

MULTICULTURAL EFFICACY IN THE EDUCATIONAL CONTEXT
AN EXAMINATION OF MEDIATING CONSTRUCTS

A Dissertation Presented to the
Faculty of the College of Education
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In Partial Fulfillment
Of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Philosophy

by

Laura T. Jacobs

May 2015

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Dedication

“Our deepest fear is not that we are inadequate. Our deepest fear is that we are powerful beyond measure. It is our light, not our darkness that most frightens us. We ask ourselves, Who am I to be brilliant, gorgeous, talented, fabulous? Actually, who are you not to be? You are a child of God. Your playing small does not serve the world. There is nothing enlightened about shrinking so that other people won't feel insecure around you. We are all meant to shine, as children do. We were born to make manifest the glory of God that is within us. It's not just in some of us; it's in everyone. And as we let our own light shine, we unconsciously give other people permission to do the same. As we are liberated from our own fear, our presence automatically liberates others.”

~ Marianne Williamson

To the children who touch my heart and soul every day; Hannah, Noah, Kalen, Norah, Jordan, Nadia, Caleb, Admiral, Patience, Sai Mari, Madden, Jackson, Bret, Gabe, Maddie, Gracie, Quinn, Adam, Khailen, Henry, George, and Violet, I wish for you teachers that understand *all* of who you are, and who work every day to develop the unique potential that is inside *each and every one of you*.

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I dedicate this dissertation with all the love in my heart to my husband, Medgar Jacobs.

“Love makes your soul crawl out from its hiding place.”

~Zora Neale Hurston

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As a little girl I was well known for my tendency to climb, explore and cause mischief. I remember wanting to create my own little world in the closet under our stairs. It wasn't much to speak of; a sloping little room made of insulation, exposed beams and concrete floors. There was only one problem – no light. Most parents would have encouraged their 8 year old to build a fort somewhere else. Mine found a long extension cord and secured a clamp light to one of the beams so my world of pretend could be illuminated and become real. No questions asked, creativity and exploration were a given in our household. There have been many times when I wondered if I was good enough, smart enough, and disciplined enough to complete my doctorate. I think about the support I have received over the years from my family just as I do that light in the closet. No matter what the adventure was, they always stood by me, loved me unconditionally and gave me light when darkness stood in my way

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Abstract

As the racial demographics of the United States trend toward a majority-minority, white teachers increasingly need to be able to relate to a student population that does not share their cultural background. Due to this mismatch of teacher and student demographics, it is crucial that teacher preparation programs provide students with experiences that allow them to examine their own racial identity, racial attitudes, and abilities to relate effectively to the diverse population they will encounter in the school environment. This study examined the mediating role that experience with diversity, ethnic identity, and colorblind racial attitudes play in the multicultural efficacy of pre-service secondary education students. A hierarchical multiple regression tested the significance of these constructs and results indicated that both experience with diversity and ethnic identity were significant predictors of multicultural efficacy. Theoretical and practical implications for teacher preparation programs and student teaching placements are discussed.

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Chapter 1

"Education, then beyond all other devices of human origin, is the great equalizer of the conditions of men - the balance-wheel of the social machinery" (Mann, quoted in Cremin, 1957, p.87).

For educators to operate the “balance-wheel of social machinery” effectively, their ability to have meaningful relationships with their students is paramount. Research indicates that the majority of educators are white, middle class, and female (Gay & Howard, 2000). As the racial demographics of the United States trend toward a majority-minority, white teachers increasingly need to be able to relate to a student population that does not share their cultural background. Due to this mismatch of teacher and student demographics, it is crucial that teacher preparation programs provide students with experiences that allow them to examine their own racial identity, racial attitudes, and abilities to relate effectively to the diverse population they will encounter in the school environment. The substantial body of multicultural education research indicates that many pre-service teachers enter the profession without having examined their own pre-conceived beliefs in regards to working with culturally and linguistically diverse students. DiAngelo and Sensoy (2010) indicate that one of the main objectives of critical multicultural education is “ the need for each of us to examine our own socialized stereotypes and assumptions about marginalized groups to which we do not belong, and understand how this socialization shapes our relations with those groups” (p. 99).

Statement of the Problem

A study by the Center for Social Organization of Schools at Johns Hopkins University indicates that 2,000 high schools in the U.S. have dropout rates of 40% or more (Goldberg, 2005). The majority of the student population at these schools are African American and Latino. In Florida, parents have circumvented the requirement of passing a standardized test to receive a

high school diploma by submitting their students transcripts to schools across the country that do not have standardized test restrictions to graduate (Goldberg, 2005).

Data provided in the National Assessment of Educational Progress indicates that, on average, 17 year old African American students that reach the 12th grade have the reading, math and science skills of a 13 year old European American student (Haycock, Jerald and Huang, 2001). Males from all minority racial and ethnic backgrounds are likely to be suspended at twice the rate of females. For Black males, the rate is almost three times that of Black females (College Board, 2008). Black males make up 8.37% of school district enrollments nationally, yet they comprise only 3.54% of students in gifted education programs (Whiting, 2006). "A football coach would look at what this country is doing and realize we're giving up a third of our power. We've only got two-thirds of the team on the field. Keeping a third of the team on the bench can't be a good way to play the game" (College Board, 2008).

Of the various factors that impact the underachievement of minority students the concept of cultural mistrust is pertinent to this discussion. Irving & Hudley (2008) define cultural mistrust as the tendency for people of color to place little faith in systems and institutions that are controlled by the dominant white culture. Irving and Hudley conducted a study that examined the levels of cultural mistrust, outcome expectations, ethnic identity, oppositional cultural attitudes, socioeconomic status and academic achievement among 115 African American 11th and 12th grade students. This study indicated that cultural mistrust had a significant inverse correlation with outcome expectations, a predictor of academic achievement. In addition to overall cultural mistrust, African American students also experience what Steele has termed "stereotype threat." This concept asserts that when individuals are faced with a scenario that can confirm a negative stereotype, student performance suffers (Steele, 1995). Good and Dweck

(2003) discovered when students experienced a learning environment where intelligence was portrayed as a variable that could not be changed their level of achievement decreased.

When people are made aware of a negative stereotype that could apply to them they exert cognitive energy to ensure that the traits associated with that stereotype are suppressed (Schmader, 2010). Unfortunately, the executive processing functions being utilized to suppress stereotypical traits are the functions needed to complete higher level cognitive tasks. In essence, stereotype threat causes individuals to expend cognitive energy at a time when working memory functions are needed to perform effectively (Schmader, 2010).

Research experiments have shown that stereotype threat impacts performance by causing stereotyped students to perform below their ability. The psychological consequences of stereotype threat include increased levels of arousal, negative emotion regulation, cognitive depletion and a prevention focus (Jones Taylor & Walton, 2011). Stereotyped students may experience a threat either in both the learning environment and/or the performance environment. This duality can create situations in which both the acquisition and retrieval of knowledge are impaired (Jones Taylor & Walton, 2011).

Students who have to combat the anxiety that accompanies stereotype threat often shy away from challenging themselves academically, creating a self-fulfilling prophecy of underachievement or failure (Smith & Hung, 2008). A recent study of 229 low income African American children in grades 3 through 6 found that 41% of the students experienced test anxiety (Townsend, 2002). In comparison to their peers who did not have test anxiety, students who were anxious had lower achievement levels as well as reduced levels of perceived personal competence (2002). Students who receive failing scores on standardized tests may experience

lower levels of self-efficacy, have a distorted view of their actual abilities, and feel a poor sense of control over their academic future (Townsend, 2002).

Continuous exposure to stereotype threat can cause students to dissociate their sense of self-worth from academic activities, leading them down a road of disenchantment and disconnection from school (Jones Taylor & Walton, 2011). Research indicates that a student who does not feel a sense of belonging in school or who experiences rejection anxiety based upon his/her race may categorize negative social events in school as proof for lack of a sense of belonging. This cycle takes on the dynamics of a negative recursive process where lack of belonging can undercut motivation and performance (2011).

Chapter 2

Review of the Literature

A critical flaw of the current high stakes testing environment is that policymakers have failed to acknowledge the role that historical systems of racism and oppression have played in the depressed scores that students of color often receive on standardized tests. Research indicates that as students of color progress from elementary to middle and high school they become less engaged academically, tend to underachieve, and reject school as a context where they can develop their sense of identity (Whiting, 2006). Educators can play a significant role in dismantling relational barriers experienced by students of color that impact their identity development as well as their sense of academic efficacy. Developing a theoretical foundation with which to interpret the constructs that impact multicultural efficacy among preservice educators requires an examination of current scholarship in several areas. The underpinnings of self efficacy and identity development provide a foundation for this discussion. Additionally, the connections found between racial and ethnic identity, unawareness of privilege and multicultural education practice provide a theoretical framework with which to understand preservice teacher multicultural efficacy development.

Identity

Erikson found identity formation was heavily influenced by the social processes that ultimately labeled individuals (Erikson, 1968). During the identity stage, societal norms and expectations can either disrupt or promote the advancement of positive identity formation. Levels of exploration and commitment will guide adolescents in this stage, where individuals may become fixated on a particular role, experiment with new ideologies or avoid orientations toward the future by selecting to remain in the moratorium phase (Erikson, 1968). Regardless of

the path taken by the adolescent, Erikson stresses the responsibility that society has to influence young people in a manner that promotes the development of a positive identity.

Ferrer-Wreder, Palchuck, & Poyrazli (2008) surveyed urban 6th through 12th graders over the course of three years to assess identity coherence and identity confusion in relation to antisocial behavior and academic competence. Identity coherence was defined as a practical and consistent sense of identity. Identity confusion denotes a lack of understanding and consistency in terms of one's roles and belief systems. The researchers hypothesized that low levels of ego strength would be related with low identity coherence. For the purposes of this study, ego strength of competence was defined as one's global evaluation of his or her own abilities. The researchers discovered that as ego strength of competence decreased, so did identity coherence and academic competence. In addition to navigating the identity process, students of color grapple with an added layer of complexity as they begin to understand how their racial heritage impacts their sense of self.

Marcia operationalized Erikson's ego identity theory through the creation of an identity status paradigm. In this model, Marcia indicates that levels of exploration and commitment determine identity status among adolescents (Marcia, 1966). Marcia developed four classifications of identity status; diffusion, foreclosure, moratorium, and achievement. Both diffusion and foreclosure are characterized by low levels of exploration, but they differ in terms of commitment. Diffusion represents low levels of commitment and foreclosure indicates strong commitments. The remaining two identity status positions exhibit high levels of exploration, with moratorium presenting no stable commitments and achievement exhibiting high commitment.

Adolescents in the identity diffusion status are not particularly concerned with committing to a specific identity or occupation. Diffused status individuals may identify areas of interest, but they have not conducted the level of exploration necessary to uncover more substantive details that might lead to a committed status (Marcia, 1966). These individuals easily interchange options without much thought, sampling various areas of interest, or they may not focus on future options at all. At the opposite end of the identity status spectrum, individuals in the achieved status have undergone a crisis period where they have examined previous beliefs, determined an ideology that is representative of their current desires and come to a resolution that allows them the freedom to act without being easily swayed by family or peers. The two middle stages are distinguished by an individual's participation in periods of crisis, or lack thereof. Adolescents in moratorium are actively involved in a crisis, struggling with achieving a balance between parental expectations, personal desires and social demands (Marcia, 1966). Conversely, a foreclosed individual is characterized by lack of crisis but presence of commitment. This adolescent is strongly tied to parental orientations for their future and holds firmly to the beliefs that were instilled by the family system (Marcia, 1966). Marcia's model of identity development offers a lens for viewing adolescent growth that provides a sound theoretical structure that can encompass the highly variable teenage population.

In her work on ethnic identity development, Phinney (Seaton, Scottham, & Sellers, 2006) has drawn from the foundations offered by Marcia's model. Phinney's model of ethnic identity development was, in part, derived from the exploration and commitment constructs presented in Marcia's ego identity model. Phinney used the identity statuses of foreclosed, diffused, moratorium, and achieved set forth in Marcia's model to demonstrate how an individual reaches a more highly developed ethnic identity. In the same nature as the linear developmental

trajectory first outlined by Marcia, Phinney identified a clear progression typically experienced during ethnic identity development.

Ethnic & Racial Identity

As described by Erikson and Phinney, identity development is a process that involves the examination of one's concept of self through the exploration of established or newly acquired values and beliefs that guide future life decisions. Individuals who are presented with situations where their ethnic group is devalued have an additional layer of examination., This additional layer involves engaging in a process where individuals reconcile personal interpretation and meaning of activities and events based on the contextual circumstances in any situation as they relate to their own identity (French et. al., 2006). The establishment of a developed racial identity strengthens self-respect and shields an individual from the pain of racial prejudice and discrimination they encounter in society (French et al., 2006) The development of a positive racial identity has also been linked to increased levels of school engagement, academic achievement and self-esteem (Akos& Ellis, 2008).

Initial models of racial identity were focused on the experiences of African Americans and assumed a negatively stigmatized self-concept foundation. Until the late 1960's, researchers typically adopted mainstream perspectives that operated under the premise that self-hatred was a prominent element of self-concept among African Americans (Sellers, Smith, Shelton, Rowley & Chavous,1998). DuBois serves as one of the most noted early theorists ascribing to the "underground approach" to African American racial identity (Sellers et al., 1998). This approach recognized the impact that oppression had on self-concept development, but also focused on the cultural influences that allowed African Americans to develop a positive self-concept

irrespective of the inferior ideologies that were placed upon them by the dominant culture (Sellers et al., 1998).

Mainstream approaches have focused more heavily on inquiry related to the internal validity of identity development. Underground approaches targeted questions that investigated the predictive validity of proposed models (Sellers et al., 1998). These two families of approach share some commonalities, however their fundamental design concepts provide two very different views of racial identity. Mainstream approaches offer comparisons between African Americans and other racial groups, offering frameworks that delineate processes and structures of racial identity development (Sellers et al., 1998). Conversely, underground approaches are heavily focused on the qualitative aspects of identity development that are unique to the African American population based on cultural experiences

The most predominant underground approach to racial identity is found in Cross' Nigrescence theory, which was initially representative of African American identity within the patriarchal Anglo dominant society experienced in America., Cross' theory has since been adapted to evaluate identities of other groups as well (Cross, 1991). Cross developed the five stages of Nigrescence, which includes pre-encounter, encounter, immersion-emersion, internalization and commitment (Cross, 1991). During the pre-encounter stage an individual diminishes the importance of race to their personal identity and assimilates to a white eurocentric perspective (1991). When an individual has an affectively infused experience that creates a personal interpretation of Black identity, he/she has entered the encounter stage. This stage is often marked by experiences of personal discrimination encountered for the first time that prevents the individual from ignoring the significance of race in their life (1991). During the immersion-emersion phase, individuals develop racial pride and a new sense of self. An

individual may distance oneself from former personal attributions derived from American white culture in favor of embracing African American history and culture that affirms Black identity (1991).

The internalization stage is engaged when individuals work to reconcile the dimensions of their pre-encounter identity with their more fully developed racial identity. As internalization occurs, there is an increased ability to function across racial groups and a decrease in anti-white sentiment (1991). An individual who has arrived at the commitment stage possesses confidence in their racial identity and works to impact society as whole in terms of activism and equality. Cross indicates that this stage is typically not reached until late adulthood (1991).

White Racial Identity

In the United States, a teaching profession comprised of a majority of white middle class females necessitates the examination of racial identity from this perspective. Janet Helms describes racial identity development for whites through a six stage psychological model. In the Contact Stage, people are exposed to race related issues and begin to become aware of their own white racial identity (Helms, 1995). During the Disintegration Stage, individuals typically attempt to address prejudicial issues with family and friends, often becoming disappointed by the lack of impact their newfound awareness has on those around them. Tatum (1994) indicates that “Though they want to step off the cycle of racism, the message from the surrounding white community seems to be, ‘Get back on!’” (p. 100). Although it is not the case for all, such experiences can eventually lead one to seek examples that will allow them to blame the victim. In these instances, anger in regards to racism is directed back toward minority groups in an attempt to justify their desire to discontinue these frustrating efforts and relieve guilt (Tatum, 1994). As an individual enters the Reintegration Stage, he/she begins to reflect on how to speak

out against the discriminatory behaviors he/she encounters and, at the same time, are still trying to decide if those efforts are worth the struggle (Helms, 1995).

If an individual is able to move into the Pseudo-Independent Stage, she/he has left behind past views of limited awareness and will continue to look toward people of color to learn about racism. As they work to define what their own racial identity means, individuals in this stage will experience dissonance when associating with others who are overtly racist. During the Immersion/Emersion Stage an individual works to define their personal white identity, and employs anti-racist behaviors in their daily interactions (Helms, 1995). Helms indicates that the final stage of white racial identity development is continuous and constantly evolving. Once in the Autonomy Stage, a distinct level of “racial self-actualization” has been attained; however, a main component of this stage is for an individual to remain open to ever changing and new ways of viewing race and culture within our society (1995).

Discriminatory treatment, both individual and institutional, embeds an always present awareness of racial identity for people of color. For white individuals, the first step in developing a positive racial identity is “to become aware of one’s whiteness, learning to accept this aspect of one’s identity as socially meaningful and personally salient” (Lawrence, 1997, p2). Tatum relates that the struggle for many individuals is to conceive an identity where guilt and shame are not primary components (1997).

Racial Identity and Teacher Racial Attitudes in the School Context

An adolescent’s ability to progress through stages of racial identity development has been shown to have an impact on academic success. Longitudinal research reveals that teens who believed their racial identity to be a fundamental component of their self-concept and, concomitantly, had high levels of esteem for their racial group, showed more active involvement

in school and had a greater degree of self-efficacy (Hudley & Irving, 2012). Research has found the school environment impacts a child's racial identity development. In particular, an ethnically heterogeneous school composition increases the awareness of a student's ethnicity as they compare themselves to students from different racial backgrounds (Akos & Ellis, 2008). This type of environment provides educators with the opportunity to guide students in the process of examining racial diversity in a productive manner. (Akos & Ellis, 2008).

Gilman Whiting of Vanderbilt University developed a model of scholar identity for African American males. Whiting indicates that, "Having examined the explanations for poor school achievement among Black males and having critiqued those initiatives directed toward remediating their underachievement for more than two decades, I have come to believe that a missing ingredient in closing the achievement gap is the lack of attention devoted to developing a positive image of African American males as scholars" (Whiting, 2006, p.223).

Research illustrates how teachers bring attitudes and values, both conscious and unconscious, with them into the classroom every day (García & Guerra, 2004; Gorski, Davis, & Reiter, 2012) For white teachers, the examination of their own racial identity is a personal journey that often goes untraveled. This lack of awareness in regards to privilege and race among white educators creates substantial barriers in terms of understanding and developing relationships with students of color (Lawrence, 1997). An unexamined life of privilege will likely prevent a teacher from understanding a non-white students' need to affirm his/her own racial identity. Such affirmations serve to combat the role that the racial hierarchy has played in layering negative images on to that students' concept of self.

Whites residing in mostly homogenous communities may be under the illusion that the advances gained since the civil rights movement have diminished racism and discrimination to

the degree that they no longer serve as barriers to people of color in the manner that they once did. For whites to define the society in which they live as “just”, it is necessary to attribute the lack of privilege among minority groups to personal characteristics like laziness or lack of intelligence (Aronson, 2008). This stands in direct opposition to the central concept of white privilege. It is difficult for most whites to accept that the existing culture bestows upon its group members both actual and perceived powers that are not awarded to people of color on the same basis (Neville, 2001).

Well known in the field for her work in defining white privilege through every day experiences, Peggy McIntosh (1998) puts a face on the experiences of many. “I was taught to recognize racism only in individual acts of meanness by members of my group, never in invisible systems conferring unsought racial dominance on my group from birth” (Tatum, p.95). Whites that were not raised in families where bigotry and overt racist behavior were present were likely instead to receive very subtle messages through common euphemisms, “harmless” off color humor, media images, and minimal personal interactions with people of color. Whites largely perceive their racial identity as non-existent because it is woven so tightly into the fabric of perceived “social norms” in America. “I have come to see white privilege as an invisible package of unearned assets, which I can count on cashing in each day, but about which I was ‘meant’ to remain oblivious...The pressure to avoid it is great, for in facing it I must give up the myth of meritocracy” (Mcintosh, 1988, p113).

It is exactly this “myth of meritocracy” that derails most whites from allowing themselves to accept the idea of white privilege. The foundations upon which most Americans were raised are embodied in the ideal of the “American Dream.” If you work hard, you can achieve anything! Pull yourself up by your bootstraps! Whites live in a world where they are

members of the dominant culture that prescribes the economic and social systems of power. Thus, they are mostly denied the opportunity to experience personally how the racial hierarchy creates advantages for some and prohibits benefits to others (Neville, 2001). Good and Nichols (2001) highlight that “Teachers’ expectations, like expectations in other social settings, tend to be self-sustaining because expectations may affect perception, causing some teachers to be more likely to see what they expect and less likely to notice the unexpected” (p. 113). Teachers can contribute to the perpetuation of institutionalized oppression, or through the examination of their own privilege, they can begin to uncover how to engage in a multicultural education pedagogical framework that will honor difference, develop student academic efficacy, and prepare students for education beyond high school.

Self Efficacy

Self-efficacy is a multidimensional construct that typically differs across various domains of academic functioning (Eccles, 2005). A strong sense of self efficacy is characterized by high levels of resilience, self-confidence, self-control, self-responsibility, and a solid understanding of the task at hand (Whiting, 2006). Whiting found that Black males who have matured in their self-efficacy development are able to reject the negative stereotypes that others may have about them, and mitigate the academic challenges they encounter (2006).

The examination of self-efficacy has assisted researchers in understanding how an individual’s ability to complete a specific task is not always an accurate predictor of future behavior (Eccles, 2005). Self-efficacy research indicates that an individual’s perception of the likelihood for success of any task performance is often more significant than the ability to do so (Eccles, 2005). Research shows that high self-efficacy promotes a calm demeanor for individuals attempting to complete a challenging task (Eccles, 2005). Conversely, an individual

viewing a task through a depressed self-efficacy lens may perceive the task to be more challenging than it really is. This perception can lead to increased anxiety, which can cloud one's ability to tackle the problem effectively (Eccles, 2005).

Students who have confidence in their ability to achieve academically typically have higher levels of academic interest, set higher goals, and are better able to contend with setbacks in the school environment (Usher & Pajares, 2006). Bandura identified four sources from which individuals draw that determine levels of self-efficacy : mastery experience, vicarious experience, social persuasion and emotional & physiological states (Bandura, 1997). Mastery experience has shown to be the most significant predictor of self-efficacy to date. Individuals analyze and judge their levels of competence based upon the outcomes achieved after completing an academic task (Usher & Pajares, 2006). Research has shown that student perceptions of this type of mastery serve as more solid predictors of self-efficacy than objective results (Lopez, Lent, Brown & Gore, 1997). In a research study examining math self-efficacy among 138 college students, mastery experiences accounted for 36% of the math self-efficacy prediction. This contribution is significant, particularly in comparison to the low 2% contribution made by the other three sources combined (Lent et al., 1991)

Interactions with models can have a substantive impact on self-efficacy beliefs. As students observe peers successfully complete an academic task, they are able to transfer the possibility that they, too, will be able to meet the challenge (Bandura, 1997; Usher & Pajares, 2006). This type of vicarious experience is particularly salient for preservice teachers who have minimal experience with the observed challenge and are unsure about their ability to succeed (Santoro, 2009; Siwatu, 2011).. Feedback received from trusted peers, student teaching supervisors, and cooperating teachers/mentors about their teaching capabilities can increase their

confidence. Conversely, negative messages provided by significant others more easily undermine self-efficacy than the positive messages that may increase it (Usher & Pajares, 2006).

Additionally, socially persuasive messages need to be paired with interventions and instruction that will enhance future success to continue to enhance self-efficacy (Usher & Pajares, 2006)

Finally, levels of anxiety, stress, and arousal serve as a contributing self-efficacy source. The frame with which individuals interpret such feelings can have a direct effect on task completion and success (Usher & Pajares, 2006). Students often attribute feelings of anxiety to the notion that they do not possess the skills needed for successful completion of an academic challenge (Usher & Pajares, 2006). Attention paid to decreasing negative emotional states and developing adaptive coping skills benefits emotional and physical well-being, creating a context for strengthened self-efficacy (Usher & Pajares, 2006).

Teacher Multicultural Efficacy

Concepts like cultural mistrust and stereotype threat leave many educators wondering how to tackle systemic racial oppression on an individual classroom basis. Even more troubling are those educators who are either unaware of these issues or deem them unimportant. They fail to see the role that their classroom can play in perpetuating dynamics that are counterproductive for students of color, further entrenching underachievement and decreased social mobility (Ferguson, 2003).

Educators that strive to impact students of color need to become well versed in the dynamics that support and inhibit ethnic identity development. A key component of ethnic identity development centers on being a member of a devalued group. Individuals who belong to the dominant culture's favored groups do not need to change or improve their social identity (French, Seidman, Allen & Aber, 2006). Educators can play an active role in this process by

creating opportunities for ethnic exploration both in the classroom and through school activities. Minority student groups can provide a forum for ongoing discussions on matters of race and ethnicity, while also providing a venue for students of color to connect and support each other as they mature in their ethnic identity development (French et al., 2006).

In an examination of the link between high stakes testing and classroom instruction, Diamond (2007) found that teachers associated testing policies with classroom content to a greater degree than they did pedagogy. This link accounts for the increase in didactic instruction, particularly in low income African American schools (Haynes, 2008). Teachers often utilize remedial methods with African American students based on assumptions they have made about students based on race, income level, and urban residence (Townsend, 2002). These assumptions leave out the key component of student ability, as teachers work to ensure that they focus on remedial test preparation efforts in an attempt to raise scores (2002). The narrow focus required to ensure that students pass standardized tests all but eliminates opportunities to develop creativity, group work, initiative, discipline, and flexibility. These key competencies are included in annual performance reviews conducted by most employers (Goldberg, 2005).

In 2002, Marx studied the personal motivations of nine white, female pre-service teachers who tutored Hispanic English Language Learners over the course of one semester. Via a compilation of journal entries, observations, and in depth interviews, the study showed that despite their altruistic color blind intentions, all of the participants were influenced by their own sense of white racial identity. These beliefs then flowed into the attitudes that they developed about their students, which were largely dominated by viewing Hispanic culture as a hindrance to student success. This type of deficit thinking was made clear in the form of aversive attitudes and diminished academic expectations (Marx, 2002).

Rubovits and Maher (1973) examined the impact that teacher expectancy had on a group of black and white 7th and 8th grade students being taught by white teachers. A group of teacher training students were presented with both white and black students labeled as gifted and non-gifted. An important aspect of this study was that the gifted student labels were randomly assigned, as opposed to being based on actual gifted and talented assessments. Teacher expectations were measured on an observational scale that focused on the frequency of teacher encouragement, criticism, praise etc. Teachers were also given a questionnaire to assess more directly their overall perceptions of the students including how each subject decoded student behavior. Although this study was conducted over 40 years ago, the findings are still relevant to the field due to the lack of replication. The methods employed in this study have not been replicated because it would be highly unlikely that the research design would be deemed acceptable by contemporary institutional review boards.

The findings indicated that overall, gifted students were called on more frequently, but they were also criticized more often. However, the researchers indicated that this difference may have been due to the inclusion of African American students in the study, as teachers doled out the majority of the criticism to this group (Rubovits, 1973). In fact, the results indicated that it was this particular group, black gifted students, who received the least attention, the most criticism, and the least amount of praise. Subsequent interviews with the participating teachers revealed that white students were almost always chosen as the most liked, the most intelligent, and the definite leaders in the class (Rubovits, 1973).

One of the most comprehensive studies to examine the color blind philosophy was conducted by Schofield in 1986. This multi-year ethnographic study of a newly desegregated middle school in the Northeast U.S. with a 50/50% black/white student ratio indicated that

although the school faculty consistently espoused the “race doesn’t matter” mantra, the data reflected a different reality. Teachers related to researchers that both the faculty and students viewed the school community through a color blind lens. Researchers found the opposite to be true. Student interviews revealed that the espoused color blind culture did not accurately describe their school. Schofield found that at this school, race became a taboo topic, and resistance to acknowledging racial issues was found in the desire to avoid conflict. As the study progressed, clear stereotypes emerged for both black and white groups. White was closely associated with success and achievement, while Black was associated with academic inadequacy (Schofield, 1986).

Educators work to have a positive impact in the lives of their students by imparting knowledge that will carry them forth on the road to become productive citizens. The nature of today’s global economy underscores the need for students to have an expanded world view that will allow them to hold a competitive stance in the job market. Students of color deserve the opportunity to enter this world of work on equal footing, bolstered with the skills that will allow them to attain social outcomes that mirror those of their white peers (Mueller & O’Connor, 2007). Engaging students who have low expectations for themselves’ based upon negative previous educational experiences is a difficult task for the teacher. These factors reinforce the need for teachers to journey back through their own educational history to uncover how their world view developed (Mueller et al). To see beyond learned expectations, teachers need to understand how their world view has influenced their assumptions about what motivates the actions of students, parents and fellow teachers (Cochran Smith, 1995, p.500).

For teachers to be engaged actively in multicultural education, learning where they fit into the picture as an individual will then allow them to bring new dimensions to their role as a

teacher. Mueller and O'Connor (2007) led students through a semester long diversity course in which the use of an educational autobiography was employed. Students were challenged to describe their school experiences, explain why they performed at the level they did, and chronicle how they were able to matriculate to college. Specific information about the educational background of each student's parents and grandparents was included. In addition, students identified their social class as well as the racial makeup of both the schools they attended and their residential community. This assignment was given at the start of the semester and was then revisited after students conducted an interview covering the same autobiographical parameters with a person of a different race and social class. The researchers wanted to evaluate if the information received in class and through assignments impacted the students' interpretation of their initial assessment of their personal educational experiences (2007).

The evaluation of the educational autobiographies found that students failed to view their position within a historical or institutional context reflective of white privilege. Instead, students credited their differences to personal motivation and their parents' desire for them to receive a high quality education, which was achieved by them working hard enough to live in a community that had good schools (Mueller & O'Connor, 2007). Some changes in perception were identified, however; for the most part, students avoided connecting the concept of systemic inequalities to explain the polarities between their narrative and that of the individual they interviewed (Mueller & O'Connor, 2007). Instead, the observed differences were attributed to cultural values and beliefs. For example, students explained that white middle class students perform well academically because their parents teach them to value school. Several of the students who did not describe how they benefitted from going to school in a high socio-economic community did recognize these benefits by the end of the semester. However, the

researchers describe, “But again, with the exception of one of these students, they did not link this advantage to the way racism had been institutionalized over time to develop the economic privilege of whites that resided in racially segregated middle class communities.” (Mueller & O’Connor, 2007, p.846).

This lack of movement through the racial identity awareness development process caused students to present information that supported their original logic, while at the same time silencing interview information that could highlight systemic attributions. These findings illustrate the strength of the dominant culture and the values and beliefs that lead individuals to cling to the “myth of meritocracy.” This research also points toward the need for further curriculum development, instructor training, and an ongoing reflective process.

Preservice Teachers & Multicultural Education

Castro (2010) examined preservice teachers' views of cultural diversity through a review of peer-reviewed publications between 1985-2007. This review identified predominant themes that emerged for millennial preservice teachers. Castro found that in comparison to former generations, millennial-generation college students (those born since 1985) related greater acceptance of cultural diversity, increased civic participation, and stronger advocacy for social justice issues. The worldview of this generation has been broadened by the connectivity made available by the internet, where access to diverse perspectives fosters a global community. Castro's examination of research between 1985-2007 sought to determine what multicultural education themes among preservice teachers have remained constant since 1985, as well as to identify themes that have changed during this time period.

Castro assessed the evolution of research on preservice beliefs about diversity in three stages. Between 1986-1994 research indicated that preservice teachers lacked a complex understanding of multicultural issues, often attributing gaps in achievement to substandard

individual and/or community values amongst diverse populations. Avery and Walker (1993) found that the 152 preservice teachers surveyed offered simplistic rationales for the achievement gap between and among white, hispanic, and african american students. The researchers related that the preservice teachers in their study had "only vague understandings of the relationship between social structures and schooling and of the extent to which inequality is perpetuated through schools" (p.35). The research reviewed during this time period also indicated that preservice teachers were not largely tolerant of minority groups, and they had negative views about interacting with diverse communities. Law and Lane (1987) used the Bogardus Social Distance Scale to survey 141 preservice teachers, and they found that when compared with archival data spanning 60 years, study participants were no more tolerant of minority groups. The last predominant theme that surfaced for this time period was the lack of opportunities to learn how to teach in multicultural contexts. Research indicated that many students had not taken courses in multicultural education, and those who did have exposure still felt unprepared to integrate multicultural concepts into their student teaching experience (Hadaway & Florez, 1987; Grant & Koskela, 1986)).

Between 1995-1999 preservice teachers continued to hold simplistic views on multicultural issues, viewing them through the lens of individual differences without considering systemic racism and institutional discriminatory practices. Davis (1995) conducted a two-year ethnographic study of preservice teachers and found that participants attributed low performance of minority students to individual ability, genetics, and substandard family values. In this study, preservice teachers believed all students had an equal chance to succeed academically, indicating their adoption of the "myth of meritocracy."

During this time period, researchers uncovered the predominance of deficit views and stereotypes that impacted preservice teacher perceptions about students of color. Researchers found preservice teachers described minority students as lacking confidence and ambition, and as being less capable and teachable in comparison to their white peers (Richman, Bovelsky, Kroovand, Vacca, and West, 1997; Tettegah, 1996). Several studies found that preservice teachers held negative stereotypical beliefs about urban students (Aaronsohn, Carter & Howell, 1995; Shultz, Neyhart, & Reck, 1996). Preservice teachers described urban students as rude, disruptive, and delinquent and also viewed teaching in urban schools as stressful and anxiety inducing (Aaronsohn et al., 1995; Tiezzi & Cross, 1997). One preservice teacher related "I wanted to teach white children because it is rumored that they are the smartest and easiest to teach" (Tiezzi & Cross, 1997, p.120).

The final prevalent theme for the 1995-1999 time period was the importance of background experiences to the development of preservice teacher multicultural attitudes and beliefs. Several studies found preservice teachers with limited or no personal experience interacting with diverse communities also believed in the American ideal of individualism and thought students of color should assimilate with the dominant culture (Lawrence & Bunch, 1996; Cockrell, Placier, Cockrell, & Middleton, 1999). Viewing multicultural education as a set of teaching techniques that would assist them in working with individual students, culturally inexperienced participants failed to recognize how these views colored their perceptions of student achievement. "Participants failed to recognize institutional inequity and did not see how their own biases and stereotypes as future teachers perpetuated these inequities" (Castro, 2010, p.203). Conversely, researchers found that preservice teachers who had experienced

discrimination or had cross-cultural interactions readily embraced multicultural education principles (McCall, 1995).

Upon the review of 101 empirical studies conducted between 1980-2002, Hollins & Guzman (2005) confirmed Castro's assertions that the two most prevalent areas of research on preservice multicultural education were individual attitudes, beliefs, and predispositions, and prior experiences with diverse groups. This meta-analysis also uncovered that the predominant barriers to preservice teachers' implementation of culturally responsive practices included the lack of flexibility in cognitive assumptions, minimal cross cultural life experiences, and a lack of familiarity with the socialization processes in diverse communities (Hollins & Guzman, 2005). Sleeter (2008) attributed the difficulty white teachers experience in recognizing and altering patterns of racism to "the power of prior socialization and on-going everyday life experiences of white people in a racist society" (p. 567).

Vygotsky's theory of socio-cultural development offers a foundation upon which to understand cultural differences within the educational environment. How might educators be able to mediate or counterbalance the social dynamics often present in a home environment where students witness the impact of racism and discrimination on the family system (Schunk, 2008). Vygotsky purports that all higher mental functions originate in the social context, occurring first on the intermental plane, where thinking is influenced by a social interaction. Information gathered via the intermental plane moves to the intramental plane where new concepts are then internalized and transformed into individual behavior (Schunk, 2008). Societal stressors experienced by minority and low SES families can negatively impact the development of a students' higher mental functioning. Mediation between the intermental and intramental

planes can prove to be challenging for a minority student who has difficulty relating to a majority culture that dictates the educational environment (Schunk, 2008).

Minority students intimidated by the idea of pursuing a college education may realize that they lack the tools needed to succeed. By the time they reach their senior year, when their GPA and rank are established, many minority students are extremely aware that they lack the language skills needed for college (Schunk, 2008). Vygotsky's assertion that the role language plays in one's ability to mediate activity and guide thinking effectively offers a framework to understand the deep roots of insecurity students may experience as they determine goals for the future (Schunk, 2008). The application of this theory to students of color necessitates exploration into what methods and interventions might improve these factors and propel the pursuit of postsecondary education.

The empowerment of a college education is a key factor in decreasing the marginalization of people of color in society. Unfortunately, many students of color fall into "the forgotten half" described by Arnett (2000). This segment of the emerging adult population includes individuals who do not attend college after high school. Arnett indicates that opportunities are not easily accessed by students in minority cultures as compared to students that belong to the majority (Arnett, 2000). He also indicates social class is a key factor in determining the path taken during emerging adulthood, commenting that working class and poor students tend to focus more on work exploration instead of education (Arnett, 2000). Common issues for students with a low SES or minority background include limited exposure to career options, low self confidence in academics, and little or no financial resources to complete education beyond high school. In essence, these students jump from adolescence straight to

young adulthood, bypassing emerging adulthood in favor of ensuring that their basic immediate needs are met (Arnett, 2007).

Do preservice teachers understand the realities faced by students who belong to one or more marginalized groups? Often personal choices are made based upon immediate economic survival synthesized with a view that social opportunity and educational access are simply not the same for students of color (Arnett, 2007). Marginalized students are very much aware that the education they have received was substandard, and that they were not afforded the same supports and enrichments afforded to middle class white students (Harper & Davis, 2012). Can a teacher convincingly speak of educational opportunity while ignoring the disparate social context that has impacted minority students' experiences for 18 years? Developing a true understanding of these disparities begins with an assessment of the differences between a preservice teachers' personal life experiences and those of their students (Castro, 2010). Educators who have examined the role that race and class have played in their own lives, as well as the lives of their students', are better equipped to formulate and present a position on post-secondary education that comes from a place of authentic awareness (García & Guerra, 2004).

Therefore, the current study examined the following questions:

1. To what extent and in what manner is teacher experience an accurate predictor of multicultural efficacy?
2. To what extent and in what manner is experience with diversity an accurate predictor of multicultural efficacy?
3. To what extent and in what manner does ethnic identity predict multicultural efficacy?
4. To what extent and in what manner do racial attitudes predict multicultural efficacy?
5. To what extent and in what manner do experience with diversity, ethnic identity and racial attitudes mediate the relationship between teaching experience and multicultural efficacy.

Chapter 3

Method

Participants

Study participants were drawn from a secondary science and math teacher preparation program at a 4-year, tier one university. These participants were categorized by experience level into two groups: students who had completed the final course prior to student teaching and students who had completed the student teaching semester.

Table 1
Participant Demographic Information

Demographic Category	Results	Demographic Category	Results
Teaching Experience		Childhood SES	
Completed Coursework	60%	Lower	11.8%
Completed Student Teaching	40%	Lower Middle	39.2%
		Middle	27.5%
Gender		Upper Middle	7.8%
Male	45%	Upper	13.7%
Female	55%		
Age		Current SES	
Range	19-30 yrs.	Lower	11.8%
Average	23yrs.	Lower Middle	31.4%
		Middle	33.3%
Race/Ethnicity		Upper Middle	9.8%
White	27.5%	Upper	13.7%
African American	6%		
Hispanic	39%		
Asian	22%		
Bi-Racial	2%		
Other	4%		

The majority of participants were drawn from archival class data from three course sections, two Multiple Teaching Strategies classes and one Student Teaching seminar. Additional participants completed the survey online, increasing the sample size by 6. The sample population (Table 1) was composed of 45% male participants ($N=23$) and 55% female participants ($N=28$).

Participant ages ranged between 19 and 30 years old, providing a sample average age of 23. The

racial and ethnic composition of the sample was 27.5% White (N=14), 3% African American (N=3), 39% Hispanic (N=20), 22% Asian (N=11), 2% Bi-racial (N=1), and 4% Other (N=2).

Parental education levels were reported, indicating that 37% of respondents had parents who completed a Bachelors' degree or higher. 28.5% of participants indicated that their parents had completed high school. 39% of respondents identified their socio-economic status as a child being lower middle class (Annual Household Income between \$20,000-\$39,000). 27.5% of participants reported their childhood socio-economic status as middle class (Annual Household Income between \$40,000-59,000). 31% reported that their childhood annual household income \$60,000 or higher.

Measures

Demographic Questionnaire. Participants completed a demographic questionnaire developed by Guyton and Wesche (2005) to gather data on the following variables: age, birthplace, racial and ethnic background, gender, physical disabilities, sexual orientation, education, religious background, parent's education, and socio-economic status during childhood and adulthood.

Multicultural Self Efficacy Scale (MES). The Multicultural Efficacy Scale (MES) (Guyton & Wesche, 2005) is a 35 item survey that examines teachers experience with diversity (e.g. "Diverse people lived in my neighborhood when I was a child growing up"), attitudes toward diversity (e.g. "Teachers should adapt lesson plans to reflect the different cultures represented in the classroom"), and efficacy with diversity (e.g. "I can provide instructional activities to help students to develop strategies for dealing with racial confrontations"). The experience section is not meant to be scored, but instead to facilitate comparisons. Guyton and Wesche developed ranges for each of the subscales which are presented in Table 1.1 The MES

has an overall Cronbach's alpha of .89, and subscale alpha's of .78 for experience, .72 for attitude, and .93 for efficacy. Table 2 indicates the distribution of responses found in the development and validation of the MES (Guyton & Wesche, 2005). The final question on the MES requires participants to pick one statement that represents how their strongest beliefs about teaching within the framework of multicultural concepts and the results are depicted in Table 3

Table 2
MES Attitude and Efficacy Subscales Score Response Distribution

MES Subscale	Low	Average	High
Attitude	0-15	16-24	24-28
Efficacy	0-54	55-66	67-80

Table 3
MES Response Distribution for Strongest Beliefs about Teaching

Statement	Response Distribution
<i>Tolerance</i> "If every individual learned to accept and work with every other person, then there would be no intercultural problems."	25%
<i>Assimilation</i> "If all groups could be helped to contribute to the general good and not seek special recognition, we could create a unified America."	14%
<i>Pluralism</i> "All cultural groups are entitled to maintain their own identity."	9%
<i>Multiculturalism</i> "All cultural groups should be recognized for their strengths and contributions"	42%
<i>Advocacy</i> "Some groups need to be helped to achieve equal treatment before we can reach the goals of a democratic society."	8%

Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM). The MEIM (Phinney, 1992), measures ethnic identity via two aspects: ethnic identity search items 1,2,4,8,10 ("I have a strong sense of belonging to my own ethnic group") and affirmation, belonging and commitment items 3,5,6,7,9,11,12. Items 13, 14, 15 are for identification and categorization purposes. This measure has proven both valid and reliable for use across many racial and ethnic groups, which makes it

an appropriate instrument for assessing the ethnic/racial identity development of the diverse sample of pre-service and in-service teachers participating in this study. Items 1, 2, 4, 8 and 7 measure the ethnic identity search subscale, while items 3, 5, 6, 7, 9, 11 and 12 assess the affirmation, commitment, and belonging subscale. The 12 items are rated on a four-point Likert-type scale ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. Reliability, calculated using Cronbach's alpha, was .78 for the commitment subscale and .76 for the exploration subscale. The alpha was .81 for the combined scale. Correlation between the two factors was .74.

Colorblind Racial Attitudes Scale (CoBRAS). The Color-Blind Racial Attitudes Scale (CoBRAS), (Neville et al., 2000) measures a subject's lack of awareness or denial of racism in the United States. Five studies with over 1,100 observations have provided initial reliability and validity data for this instrument. The results from the fifth study are pertinent to this study in that it assessed if the CoBRAS was sensitive to a multicultural training intervention. The intervention utilized was a year-long diversity training course designed for undergraduate students that included lectures, discussion groups and experiential activities (Neville et al., 2000). The results indicated that the instrument was effective in assessing the impact of the treatment.

The CoBRAS employs a 6 point Likert-type scale to evaluate each response ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 6 (strongly disagree). The assessment is broken into three subscales, which allows data to be analyzed by three major areas. The first subscale evaluates unawareness of white racial privilege (e.g. "Everyone who works hard, no matter what race they are, has an equal chance to become rich"). The second subscale examines unawareness of institutional racism (e.g. "Social policies, such as affirmative action, discriminate unfairly against white people"). The third subscale assesses unawareness of blatant racial issues (e.g. "Racial problems in the U.S. are rare, isolated situations")

Procedures

Data Collection. Permission for use of archival data was requested via the teacher preparation program and the university Institutional Review Board. Archival quantitative data had been previously collected by program teaching faculty in a group classroom setting. Students who chose to participate gave written informed consent and completed a demographic questionnaire and the three survey measures (MEIM, CoBRAS, and MES) during instructional class time. The researcher gained permission from the Institutional Review Board to recruit additional students from the same teacher preparation program from which the archival data was gathered. Permission was granted for the researcher to utilize email, phone calls, and social media to recruit participants. Informed consent was obtained from participants prior to online completion of the demographic questionnaire and the three survey measures via Survey Monkey.

Analysis

To assess the degree to which teacher experience, experience with diversity, racial identity, and racial attitudes predict multicultural efficacy, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed. This method determined if the outcome variable was accurately predicted by multiple variables, and could account for the individual contributions of each predictor variable to the overall model (Field, 2009). The hierarchical multiple regression (Table 4) sought to determine the possible mediating effects of teacher experience, experience with diversity, ethnic identity, and racial attitudes on multicultural efficacy (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

Table 4
Testing for Mediation with Regression Analysis (Baron & Kenny, 1986)

	Analysis	Visual Depiction
Step 1	Conducted a simple regression analysis where teacher experience (X) predicted multicultural efficacy (Y), tested for path c alone. $Y = B_0 + B_1X + e$	$X \xrightarrow{c} Y$
Step 2	1. Conducted a simple regression analysis where teacher experience (X) predicted experience with diversity (M ₁), tested for path a, $M_1 = B_0 + B_1X + e$ 2. Conducted a simple regression analysis where teacher experience (X) predicted ethnic identity (M ₂), tested for path a, $M_2 = B_0 + B_1X + e$ 3. Conducted a simple regression analysis where teacher experience (X) predicted colorblind racial attitudes (M ₃), tested for path a, $M_3 = B_0 + B_1X + e$	$X \xrightarrow{a} M_1$ $X \xrightarrow{a} M_2$ $X \xrightarrow{a} M_3$
Step 3	1. Conducted a simple regression analysis where experience with diversity (M ₁) predicted multicultural efficacy (Y), tested the significance of path b alone, $Y = B_0 + B_1M + B_2X + e$ 2. Conducted a simple regression analysis where ethnic identity (M ₂) predicted multicultural efficacy (Y), tested the significance of path b alone, $Y = B_0 + B_1M + B_2X + e$ 3. Conducted a simple regression analysis where colorblind racial attitudes (M ₃) predicted multicultural efficacy (Y), tested the significance of path b alone, $Y = B_0 + B_1M + B_2X + e$	$M_1 \xrightarrow{b} Y$ $M_2 \xrightarrow{b} Y$ $M_3 \xrightarrow{b} Y$
Step 4	Conducted a hierarchical regression analysis where: teacher experience (X), experience with diversity, ethnic identity and colorblind racial attitudes (M) predicted multicultural efficacy (Y), $Y = B_0 + B_1X + B_2M_1 + B_3M_2 + B_4M_3 + e$	$X \xrightarrow{c'} M \xrightarrow{b} Y$

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Model

The hierarchical entry method was appropriate because it allowed for variables to be entered into the regression model based upon the theoretical frameworks provided by prior research on multicultural education. Established relations between cross cultural life experience, ethnic identity and preservice teacher beliefs about diversity determined the order of regression block entry (Castro, 2010; Hollins & Guzman, 2005; Sleeter, 2008; Mueller & O’Conner, 2007) Specifically, the meta-analysis of multicultural teacher education research conducted by Hollins and Guzman (2005) indicates that upon reviewing 101 studies one of two predominant themes that emerged included the importances of a preservice teachers attitudes, beliefs, and prior experience with diverse groups. A similar review conducted by Sleeter (2008), validated the importance of preservice teachers examining established beliefs and experiences with diverse

groups in relation to their own concept of self. For this reason, teacher experience was entered into the the model first.

The first block of the multiple regression examined relations between the predictor variable of teacher experience and the dependent variable of multicultural efficacy. This block examined a participant's level of teaching experience, which for this sample was quite low due to their status as preservice teachers. In essence, controlling for teaching experience amongst this particular sample will illustrate that the field experiences and theoretical foundations preservice teachers have received throughout their training do not offer significant correlations that could dilute the overall hierarchical regression results.

In the second block, experience with diversity was the independent variable and multicultural efficacy was the dependent variable. As mentioned previously, an individual's experience with diverse groups emerged as a predominant theme in the multicultural education literature (Hollins & Guzman, 2005; Sleeter, 2008). Therefore, the second block of the regression measured the degree to which an individual's life experience, values, and beliefs about diverse groups related to one's level of multicultural efficacy.

In the third block and fourth blocks, multicultural efficacy was the dependent variable and ethnic identity and colorblind racial attitudes were the independent variables respectively. Ethnic identity was entered into the model third due to its close theoretical relationship with experience with diversity. Whereas experience with diversity encapsulates the degree to which an individual has related with others from diverse groups, ethnic identity examines how an individual's ethnicity has shaped one's own self concept (Cross,1991; Helms, 1995; Phinney, 1992). Although the independent variables of ethnic identity and colorblind racial attitudes share foundational commonalities, ethnic identity provides a more targeted assessment of the

individual as a whole. On the other hand, the variable of color blind racial attitudes is more strongly focused on measuring an individual's attitudes toward social systems of power based upon race (Neville, Lilly, Duran, Lee, & Browne, 2000)). Upon the established hierarchical order presented, the multiple regression model produced the degree of variance between teacher experience and multicultural efficacy that was mediated by experience with diversity, ethnic identity and/or colorblind racial attitudes.

Assumptions

To ensure that the regression model fit the observed data, and to determine if the model could be generalized, specific assumptions were assessed. Field (2009) related that in order to move forward with a regression model it is necessary to determine if:

1. Residual errors were normally distributed.
2. A linear relationship was present between each predictor variable and the outcome variable and between the outcome variable and the predictor variables collectively.
3. Outcome variables were independent.
4. Homoscedasticity was present, where residual variance at each level was equal.
5. No two variables were perfectly correlated, multicollinearity was not present.
6. Significant outliers or influential cases existed.
7. The sample size allowed for the ratio between cases and independent variables to be a minimum of 5 to 1, and ideally to be 20 to 1.
8. That levels of measurement were continuous (interval, ratio or dummy coded).

Once the accuracy of the regression model was established each of the four models were assessed for statistical significance and the individual contributions of each predictor variable to the model were reported.

Chapter 4

Results

Multiple Regression Assumptions

The pertinent assumptions specific to hierarchical multiple regression were tested. The sample size of 50 participants was determined sufficient for a multiple regression analysis that included four independent variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Examination of a histogram (Figure 1) verified that errors were normally distributed, and a Durban Watson value of 1.77 established the independence of residuals. Linearity was determined by examining scatterplots and partial regression plots (Figure 2). Homoscedasticity was assessed via a single scatterplot that depicted the standardized residuals plotted against the unstandardized predicted values (Figure 3). This graph illustrated that all residuals were equally spread over the predicted values of the dependent variable, indicating that homogeneity of variance was absent.

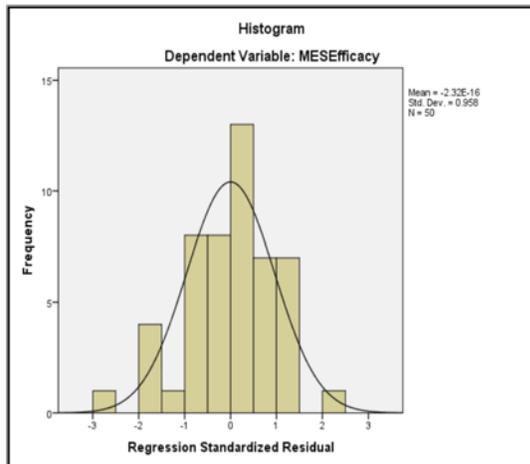


Figure 1. Assessing the Distribution of Errors via Histogram

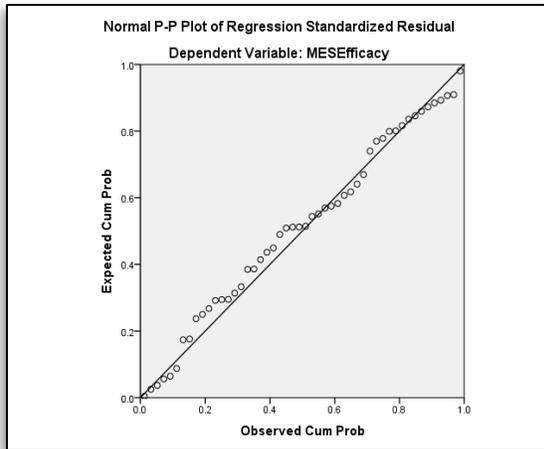


Figure 2. Assessing Linearity via a Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

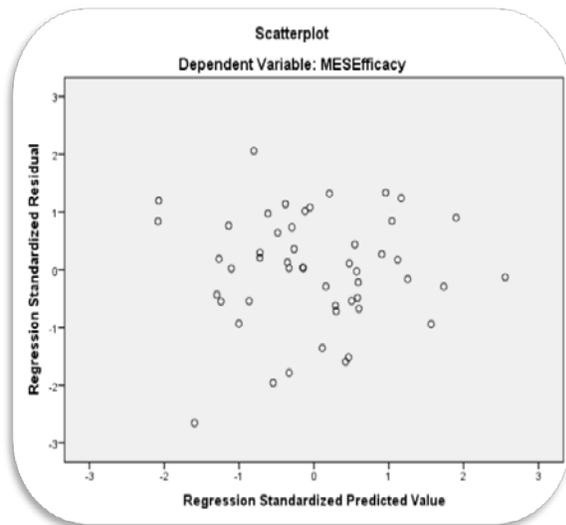


Figure 3. Assessing Homoscedasticity via Scatterplot

The correlation coefficients for teacher experience, experience with diversity and multicultural efficacy were all greater than .7 (*Table 5*). Collinearity diagnostics indicated a condition index of 37.03 for colorblind racial attitudes, indicating that a degree of multicollinearity was present (*Table 6*) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

Table 5

Means, Standard Deviations, and Bivariate Correlations for Teaching Experience, Experience with Diversity, Ethnic Identity, Colorblind Racial Attitudes and Multicultural Efficacy

Variable	1	2	3	4	5
1. Teaching Experience	--				
2. Experience with Diversity	.22	--			
3. Ethnic Identity	-.02	.21	--		
4. Colorblind Racial Attitudes	-.06	.03	-.35	--	
5. Multicultural Efficacy	.07	.32	.35	-.01	--
alpha	--	.71	.73	.53	.91
n	50	50	50	50	50
M	.38	21.35	2.70	62.10	74.01
SD	.49	4.52	.30	8.61	11.70

Table 6

Collinearity Diagnostics for Teaching Experience, Multicultural Efficacy, Ethnic Identity and Colorblind Racial Attitudes

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions				
				(Constant)	Teaching Experience	MES Experience	MEIM Total	CoBRAS Total
1	1	1.616	1.000	.19	.19			
	2	.384	2.053	.81	.81			
2	1	2.503	1.000	.01	.06	.01		
	2	.476	2.294	.01	.92	.01		
	3	.021	10.962	.98	.02	.98		
3	1	3.442	1.000	.00	.03	.00	.00	
	2	.525	2.559	.00	.93	.00	.00	
	3	.026	11.481	.06	.04	.98	.08	
	4	.006	23.680	.94	.00	.00	.92	
4	1	4.395	1.000	.00	.02	.00	.00	.00
	2	.552	2.822	.00	.93	.00	.00	.00
	3	.031	11.985	.01	.04	.82	.00	.14
	4	.019	15.035	.01	.00	.17	.27	.30
	5	.003	37.033	.98	.01	.00	.73	.56

Upon further inspection, the variance proportion for ethnic identity and colorblind racial attitudes were .30 and .56 respectively. Tolerance values for all variables were greater than .01, and none of the VIF values exceeded 10. Both the *MEIM* and *COBRAS* measured similar

constructs which led to a degree of multicollinearity. However, because neither of these measures was being used to predict the other, both variables were kept in the overall regression model. The majority of assumptions having been met, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted.

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis

A four stage hierarchical multiple regression was performed where multicultural efficacy was the dependent variable (*Table 7*). Guided by previous research that has established the relative contributions of personal experience and ethnic identity to teacher multicultural self-efficacy, the predictor variable of teaching experience was controlled for by being entered into the first block of the regression, followed by experience with diversity in the second block. Ethnic identity was added in the third block, and colorblind racial attitudes was entered in the fourth block.

Table 7
Predictors of Multicultural Efficacy among Preservice Teachers

Predictor Variable	<i>Hierarchical Multiple Regression for Multicultural Efficacy</i>											
	Block 1			Block 2			Block 3			Block 4		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Teaching Experience	1.76	3.44	.07	.08	3.40	.003	.60	3.29	.03	.82	3.32	.03
Experience with Diversity				.81	.37	.32	.64	.36	.25	.61	.37	.24
Ethnic Identity							11.27	5.28	.29	12.67	5.70	.33
Colorblind Racial Attitudes										.13	.20	.10
R ²			.005			.09*			.18*			.19
R ²			--			.09			.08			.008

Note. $N = 50$; * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

The first block of the regression that controlled for teaching experience validated the prior assumption that, due to the novice levels of teaching experience reported by sample participants, teaching experience did not explain a significant amount of the variance in multicultural efficacy ($R^2 = .005$, $F(1,48) = .26$, *ns*). Although the teacher preparation program from which the participants were surveyed provides field experiences throughout the program, the concentrated experience offered by a semester of student teaching would not be expected to have a significant impact on multicultural self-efficacy (Anderson & Stillman, 2013).

Block two of the regression indicated that experience with diversity ($R^2 = .10$, $F(1,47) = 4.91$, $p < .05$) contributed significantly to multicultural efficacy. Experience with diversity proved to be a significant predictor of multicultural efficacy. These results are supported by prior research findings that illustrate the relationship between an individual's personal experience with diverse groups and one's feelings of efficacy in multicultural education settings (Castro, 2010).

The third block of the regression added the predictor variable of ethnic identity ($R^2 = .18$, $F(1,46) = 4.56$, $p < .05$) which explained a significant amount of the variance in multicultural efficacy. This result supports previous research that has indicated the fundamental role that an individual's self concept plays in relation to one's own ethnicity, and how the individual perceives ethnicity to be regarded by society at large, impacts the degree to which one feels efficacious in a multicultural educational context (Allard & Santoro, 2006). This finding illustrates the benefit of teacher education courses that provide a guided structure for preservice teachers to engage in a self reflective ethnic identity process prior to their student teaching experience (Gay & Kirkland, 2003).

The fourth block added the predictor variable of colorblind racial attitudes ($R^2 = .19$, $F(1,45) = .46$, *ns*) which did not account for a significant proportion of the variance in

multicultural efficacy. As stated previously, the scale created by Neville (Neville et al., 2000) provided a three factor model that included the constructs of unawareness of racial privilege, institutional discrimination, and blatant racial issues. The non-significant findings for this variable might be explained by the level of collinearity found between colorblind racial attitudes and ethnic identity. These similarities could account for the lack of predictive significance colorblind racial attitudes provided in relation to multicultural efficacy. The use of the CoBRAS might prove useful after a preservice teacher has had at least 1-3 years of classroom teaching experience due to the instrument's sensitivity to cross-cultural education and experiences (Neville et al., 2000)

Overall, the results indicate that, for this sample, teacher experience did not significantly predict multicultural efficacy ($\beta = .07, t(48) = .51, ns$). However; experience with diversity ($\beta = .32, t(48) = 2.22, p < .05, R^2 = .09$) and ethnic identity ($\beta = .29, t(48) = 2.14, p < .05, R^2 = .09$) were both significant predictors of multicultural efficacy, accounting for 18% of the variance. Colorblind racial attitudes were not found to be a significant predictor of multicultural efficacy ($\beta = .10, t(48) = .68, ns$). Results indicate that individuals with greater experience with diversity and a more developed ethnic identity exhibit a higher degree of multicultural efficacy in the educational context.

Secondary Analysis

Due to the significance of ethnic identity in predicting multicultural efficacy, a secondary analysis was conducted to determine if participant ethnicity accounted for a significant proportion of the variance when added to the multiple regression model. Initially, this variable was not added due to the lack of statistical power present in a multiple regression with five independent variables and a sample size of 50. A sample size of 1 variable for every 5

participants is the observed minimal standard for case size ratios, and the average standard denotes that 10-15 participants is a more optimal ratio (Meyers, Gamst, Guarino, 2006). However, the significant finding of ethnic identity prompted the examination of this factor to assess possible interactions with ethnicity. Dummy coding was employed with the variable of ethnicity to produce four new variables (*African American, Hispanic, Asian, Biracial*), utilizing the white racial group as a reference point. The second hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted in the following order: teaching experience, experience with diversity, ethnic identity, ethnicity, and colorblind racial attitudes. The regression results indicated that the ethnicity of the participant ($R^2 = .24$, $F(4,42) = .77$, *ns*) did not account for a significant proportion of the variance in multicultural efficacy.

Although participant ethnicity was not a significant predictor of multicultural efficacy, the predictive significance of ethnic identity prompted exploratory analysis to examine the degree of ethnic identity salience among study participants across different racial/ethnic groups. A simple one-way ANOVA was performed to compare the mean scores on the *MEIM* by ethnicity. Results indicated that overall the participants did not vary significantly in terms of ethnic identity status across the five major racial categories (*White* = 2.68, *African American* = 2.67, *Hispanic* = 2.71, *Asian* = 2.80, *Biracial* = 2.23). The participant average age of 23 years old has possible implications for these results. The emerging adulthood status of the sample may have impacted their placement on the ethnic identity status trajectory, indicating that participants follow both developmental theories in terms of growth and progression. Additionally, the minority majority composition of this particular sample may have skewed the results toward the exploration/moratorium status due to a higher degree of personal experience with diversity.

Chapter 5

Discussion

The richness of diversity represented in our nation's schools necessitates the development of multicultural efficacy among educators (Banks, 2013). This study sought to examine to what extent and in what manner teaching experience, experience with diversity, ethnic identity and colorblind racial attitudes accounted for a proportion of the variance in multicultural efficacy among preservice teachers. The lack of significance found for teaching experience provides teacher educators with important information that can help better shape the nature of field experiences in the future. Colorblind racial attitudes were not found to be a significant predictor, which may be attributed to the demographic distribution of the sample size being a minority-majority. Experience with diversity and ethnic identity proved to contribute significantly to the development of multicultural efficacy among preservice teachers. It is the analysis of these findings that will serve as the primary focus for this discussion. The intersection of two established constructs, self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997; Guyton & Wensch, 2005) and racial and ethnic identity (Cross, 1991; Helms, 1995; Phinney, 1992) will provide an analytical framework to assess the nature of preservice teachers' multicultural efficacy.

Recommendations for Teacher Preparation & Student Teaching Experiences

The lack of statistical significance found for student teaching experience ($R^2 = .005$, $F(1,48) = .26$, ns) to predict multicultural efficacy provides valuable information for teacher educators. The application of Bandura's self-efficacy constructs to this discussion offers an excellent framework for examining the non-significant findings. Deconstructing how mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological/emotional arousal contribute to the stagnation or development of multicultural efficacy will provide insight needed to improve preservice teaching field experiences and teacher preparation program curricula.

Although a one semester student teaching experience pales in comparison to a lifetime of socialization and individual development, it can still serve as an important vehicle for the type of experiential multicultural growth and reflection needed to become a culturally responsive teacher (Krummel, 2013).

The application of Bandura's social cognitive theory is based upon the concept of learning from the social environment through triadic reciprocity, the interaction among behaviors, environmental variables and personal elements (Schunk, 2008). Complex tasks often require students to watch a model who has mastered good technique and then mirror these techniques via practice (Schunk, 2008). Bandura makes a clear distinction between learning and performance (Schunk, 2008). Much learning occurs by doing, but also through observing. Whether students ever perform behaviors learned through observation depends on a host of variables including; motivation, interest, incentives to perform, need, social pressures, physical state, and competing activities (Schunk, 2008). A student teacher's degree of mastery experience in either planning a culturally responsive lesson or unit, or being empowered to handle classroom conflict centered on diversity issues can vary depending upon the cooperating teacher assignment. Groulx (2001) indicates that a student teacher's attitude toward teaching in a diverse, urban environment tends to be connected to the cooperating teacher's level of multicultural efficacy, as well as the degree to which a collaborative relationship is developed between the expert and novice teacher.

The cooperating teacher's personal values, experience and application of multicultural pedagogy are factors that impact the nature of the student teaching experience (Zozakiewicz, 2010). The ever present demands placed on the cooperating teacher by the school administration to ensure that students pass high stakes exams can provide an element of pressure and rigidity that

is then passed down to the student teacher. Margolis (2006) indicates that a cooperating teacher who is focused on responding to administrative policies through the implementation of the curriculum in a standardized manner does not provide a student teacher with the type of environment where the innovative teaching methods garnered during teacher education coursework are supported.

Student teachers are faced with a steep learning curve as they determine how to balance all of the facets of teaching: subject matter expertise, lesson planning, classroom management, student discipline and behavior, administrative directives, parent issues, time management, motivation, mental and physical energy conservation, patience, and understanding adolescent development from a new perspective. The frenetic pace of most school environments and the variation provided by a rich student body in the throes of adolescence create an experience that simply cannot be fully prepared for prior to entering the field. Téllez succinctly describes the level of assistance that cooperating teachers provide for their student teachers' "The range of highly contextualized skills that effective veteran teachers develop in their student teachers is exactly the type of yet-to-be-coded expert knowledge teacher education must impart to its charges. Student teachers seem to agree that this knowledge is best learned from a cooperating teacher." (2008, p. 44).

Bandura (1997) indicates that physiological and emotional arousal brought on by environmental or situational stressors can impact self-efficacy. As stated previously, the steep learning curve experienced during student teaching requires the mastery of balancing many skills and tasks. The stressful nature of the student teaching experience may create heightened physiological and emotional states that induce increased focus on the *required* elements of teaching practice as dictated by the cooperating teacher, school administration, and teacher

preparation program. Is it possible that the physiological and emotional arousal experienced in accomplishing these tasks leaves the student teacher in such a deficit that they simply don't have enough energy left to delve into the complex processes that comprise multicultural education? The dynamic between cooperating teacher and student teacher is relevant in determining sources of physiological and emotional arousal (Allard & Santoro, 2006). Student teachers are not in a position of power within which they can confidently address multicultural issues that arise in the classroom, and will likely defer to the guidance of the cooperating teacher due to the stressful nature of such situations.

Efficacy is further impacted by the matching characteristics utilized to pair student teachers and cooperating teachers. Bandura indicates that vicarious experience is more likely to be internalized when the model being observed has a high degree of similarity to the self (Schunk, 2008). The application of this construct to the student teaching experience necessitates that the matching process include assessments of individual teaching philosophies, personal experience with diversity and culturally responsive competencies for both the student and the cooperating teacher.

Clark and Jarvis-Selinger (2005) administered the Teaching Perspectives Inventory (Pratt & Collins, 2000) to 301 cooperating teachers to determine their dominant teaching perspective. The instrument contained five teaching perspective constructs including; nurturing (believing that both the heart and mind must be engaged), apprenticeship (focus on learning through authentic tasks), transmission (focus on content or subject matter expertise), developmental (focus on how the student teacher thinks about the content), and social reform (focus on education within the context of the social milieu and challenging inequity). Clark and Jarvis-Selinger (2005) found that of the five perspectives on teaching, the social reform perspective,

which is the perspective that can be most closely linked to the concepts present in multicultural education, proved to have the fewest amount of participants identifying with this perspective. Out of the 301 cooperating teachers, 156 identified as nurturing dominant, while only 2 identified a dominant social reform perspective (Clark & Jarvis-Selinger, 2005). In conjunction with the Multicultural Efficacy Scale (Guyton & Wesch, 2005), the Teaching Perspectives Inventory (Pratt & Collins, 2000) could assist teacher educators in the selection and matching of their cooperating teachers. Although matching based upon a variety of constructs is not always possible, the attempt to create matches that can allow the student teacher to best relate to their cooperating teacher increases the likelihood of a substantive vicarious experience, opening the door a bit wider to increased multicultural efficacy.

In addition to optimal matching between student teacher and the cooperating teacher, the inclusion of shared reflection experiences among the student teaching cohort can offer an additional source of vicarious experience. The varied nature of student teaching placements impacts a student teacher's exposure to multicultural education experiences and issues. For a student teacher placed in a homogenous suburban school, hearing about the experiences of a peer placed in a diverse urban environment can offer a form of vicarious experience that should not be overlooked in student teaching seminars.

The college classroom can serve as a primary vehicle for verbal persuasion (Bandura, 1997). Teacher educators that are well versed in multicultural issues and practices are poised to create a safe space where honest inquiry and debate can take place (Anderson & Stillman, 2013; Santoro, 2009; Sleeter & Owuor, 2011). Culturally responsive classroom environments not only provide preservice students with the theoretical background needed to identify and understand pertinent constructs, but are also contexts to ask questions and receive supportive feedback that

builds efficacy (Gorski et al., 2012). How well versed are most teacher educators in multicultural education? How comfortable are they with this topic and the sensitive discussions that arise? How is reflection constructed in the college class? Ongoing written reflection is a staple in most student teaching seminars, but how much of this activity is focused on multicultural education? A reflective writing process that spans the curriculum and is paired with both peer and professor feedback can serve to encourage the continuation of exploration, understanding and skill building (Krummel, 2013; Zeichner & Liston, 1987). Hollins and Guzman (2005) examined the most prevalent barriers faced by preservice teachers' in their application of culturally responsive practices. They found that preservice teachers lacked flexibility in their thinking, had minimal life experience with diversity and were not familiar with the heterogeneous social dynamics present in a multicultural community. The areas of significance found in this study have a direct relation to these established deficits in preservice teacher preparation.

Significant Predictors: Experience with Diversity and Ethnic Identity

This study found that experience with diversity ($\beta = .32, t(48) = 2.22, p < .05, R^2 = .09$) and ethnic identity ($\beta = .29, t(48) = 2.14, p < .05, R^2 = .09$) both accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in multicultural efficacy. Previous research on ethnic identity has produced several theoretical frameworks, each distinguished by their focus on marginalized or dominant racial identities within the context of society that has a white majority foundation. The work of Cross (1991) is distinguished by his focus on African American identity in the American context, Helms (1995) by her concentration on white racial identity, and Phinney (1992) by her dedication to the assessment of ethnic identity across multiple ethnic groups. Each of these conceptual models contains elements that are specific to their target population, but their core foundations share commonalities through which the relationship between ethnic identity and

multicultural efficacy can be explored. The intersection between Bandura's model of self-efficacy and the major components of ethnic/racial identity frameworks offers an avenue for critical examination that will seek to inform multicultural efficacy development for preservice educators.

For teachers who lack experience with diversity to develop authentic relationships with students of color, it is necessary for them first to construct their own racial identity. For many students of color, racial and ethnic identity exploration is not a choice; it is a reaction to the attitudes, judgments, and actions exerted by society on marginalized groups. For preservice teachers who are members of the dominant culture, the idea of having a "racial identity" can be counter-intuitive. It is often difficult for white students to reconcile that they do indeed have a racial identity, one that includes privilege bestowed upon them from birth solely based upon their race (Allard & Santoro, 2006). The homogeneous nature of many communities across the United States creates a context where white preservice teachers do not experience the chance to connect emotionally to the realities faced by students of color. Ladson-Billings (2001, p. 96) argues that "Typically, white middle class perspective teachers have little or no understanding of their own culture. Notions of whiteness are taken-for-granted. They are rarely interrogated."

Teachers who lack experience with diversity tend to avoid or ignore issues of difference (Anderson & Stillman, 2013). Whether grounded in individual prejudicial beliefs or lack of confidence in tackling sensitive topics, teachers who lack diversity experience create their own self-induced stereotype threat. In essence, their lack of experience may cause them to expend mental energy to push issues of difference aside. Avoiding the inclusion of cultural salience in the classroom, the student teacher hinders his/her own teaching practices and simultaneously passes the stereotype threat on to students (Ferguson, 2003). From this stance the teacher is only

viewing their students through the lens of the dominant culture, pushing their students to assimilate.

Conversely, discussions about privilege work to empower preservice teachers to broaden their understanding of how oppression impacts the educational experience of individuals from marginalized groups. A key component in this process is the examination of personal assumptions and belief systems with the benefit of a broadened world view acquired through discourse and inquiry (Zeichner & Liston, 1987). Guided reflection situates preservice teachers in a context where they are better equipped to identify inequities, as well as improve their understanding of multicultural practices and social norms. The foundation for this understanding must begin with an examination of the self, and then continue with the extrapolation of differences between various groups based on life experience. A preservice teachers' ability to truly understand the dimensions of their students' world empowers the integration of the students' sense of self into the curriculum, and consequently creates a learning process in which marginalized students are recognized, engaged and positioned from a locus of strength and positivity (Télliez, 2008).

Preservice teachers that are in the exploration phase of ethnic identity development may find growth through vicarious experience. The dynamic nature of human behavior does not guarantee that each field experience or student teaching placement will create opportunities for identity exploration of this type. Time is not unlimited in terms of teacher preparation, which necessitates that those preservice teachers with limited diversity experience hear the stories of their peers who are further along on the ethnic identity development journey.

Discussions about difference and marginalization vary based upon the multicultural context of preservice teacher experience. Depending upon the nature of a variety of social

learning environments, discussions on issues of difference can induce the desire to observe, engage, or avoid (Chang, Anagnostopoulos, & Omae, 2011). A preservice teacher that comes from a family background where negative stereotypes of marginalized groups are reinforced and where dissent is ridiculed or invalidated, will likely feel uncomfortable engaging in discussions where these topics are at the forefront. This type of experience can instill the desire to avoid confrontational scenarios with family, friends, classmates or colleagues around topics of difference that carry political charge and polarity on social issues (Banks, 2006, 2013). Conversely, an individual with pluralistic life experiences that facilitated open and authentic discussions is more apt to feel confident to do the same in the classroom, the lunchroom, the teacher break room and the community at large.

Preservice teachers in the exploration phase will benefit from mentor support and feedback when they experience multicultural encounters in the classroom environment that they have difficulty reconciling (Zozakiewicz , 2010), Teacher educators, cooperating teacher's's and peers can assist an individual in the reflection process by discussing the underlying social and cultural dynamics in motion that may have contributed to the encounter. Getting to the roots, uncovering the "why" of any situation is good reflective practice. For teachers operating in multicultural settings (particularly for the first time) getting to the root of the "why" is not just good practice, it is key to developing competence (Bodur, 2012; Zeichner & Liston, 1987). Authentic interest in the "why", the desire to uncover, understand and validate positions of difference, is readily apparent to high school students. Ongoing inquiry and genuine concern provide a student teacher with the type of relational currency needed to reach deeper levels of multicultural understanding with their students (Chang et al., 2011).

An individual's ability to navigate complex interactions is increased if they can contextualize behavior within the larger dynamics of marginalization (Gay & Kirkland, 2003). An advanced ethnic identity paired with substantive experience with diversity leads an individual to the affirmation stage of development (Phinney, 1992). When a teacher possesses enough personal awareness and confidence in their own identity a challenging interaction with a student or parent is not summarily assessed as a personal attack. Interactions contain elements of personal attribution, but societal dynamics perpetuated over generations often land in the personal context (Chang et al., 2011). Societal constructs can be misapplied, other times misinterpreted, making the ability to effectively communicate across many cultural and social channels essential for a teacher. Discussing such challenges with colleagues and mentors provides an opportunity for the preservice teacher to build resilience (Helms, 1995). For many preservice teachers, the school context may be the first place where they experience multicultural challenge or conflict, so the support of a professional community is critical. Equally pivotal is that communities' ability to help the preservice teacher understand that their encounter experience has provided a small taste of the struggles that marginalized students have dealt with for the entirety of their lives.

The physiological and emotional arousal that accompanies a multicultural encounter or confrontation can cause an individual to retreat from further ethnic identity exploration and reintegrate toward the dominant ideology that is familiar (Helms, 1995). In order to justify reintegration, a preservice teacher may look to blame the victim. This view allows an individual to release feelings of resentment, anger or guilt for being forced to look at an aspect of their identity that they didn't realize they possessed. The initial instinct to blame the victim leads the individual to validate prior prejudices and stereotypes. A teacher that has reached Helms stages

of pseudo independence and autonomy possess advanced levels of understanding, awareness and skill. When faced with potentially emotional or physiologically arousing situations these individuals are better prepared to maintain personal balance and take actions that are truly in the best interest of students.

Future Research

Based upon the findings of this study, future research will involve continued quantitative analysis of multicultural efficacy, the inclusion of qualitative analysis of ethnic identity and experience with diversity and quasi-experimental studies that examine interventions geared toward building cultural competence. Data collection will include the addition of in-service teachers in their first 3 years of professional experience, as well as students in various stages of teacher preparation programs. In order to strengthen the generalizability, future studies will benefit from a participant sample that possesses a demographic distribution that is more closely representative of the teaching profession in the U.S. A qualitative exploration of the variables included in this study will be sought via individual interviews and focus groups. The Multicultural Efficacy Scale will be used to guide question selection, and will seek to uncover the practical applications of culturally responsive pedagogy as well as delve into the ethnic identity development process.

Previous research indicates the need for studies that examine the effectiveness of field experiences and program curricula designed to increase multicultural efficacy (Hollins & Guzman, 2005). A quasi-experimental design can be employed to examine how longer term field experiences that extend beyond the “drive thru” nature of classroom observations or practice teaching impact multicultural efficacy development. Summer camps that serve a diverse population of students, both residential and day camps, provide excellent opportunities for

preservice teachers. This type of field experience provides opportunities to teach daily, develop authentic relationships with students of color, interact with parents, and engage in critical self reflection can bridge theory and practice in a meaningful context.

Limitations

The limitations encountered in this study centered around sample size, self-report bias and demographic generalizability. The utilization of current program participants limited the sample size of the study, particularly the number of participants that had completed the student teaching experience. Student teaching cohort size for this teacher preparation program averages at 20 students per semester. Although this limitation could not be rectified for this study, the collection of data from future student teaching cohorts, as well as seeking student teaching data from additional teacher preparation program's, are measures that will allow the sample size to be strengthened. The demographic distribution of the sample presents an additional limitation toward the ability to generalize the results. The overwhelming majority of teachers in the United States are white, middle class, and female (Liggett & Finley, 2009). The study sample was more evenly distributed across racial groups, and thus it did not mirror the current demographic trends in education. The high representation of minority participants in the sample may have skewed the results for the assessment of colorblind racial attitudes, offering one possible rationale for the lack of significance found with this variable.

All three of the measures utilized to assess the study variables shared the commonality of participant self-report. Although the measures employed have all been previously assessed for validity and reliability, the inherent nature of bias in self-report must be considered (Arnold & Feldman, 1981). For example, it is possible that the preservice teacher's possessed a level of overconfidence in their abilities to be culturally responsive due to their limited teaching

experience. The lack of practical application in this area may have given the preservice teachers “rose colored glasses”. Participants may believe that a theoretical understanding will allow them to be culturally competent, when in reality the dynamics of a real classroom can make these skills difficult to master (Kubler LaBoskey & Richert, 2002).

Conclusion

The significant relationships found in this study among experience with diverse groups, ethnic identity, and multicultural efficacy in the classroom support established research in multicultural education. To optimize preparation of preservice teachers for the diverse classrooms of today, it is paramount that teacher education programs move beyond cursory injections of multicultural theory and provide ongoing opportunities for students to engage in diverse field experiences. Consistent field experiences prior to student teaching can serve as educational levers that broaden real world perspectives, while also providing a more authentic context within which to examine one’s ethnic identity, Multicultural personal experience builds a deeper fluency with issues surrounding difference that can lead to a more genuine level of inquiry with students .(Gay & Kirkland, 2003). This type of multicultural confidence comes from the examination of self within the cultural context of race, and from having a grasp on the impact that belonging to a marginalized group has on their students’ daily lives. Validating a students’ cultural identity and actively advocating for equality in the classroom, teachers not only convey understanding, they are also sending a powerful message of worth that needs to be heard by all children as they strive to find their place in the world.

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Appendix A

Tables

Table 1

Participant Demographic Information

Demographic Category	Results	Demographic Category	Results
Teaching Experience		Childhood SES	
Completed Coursework	60%	Lower	11.8%
Completed Student Teaching	40%	Lower Middle	39.2%
		Middle	27.5%
Gender		Upper Middle	7.8%
Male	45%	Upper	13.7%
Female	55%		
Age		Current SES	
Range	19-30 yrs.	Lower	11.8%
Average	23yrs.	Lower Middle	31.4%
		Middle	33.3%
Race/Ethnicity		Upper Middle	9.8%
White	27.5%	Upper	13.7%
African American	6%		
Hispanic	39%		
Asian	22%		
Bi-Racial	2%		
Other	4%		

Table 2

MES Attitude and Efficacy Subscales Score Response Distribution

MES Subscale	Low	Average	High
Attitude	0-15	16-24	24-28
Efficacy	0-54	55-66	67-80

Table 3
MES Response Distribution for Strongest Beliefs About Teaching

Statement	Response Distribution
<i>Tolerance</i> “If every individual learned to accept and work with every other person, then there would be no intercultural problems.”	25%
<i>Assimilation</i> “If all groups could be helped to contribute to the general good and not seek special recognition, we could create a unified America.”	14%
<i>Pluralism</i> “All cultural groups are entitled to maintain their own identity.”	9%
<i>Multiculturalism</i> “All cultural groups should be recognized for their strengths and contributions”	42%
<i>Advocacy</i> “Some groups need to be helped to achieve equal treatment before we can reach the goals of a democratic society.”	8%

Table 4
Testing for Mediation with Regression Analysis (Baron & Kenny, 1986)

	Analysis	Visual Depiction
Step 1	Conducted a simple regression analysis where teacher experience (X) predicted multicultural efficacy (Y), tested for path c alone. $Y = B_0 + B_1X + e$	$X \xrightarrow{c} Y$
Step 2	1. Conducted a simple regression analysis where teacher experience (X) predicted experience with diversity (M_1), tested for path a, $M_1 = B_0 + B_1X + e$ 2. Conducted a simple regression analysis where teacher experience (X) predicted ethnic identity (M_2), tested for path a, $M_2 = B_0 + B_1X + e$ 3. Conducted a simple regression analysis where teacher experience (X) predicted colorblind racial attitudes (M_3), tested for path a, $M_3 = B_0 + B_1X + e$	$X \xrightarrow{a} M_1$ $X \xrightarrow{a} M_2$ $X \xrightarrow{a} M_3$
Step 3	1. Conducted a simple regression analysis where experience with diversity (M_1) predicted multicultural efficacy (Y), tested the significance of path b alone, $Y = B_0 + B_1M + B_2X + e$ 2. Conducted a simple regression analysis where ethnic identity (M_2) predicted multicultural efficacy (Y), tested the significance of path b alone, $Y = B_0 + B_1M + B_2X + e$ 3. Conducted a simple regression analysis where colorblind racial attitudes (M_3) predicted multicultural efficacy (Y), tested the significance of path b alone, $Y = B_0 + B_1M + B_2X + e$	$M_1 \xrightarrow{b} Y$ $M_2 \xrightarrow{b} Y$ $M_3 \xrightarrow{b} Y$
Step 4	Conducted a hierarchical regression analysis where: teacher experience (X), experience with diversity, ethnic identity and colorblind racial attitudes (M) predicted multicultural efficacy (Y), $Y = B_0 + B_1X + B_2M_1 + B_3M_2 + B_4M_3 + e$	$X \xrightarrow{c'} Y$ $M \xrightarrow{b} Y$

Table 5
Means, Standard Deviations, and Bivariate Correlations for Teaching Experience, Experience with Diversity, Ethnic Identity, Colorblind Racial Attitudes and Multicultural Efficacy

Variable	1	2	3	4	5
1. Teaching Experience	--				
2. Experience with Diversity	.22	--			
3. Ethnic Identity	-.02	.21	--		
4. Colorblind Racial Attitudes	-.06	.03	-.35	--	
5. Multicultural Efficacy	.07	.32	.35	-.01	--
alpha	--	.71	.73	.53	.91
n	50	50	50	50	50
M	.38	21.35	2.70	62.10	74.01
SD	.49	4.52	.30	8.61	11.70

Table 6
Collinearity Diagnostics for Teaching Experience, Multicultural Efficacy, Ethnic Identity and Colorblind Racial Attitudes

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions				
				(Constant)	Teaching Experience	MES Experience	MEIM Total	CoBRAS Total
1	1	1.616	1.000	.19	.19			
	2	.384	2.053	.81	.81			
2	1	2.503	1.000	.01	.06	.01		
	2	.476	2.294	.01	.92	.01		
	3	.021	10.962	.98	.02	.98		
3	1	3.442	1.000	.00	.03	.00	.00	
	2	.525	2.559	.00	.93	.00	.00	
	3	.026	11.481	.06	.04	.98	.08	
	4	.006	23.680	.94	.00	.00	.92	
4	1	4.395	1.000	.00	.02	.00	.00	.00
	2	.552	2.822	.00	.93	.00	.00	.00
	3	.031	11.985	.01	.04	.82	.00	.14
	4	.019	15.035	.01	.00	.17	.27	.30
	5	.003	37.033	.98	.01	.00	.73	.56

Table 7
Predictors of Multicultural Efficacy among Preservice Teachers

<i>PREDICTOR</i>	<i>Hierarchical Multiple Regression for Multicultural Efficacy</i>											
	Block 1			Block 2			Block 3			Block 4		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i> <i>B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i> <i>B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i> <i>B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i> <i>B</i>	β
Teaching Experience	1.76	3.44	.07	.08	3.40	.003	.60	3.29	.03	.82	3.32	.03
Experience with Diversity				.81	.37	.32	.64	.36	.25	.61	.37	.24
Ethnic Identity							11.27	5.28	.29	12.67	5.70	.33
Colorblind Racial Attitudes										.13	.20	.10
R ²			.005			.09*			.18*			.19
R ²			--			.09			.08			.008

Note. $N = 50$; * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Appendix B

Figures

Figure 1
Assessing the Distribution of Errors via Histogram

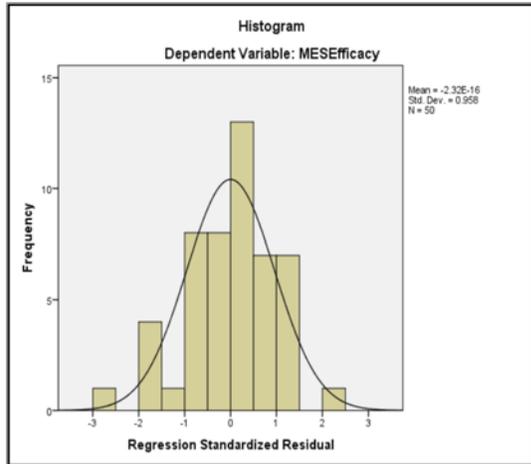


Figure 2
Assessing Linearity via a Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

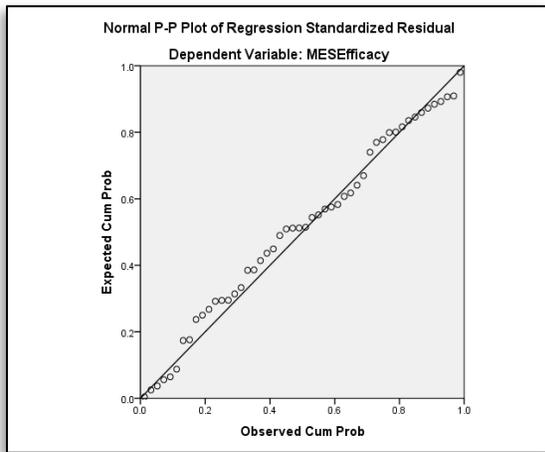
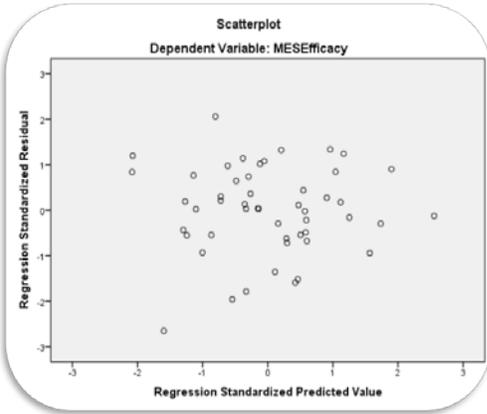


Figure 3
Assessing Homoscedasticity via Scatterplot



Appendix C

Consent to Participate in Research

UNIVERSITY OF HOUSTON - CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

PROJECT TITLE: "Multicultural Efficacy Among Pre-Service Teachers"

You are being invited to participate in a research project conducted by the University of Houston Investigators from the *teachHOUSTON* program at the University of Houston.

NON-PARTICIPATION STATEMENT

Your participation is voluntary and you may refuse to participate or withdraw at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You may also refuse to answer any question. If you are a student, a decision to participate or not or to withdraw your participation will have no effect on your standing.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This is a study in educational research that is being conducted by the *teachHOUSTON* faculty and staff. The purpose of this study is to examine the nature of the relationship between multicultural efficacy, ethnic identity, racial attitudes and the student teaching experience.

PROCEDURES

You will be one of approximately 100 subjects to be asked to participate in this project.

If you agree to be in this study, we will ask you to do the following things:

You will complete a series of survey's, which will take 15-20 minutes to complete. If you decide to participate in this study, you will be asked to complete a survey about your ethnic identity, attitudes about race and multicultural efficacy in the classroom. We also will ask for some demographic information (e.g., age, student classification, status, education level) so that we can accurately describe the general traits of the group of students and graduates who participate in the study. After you complete the questionnaire, we will analyze your responses with a statistical software package. After we have finished data collection, results will be disseminated via national and state conference presentations, publications in education journals and by other means.

Questions asked will be similar to the following:

1. I am not very clear about the role of ethnicity in my life.

1

2

3

4

Strongly Disagree

Somewhat Disagree

Somewhat Agree

Strongly Agree

2. To learn more about my ethnic background, I have often talked to other people about my ethnic background.

1	2	3	4
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

3. Everyone who works hard, no matter what race they are, has an equal chance to become rich.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree

4. Due to racial discrimination, programs such as affirmative action are necessary to help create equality.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree

Total estimated time to participate in is *a maximum of 25 minutes*.

CONFIDENTIALITY

The following procedures and safeguards guide research staff in the protection of privacy and confidential information of study participants.

- All interviews will be audio taped. Recordings will be transferred from the transmitting medium (digital recorder, CD-ROM, or electronic file transfer) to the computers of the assigned staff only, secured with a password. Recordings will be coded so that no personally identifiable information is visible.
- The records of this study will be stored securely and kept confidential. Authorized persons from the University of Houston, members of the Institutional Review Board, and study sponsors, have the legal right to review your research records and will protect the confidentiality of those records to the extent permitted by law. All publications will exclude any information that will make it

possible to identify you as a subject. Throughout the study, the researchers will notify you of new information that may become available and that might affect your decision to remain in the study.

- All data and materials, including recordings, will be kept for at least three years after the completion of the study.
- If you consent, the data resulting from your participation will be made available to other researchers in the future for research purposes not detailed within this consent form. In these cases, the data will contain no identifying information that could associate you with it, or with your participation in any study.

RISKS/DISCOMFORTS

The risk associated with this study is no greater than everyday life.

BENEFITS

There is no direct benefit of being in the study. However, you may be exposed to information that may help you in the future.

ALTERNATIVES

Participation in this project is voluntary and the only alternative to this project is non-participation.

PUBLICATION STATEMENT

The results of this study may be published in professional and/or scientific journals. It may also be used for educational purposes or for professional presentations. However, no individual subject will be identified.

SUBJECT RIGHTS

1. I understand that informed consent is required of all persons participating in this project.
2. All procedures have been explained to me and all my questions have been answered to my satisfaction.
3. Any risks and/or discomforts have been explained to me.
4. Any benefits have been explained to me.
5. I understand that, if I have any questions, I may contact Laura Jacobs at 832-875-2617. I may also contact Dr. Paige Evans, faculty sponsor, at 713-743-3993.
6. I have been told that I may refuse to participate or to stop my participation in this project at any time before or during the project. I may also refuse to answer any question.
7. ANY QUESTIONS REGARDING MY RIGHTS AS A RESEARCH SUBJECT MAY BE ADDRESSED TO THE UNIVERSITY OF HOUSTON COMMITTEE FOR THE PROTECTION OF HUMAN SUBJECTS (713-743-9204). ALL RESEARCH PROJECTS THAT ARE CARRIED OUT BY INVESTIGATORS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF HOUSTON ARE GOVERNED BY REQUIREMENTS OF THE UNIVERSITY AND THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT.
8. All information that is obtained in connection with this project and that can be identified with me will remain confidential as far as possible within legal limits. Information gained from this study that can be identified with me may be released to no one other than the principal investigator, Laura Jacobs and her faculty sponsor, Dr. Paige Evans. The results may be published in scientific journals, professional publications, or educational presentations without identifying me by name.

I agree to participate in this study.

Yes _____ No _____

I HAVE READ (OR HAVE HAD READ TO ME) THE CONTENTS OF THIS CONSENT FORM AND HAVE BEEN ENCOURAGED TO ASK QUESTIONS. I HAVE RECEIVED ANSWERS TO MY QUESTIONS. I GIVE MY CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY. I HAVE RECEIVED (OR WILL RECEIVE) A COPY OF THIS FORM FOR MY RECORDS AND FUTURE REFERENCE.

Study Subject (print name): _____

Signature of Study Subject: _____

Date: _____

I HAVE READ THIS FORM TO THE SUBJECT AND/OR THE SUBJECT HAS READ THIS FORM. AN EXPLANATION OF THE RESEARCH WAS GIVEN AND QUESTIONS FROM THE SUBJECT WERE SOLICITED AND ANSWERED TO THE SUBJECT'S SATISFACTION. IN MY JUDGMENT, THE SUBJECT HAS DEMONSTRATED COMPREHENSION OF THE INFORMATION.

Principal Investigator (print name and title): _____

Signature of Principal Investigator: _____

Date:

Appendix D

Multicultural Efficacy Scale

MULTICULTURAL EFFICACY SCALE

DIRECTIONS:

Step 1: Demographic Information

Fill out the demographic information on the sheet provided. This information is necessary to the research study, and it will be kept strictly confidential.

TO THE RESPONDER: The demographic information requested below is necessary for the research process. Please be assured that this information and all of your responses on this instrument will be kept **strictly confidential**. Data will be reported in such a way that identification of individuals will be impossible. Your student ID (social security) number allows this information to be compared with your responses at a later time.

Gender (Check One): Male Female

Age: _____ Student ID# _____

Birthplace: City _____ State/Province _____ Country _____

Education: Current Degree Program _____ Institution _____ Grad. Year _____
(If not currently in a degree program, please give your highest degree previously completed.)

Racial / Ethnic Background (Please Describe) _____

Religious Background (Please Describe) _____

Sexual Orientation (Please Describe) _____

Physical Disabilities (If Any, Please Describe) _____

Parents' Education (Highest Degree/Diploma): Father _____ Mother _____

Approximate Socio-Economic Status (Please Check One in Each Column)

As a Child	As an Adult (Current)	Corresponding Annual Household Income
Lower <input type="checkbox"/>	Lower <input type="checkbox"/>	\$0-\$19,999
Lower Middle <input type="checkbox"/>	Lower Middle <input type="checkbox"/>	\$20,000-\$39,999
Middle <input type="checkbox"/>	Middle <input type="checkbox"/>	\$40,000-\$59,999
Upper Middle <input type="checkbox"/>	Upper Middle <input type="checkbox"/>	\$60,000-\$79,999
Upper <input type="checkbox"/>	Upper <input type="checkbox"/>	\$80,000+

Additional Self-Description and/or Comments:

SECTION A

Definition: The authors intend the terms “diversity” and “people different from me” to include people of different races, ethnic groups, cultures, religions, socio-economic classes, sexual orientations, and physical abilities.

Directions: Please choose the word that best describes your experience with people different from you by circling the corresponding answer below.

- 1) As a child, I played with people different from me.
A) never B) rarely C) occasionally D) frequently
- 2) I went to school with diverse students as a teenager.
A) never B) rarely C) occasionally D) frequently
- 3) Diverse people lived in my neighborhood when I was a child growing up.
A) never B) rarely C) occasionally D) frequently
- 4) In the past I chose to read books about people different from me.
A) never B) rarely C) occasionally D) frequently
- 5) A diverse person was one of my role models when I was younger.
A) never B) rarely C) occasionally D) frequently
- 6) In the past I chose to watch TV shows and movies about people different from me.
A) never B) rarely C) occasionally D) frequently
- 7) As a teenager, I was on the same team and/or club with diverse students.
A) never B) rarely C) occasionally D) frequently

SECTION B

Directions: Respond to each statement by choosing one answer that best describes your reaction to it. Since we are simply trying to get an accurate sense of your opinions on these matters, there are no right or wrong answers.

Key: A) agree strongly B) agree somewhat C) disagree somewhat D) disagree strongly

- 8) Teachers should adapt lesson plans to reflect the different cultures represented in the classroom.
- 9) Teachers should provide opportunities for children to share cultural differences in foods, dress, family life, and beliefs.
- 10) Discussing ethnic traditions and beliefs in school leads to disunity and arguments between students from different cultures.
- 11) Children should be taught mostly by teachers of their own ethnic and cultural background.
- 12) It is essential to include the perspectives of diverse groups while teaching things about American history that are common to all Americans.
- 13) Curricula and textbooks should include the contributions of most, if not all, cultural groups in our society.
- 14) The classroom library should reflect the racial and cultural differences in the class.

SECTION C

Directions: To the best of your knowledge, self-assess your own ability to do the various items listed below.

Key: A = I do not believe I could do this very well.
 B = I could probably do this if I had to, but it would be difficult for me.

C = I believe that I could do this reasonably well, if I had time to prepare.

D = I am quite confident that this would be easy for me to do.

- 15) I can provide instructional activities to help students to develop strategies for dealing with racial confrontations.
- 16) I can adapt instructional methods to meet the needs of learners from diverse groups.
- 17) I can develop materials appropriate for the multicultural classroom.
- 18) I can develop instructional methods that dispel myths about diverse groups.
- 19) I can analyze instructional materials for potential stereotypical and/or prejudicial content.
- 20) I can help students to examine their own prejudices.
- 21) I can present diverse groups in our society in a manner that will build mutual respect.
- 22) I can develop activities that increase the self-confidence of diverse students.
- 23) I can provide instruction showing how prejudice affects individuals.

**Key: A = I do not believe I could do this very well.
B = I could probably do this if I had to, but it would be difficult for me.**

C = I believe that I could do this reasonably well, if I had time to prepare. D = I am quite confident that this would be easy for me to do.

- 24) I can plan instructional activities to reduce prejudice toward diverse groups.
- 25) I can identify cultural biases in commercial materials used in teaching.
- 26) I can help students work through problem situations caused by stereotypical and/or prejudicial attitudes.
- 27) I can get students from diverse groups to work together.
- 28) I can identify school practices that may harm diverse students.
- 29) I can identify solutions to problems that may arise as the result of diversity.
- 30) I can identify the societal forces which influence opportunities for diverse people.
- 31) I can identify ways in which various groups contribute to our pluralistic society.
- 32) I can help students take on the perspective of ethnic and cultural groups different from their own.
- 33) I can help students view history and current events from diverse perspectives.
- 34) I can involve students in making decisions and clarifying their values regarding multicultural issues.

Note: The following item is different from the others in this section.

35) Choose the position which most closely reflects your strongest beliefs about teaching:

A = If every individual learned to accept and work with every other person, then there would be no intercultural problems.

B = If all groups could be helped to contribute to the general good and not seek special recognition, we could create a unified America.

C = All cultural groups are entitled to maintain their own identity.

D = All cultural groups should be recognized for their strengths and contributions.

E = Some groups need to be helped to achieve equal treatment before we can reach the goals of a democratic society.

Appendix E

The Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM)

The MEIM was originally published in the following article:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure

In this country, people come from many different countries and cultures, and there are many different words to describe the different backgrounds or ethnic groups that people come from. Some examples of the names of ethnic groups are Hispanic or Latino, Black or African American, Asian American, Chinese, Filipino, American Indian, Mexican American, Caucasian or White, Italian American, and many others. These questions are about your ethnicity or your ethnic group and how you feel about it or react to it.

Please fill in: In terms of ethnic group, I consider myself to be _____

Use the numbers below to indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement.

(4) Strongly agree (3) Agree (2) Disagree (1) Strongly disagree

1- I have spent time trying to find out more about my ethnic group, such as its history, traditions, and customs.

2- I am active in organizations or social groups that include mostly members of my own ethnic group.

3- I have a clear sense of my ethnic background and what it means for me.

4- I think a lot about how my life will be affected by my ethnic group membership.

5- I am happy that I am a member of the group I belong to.

6- I have a strong sense of belonging to my own ethnic group.

7- I understand pretty well what my ethnic group membership means to me.

8- In order to learn more about my ethnic background, I have often talked to other people about my ethnic group.

9- I have a lot of pride in my ethnic group.

10- I participate in cultural practices of my own group, such as special food, music, or customs.

11- I feel a strong attachment towards my own ethnic group.

12- I feel good about my cultural or ethnic background.

13- My ethnicity is

- (1) Asian or Asian American, including Chinese, Japanese, and others
- (2) Black or African American
- (3) Hispanic or Latino, including Mexican American, Central American, and others
- (4) White, Caucasian, Anglo, European American; not Hispanic
- (5) American Indian/Native American
- (6) Mixed; Parents are from two different groups
- (7) Other (write in): _____

14- My father's ethnicity is (use numbers above)

15- My mother's ethnicity is (use numbers above)

Appendix F

Colorblind Racial Attitudes Scale

Colorblind Racial Attitudes Scale (CoBRAS)

Directions: The following is a set of questions that deal with social issues in the United States (U.S.). Using the 6-point scale, please give your honest rating about the degree to which you personally agree or disagree with each statement. Please be as open and honest as you can; there are no right or wrong answers.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree		

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Everyone who works hard, no matter what race they are, has an equal chance to become rich.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Race plays a major role in the type of social services (such as type of healthcare or daycare) that people receive in the U.S.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. It is important that people begin to think of themselves as American and not African American, Mexican American or Italian American.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Due to racial discrimination, programs such as affirmative action are necessary to help create equality.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Racism is a major problem in the U.S.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Race is very important in determining who is successful and who is not.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Racism may have been a problem in the past, but it is not an important problem today.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Racial and ethnic minorities do not have the same opportunities as White people in the U.S.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. White people in the U.S. are discriminated against because of the color their skin.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Talking about racial issues causes unnecessary tension.	1	2	3	4	5	6

11. It is important for political leaders to talk about racism to help work through or solve society's problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. White people in the U.S. have certain advantages because of the color of their skin.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Immigrants should try to fit into the culture and adopt the values of the U.S.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. English should be the only official language in the U.S.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. White people are more to blame for racial discrimination in the U.S. than racial and ethnic minorities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. Social policies, such as affirmative action, discriminate unfairly against White people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. It is important for public schools to teach about the history and contributions of racial and ethnic minorities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. Racial and ethnic minorities in the U.S. have certain advantages because of the color of their skin.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. Racial problems in the U.S. are rare, isolated situations.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. Race plays an important role in who gets sent to prison.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Thank you for participating in this research study!