teacher or university supervisor, you will begin to better understand how your life experiences can assist you in effectively teaching diverse students (Powell, Zehm, & Garcia, 1996).

Through journaling, you will enhance your reflective learning and teaching skills, essential to continued personal and professional growth as an educator in the diverse classrooms of the 21st century.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

EXPLORING AND WRITING YOUR EDUCATIONAL AUTOBIOGRAPHY

WEEK 1 - Topic: INFLUENTIAL TEACHERS

As you begin your student teaching field experience, think of teachers for whom you had a positive experience as a student? What were those teachers like?

Next, think of teachers for whom you had negative experiences as a student. What were those teachers like?

Given your experiences with these teachers, how do you think they will influence your own experiences as a classroom teacher?

STUDENT TEACHER ENTRY #1   **DATE**

1

Journal Activity   - WEEK 1

STUDENT TEACHER ENTRY #1 – (Continued)

2

Journal Activity – WEEK 1

COOPERATING TEACHER'S RESPONSE   DATE_____

3

Journal Activity – WEEK 1   DATE_____

STUDENT TEACHER'S REFLECTIONS ON COOPERATING TEACHER'S DIALOGUE

4

WEEK 2 -   Topic: SCHOOLING: A PERSONAL EXPERIENCE

Begin by recalling your educational experiences as a student. Record your descriptions, feelings, and reactions below. Answer the following:

1. Describe your educational experiences as an elementary student and secondary student.
2. How do you think the size and location of your elementary and secondary schools affected your educational experiences?
3. How do you think the composition and characteristics of the student bodies affected your educational experiences? For example, consider how similar or diverse students were in terms of ethnic culture, race, religion, academic potential, gender, and social class.

In what ways would your prior, educational experiences influence your own classroom instruction as a teacher?

STUDENT TEACHER - ENTRY #1   **DATE:**

5

Journal Activity - WEEK 2   DATE_____

STUDENT TEACHER - ENTRY #1 – (Continued)

6

Journal Activity   - WEEK 2   DATE_____

COOPERATING TEACHER'S RESPONSE

7

Journal Activity   - WEEK 2   DATE_____

STUDENT TEACHER'S REFLECTION ON COOPERATING TEACHER'S DIALOGUE

8

WEEK 3 - Topic: FAMILY VALUES TOWARD EDUCATION

How would you describe your family's values toward education?

How do these values differ from those of the students you teach?

How do they influence your own classroom instruction as a teacher?

STUDENT TEACHER ENTRY #1   **DATE:**_____

9

Journal Activity   - WEEK 3

STUDENT TEACHER ENTRY #1 – (Continued)

10

Journal Activity   - WEEK 3

COOPERATING TEACHER'S RESPONSE   DATE_____

11

Journal Activity   - WEEK 3

STUDENT TEACHER'S REFLECTION ON COOPERATING TEACHER'S DIALOGUE

12

WEEK 4 - Topic: SCHOOLS AND THEIR COMMUNITIES

Consider the nature of the communities where you lived when you attended elementary and secondary schools.

      *What was the relationship between the schools you attended and the community (or communities) where you lived?

      *What is the nature of the community where you are now your student teaching?

      *How would you describe the relationship between the community and the school where you are student teaching?

*How does the community's relationship with the school influence your effectiveness as a classroom teacher?

STUDENT TEACHER ENTRY #1

13

Journal Activity   -   WEEK 4

STUDENT TEACHER ENTRY #1 – (Continued)

14

Journal Activity   - WEEK 4

COOPERATING TEACHER'S RESPONSE   DATE_____

15

Journal Activity   - WEEK 4

STUDENT TEACHER'S REFLECTION ON COOPERATING TEACHER'S DIALOGUE

16

WEEK 5 - Topic: TEACHING-RELATED EXPERIENCES

Recall any prior teaching/tutoring/mentoring/coaching experience you have had outside of K-12 classrooms. Discuss your experiences with individuals from cultures other than your own in previous work-related and non-school teaching situations.

How will these experiences influence your own classroom instruction as a teacher?

STUDENT TEACHER ENTRY #1   **DATE:**

17

Journal Activity   -   WEEK 5

STUDENT TEACHER ENTRY #1 – (Continued)

18

Journal Activity   - WEEK 4

COOPERATING TEACHER'S RESPONSE   DATE_____

19

STUDENT TEACHER'S REFLECTION ON COOPERATING TEACHER'S DIALOGUE

20

WEEK 6   Exploring and Writing Your Educational Autobiography

Topic: **MY EDUCATIONAL AUTOBIOGRAPHY**

Using the information and insights you recorded over the past five weeks, write your educational autobiographical summary. How has the culture of your own education shaped your perceptions and expectations, and how have you interpreted them? Consider those events that were most influential in shaping your beliefs about teaching in general and about teaching culturally diverse students in particular.

STUDENT TEACHER ENTRY #1   **DATE:** _____

21

STUDENT TEACHER ENTRY #1 – (Continued)

STUDENT TEACHER'S ENTRY # 1 (continued)   DATE_____

Reflection Activity - WEEK 6   DATE_____

COOPERATING TEACHER'S RESPONSE TO AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL SUMMARY

24

STUDENT TEACHER'S FINAL REFLECTION: RESPONSE TO COOPERATING TEACHER'S DIALOGUE
ENTRY #2

25

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Spring 2003 Semester   Old Dominion University

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA QUESTIONNAIRE

1. What is your area of certification?

    _____

Please check the item that best answers each question.

2. Gender: ____ Male   ____ Female

3. Racial Identification:
    ____ Caucasian   ____ African American
    ____ Hispanic   ____ Asian American
    ____ Native American ____ Other: _____

4. Age:
    ____ 22 – 25   ____ 26 - 30   ____ 31 - 35
    ____ 36 – 40   ____ 41 - 45   ____ 46 - 50
    ____ 50 +

5. Are you enrolled in a degree-seeking program?
    ____ YES   ____ NO

6. How would you describe your hometown (where you spent the majority of your school-aged years)?
    ____ Rural   ____ Suburban   ____ Urban

REFLECTIVE JOURNALING SEMINAR OUTLINE

I.   What is reflective thinking?

    A. Dewey, Schon, Zeichner & Liston
    B. Value to Teachers
    C. Value in Urban Teaching Experience (Gay, Weiner)

II. Elements of Reflective Action (Dewey, 1933)
    A. Openmindedness
    B. Responsibility
    C. Wholeheartedness

III. Advantages of Becoming a Reflective Practitioner
    A. Enhances self-awareness of professional development
        - Clarifies educational philosophy
        - Broaden understanding of role as teacher
        - Understand connection between personal belief system and professional growth.
    B. Develops new professional knowledge
        - Focus on the learner and effective instructional strategies
        - Articulate theories that guide practice.
        - Encourages collaborative conversations.
    C. Wider understanding of problems confronting teachers.
        - Reexamine own personal experiences, ideas, assumptions and values about learning philosophies, students, school and community in which you teach.
    D. Uncover old ideas and assumptions that interfere with desire to change.
        Weiner (1999) – especially important when teachers are working with students who have life experiences and values very different from their own.

THE PROCESS OF REFLECTIVE JOURNALING

Reflective Journaling activities provide opportunities for student teachers to reflect on their existing beliefs regarding teaching through critically reflective questions. Reflection is a thoughtful response to either preplanned or spontaneous but *conscious decisions and actions.* The reflective thinking process involves continuously asking questions such as:

- What am I doing?
- Why?
- How well are my students learning?
- How do I know?
- Does this relate to my students' experiences?
- Do I believe I can reach and teach every student?

QUESTIONS & THOUGHTS:

Reflective Thinking is defined as the "active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in light of the grounds that support it and the consequences to which it leads" (Zeichner & Liston, 1987, p. 24).

- Involves more than a "rational process" when solving problems;
- Utilizes both emotional and rational resources;
- Carefully considers the reasons that support one's beliefs and decisions;
- Actively considers the consequences of one's decisions regarding learning and teaching.

QUESTIONS & THOUGHTS:

Moving from Routine Decision-Making to Reflective Decision-Making (Dewey, 1933)

- Avoid making decisions based solely on tradition, authority, impulse, or expectations defined by the institution.
- Generate ideas of your own to solve problems and resolve dilemmas.
- Don't ignore issues or challenges that do not fit into your professional problem solving framework.

QUESTIONS & THOUGHTS:

Three Attributes of Reflective Teachers (Dewey, 1933)

1) OPENMINDEDNESS

- Seek solutions from a variety of sources by analyzing problems from different perspectives.
- Constantly reflect upon the reasons for their actions.

2) RESPONSIBILITY
- Ability to analyze ones beliefs and actions based on their values.
- Extend the question of why they are doing what they are doing, to consider why and for whom it is working (Weiner, 1999).
- Important to the growth of reflection in beginning teachers (Sparks-Langer et al., 1990), these 'why' questions serve as an opportunity for understanding the value and purpose of their teaching. Zeichner & Liston (1996) proposed that responsible teachers would consider three kinds of consequences of their teaching: "(a) personal consequences – the effects of one's teaching on pupil self-concepts; (b) academic consequences – the effects of one's teaching on pupils' intellectual development; and (c) social and political consequences – the projected effects of one's teaching on the life chances of various pupils" (p. 11).

3) WHOLEHEARTEDNESS
- Encourages teachers to explore options to meet their commitments to students.
- Develops trust and credibility (Weiner, 1999).
- Reflection upon ones' assumptions, beliefs, and the impact of decisions with an open, responsible approach.
- Willingness to analyze one's educational, cultural and social background as well as teaching roles, interests, and qualifications comprising a "personal biography" essential in reflective teaching (Pollard & Tann, 1987, p. 37).

QUESTIONS & THOUGHTS:

■■■

Begin Journaling Activity: Week of January 13 – February 21
Journals DUE: WEDNESDAY, MARCH 5 – Student Teaching Seminar

WEEKLY JOURNAL
(To be delivered each week to Old Dominion University Supervisor)

Use this journal to describe your progress in becoming a *Professional Educator* in relation to the goals on page 9 of the Handbook.

Name_____   Date_____

Were the objectives met in your class presentations?

What were the reactions of your students to your lessons? Do you think you made an impact on their learning? (How are you measuring this?)

Did you make any changes in your plans? Why?

What changes would you make if you taught the same lessons again?

What areas will you seek to improve in future lessons?

Did you have a conference with your clinical faculty?

What do you regard as your most important learning experience during this week?

When would be a good time for me to stop by your school next week?

Tell me about a lesson you are proud of.

Are you having problems which you feel prompt attention and assistance from me?

COMMENTS:

Instrument Validation Study
A Reflective Dialogue Journal for Student Teachers: An Autobiographical Approach

Analysis of Questions in Journal

Rate each REFLECTION TOPIC according to:
- **Clarity of Questions**
  * 1- Vague; 2- Fairly clear; 3- Concise

- **Level of Thoughtfulness Questions Provoked**
  * 1- Limited; 2- Average; 3- Maximum

- **Degree of Comfort with Answering Questions**
  * 1- Uncomfortable; 2- Fairly comfortable; 3-Definitely comfortable

- **Relevance of Questions to Role as a Student Teacher**
  *1-Not relevant; 2- Somewhat relevant; 3-Definitely relevant

Circle the appropriate number. See questions on attached handout.

1) **Week 1 - Reflection Topic**
   - A. Clarity of Questions   1   2   3
   - B. Level of Thoughtfulness   1   2   3
   - C. Degree of Comfort   1   2   3
   - D. Relevance of Questions   1   2   3

2) **Week 2 – Reflection Topic**
   - A. Clarity of Questions   1   2   3
   - B. Level of Thoughtfulness   1   2   3
   - C. Degree of Comfort   1   2   3
   - D. Relevance of Questions   1   2   3

3) **Week 3 – Reflection Topic**
   - A. Clarity of Questions   1   2   3
   - B. Level of Thoughtfulness   1   2   3
   - C. Degree of Comfort   1   2   3
   - D. Relevance of Questions   1   2   3

Instrument Validation Study

4) Week 4 – Reflection Topic
   A. Clarity of Questions   1   2   3
   B. Level of Thoughtfulness   1   2   3
   C. Degree of Comfort   1   2   3
   D. Relevance of Questions   1   2   3

5) Week 5 – Reflection Topic A
   A. Clarity of Questions   1   2   3
   B. Level of Thoughtfulness   1   2   3
   C. Degree of Comfort   1   2   3
   D. Relevance of Questions   1   2   3

   Week 5 – Reflection Topic B
   A. Clarity of Questions   1   2   3
   B. Level of Thoughtfulness   1   2   3
   C. Degree of Comfort   1   2   3
   D. Relevance of Questions   1   2   3

6) Week 6 – Reflection Topic
   A. Clarity of Questions   1   2   3
   B. Level of Thoughtfulness   1   2   3
   C. Degree of Comfort   1   2   3
   D. Relevance of Questions   1   2   3

What specific changes would you suggest to improve this journaling instrument?

_____
_____
_____
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_____

Instrument Validation Study

Dialogue Journaling Process

1. Did you have sufficient time to respond to each question?

2. How comfortable were you sharing this information with your supervisor?

3. How valuable do you feel your "reflections" to each question were to the overall journaling process?

4. What logistical problems did you encounter with the journaling process?

5. What changes would you recommend to improve this dialogue journaling activity for use by future student teachers?

Wanda G. Lastrapes *Spring 2002*

Instrument Validation Study
A Reflective Dialogue Journal for Student Teachers: An Autobiographical Approach

Feedback from University Supervisors/Cooperating Teachers

Analysis of Questions in Journal

Rate each REFLECTION TOPIC according to:
- Clarity of Questions
  * 1- Vague; 2- Fairly clear; 3- Concise

- Level of Thoughtfulness Questions Provoked
  * 1- Limited; 2- Average; 3- Maximum

- Relevance of Questions to Student Teaching Experience
  *1-Not relevant; 2- Somewhat relevant; 3-Definitely relevant

Circle the appropriate number. See questions on attached handout.

1) Week 1 - Reflection Topic
   - A. Clarity of Questions   1   2   3
   - B. Level of Thoughtfulness   1   2   3
   - C. Relevance of Questions   1   2   3

2) Week 2 – Reflection Topic
   - A. Clarity of Questions   1   2   3
   - B. Level of Thoughtfulness   1   2   3
   - C. Relevance of Questions   1   2   3

3) Week 3 – Reflection Topic
   - A. Clarity of Questions   1   2   3
   - B. Level of Thoughtfulness   1   2   3
   - C. Relevance of Questions   1   2   3

Instrument Validation Study

4) Week 4 – Reflection Topic
    A. Clarity of Questions   1   2   3
    B. Level of Thoughtfulness 1   2   3
    C. Relevance of Questions 1   2   3

5) Week 5 – Reflection Topic A
    A. Clarity of Questions   1   2   3
    B. Level of Thoughtfulness 1   2   3
    C. Relevance of Questions 1   2   3

    Week 5 – Reflection Topic B
    A. Clarity of Questions   1   2   3
    B. Level of Thoughtfulness 1   2   3
    C. Relevance of Questions 1   2   3

6) Week 6 – Reflection Topic
    A. Clarity of Questions   1   2   3
    B. Level of Thoughtfulness 1   2   3
    C. Relevance of Questions 1   2   3

What specific changes would you suggest to improve this journaling instrument?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

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_____

Instrument Validation Study

Dialogue Journaling Process

6. Did you have sufficient time to respond to each question?

7. How comfortable were you responding to reflections of this nature?

8. What logistical problems did you encounter with the journaling process?

9. What changes would you recommend to improve this dialogue journaling activity for use by future student teachers and their field supervisors?

12156 Lake Fern Drive
Jacksonville, FL 32258
(904) 880-1842

Wanda G. Lastrapes

CONSENT FORM

January 6, 2003

Dear Cooperating Teacher & University Supervisor:

I congratulate your decision to mentor a future teacher! Your position as an educator is an important one. I am sure that this field experience will prove to be a memorable one for your student teacher and a professionally rewarding one for you as well.

I am writing to inform you that your student teacher was randomly selected to participate in a study of the urban student teaching field experience. Currently, I am a doctoral student at Old Dominion University and am particularly interested in the journaling process between student teachers and their cooperating teachers and university supervisors. Permission has been secured from the Norfolk Public School System to request your cooperation in this study.

The study involves the following aspects:

1) All student teachers enrolled in the Early Childhood Certification Program for the spring 2003 semester will participate in a six-week dialogue journaling activity with **either** their cooperating teacher **or** university supervisor. This requires completing one journal entry each week.

2) **You are asked to respond in writing to your student teacher's written entry each week.** Your feedback should relate to the student teacher's remarks in light of the specific reflection topic and questions. You may provide probing questions, affirming comments, supportive remarks or reflections of your own.

3) Student teachers will be asked to submit of a copy of their journal for qualitative analysis at the end of the study. This analysis will include an identification of common themes among participants.

4) At the conclusion of the study, you will be asked to complete a brief Likert-type survey to assess your degree of satisfaction and comfort with the reflective dialogue journaling activity.

Be assured that all journal entries will be kept anonymous and confidential to the extent provided by law. All journals will be given a code number that will appear on all results. Your identity will not be revealed to anyone or appear in any written work. It is also understood that you do not have to answer any questions you do not wish to answer; however, I am confident that you will find the process professionally stimulating, relevant, and beneficial to your student teacher during the first six weeks of their field experience.

If you have any questions concerning your participation in the study, I can be reached by phone at (904) 880-1842 and by email at: kwlastrapes@earthlink.net. You will also have an opportunity to request a summary of the study at a later date.

Please sign and return the lower portion of this form indicating your consent to participate in the enclosed addressed envelope. Thank you for your interest and cooperation.

Yours truly,

Wanda G. Lastrapes,
Doctoral Candidate, Urban Education

■■■

Please sign and return this portion to the researcher:

I have read the procedure described above. I have also received a copy of this description and hereby give my consent to take part in the study on the journaling process between student teachers and their cooperating teachers and university supervisors.

_____   _____
Participant's Signature   **Date**

APPENDIX F

12156 Lake Fern Drive
Jacksonville, FL 32258
(904) 880-1842

Wanda G. Lastrapes

CONSENT FORM

January 6, 2003

Dear Student Teacher:

I congratulate you on reaching this important point in your academic preparation at Old Dominion University. As a certified secondary teacher, I vividly recall my student teaching experience, my supportive cooperating teacher, and many of the students I taught during my culminating field experience. This field experience will likewise be a memorable one for you.

I am writing to request your participation in a study of the urban student teaching field experience. Currently, I am a doctoral student at Old Dominion University and am particularly interested in the journaling process between student teachers and their cooperating teachers and university supervisors. Permission has been secured from your department chair to request your cooperation.

The study involves three phases:
1) Completion of a pre- and post-attitude survey with a demographic data questionnaire.
2) Participation in a six-week dialogue journaling activity with **either** your cooperating teacher **or** university supervisor. This requires completing one journal entry each week.
3) Submission of a copy of your journal for qualitative analysis at the end of the study.

Be assured that all survey responses and journal entries will be kept anonymous and confidential to the extent provided by law. You will be given a code number that will appear on all results. Your identity will not be revealed to anyone or appear in any written work. Although the responses you provide will not in any way affect your grade in this course, it is understood that participation in a journaling activity is a course requirement. The journaling activities associated with this study will satisfy those requirements. It is also understood that you do not have to answer any

questions you do not wish to answer; however, I am confident that you will find the process professionally stimulating, relevant, and beneficial to you during the first weeks of your student teaching field experience.

If you have any questions concerning your participation in the study, I can be reached by phone at (904) 880-1842 and by email at: kwlastrapes@earthlink.net. Please sign the lower portion of this form indicating your consent to participate.

Thank you for your interest and cooperation.

Yours truly,

Wanda G. Lastrapes,
Doctoral Candidate, Urban Education

▪▪

Please sign and return this portion to the researcher:

I have read the procedure described above. I have also received a copy of this description and hereby give my consent to take part in the study on the journaling process between student teachers and their cooperating teachers and university supervisors.

_____   _____
Participant's Signature   **Date**

SOCIAL ATTITUDE SURVEY

Please respond to all items in the survey. Remember there are no right or wrong answers. The survey is completely anonymous; do not put your name on the survey. Please check the appropriate space to the right of each question.

	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Not Sure 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
1. I do think it is more appropriate for the mother of a newborn baby, rather than the father, to stay home the first year.					
2. It is as easy for women to succeed in business as it is for men.					
3. I really think affirmative action programs on college campuses constitute reverse discrimination.					
4. I feel I could develop an intimate relationship with someone from a different race.					
5. All Americans should learn to speak two languages.					
6. I look forward to the day when a woman is President of the United States.					
7. Generally speaking, men work harder than women.					
8. My friendship network is very racially mixed.					
9. I am against affirmative action programs in business.					
10. Generally, men seem less concerned with building relationships than do women.					
11. I would feel O.K. about my son or daughter dating someone from a different race.					

	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Not Sure 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
12. I look forward to the day when a racial minority person is President of the United States.					
13. In the past few years there has been too much attention directed toward multicultural issues in education.					
14. I think feminist perspectives should be an integral part of the higher education curriculum.					
15. Most of my close friends are from my own racial group.					
16. I feel somewhat more secure that a man rather than a woman is currently President of the United States.					
17. I think that it is (or would be) important for my children to attend schools that are racially mixed.					
18. In the past few years there has been too much attention directed towards multicultural issues in business.					
19. Overall, I think racial minorities in America complain too much about racial discrimination.					
20. I feel (or would feel) very comfortable having a woman as my primary physician.					
21. I think the President of the United States should make a concerted effort to appoint more women and racial minorities to the country's Supreme Court.					
22. I think white people's racism toward racial minority groups still constitutes a major problem in America.					

	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Not Sure 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
23. I think the school system, from elementary school through college, should encourage minority and immigrant children to learn and fully adopt traditional American values.					
24. If I were to adopt a child, I would be happy to adopt a child of any race.					
25. I think there is as much female physical violence towards men as there is male physical violence toward women.					
26. I think the school system, from elementary school through college, should promote values representative of diverse cultures.					
27. I believe that reading the autobiography of Malcolm X would be of value.					
28. I would enjoy living in a neighborhood consisting of a racially diverse population (e.g., Asians, Blacks, Hispanics, Whites).					
29. I think it is better if people many within their own race.					
30. Women make too big of a deal out of sexual harassment in the workplace.					

APPENDIX G

SCORING INFORMATION

THE QUICK DISCRIMINATION INDEX

There are two methods of scoring the QDI. First, you can simply use the total score, which measures overall sensitivity, awareness, and receptivity to cultural diversity and gender equality.

The second scoring procedure involves scoring three separate subscales (factors) of the QDI. This is the preferred method at this time (1994) given that both exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis support the construct validity of the three-factor model.

Of the 30 items on the QDI, 15 are worded and scored in a positive direction (high scores indicate high sensitivity to multicultural/gender issues), and 15 are worded and scored in a negative direction (low scores are indicative of high sensitivity). Naturally, when tallying the total score response, these latter 15 items need to be reverse scored. Reverse scoring simply means that if a respondent circles a 1 they should get 5 points; a 2, four points, a 3, three points, a 4 two points; and a 5, one point.

The following QDI items need to be reverse scored: 1, 2, 3, 7, 9, 10, 13, 15, 16, 18, 19, 23, 25, 29, and 30.

The score range is 30 to 150, with high scores indicating more awareness, sensitivity, and receptivity to racial diversity and gender equality.

If scoring separate subscales (factors), the researcher should not also use the total score. As expected, the total score is highly correlated with subscale scores, and to use both would be redundant.

When scoring separate subscales, only 23 of the total 30 items are scored.

Factor 1: General (Cognitive) Attitudes Toward Racial Diversity/Multiculturalism
(items in parentheses are reverse-scored)
9 items: (3), (9), (13), (18), (19), 22, (23), 26, 27 (score range = 9 to 45)

Factor 2: Affective Attitudes Toward More Personal Contact (Closeness) with Racial Diversity (items in parentheses are reversed-scored)
7 items: 4, 8, 11, (15), 17, 24, (29) (score range = 7 to 35)

Factor 3: Attitudes Toward Women's Equity (items in parentheses are reverse-scored)
7 items: (1), 6, (7), 14, (16), 20, (30)
(score range = 7 to 35)

Permission granted by Joseph G. Ponterotto, Ph.D., Counseling Psychology Program, Graduate School of Education, Fordham University at Lincoln Center, New York

LIST OF CODES FOR QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF JOURNALS

Student Teachers' Levels of Reflection (Van Manen, 1991)	Codes
Reflection Level 1: Technical	RL-TNC
Teaching Strategies	RLSTRG-TNC
Student Achievement	RLACHV-TNC
Reflection Level 2: Practical	RL-PRT
Application of Strategies &	
Student Achievement	RLAPST-PRT
Self-Reflection	RLSLF-PRT
Reflection Level 3: Critical	RL-CRT
Past Experiences	RLEXP-CRT
Societal Issues	RLSOC-CRT
Questioning	RLQUS-CRT
Self-Criticism	RLSCRM-CRT

Urban Mentor Qualities (Guyton & Hildago, 1995)	Codes
Mediator	UM-MED
Efficacious	UM-EFC
Collaborator	UM-COL
Ethnic Identity	UM-ETN
Pedagogues	UM-PED
Interpersonal Skills	UM-ITP

APPENDIX I

TEACHING INTERNS' FEEDBACK SURVEY

Please provide feedback regarding your recent journaling experience during student teaching. **Check the appropriate response and explain your choices below each question. Indicate which journaling tool you used and with whom you dialogued.**

_____Reflective Dialogue Journal with: _____Traditional Journal
        _____Cooperating Teacher
        _____University Supervisor

	None	Minimal	Somewhat	Definitely
1. How relevant do you believe the journaling activity was to your student teaching experience? **WHY OR WHY NOT:**				
2. How important do you believe the topics were to your professional growth as a beginning teacher? **IN WHAT WAYS:**				
3. To what extent did the journaling activity lead to conversations with your cooperating teacher or university supervisor about the **urban** teaching experience? **WHAT TOPICS DID YOU DISCUSS:**				
4. To what extent would you describe the level of collegiality in your relationship with your cooperating teacher or university supervisor? **WHY:**				
5. Do you believe you and your cooperating teacher or university supervisor had adequate time to respond to the entries? **HOW MUCH MORE OR LESS TIME WAS NEEDED:**				

Please provide feedback regarding your recent journaling experience during student teaching.
Check the appropriate response and explain your choice below each question.

	None	Minimal	Somewhat	Definitely
6. To what extent would you describe your responses as **reflective and thoughtful?** **WHY OR WHY NOT:**				
7. To what extent did the journaling activity help you in preparing instruction for the urban elementary student? **GIVE SPECIFIC EXAMPLES:**				
8. To what extent did your responses center on common themes, issues, or concerns? **SPECIFY:**				
9. To what extent would you recommend this journaling activity to future teaching interns? **HOW DO YOU FEEL THEY WOULD BENEFIT:**				
10. Overall, to what extent were you satisfied with your urban student teaching experience? **WHY OR WHY NOT:**				

PLEASE FEEL FREE TO SHARE ADDITIONAL REFLECTIONS:

_____

_____

_____

____ **CHECK HERE IF YOU WOULD LIKE A SUMMARY OF RESEARCH FINDINGS.**

Your participation and feedback are sincerely appreciated!

CHECK ONE: ____Cooperating Teacher   ____University Supervisor

UNIVERSITY SUPERVISORS/COOPERATING TEACHERS' FEEDBACK SURVEY

Please provide feedback regarding your recent experience using the <u>Reflective Dialogue Journal for Student Teachers: An Autobiographical Approach</u> with your teaching intern(s) by **checking the appropriate response and writing comments to explain your choices.**

	None	Minimal	Somewhat	Definitely
1. How relevant do you believe the journaling activity was to the student teaching experience? **IN WHAT WAYS:**				
2. How important do you believe the topics were to the professional growth of the beginning teacher? **DESCRIBE TOPICS:**				
3. To what extent did the journaling activity lead to conversations with your teaching intern(s) about the **urban** teaching experience? **WHAT DID YOU DISCUSS:**				
4. To what extent do you believe your student teacher(s) benefited from the journaling experience? **IN WHAT WAYS:**				
5. Do you believe you and your teaching intern(s) had adequate time to respond to the entries? **HOW MUCH MORE OR LESS TIME WAS NEEDED:**				

Page 1

Please provide feedback regarding your recent experience using the <u>Reflective Dialogue Journal</u> <u>for Student Teachers: An Autobiographical Approach</u> with your student teacher(s) by **checking** the appropriate response **and writing comments to explain your choices.**

	None	**Minimal**	**Somewhat**	**Definitely**
6. To what extent would you describe your intern's responses as **reflective and thoughtful?** **WHY OR WHY NOT:**				
7. To what extent were you and your intern able to dialogue weekly with ease? **WHAT INHIBITED OR STIMULATED DIALOGUE:**				
8. To what extent did your intern's responses center on common themes or concerns? **DESCRIBE THE COMMON ISSUES:**				
9. How relevant do you believe the journaling activity was to your role as a mentor? **DO YOU BELIEVE YOU BENEFITED? IN WHAT WAYS:**				
10. To what extent would you recommend this journaling activity to future teaching interns? **WHAT WOULD THEY LEARN?**				

PLEASE FEEL FREE TO SHARE ADDITIONAL REFLECTIONS: _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

____ **CHECK HERE IF YOU WOULD LIKE A SUMMARY OF RESEARCH FINDINGS.**

Your participation and feedback are sincerely appreciated!

DATA SUMMARY CHART
CODED REFLECTION LEVELS

Group 1 – Student Teachers/Cooperating Teachers

SUBJECTS	TECHNICAL STRG	ACHV	*	PRACTICAL APST	SLF	* EXP	CRITICAL SOC	QUS	CRM	OVERALL LEVEL
ST/CT 8	0	4	4	4	3	0	1		0	PRACTICAL
ST/CT 9	0	0	4	4	2	1				PRACTICAL
ST/CT 3	0	3	5	5	6	2	1	1		CRITICAL
ST/CT 5	4	3	5	5	1	0	1	0		PRACTICAL
ST/CT 2	0	1	7	9	6	6	1	2		CRITICAL
ST/CT10	1	3	9	7	8	2	3	3		CRITICAL
ST/CT 1	2	4	0	3	1	0	0	1		TECHNICAL
ST/CT 4	2	4	6	8	5	5	0	1		CRITICAL
ST/CT 7	1	3	2	5	2	3	1	1		PRACTICAL
ST/CT 6										CT DID NOT PARTICIPATE

DATA SUMMARY CHART
CODED REFLECTION LEVELS

Group 2 – Student Teachers/University Supervisors

| SUBJECTS | TECHNICAL | | | PRACTICAL | | | | CRITICAL | | | OVERALL |
	STRG	ACHV	*	APST	SLF	*	EXP	SOC	QUS	CRM	LEVEL
ST/US 8	4	3	0	4	3			0	0	0	TECHNICAL
ST/US 7	1	1	2	5	3			2	1	0	PRACTICAL
ST/US 6	2	4	7	8	11			1	0	1	CRITICAL
ST/US 5	3	5	5	5	4			7	0	4	CRITICAL
ST/US 4	3	5	3	5	1			2	1	0	PRACTICAL
ST/US 1	4	4	5	6	6			4	3	3	CRITICAL
ST/US 3	2	3	1	10	5			1	1	0	PRACTICAL
ST/US 10	4	3	3	5	3			2	0	1	PRACTICAL
ST/US 9	3	4	6	11	5			3	1	2	CRITICAL
ST/US 2	5	2	5	5	5			1	0	1	PRACTICAL

DATA SUMMARY CHART
CODED REFLECTION LEVELS

Group 3 – Student Teachers/Traditional Journals

SUBJECTS	TECHNICAL		PRACTICAL			CRITICAL			OVERALL LEVEL
	STRG	ACHV	* APST	SLF *	EXP	SOC	QUS	CRM	
ST 1	4	2	3	2	0	1	0	0	TECHNICAL
ST 3	5	2	3	1	0	0	0	0	TECHNICAL
ST 2	6	6	5	2	0	0	0	0	TECHNICAL
ST 10	3	4	3	1	0	0	0	0	TECHNICAL
ST 8	2	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	TECHNICAL
ST 5	3	0	6	5	0	0	0	1	PRACTICAL
ST 6	3	1	3	1	0	0	0	0	TECHNICAL
ST 9	5	1	5	4	1	0	0	0	PRACTICAL
ST 7	5	5	3	3	0	0	0	0	TECHNICAL

EXAMPLES OF CODED REFLECTIVE ENTRIES FROM JOURNALS

Group 1 – Student Teachers/Cooperating Teachers Using the Autobiographical Dialogue Journal

TECHNICAL LEVEL	PRACTICAL LEVEL	CRITICAL LEVEL
These students don't value education and feel as if they can make it in the real world without having to study history or fractions. (ST/CT 3) I believe that given the right environment any child can be successful in school – regardless of their culture. (ST/CT 8) Both of us [ST & CT] remember the expectations of us as students. I think that is one of the most important tasks of a teacher; to provide the children with specific expectations. (ST/CT 5) I was self-motivated and had very good relationships with my teachers. Thus, I have very high expectations for children. Especially, when it comes to their behavior. (ST/CT 10)	I would make sure to make learning as authentic and personal to each child in some way. Relevance in the real world is also important to teaching. Making everything connect from student to the SOLs and to the world is key. (ST/CT 3) I want them to know that I care about them and about what they learn and what they do with their lives. I want to be able to take the extra time before school starts to send notes welcoming them to my class and then take time…to make sure that I have made a personal connection to each one of them. (ST/CT 9) The experiences of learning about different countries, cultures, religions, and customs will allow me to share this knowledge with my students. I believe by doing this I can help instill an acceptance of diversity. (ST/CT 5)	I have learned new things not only in my college courses, but also from my student teaching experiences. In my class, there is such a large gap between the high and low students in reading. We are all trying to close the gap. But until then, I have witnessed how to differentiate lessons. (ST/CT 3) Since I have had experience with same age people from diverse cultures, I am curious to learn if being with children of different cultures is any different. I hope this makes sense to someone other than me! (ST/CT 5) Thus, I believe that an elementary classroom that is full of diverse people, literature, and instructional techniques and activities is the best classroom for children. They will learn about the world outside of their own homes and neighborhoods and to tolerate and respect each other's differences and opinions. Creating that type of atmosphere is what I want to do in my classroom. (ST/CT 10)

EXAMPLES OF CODED REFLECTIVE ENTRIES FROM JOURNALS

Group 2 – Student Teachers/University Supervisors Using the Autobiographical Dialogue Journal

TECHNICAL LEVEL	PRACTICAL LEVEL	CRITICAL LEVEL
I will try to get as many parents involved as possible. I will try to make them feel as comfortable as possible. (ST/US 2) I agree…that experiences from your childhood shape who you are as a teacher as well as prepare you for life experiences. (ST/US 10) I hope the children I work with see my love of learning and get "hooked." If the teacher is excited about the subject matter, the students become excited about it. (ST/US 9) For me, it's important to know the students and take interest in what they're interested in. It's also important for me to make things fun and creative. (ST/US 4) The children/students are under adult care. Caring for a child comes naturally to many people. (ST/US 3)	Many of the students I teach have little or no parent involvement. This is extremely frustrating for me, because I see how important it is for children to have help and support at home. (ST/US 10) It is very important to check and recheck that your students are grasping what is being taught and that you are teaching in a creative and interesting way. (ST/US 8) He [Mr. Cotter] is probably the reason I am in this teacher preparation program. Mr. Cotter challenged my beliefs about literature and the world. Mr. Cotter used the Socratic Method extensively in his classroom, allowing the students to learn from each other. (ST/US 9) Students were treated fairly and consistently with most of my teachers. This type of discipline has made me want to develop healthy, comforting environments for my students. (ST/US 6)	There were many different culturally different students in my class and she never made them "stand out". Our classroom was a community. When I am I my classroom, I hope to make every student feel as though they are a part of a community. I remember how comfortable I felt in her classroom…it made it easier to learn. (ST/US 2) However, since the school and class size was so small we were very sheltered and there was very little diversity. Since that was the case we seldom learned about other races and cultures. Small class size offers wonderful opportunities for teachers as well as students but diversity must be included. (ST/US 10) I guess I think I would have benefited from a public education because it would have provided diversity and a wealth of extra-curricular activities. I feel like such a fish out of water now because I am not familiar with public school routines. (ST/US 9)

EXAMPLES OF CODED REFLECTIVE ENTRIES FROM JOURNALS

Group 3 – Student Teachers Using the Traditional Journal

TECHNICAL LEVEL	PRACTICAL LEVEL	CRITICAL LEVEL
Students were able to complete worksheets, answered questions, and completed homework. They even had fun on occasion! (ST 7)	Yes, I made changes in my lesson plans. I was putting too much information in my lessons – so I was losing them. I cut the lesson down. (ST 9)	The most important thing I learned this week is the great differences of each student in our classroom. These kids are coming from very broken homes and enter our classroom with a tone of baggage. Many times they are not able to leave that baggage at the door and yet they may not inform you of the contents. It is important to make each day a new day and let each child know you care and you are there to support them at all times. (ST 1)
I would have chosen a more interesting reading piece or brought pictures of penguins to class with me. (ST 6)	I need to work on raising my voice. The students' are used to Ms. Owen's very strong voice. (ST 6)	
Classroom management: I need to make sure that certain students are sitting near me during shared reading. (ST 2)	The students seemed to love the hands-on portion of learning about shadows. They got a real sense of what they really are by being able to create shadows with the overhead in the discovery center, and use the flashlights to create their own…I think it made a huge impact on their learning. (ST 10)	My number one priority is teaching the kids. I should not let anything interfere with this goal. I was so nervous and stressed out this week that I made myself sick. This had to affect my lessons. (ST 5)
They are all very excited when I begin a lesson. I usually include some form of visual aids everyday. The kids look forward to what I have included to share with my lesson. (ST 5)		
I suppose for now I am working on how to keep my students motivated and respectful of others. (ST 1)	When I noticed some students were still having trouble with money I ended my large group mini lesson and started doing individual mini lessons. I felt the individual attention was necessary because each student need a new view. (ST1)	

VITA

LASTRAPES, WANDA G.

1. Academic Degrees

Ph.D.	Old Dominion University	2004	Urban Services – Education
M. Ed.	University of Louisiana, Lafayette	1984	Secondary Education
B. A.	University of Louisiana, Lafayette	1979	Speech Education

2. Professional Experiences

2001 – Present	University of Florida Alliance – College of Education Coordinator, Urban Teacher Induction and Retention
1998 – 2000	Old Dominion University, Director Office of Teacher Education Services
1991 - 1994	University of Maryland, European Division Instructor, Speech Communication
1992 - 1994	Central Texas College – Navy Campus, Sicily, Italy Coordinator, Basic Skills Program
1991 – 1994	Embry-Riddle Aeronautical University, Sicily, Italy Instructor, Speech Communication
1989 – 1991	Los Angeles City College, Los Angeles Speech Professor & Co-Director of Forensics Program
1985 – 1988	University of Southwestern Louisiana, Speech Department Basic Course Director & Speech Communication Instructor
1980 – 1985	Comeaux High School, Lafayette, LA Speech Teacher & Director of Speech Program

3. Current Professional and Community Association Membership

    Association of Teacher Educators
    National Association for Multicultural Education
    Mandarin High School PTSA Board Member, Public Relations Coordinator
    Greenland Pines Elementary School Advisory Council Member

4. Publications

Kneller, G. & Lastrapes, W. (1988). *Developing communication skills: A workbook.* Wm. C. Brown Publishing.