Prejudice Reduction Through Diversity Coursework for Teacher Education

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ABSTRACT

Investigated in this study was whether a university education course that covers the topics of diversity and cultural responsiveness would change teacher candidates' existing prejudicial attitudes. The major variables reported in this study were exposure to diversity coursework which served as the independent variable and teacher candidates' prejudicial attitudes, which served as the dependent variable. Using the *Yoder-Hartman Survey of Beliefs Scale*, three research questions were addressed: (a) Are there differences in prejudice level between preservice teachers who have taken a diversity course and those who have not taken a diversity course? (b) Are there differences in prejudice level in preservice teachers before and after taking a diversity course? and (c) Do preservice teachers who have taken a diversity course and those who have not taken a diversity course display different pre/post levels of assessed prejudice? No differences were found between students who had taken a diversity course and those who had not. The current study suggests that one diversity course is not sufficient to have a significant effect on prejudice reduction among preservice teachers. Analyses of the current study results suggest that the coursework designed to reduce prejudicial attitudes was ineffective. Continued investigation will be required to: (1) refine and develop a program that will reduce prejudicial attitudes among teacher candidates and (2) refine and develop measures of prejudice reduction.

Dedication

Dedicated to my family: Staci, Sarina, Sophia, and Sarah with all my love.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Overview

This study of prejudice reduction through diversity coursework for teacher education candidates examined the following three questions: (a) Are there differences in prejudice level between preservice teachers who have taken a diversity course and those who have not taken a diversity course? (b) Are there differences in prejudice level in preservice teachers before and after taking a diversity course? and (c) Do preservice teachers who have taken a diversity course and those who have not taken a diversity course display different pre/post levels of assessed prejudice?

Those responsible for training future teachers might ask what kinds of assistance may be necessary for our mostly White, mostly female, mostly middle class, mostly monolingual preservice teachers that will help prepare them to teach in a multicultural, multiracial, multiethnic, and multilingual society (Ladson-Billings, 2009). According to the U.S. Census Bureau, nearly one in five people in the United States are first or second generation U.S. residents (United States Census Bureau, 2010). By the year 2050, it is predicted that 51% of school-age children will come from ethnic/racial "minority" groups (Shudak, 2010). The diversity among student populations is increasing by every measure, yet the current cadre of teachers is strikingly homogenous (Dedeoglu & Lamme, 2011; Ladson-Billings, 2005; Shudak, 2010). According to the report of the National Collaborative on Diversity in the Teaching Force (2004) in 2001, 90% of the teaching force was White and 40% of schools had no teachers of color on staff.

There is no projected increase in the percentage of educators of color being added to the teaching workforce for the foreseeable future (Dedeoglu & Lamme, 2011; Epstein, 2005; Shudak, 2010). Statistical projections indicate that while the percentage of students of color in public schools is expected to increase, the percentage of teachers of color will not increase, unless some level of action is taken on both the state and national levels (National Collaborative on Diversity in the Teaching Force, 2004). Ladson-Billings (2005) notes that the majority of education preservice teachers are "White, middle-class, monolingual female students who will have the responsibility of teaching in school communities serving students who are culturally,

linguistically, ethnically, racially, and economically different from them" (p.230). As indicated by Darling-Hammond (2010) in order for students to succeed in the 21st century standards, their teachers "need to know a lot more to teach today's diverse students, tens of thousands of teachers are underprepared and under supported especially in schools serving low-income students of color" (p. 205).

<div align="center">Achievement Gap Crisis</div>

Educational research has established and confirmed that an achievement gap exists between students of different races (Haycock, 2012, Nisbett, 2011; Rothman, 2002). Rothman (2002) contends that on most measures of student performance White students have long outperformed children of color. Although there does not seem to be much academic improvement for nonwhite ethnic and racial groups, the gap narrowed slightly in the 1970s and 1980s. "Between 1971 and 1988 the White-African-American gap in performance for 13-year olds on the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) reading test narrowed by 22 points on a 500-point scale, or the equivalent of two grade levels" (Rothman, 2002, p. 2). The gap in math performance narrowed by a similar amount between 1973 and 1986. During this time, African American performance rose, while White performance remained stable (Rothman, 2002).

<div align="center">*Addressing the Crisis*</div>

In order to increase achievement in students of color, the nation must begin to address the crisis by increasing our national pool of teachers of color (Ladson-Billings, 2005; Shudak, 2010). The National Collaborative on Diversity in the Teaching Force (2004) reported that students of color tend to have higher academic, personal, and social performance when taught by teachers from their own ethnic groups. Although this finding is not suggesting that culturally competent teachers are unable to have similar success with students of color from different ethnic groups, it is noted that "teachers of color have higher performance expectations for students of color from their own ethnic group" (National Collaborative on Diversity in the Teaching Force, 2004, p. 6). Kea and Utley (1998) stated that when schools lack racial diversity among personnel, students from various ethnic and racial backgrounds are deprived of adult role models to emulate and are unable to recognize that their ethnic and racial differences are not perceived as liabilities. It is

therefore critical that students of diverse ethnic and racial backgrounds experience a diverse teaching force (Kea & Utley, 1998; Tenenbaum & Ruck, 2007). In the absence of such diversity, there is a great responsibility to investigate bias and reduce prejudice in those persons currently entering the field of education.

<p align="center">*Teacher Bias*</p>

Without the presence of adults from other cultures and backgrounds in the schools, biases and uninformed racial attitudes will continue among school-age children (Kea & Utley, 1998; Tenenbaum & Ruck, 2007). Rothman (2002) contended that teacher bias or prejudice contributes to the achievement gap and reducing teacher prejudice may be another way of attacking the achievement gap between races. Further, Rothman argued that some African-American students have been unsuccessful because teachers have low expectations which may convince some students to not try as hard in school. Rothman conducted a survey in the Fort Wayne, Indiana, school district and found that African-American students had more negative relationships with teachers than did White students. In response, the district instituted diversity training for the staff. Prejudice or racial/ethnic bias reduction as a part of diversity training may prove to be successful in attacking this achievement gap crisis between races. In classrooms, expectations and perceptions by teachers are directly related to achievement outcomes for students (Brookover, Beady, Flood, Schweitzer, & Wisenbaker, 1979; Brophy & Good, 1974; Ferguson, 2003; Rosenthal, 1976; Spradlin, Welsh, & Hinson, 2000; Tyler & Boelter, 2008). A problem arises when schools are dominated by the attitudes, beliefs, and value systems of one race and class of people, as has happened in American classrooms (Pine & Hilliard, 1990). The problem becomes a cultural mismatch between students and their schools which can then lead to hostility, alienation, diminished self-esteem, and eventual school failure (Irvine, 1990, 2007). Currently, the White middle class continues to dominate the teaching field, which perpetuates a Eurocentric value system while the ethnic and racial demographic of students changes rapidly.

<p align="center">*Teacher Expectations*</p>

With this dominance of the White middle class comes the potential for lowered expectations and overrepresentation of minorities in lower educational programs or educational tracks. There is a possibility teachers might intentionally or unintentionally suppress the learning

of some students simply because they subjectively believe certain racial and ethnically diverse students are not capable of grasping certain material as quickly or as well as other students (Dusek, 1975; Marzano, 2010). Moreover, teachers' behaviors demonstrate low expectations for students when they "make less eye contact, smile less, make less physical contact, and engage in less playful or light dialogue" (Marzano, 2010, p. 83). In a seminal study, Rist (1970) cited evidence that minority children are overrepresented in lower ability groups and curricular tracks (Ferguson, 2003; Haller, 1985; Tenenbaum & Ruck, 2007). "…The research on teacher expectations is quite old. Although it is reasonable to expect that, with the increasing diversity in our schools, it no longer holds true, there are still numerous examples of teachers' low expectations of students" (Nieto, 2009, p. 57). One explanation for these lowered expectations may be the result of overt or covert prejudice.

Prejudice is defined by Aboud (1988) as "a unified, stable, and consistent tendency to respond in a negative way toward members of a particular ethnic group" (p. 6). In the classic text, *The Nature of Prejudice*, Allport (1954) suggests prejudice to be an aversive (i.e., having an active feeling of dislike or reluctance) or hostile attitude toward a person who belongs to a group simply because he/she belongs to that group. Many people in today's society would not consider themselves to be ethnically or racially prejudiced, but as Allport (1954) suggests in his definition, even reluctance is considered prejudicial in nature. It is prejudice that leads people to buy into hurtful stereotyping or what Schultz (1967) refers to as the "typification" of others (Ryan, 1998). In the case of racial or ethnic prejudice it may cause one to believe some races or ethnic groups are more capable of learning and/or have greater intelligence than other races or ethnic groups (D'Angelo & Dixey, 2001; Ferguson, 2003; Tenenbaum & Ruck, 2007).

Prejudice Reduction

One strategy to address the concern of teacher prejudice in the classroom is to train preservice teachers to be more culturally responsive and celebrate diversity through multicultural workshops, class activities in prejudice reduction, or other such experiences. There is a multiplicity of terms, programs, and definitions for what might be included in preservice experience (Engberg, 2004). For the purpose of this inquiry, diversity coursework will be the term used for planned opportunities in teacher preparation. Evidence suggests diversity coursework can increase student awareness of the social problems confronting minorities and

promote a more open attitude toward persons of color; however, the benefits range from small to moderate and can diminish over time (Engberg, 2004; Hill & Augoustinos, 2001; Pang & Park, 2003; Smith, Roberts, & Smith, 1997).

The survey of pertinent literature which follows includes: (a) a history of the development of multicultural education, (b) an examination of the complexity of and theories about prejudice, (c) a review of several problems associated with measuring prejudice, and (d) a survey of prejudice reduction in education. An analysis of several empirical studies shows methods, findings, and strengths and weakness of each study reviewed.

History of Multicultural Education

Multicultural education permeates much of diversity coursework today (Engberg, 2004; Keengwe, 2010). Multicultural education has two primary goals: to promote educational equality for all students and to enable all students to learn and develop the knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed to successfully participate in and contribute to an increasingly diverse society (Banks, 2002). The development of multicultural education was heavily influenced by African-American educational scholars such as Gwendolyn Baker, James A. Banks, Geneva Gay, and Carl A. Grant (Banks, 1996). In the early 20th century, the work of the African-American architects of the multicultural education movement focused on teaching African American studies in schools. Soon, many leaders from various ethnic backgrounds began teaching ethnic studies related to their specific ethnic groups. This was the beginning of what was called multiethnic education. According to Banks (1996) this movement reformed all components of the school environment, including: curriculum, teaching methods, materials, school policy, counseling, teacher attitudes, expectations, learning styles, and languages accepted in the school. Dewey and the Progressive Education Movement, as well as the cultural pluralism movement of the 1940s, also played an important role in the development of the modern multicultural education movement (Lei & Grant, 2001). The U.S. Supreme Court Decision of *Brown v. Board of Education*, 347 U.S. 483 (1954) and the Civil Rights Movement opened the door for groups who had previously attended segregated schools (Gay, 1983). By the 1960s many marginalized groups such as women and persons with disabilities then began to demand that schools change in order to meet their needs and realities (Banks, 1996). "Multicultural education evolved as a vehicle for school districts, colleges, and universities to respond collectively to the diverse and often conflicting demands of

these various groups" (Banks, 1996, p. 40). Multicultural education was beginning to serve as a catalyst, helping society to recognize, accept, and appreciate the various differences.

During this period, court cases such as *Lau v. Nichols*, 414 U.S. 563(1974), were driven by the demands of communities of color and language-minority learners for access to quality curriculum (Sleeter, 2005). Communities of color and groups from low-income communities challenged biased testing and biased college admissions processes, and also tracked systems and special education placements in order to access the full educational opportunity afforded White affluent English-speaking children (Sleeter, 2005).

Throughout the 1970s and 1980s, many initiatives, models, and approaches to a multicultural curriculum design had been established (Gay, 1995). Watkins (1993) initiated Black curriculum frameworks; Tetreault (1989) introduced phases of the integration of women into curriculum; Sleeter and Grant (1986) shared theoretical bases for five different approaches to multicultural education with specific implication for curriculum; and Darder (1991) developed a model of bicultural critical pedagogy for the classroom (Sleeter, 2005). Multicultural education came with many personal philosophies leading to a practice which has been far from homogenous: some teachers attempted to tackle racism by attacking stereotypes and ethnocentric images in the curriculum (Jeffcoate, 1978). Others remained satisfied with the celebration of festivals associated with 'other' cultures suggesting that "these celebrations were used to increase self-esteem in African American students by giving value to their cultures, and thereby increase their identification with school, their motivation and their academic achievement" (Duarte & Smith, 2000, p. 138).

Multiculturalism has not gone without critique. Some critics view multicultural education as a costly and unnecessary entitlement program for minorities (Webb, Metha, & Jordan, 2007). Politically, both the right and left have claimed suspicion. The political right, in general, claims that multicultural education will divide and polarize the country rather than bring unity, while the political left generally believes that multicultural education will reinforce the status quo because it fails to challenge the current social structure (Sleeter, 2005). In 1988, McCarthy stated that there is a fear that multicultural educators will be co-opted by participating in action and projects that only provide an illusion of change. In the midst of the criticism, Banks (1996) suggested that "multicultural education…whose greatest support and possibilities come from teachers, students, and parents who are struggling to overcome inequality and address the

culturally and ethnically diverse world of the present and future" (p. 42). There is a continual need to instill a sense of responsibility and commitment to work relentlessly toward the democratic ideals of justice, equality, and democracy (Manning & Baruth, 2009).

Banks (1996) has suggested four different components that make up multicultural education, including content integration, the knowledge construction process, prejudice reduction, and equity pedagogy. Most pertinent to the current study is the component of prejudice reduction.

Theories and Definitions of Prejudice and Prejudice Reduction

Describing and measuring the phenomenon of prejudice is complex. Prejudice presents itself in three different ways: cognitively, affectively, and behaviorally (Pate, 1995). The cognitive area of prejudice includes how we think about others, including the belief of negative stereotypes about a certain group. The affective dimension refers to a person's attitudes toward certain groups of people. The behavioral dimension, which is most visible, is that which a person actually does and the way his or her actions are carried out. This can be an overt demonstration such as voting, or it can be as subtle as the tone of one's voice or one's body language. Pate (1995) suggested that even though these three areas are related, one area may change while the other two do not. For teachers, this may mean that cognition can begin to change immediately while the affective and behavioral areas of prejudice may take additional time, "when we attempt to reduce prejudice, we need to thoughtfully consider on which dimension to focus and not attempt to reduce prejudice in general" (p. 1).

All attitudes, including prejudice, are difficult to define and measure (Bakanic, 2009). There are many ways that researchers attempt to measure prejudice such as survey, experimental, or observational research as well as by using behavioral and cognitive measures. Survey research is by far the most common way to measure prejudice. A survey research design selects and analyzes information from a defined sample of a larger population (Bakanic, 2009). When measuring prejudice, the self-report questionnaire is the most common method to survey a sample population because of its efficiency (Nelson, 2006). However, self-report measures can have complications. According to recent research, there is an increasing trend for people to deny their prejudice (Bakanic, 2009). Also, people do not always provide their true attitudes on self-report measures. This tendency to present oneself in a positive light is termed *social desirability*

and can present problems for the researcher (Nelson, 2006). In the current study a quasi-experimental design was used to measure prejudice because experiments provide the strongest evidence of a causal relationship between variables. The experiment involved setting up controlled conditions in which preservice teachers experienced a treatment. By having pre- and post-test measures of factors that might affect prejudice, the design allowed for a precise accounting of any change produced by diversity coursework (Bakanic, 2009).

Psychological Theories About Prejudice

Various theories have been offered regarding the psychological motivation behind prejudice (Diller & Moule, 2005). One of the most widely held is known as the frustration-aggression-displacement hypothesis. The hypothesis suggests that as people become frustrated, the frustration can create aggression and hostility, which can be alternately directed from the original cause of frustration and displaced onto a more accessible target. Any group with which one is competing against would be seen as a potential target for the displacement. Some individuals may displace their hostility on groups who possess "bad" attributes, which are in reality, similar to attributes they unconsciously detest in themselves. In order to find justification for the self-hatred, myths may be created about why the group being discriminated against really deserves the treatment or by claiming existing stereotypes, negative traits, and theories of inferiority (Diller & Moule, 2005).

A second theory is that prejudice is part of a broader, global personality type. Adorno, Frankel-Brunswik, Levinson, and Sanford (1950) were the first to propose what has become known as the authoritarian personality. Individuals with an authoritarian personality seem to be highly repressed and unsure of themselves, as well as to suffer from low self-esteem and high alienation. These individuals tend to favor strong morals and a strong sense of national pride and to think in terms of Black and White. The individual with an authoritarian personality also needs order and structure in his or her life and tends to view problems as external rather than as psychological. Finally there is anger and resentment against members of all ethnic groups. The authoritarian personality is possibly challenged by current research.

Allport (1954) suggested that the prejudiced personality emerged out of a "crippled" ego (p. 396). This prejudiced personality is called character-conditioned prejudice (Nelson, 2006); "…specifically, this individual feels threatened, insecure, and fearful of virtually everything. In

trying to overcome these insecurities, the person develops a prejudiced view of others as a way of projecting their fears and self-doubts onto others" (p. 89). All the theories noted contend that racist beliefs and actions help individuals meet psychological and emotional needs (Diller & Moule, 2005).

Symbolic Racism

Current research suggests that a new form of prejudice has emerged (Henry & Sears, 2002). It is suggested that the old, more overt forms of racism have been replaced by what is termed symbolic racism (Nelson, 2006). Symbolic racism is a "blend of anti-Black affect and traditional American moral values embodied in the Protestant Ethic" (Kinder & Sears, 1981, p. 416). Symbolic racism would suggest that Whites who are symbolic racists tend to resist changing White dominance in all areas including economic, social, and political arenas (Nelson, 2006). Enforced compliance with the Civil Rights Act has led to a dramatic decrease in the overt expression of prejudiced behavior (Schuman, Steeh, Bobo, & Krysan, 1997). However, studies have revealed that prejudice and stereotypes can operate without conscious intent (Devine, 2001). Even some who consciously renounce prejudice have been shown to express implicit or automatic biases that conflict with their nonprejudiced values. The unconscious nature of the prejudice may make certain groups vulnerable targets of these biases. Thinking practically, one could contend that understanding the nature of implicit prejudices is necessary to create effective strategies and interventions aimed at reducing or eliminating their harmful effects (Devine, 2001).

Multicultural Education and the No Child Left Behind Act

In 2001, the climate of education regarding the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) had taken center stage. Through this act the federal government has had a larger presence in educational policy and funding, while setting the foundation for a national testing system (Lewis, 2002). Even prior to 2001, some saw the need for a stronger infusion of multicultural education in the schools, as implicit forms of prejudice permeated and continue to permeate the field (Gay, 1997). As NCLB attempted to raise standards and expectations of all students regardless of race and ethnic background, there was and continues to be a strong belief that it ignores current inequalities that fall primarily along racial lines (Ebert, 2004). The Civil Rights Project at

Harvard University (The Civil Rights Project, 2006) reported that federal accountability rules had little to no impact on racial and poverty gaps. The NCLB act ended up leaving many students who are marginalized by race or poverty, even with additional educational support, far behind with very little opportunity to meet the 2014 goals (The Civil Rights Project, 2006).

In the midst of serving the at-risk, while implementing effective curriculum designs and instructional strategies, teachers today are facing the daunting task of meeting the requirements of NCLB while educating an increasingly multicultural and multiracial/multiethnic society (Webb, Metha, & Jordan, 2007). "Today, many continue to accept the cultural deprivation theory which in short, blames minority student underachievement on cognitive or linguistic deficiencies that supposedly exist within impoverished minority community environments" (Spradlin & Parsons, 2008, p. 249). The cultural deprivation theory assumes that the educational practices and skills that White middle-class students learn are not represented and taught in minority student homes and thus creates a disadvantage for children from these communities in schools (Ausubel, 1964; Bloom, Davis, & Hess, 1965). The current response has been to supplement the general curricula with remedial educational programming which has not been consistently successful in closing the achievement gap between minority and dominant-culture students (Spradlin & Parsons, 2008). Spradlin and Parsons (2008) suggest one reason for failure is that remediation programs often teach only basic academic skills that do not prepare students to function in classes that require critical thinking and problem-solving skills. The basic skills approach might be at least a partial explanation as to why the achievement gap continues to remain large between Asian Americans and other minorities. This gap also, more notably, exists between Whites and Hispanics (Latino or Spanish origin) and Whites and African Americans.

Definitions

There are many definitions of prejudice and much debate as to how it should be defined (Nelson, 2006). Even though there is not one single "correct" definition of the term prejudice the way one defines prejudice should depend on the specific research questions one is examining. Researchers generally agree that prejudice (a) occurs between groups, (b) involves an evaluation (positive or negative) of a group, (c) includes a biased perception of a group, and (d) derives from the real or imagined characteristics of the group (Devine & Elliot, 1995; Jones, 1997). For

the purpose of this study prejudice is defined as a biased evaluation of a group, based on real or imagined characteristics of the group members (Nelson, 2006).

The *Modern Racism Scale*, developed in the 1980s, referred to Whites as being ambivalent toward African Americans (McConahay, 1983, 1986). According to McConahay (1986) modern racists believe that (a) discrimination is a thing of the past; (b) African Americans are too pushy, trying to get into places where they are not welcome; (c) the demands of African Americans are unfair; and (d) African-Americans' gains are undeserved and unfair.

Symbolic racism, first defined in 1981, refers to "a blend of anti-Black affect and traditional American moral values embodied in the Protestant Ethic" (Kinder & Sears, 1981, p. 416). Whites who are symbolic racists tend to resist changing the racial status quo in all areas of life (i.e., economically, socially, and politically). Symbolic racism describes a resistance that is derived of a general belief that African Americans violate traditional American values such as self-reliance, individualism, hard work, and obedience (Nelson, 2006). The current study moves from "modern" racism and "symbolic" racism developed in the 1980s and builds on them with a scale that attempts to measure the resistant racism that comes out of the belief that the Hispanic ethnicities also violate traditional American values.

Hypotheses

The 3 general research questions stated on pg. 1 can be more specifically stated in null form as: (a) There will be no difference in scores on the *Yoder-Hartman Survey of Beliefs* (*YHSB*) between preservice teachers who have taken a diversity course and those who have not (b) There will be no difference in *YHSB* scores of preservice teachers at the beginning and the end of the semester in which they took a diversity course and (c) Preservice teachers who have taken a diversity course and those who did not take the diversity will not display different pre/post levels of assessed prejudice.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

The purpose of this inquiry was to investigate the extent to which diversity coursework reduces prejudice levels in preservice teachers. When reviewing literature pertaining to prejudice reduction through diversity coursework for teacher education, two *inclusion criteria* were established: (a) the literature was peer-reviewed; relying upon theorists and experts in the field to provide standards for acceptance of publication, and (b) the studies used sound methodological quantitative designs and presented coherent and logical interpretations of the findings.

Although multicultural education programs have increased in number, the current review of the efficacy of these programs remains mixed (Banks, 2004), establishing the need for additional assessments of these programs (Abbate-Vaughn, 2006). As early as the mid-nineties, Pate (1995) reported that given the optimism of such training, a surprisingly small number of researchers have investigated prejudice reduction among preservice teachers. Engberg's (2004) review of the educational research regarding educational interventions to reduce racial bias identified only two quantitative studies that found significant positive results. One such study was conducted by Hogan (2005) in an article prepared in 2004; however, it was not focused on teacher education, but on a general education course on race and gender. Multicultural courses are often required for teacher certification with a goal of sharing multicultural awareness, knowledge, and pedagogical skills, which encourage students to think critically and introspectively about personal attitudes and biases toward "minorities" (Keim, Warring, & Rau, 2001).

Theory and research suggest that teacher education programs must facilitate preservice teachers' understanding of their own beliefs about race, class, culture, and other human diversities (Akiba, Cockrell, Simmons, Han, & Agarwal, 2010). "It is essential therefore, that all teachers acquire the appropriate attitudes, knowledge, and dispositions needed to work effectively with students who come from varied cultural or class backgrounds" (Tiedt & Tiedt, 2002, p. 50). Preservice teachers who do not look critically at their own race and class privileges or have never had to investigate their personal preferences and biases will believe that issues of

inequality cannot be overcome (De La Torre, 1996). Gomez (1993) suggested that the goal of many teacher educators has been to promote an anti-bias or anti-racist education for preservice educators. The demographic landscape of teacher education programs across the country mirror the grave reality of the current U.S. teaching force, where teachers are increasingly White, middle-class, and female, while the PK-12 student population is growing significantly more diverse (Ladson-Billings, 1995, 2005). Therefore, it is imperative for preservice teachers to come to understand the impact of race and class dominance on teaching and learning (Lawrence, 1997). Across the last three decades, it has been shown that teacher attitudes and perceptions of minority students impact expectations teachers set for their students as well as in the kind of treatment students receive in the classrooms (Gollnick & Chinn, 1986; Gilbert II & Gay, 1985; Hernandez, 1989; Larke, Wiseman & Bradley, 1990; Provenzo, 1986). Therefore, if teachers do not investigate their own biases and work at reducing their own prejudices, it is possible that expectations may be lowered for students who come from marginalized ethnic and racial backgrounds.

<center>Prejudice Reduction Strategies</center>

There are several general strategies to reducing prejudice involving both individual approaches as well as intergroup approaches. Bakanic (2009) referred to individual approaches as microlevel strategies. These strategies focus on how individual thoughts, values, personality attributes and interactional constraints make people more or less likely to express prejudice (Bakanic, 2009).

<center>*Individual Approaches*</center>

One individual approach noted is that of instruction. "Instruction techniques focus on ways to think, such as training in complex thinking and in statistical logic, with the hypothesis that this will help individuals avoid faulty group generalizations" (Paluck & Green, 2009, p. 347). After students have been trained, Gardiner (as cited in Paluck & Green, 2009) found the students are more likely to report friendliness toward racial and ethnically diverse groups. Another individual approach is that of expert opinion and norm information. Crandall and Stangor (as cited in Paluck & Green, 2009) suggest that prejudiced attitudes and behaviors are influenced by social norms. Stangor, Sechrist, and Jost (2001) postulated that having an expert

tell participants that racial stereotyping is not normative for their peer group reduces stereotyping against out-groups in a laboratory setting. Suppression, or keeping unwanted thoughts out of one's mind, has been used as a strategy to reduce the prejudices of an individual (Bakanic, 2009). Several researchers have found that suppression can succeed provided a person is highly motivated (Monteith, Spicer, & Tooman, 1998). "People who hold strong personal beliefs that prejudice and stereotyping are wrong are more successful at suppressing stereotypes" (Bakanic, 2009, p. 200).

Self-regulation is another individual strategy in reducing prejudice. "Self-regulation relies on the internal motivation of individuals both to be aware of and to regulate their own prejudiced responses" (Bakanic, 2009, p. 200). In other words, individuals must engage in metacognitive strategies in order to recognize and reduce or eliminate individual prejudices.

A final individual approach is called an interactional strategy (Bakanic, 2009). People who are stigmatized are treated differently, but ironically it is the reactions of others, rather than the stigmatized attribute, that create the problem. Interactional strategy means forging friendships that use alliances with others to mitigate the full effect of the stigmatized identity. Rather than waiting for nonstigmatized individuals to exclude or put them down, those who receive prejudiced attitudes toward them use more assertive and aggressive tactics to discourage others from targeting them. Both suppression and self-regulation focus on the prejudiced person rather than the target. One advantage of the stigma management approach is that it empowers and gives voice to the victims of prejudice (Bakanic, 2009).

Intergroup Approaches

Intergroup approaches have also been shown to be effective in reducing prejudice (Bakanic, 2009; Nelson, 2006; Pate, 1981; Pettigrew, 1986). One such strategy specifically noted is called the contact hypothesis. The contact hypothesis states that under optimal conditions of equal status, shared goals, authority sanction, and the absence of competition, interaction between two groups can lead to reduced prejudice (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006). Bakanic (2009) refers to these intergroup prejudice reduction strategies as "Mezzo-Level Strategies" (p. 202).

Another intergroup Mezzo-Level Strategy is that of multicultural education and diversity training. Multicultural education is an approach used for transforming educational curriculum into a curriculum that addresses disadvantages and discriminatory practices in our system of

education. Diversity training prepares preservice teachers to promote the ability of students from a wide variety of backgrounds to cooperate productively and make the best contributions possible to educational goals (Bakanic, 2009). These types of strategies are carried out in diversity coursework and would greatly benefit preservice teachers as they work toward unpacking their own possible preferences, biases, and prejudices toward minority groups. Several researchers have examined the effectiveness of diversity coursework in reducing preservice teacher prejudice while preparing for the classroom.

Quantitative Research on Preservice Interventions

Most research in the area of prejudice reduction through diversity coursework has been of the qualitative nature; very few quantitative studies have been reported. A comprehensive literature review by Trent, Kea, and Oh (2008) noted " that characteristics of the research on preparing teachers for diversity have not changed significantly in general education… since 1998" (p.343) . Several of these studies are reviewed below.

Evidence in Support for the Effectiveness of Interventions

Scholarly articles were found by pairing primary search words such as "prejudice," "racism," "multicultural," "bias," "diversity," "preservice," and "teacher education," with operative terms such as "reduction," "training," "coursework," "instruction," and "intervention." When reviewing the research on the incorporation of multicultural education in teacher preparation programs, Trent et al. (2008) found that very few changes had occurred in the multicultural education body of research. Since 1998, the quantity, topics addressed, methods, and gaps in the literature have changed minimally. The current review produced a total of six different quantitative studies that were developed during the multicultural education movement in the late 90s to mid-2000s and focused on the impact of different preservice interventions in order to reduce prejudice levels. Of the six studies, four reported positive findings while two reported nonsignificant findings.

One of the studies reviewed that showed significant positive results was conducted by Bondy, Schmitz, and Johnson (1993), who investigated multicultural diversity training for preservice teachers. The researchers studied all participants in the Ross and Smith (1992) study who were not enrolled in a revised course but were enrolled in foundational education courses

that required a tutoring experience. Seven classes participated in the study, each taught by a different instructor. Group A consisted of students who had no research course and no field placement, had a belief inventory pre-test score of (M=84.75) and post-test score on the same assessment of (M=85.80). Group B, composed of students who had a research course and who volunteered in a field placement that had limited ethnic and racial diversity, had a pre-test score of (M=90.42) and post-test score of (M=90.70). Group C students who did not take the research course but had a field placement in public housing had a pre-test score of (M=98.27) and a post-test score of (M=96.75). Finally, Group D, made up of students who took the research course and tutored in public housing neighborhoods, had a pre-test score of (M=88.05) and a post-test score of (M=96.36). The post-test scores indicate that only those who concurrently tutored in a public housing neighborhood and took the research course had significantly higher post-test scores on the belief inventory used to assess prejudice. In the first reported study, Bondy, Schmitz, and Johnson (1993) found that the more courses the student took in the program, the greater the understanding of how the teaching and learning environment impacted minority students. Changes in mean scores were not tested or reported (Ross & Smith, 1992).

The undergraduate participants in the Ross and Smith (1992) study received special training and tutoring and worked specifically with students in public housing who tended to come from diverse backgrounds. The group met with diverse students two times per week for 10 weeks. Content of the placement consisted of helping students to complete homework assignments with understanding; to act as positive role models; to support and encourage children's efforts; and to promote positive attitudes toward school, learning, and the future. The researchers were looking at beliefs about minority students in general without specificity of racial or ethnic background, making it difficult to know whether the course impacted prejudice toward different races or alters prejudice in general.

In a third study, which was made up of a subset of smaller studies, Bondy et al. (1993) revised a course for prospective elementary teachers to deal more explicitly and extensively with issues related to teaching diverse learners. Some of the revisions made to an elementary education course were to add a field experience in a diverse setting, to require several papers investigating students at risk of academic failure, and to write papers addressing specific philosophical questions about their beliefs about poor and minority students. Each participant completed a belief inventory pre-test at the beginning of the semester and a post-test at the end of

the semester. Groups 1 through 5 were all first year education students, while Groups 6 and 7 had been in the program for at least one semester and were concurrently enrolled in a field experience. The pre- and post-tests were also given to a control group of 25 students who took a similar yet unrevised version of the course. Possible scores on the dependent measure ranged from 26 to 130 with higher scores indicating a more complex view of the causes and consequences of being different. Means and standard deviations were calculated on the pre- and post-tests for each of the seven classes and the control group. A significant difference was found between the adjusted post-test scores of the groups enrolled in the revised course (M=94.4) and the control group (M=87.3), suggesting the revised course had an impact on students' stated beliefs about poor and minority learners. Pre-test scores were statistically the same between the groups and when looking at post-test mean scores it is noteworthy that the mean score of the students enrolled in the course increased by 8.85, while the control group increased only 0.56 over the course of the semester. Bondy et al. (1993) concluded that the research course and the length and tenure in the program produced outcomes demonstrating a greater appreciation for the teaching and learning of minority students.

Tran, Young, and Di Lella (1994) also examined the effects of a multicultural education course on somewhat different outcome measures – the attitudes of student teachers toward three ethnic groups: European Americans, Mexican Americans, and African Americans. In this study, the same instructor taught all three classes, used similar teaching strategies, and employed a pre- and post-test design where surveys were given during the first and last week of the academic semester. Most subjects were between the ages of 20 to 29 (77%) and the majority identified themselves as White (81.5%). The multicultural class activities used included lectures, guest speakers, and discussion on racism, culture, ethnicity, bilingualism, cultural learning styles, changing ethnic demographics, and comparative perspective on the major ethnic groups in a particular state. The class assignments included writing a multicultural lesson plan, interacting with members of a minority culture, writing a cultural autobiography, and writing papers on the educational strategies to effectively teach students of various ethnic origins. A core part of the course required students to immerse themselves in a cultural activity and interact with members of another culture which the researchers referred to as "cultural plunges" (Tran et al., 1994, p. 187). These cultural plunges took place in half-way houses, neighborhood cultural festivities, and ethnic churches.

Tran et al. (1994) found that the multicultural education course appeared to have significant effects on changing student attitudes toward all three ethnic groups on 15 of the 78 attitudes being measured (26 pairs for three ethnic groups). The greatest mean differences in ethnic group stereotypes were in areas such as seeing African Americans as sexually inactive and sexually active (pre-*M*=5.7 and post-*M*=5.1). However, the mean difference appeared to change in only certain aspects of ethnic group stereotypes. For example, Tran et al. found at the pre-test African Americans were seen as aggressive (*M*=5.1) and that post-test scores were not significantly different (*M*=4.9).

There were several limitations to the Tran et al. (1994) study. The specific content and duration were not reported. The immersion component was not separated out specifically from the coursework, making it difficult to identify the differential effects that field placement had on prejudice reduction. In addition, very little information was provided regarding the quality of field placement such as the frequency of interaction with the students, the duration, or content of experience.

Pohan (1996) investigated what preservice teachers believed about diversity as it related to their personal lives and what preservice teachers believed about teaching in diverse classrooms and schools. Pohan included 492 participants across four universities within the United States, the majority of whom identified themselves as White (83%) and female (78%). The instruments used assessed beliefs about race, ethnicity, language, social class, gender, ability, sexual orientation, and multicultural education. The strongest relationship existed between personal and professional beliefs, suggesting that personal beliefs significantly influence professional beliefs. The analyses revealed a significant relationship between multicultural coursework and both personal and professional beliefs. Post hoc comparisons indicated that individuals who took two or more courses were significantly different in personal beliefs than individuals who took one or no multicultural courses. In terms of professional beliefs, individuals who took 4 or more courses with a multicultural theme or content scored significantly higher than individuals who had fewer than four courses.

Pohan (1996) suggested that if professional beliefs (which may help predict subsequent behavior in classrooms) are significantly related to personal beliefs, then the curriculum with which preservice teachers are presented will need to continue to address diversity issues. Pohan's findings suggest that beliefs about other racial and ethnic groups can be changed without

participation in a field placement. However, the study may have been statistically overpowered. Mean differences between groups were found to be statistically significant (p≤.001), yet it is uncertain whether the differences were practically significant. The difference between the mean scores of Group 2 (*M*=3.84) and Group 3 (*M*=3.93) was .09. It may also be possible that a field placement is not necessary in order to change preservice teacher beliefs. The study failed to report data collection methods, sampling techniques, and response rates, which makes it difficult to replicate the study in another setting.

Chang (2002) examined whether diversity course requirements reduced racial prejudice and promoted intergroup understanding. The diversity course dealt specifically with issues of diversity in United States society. A between-subjects design was employed instead of a repeated measure (i.e., pre/post) design. The primary reason for such a design came from a concern that most participants could likely connect enrollment in the course to the study if instruments were administered a second time. A second reason for the between-subjects design was due to faculty believing that they were being evaluated with a pre/post repeated measure design. The drawback to a between-subjects design is that the between-subjects design does not allow for a precise examination of actual participant change across time. The sampling procedure produced 112 subjects in the pretreatment group and 81 subjects in the treatment group. The study employed an eight-item adaptation of the *Modern Racism Scale* (McConahay, Hardee, & Batts, 1981) in order to assess subjects' level of prejudice toward African Americans. These eight items were embedded in a series of other unrelated social and political questions to mask the intentions of the questionnaire.

Chang (2002) included five student background characteristics in the analyses: race, gender, age, and mother and father's level of education. The equality of mean scores on the *Modern Racism Scale* for those students who had nearly completed their diversity requirement and for those who had just started their requirement was tested. The results showed that students who had just begun their diversity requirement (adjusted *M*=3.487) were more prejudiced and judged African Americans more harshly than those who had nearly completed their requirement (adjusted *M*=3.749). Thus Chang concluded that, on average, those who had nearly completed the requirement had more favorable views about African Americans. The Chang study did not investigate the curricula or the classroom instruction, which may directly affect attitude change, and only investigated prejudicial attitudes toward African Americans.

Evidence that Does Not Support the Effectiveness of Interventions

Several studies were reviewed that suggest diversity coursework does not reduce prejudice in preservice teachers.   Deering and Stanutz (1995) investigated how culturally sensitive preservice teachers were and what effect a student teaching field experience in a multicultural setting had on the students' cultural sensitivity. Sixteen preservice students who had completed at least two years at a small liberal arts college were chosen as participants. Their coursework did not include a multicultural education course. Prior to a 10-week (approximately 50 hours) field experience, all participants took the *Cultural Diversity Awareness Inventory* (*CDAI*; Henry, 1991). The 28-item self-administered questionnaire was designed to measure an individual's attitudes, beliefs, and behavior towards children of culturally diverse backgrounds. The 28 items addressed cultural awareness, family, communication, assessments, and methods and materials. It appears that significant changes occurred in some areas, but overall the field experience seemed to have no impact on the participants in other areas. It is possible the study was underpowered, as one limitation of the study was the very small sample size. This particular study also did not have a control group and only a descriptive analysis of change of selective outcomes was reported.

A second study that found that diversity coursework did not change prejudice was reported by Wiggins and Follo (1999). They assessed a teacher preparation program at a major university to investigate what aspects of the program had the most impact on students' preparation to teach diverse learners. Three distinct groups were formed from the six classes chosen. Group 1 was made up of students enrolled in an introductory course focusing on the nature of schools and teaching. Within Group 1, 21 of the 36 participants spent time in an urban setting and 15 spent time in a suburban setting. Group 2 participants were enrolled in a course taken during the second year that also included a component on multicultural education. Of the 23 participants, 13 were placed in a medium sized urban setting, four were placed in a large urban setting and the remaining six were placed in a suburban setting. Group 3 was made up of students in a course typically taken just prior to student teaching, which also included a multicultural awareness component. Each participant responded to a pre- and post-semester questionnaire developed by Powell, Zehm, and Garcia (1996). The questionnaire had 34 items and response choices on a 5-point Likert scale, where 1 (disagree strongly) and 5 (agree strongly) were divided into three broad categories: factors fostering readiness for teaching in culturally

diverse settings, factors constraining readiness for teaching in culturally diverse settings and prior experiences relative to multicultural education. A calculation of mean values of the student responses to the first questionnaire was conducted in order to determine the statistical significance of the changes in response as a result of the semester's work. When the entire group was examined, half of the statements were found to have a statistically significant change ($p \leq$ 0.05). When the data were disaggregated to look at group and location individually, only one-third of the statements were found to show a statistically significant change.

It is possible that Wiggins and Follo's (1999) results were influenced by a ceiling effect. The pre-test means were initially high (50% > or = to a score of 3.5 out of 5.0), which did not leave much room for upward change. Wiggins and Follo did not use a control group nor did they report the specific activities of the field placement. In addition, participants' perception of readiness to teach diverse learners was the primary outcome measure, rather than prejudice, per se. While interesting, this finding does little to inform the literature about how diversity coursework impacts prejudice. The methodological limitations of both the Wiggins and Follo (1999) study and the Deering and Stanutz (1995) study may have contributed to the nonsignificant findings described.

Conclusions and Implications

The overall purpose of the literature review was to examine the evidence regarding whether diversity coursework in teacher preparation is effective in changing prejudicial attitudes in preservice teachers. Even though there were limited studies conducted in prejudice reduction through diversity coursework, six quantitative research studies were examined, with four reporting significant findings and two studies reporting nonsignificant findings. Five of the six studies used a repeated measure pre-post design. A potential problem with this design is that participants may make a connection between the instrument and what is being assessed and shape their answers accordingly, jeopardizing authenticity. Only one study (Pohan, 1996) used the *Marlow-Crowne Social Desirability Test* (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960) in order to assess the level of social desirability on the part of the participants. Social desirability measures are important in order to ensure that the participants are not expressing little prejudice while actually having negative attitudes toward certain groups. Participants do this in order to maintain positive image of self as a person with no prejudice. In addition, the components of the field study were

unclear in the majority of the studies reviewed; making it difficult to recognize which factors contributed the most to outcomes (e.g., differences in frequency, duration and content, and/or the field experience taking place in the context of a course). A greater explanation of pedagogical practice of the various prejudicial reduction courses taken in the area of prejudice reduction is needed. There appears to be a lack of uniformity or, at minimum, a lack of reporting on what specific activities are being conducted throughout the semester by way of diversity coursework.

Finally, in the group of studies reviewed, there appears to be a lack of consistency in the measurements used to understand students' levels of prejudice or bias, as well as little information provided regarding the reliability or validity of the instruments used. For example, Pohan (1996) used the *Educators' Personal Beliefs About Diversity Scale* and the *Educators Professional Beliefs About Diversity Scale* (Pohan, 1994), while Bondy et al. (1993) used the *Beliefs About Teaching Children at Risk Inventory* (Ross, Johnson, & Smith, 1991). Tran et al. (1994) used a seven point semantic differential cultural survey (Lalonde & Gardner, 1989), while Wiggins and Follo (1999) used a questionnaire of multicultural issues (Powell et al., 1996). Each study provided limited information about the instrument used. The lack of consistency and replication in this literature makes it difficult to make informed conclusions or recommendations.

An overview of research conducted by Trent et al. (2008) reviewed the incorporation of multicultural education in preservice general education and special education teacher preparation programs from 1997 to 2006. However, there is a lack of conclusive evidence regarding the best programmatic approach. .The most current and comprehensive review was conducted by Cochran-Smith, Davis, and Fries (2004). According to Trent et al. (2008), "Cochran-Smith et al. found that one of the major themes across theorists and researchers was the need for the centralization of multicultural education within the entire program versus a predominant focus on stand-alone courses" (p. 330). Out of 39 general education studies devoted to multicultural and teacher education only seven were quantitative (Trent, Kea & Oh, 2008). The majority of studies focused on teacher candidates' attitudes and beliefs about self, program efficacy, and complexity of teaching in culturally diverse environments (Barnes, 2006). Trent et al. (2008) posit that the comprehensive findings revealed that very few changes have occurred in multicultural education research in terms of quantity since the last time the literature was thoroughly reviewed, in 2004. In sum, it would appear that Hogan's (2005) assessment, suggesting that there are still too few

studies to determine whether diversity coursework can achieve desirable effects, is correct. There is a paucity of research examining the current state of teacher preparation in regards to diversity.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Introduction

The chapter begins with a description of a pilot study followed by a description of the methodology employed, the population studied, an explanation of the data collection instruments used, the research design and data collection procedures employed, and an outline of the statistical analyses which were conducted.

Pilot Study

The research followed a pilot study conducted in the spring of 2009 at a public university in the southeastern area of the nation. In that pilot study, 298 preservice junior and senior teacher education students were surveyed using the *Symbolic Racism 2000 Scale* (*SR2K*; Henry & Sears, 2002). The *SR2K* was modified to investigate whether diversity coursework significantly impacts attitudinal change in terms of symbolic racism. The *SR2K* is an 8-item measure developed by Henry and Sears (2002) as an alternative to the *Modern Racism Scale* (*MRS*) developed by McConahay (1986), which has been one of the most widely used measures of racism since its creation (Blank, Dabady, & Citro, 2004). Sears and Henry (2005) developed the *SR2K* in order to create questions which were more current and relevant to today's racial climate. A second reason for the creation of the *SR2K* scale by Sears and Henry (2005) was to address acquiescence bias that was prevalent in the MRS, due in part to items worded in a manner that suggested that agreement represented higher levels of modern racism. Sears and Henry's (2005) primary objective was to "create a cleaner measurement designed to capture the construct of Symbolic Racism in today's American society" (p. 258).

Following the presentation of the proposed pilot study, individual faculty members had the option to accept or decline participation. Initially, six faculty members agreed to participate.

At the start of the pilot study 104 students were enrolled in the participating foundations courses and served as the control group. There were 112 students enrolled in the three different courses focusing on diversity and these students served as the treatment group. There was no overlap of students between the control and treatment groups. The students were given the option of not participating in the study if they so desired. Of the students in each class, 100% agreed to

participate in the pilot study. Initial results and analysis compared pre- and post-test mean scores between the treatment and the control groups. No significant (p≤.05) difference in mean *SR2K* scores between the two groups was found.

Because the *SR2K* instrument was adapted to include both African American and Arab American references, the results may not represent an accurate assessment change of symbolic racism due to the mixing of racial (i.e., African Americans) and cultural ethnicity (i.e., Arab Americans). In retrospect, the impact of the lack of tolerance of Arab Americans may have been overestimated in that there is not a long historical pattern of discrimination of Arab Americans compared to the years of racism projected upon African Americans within the United States. Thus, the findings of the pilot study indicated a return to the original constructs of race ethnicity to test the symbolic racism scales projected on African American and another racial ethnicity (i.e. Hispanic) was warranted.

Current Study

The current study was conducted exactly one year following the pilot study. Due to significant budget cuts at the university of choice, fewer treatment and control courses were available.

Participants

The study participants were preservice sophomore, junior, and senior teacher education students enrolled in either a foundations or a diversity course at a state operated public university with a population of 18,000 students located in the southeastern United States. At the time of the study, the teacher education program enrolled 1,591 students, 19% of the overall university student population. Based on program history, it was projected that the participants of the study would represent between 15 to 20% of the teacher education majors enrolled in the program.

Measures

The Yoder-Hartman Survey of Beliefs1

The *Yoder-Hartman Survey of Beliefs* includes a pre-test ($YHSB_1$) (see Appendix B) and a post-test ($YHSB_2$) (see Appendix C). The pre-test was the instrument used to initially assess racial attitudes. The $YHSB_1$ is a 30 item attitudinal survey that assesses attitudes toward various

marginalized groups by asking participants to rate their level of agreement with racial statements on a 7 point Likert scale (i.e., 1 = "I strongly disagree" to 7 = "I strongly agree") and requires no special administration set up (such as a lab setting or use of computers); participants completed the survey in the classroom. A higher mean score on the $YHSB_1$, indicates a higher level of prejudice. Embedded within the 30 items were 10 questions designed to assess prejudice levels toward several specific "minority" groups, including African Americans and Hispanics, an adaptation of the eight items of the *SR2K* (Henry & Sears, 2002). Two *SR2K* statements were replicated with a change of ethnicity (from African American to Hispanic) in order to ascertain symbolic racism attributed to current social climate.

The $YHSB_1$ begins with a collection of demographic data including: ethnicity, year in school, GPA, and mother's highest level of education. The demographic information on the $YHSB_1$ was included to provide information of the diverse backgrounds of participants and to provide opportunity for further research. Distracter items were written in the first person point of view and arranged to occur before each of the *SR2K*-adapted questions to control for the finding that when third person point of view are used, the perception may have been less personally owned by the individual reading the statement and, therefore, may have allowed symbolic racism to more readily come forward. The adapted *SR2K* questions were placed using a fixed pattern sample of every third question. Sears and Henry (2005) deliberately created the instrument to have scaling properties to help prevent response biases and to allow for some flexibility.

An alternative version of the $YHSB_1$, termed the $YHSB_2$, was administered post coursework. The $YHSB_2$ had the identical items of $YHSB_1$ except for the addition of two statements. The first additional statement explored whether factors other than diversity coursework might influence reduction of prejudice in preservice teachers by asking participants to provide a rating as to how safe of an environment the instructor created in order to discuss sensitive topics. Benton and Daniel (1995) have shown that a safe classroom climate encourages greater discussion, which in turn, leads to more significant learning. A safe environment enables students to process feasible, plausible, and ideal courses of action, while at the same time enhances group cooperation and valuation of others' ideas.

The second additional statement on the $YHSB_2$ asked students to rate how much class time was allotted for discussion about topics of diversity. Time spent on particular topics of diversity may impact attitudinal change in participants. It was possible that a comparison group

could have had significant exposure to topics of diversity if an instructor so chose to infuse topics of diversity throughout the course curriculum; therefore, the second question added to the measure was an attempt to assess this possibility.

Psychometric properties of the YHSB

A principal axis factor analysis was conducted in order to explore survey results in terms of the shared latent variance and dimensionality (DeVellis, 2003). The findings of this exploratory factor analysis allowed evaluation of whether or not the dimensionality of the set of scores aligned with the theoretical understanding of the construct being measured. Principal axis factor analysis (direct oblimin rotation) was computed using SPSS 14.0. Direct oblimin rotation was selected because it allows factors to correlate. This was chosen above orthogonal rotation, which does not allow factors to correlate. Based on the eigenvalues larger than one and percent of total variance explained, a 6 factor solution was championed. Analysis of the scree plot suggested between 6 and 7 factors (i.e., 6 or 7 factors above the "elbow;" DeVellis, 2003). The eigenvalue for the six-factor solution was 1.45 and the solution explained 48% of the total variance (see Table 1). Although the eigenvalue greater than one rule suggested that potentially up to 11 factors could adequately explain the underlying variance, factor solutions that extracted greater than 6 factors (i.e., 7-, 8-, 9-, 10-, and 11- factor solutions) each contained multiple split loadings > |.30| on the rotated factor pattern matrix. The six-factor solution had simple structure; the eigenvalue was 1.45 and the factor solution explained 48% of the total variance (see Table 1). Hence, the six-factor structure most parsimoniously explained the greatest amount of variance with fewest numbers of factors (DeVellis, 2003).

Table 1

Total Variance Explained Through Principal Axis Factor Analysis

	Initial Eigenvalues		
Factor	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.727	15.757	15.757
2	2.547	8.491	24.249
3	2.039	6.796	31.044
4	1.762	5.873	36.918
5	1.664	5.546	42.463
6	1.448	4.828	47.291
7	1.289	4.297	51.588
8	1.275	4.248	55.837
9	1.211	4.036	59.872
10	1.092	3.639	63.511
11	1.019	3.397	66.908
12	0.954	3.181	70.089
13	0.906	3.020	73.110
14	0.800	2.665	75.775
15	0.743	2.477	78.252
16	0.684	2.282	80.533
17	0.668	2.227	82.761
18	0.632	2.106	84.867
19	0.585	1.951	86.818
20	0.565	1.884	88.702
21	0.524	1.747	90.449
22	0.431	1.438	91.887
23	0.395	1.318	93.205
24	0.375	1.252	94.457
25	0.360	1.199	95.656
26	0.346	1.155	96.811
27	0.284	0.946	97.756
28	0.252	0.839	98.595
29	0.233	0.778	99.373
30	0.188	0.627	100.000

Note. Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Table 2 indicates the rotated factor pattern matrix. The matrix represents the factor loadings for each of the items on the *YHSB*. Note that the six-factor solution is represented by simple structure (i.e., factor pattern loadings > .30 on only one factor). Close examination of factor wording resulted in the factor labels as presented in Table 2. Four of the 6 factors were

comprised of the filler items that were included in an attempt to minimize social desirability (e.g., academic performance, gender, ethical behavior, and social behavior). The remaining two factors of the six were the primary areas of focus that specifically addressed Symbolic Racism pertaining to blame and Symbolic Racism pertaining to opportunity. Because the factor structure clearly supported two latent constructs (i.e., Blame and Opportunity), subscale scores for each of the two factors were computed (see Table 2).

Table 2

Rotated Factor Pattern Matrix

	Factor					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
		Academic		Ethical	Social	
	Blame	Performance	Gender	Behavior	Behavior	Opportunity
question15	0.816	0.001	-0.043	0.017	0.074	0.080
question30	0.723	-0.012	0.005	0.031	-0.033	0.122
question24	0.711	0.023	0.086	-0.075	0.220	0.037
question18	0.662	-0.110	-0.079	-0.022	-0.100	0.008
question9	0.456	0.036	-0.234	-0.027	-0.323	0.300
question3	0.420	0.039	-0.172	0.053	-0.213	0.262
question20	-0.043	0.607	0.006	-0.130	-0.101	-0.092
question29	-0.072	0.532	0.091	0.019	-0.088	0.086
question13	0.053	0.515	0.068	0.118	0.066	-0.221
question26	-0.024	0.452	-0.063	0.012	0.013	0.028
question7	0.053	0.304	-0.192	-0.075	0.058	0.146
question4	0.044	0.028	-0.629	0.195	-0.116	0.018
question16	0.289	0.051	-0.452	0.032	-0.017	-0.104
question28	-0.023	-0.052	0.424	0.064	-0.099	-0.028
question23	0.108	0.259	-0.357	-0.103	0.111	-0.022
question22	0.017	0.086	0.333	-0.033	0.026	-0.045
question2	-0.019	0.097	0.333	0.007	0.272	0.058
question25	0.195	-0.020	0.309	0.025	-0.201	-0.038
question17	0.005	-0.034	0.075	-0.629	-0.027	-0.027
question19	-0.104	0.107	0.053	-0.542	-0.244	0.073
question14	0.011	0.175	0.247	0.318	0.010	-0.134
question1	-0.162	-0.027	-0.063	0.286	-0.165	0.054
question5	-0.021	0.294	0.136	0.249	-0.499	-0.038
question8	0.001	-0.002	0.034	-0.078	-0.431	-0.035
question10	-0.001	0.076	-0.075	-0.258	-0.384	-0.166
recode6	0.134	-0.056	-0.042	0.040	0.137	0.573
question11	0.130	0.019	0.105	-0.006	-0.090	-0.566
question27	0.260	0.244	-0.005	-0.098	-0.085	0.497
recode12	0.204	-0.100	0.145	0.170	0.097	0.480
question21	0.069	0.006	0.073	-0.056	-0.045	0.367

Note. Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

a Rotation converged in 12 iterations.

The current study was an initial step toward attempting to determine the relationships among preservice teachers' symbolic racism scores, as well as the scores from each of the six *YHSB* subscales. As seen in the correlation matrix presented in Table 3, there is a small to moderate positive relationship between blaming persons of color for a lack of effort and thinking that persons of color do not take advantage of opportunities provided. The data provided evidence that these two factors are related and yet quite distinct, which allowed the examination of the related factors individually.

Table 3

Factor Correlation Matrix

Factor	1 Blame	2 Academic Performance	3 Gender	4 Ethical Behavior	5 Social Behavior	6 Opportunity
1.Blame	1.000					
2.Academic Performance	0.072	1.000				
3.Gender	-0.127	-0.007	1.000			
4.Ethical Behavior	-0.081	-0.068	0.095	1.000		
5.Social Behavior	-0.030	-0.078	0.004	0.015	1.000	
6.Opportunity	0.323	-0.071	-0.172	-0.015	0.100	1.000

Note. Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

In Table 4 The Cronbach's alpha for pre- and post-test and total for the Blame subscale was high, demonstrating internal consistency. The internal consistency was less than desirable for Opportunity. However, one must note that the subscale only consists of four items. Also important to note is that the Blame factor was the first factor extracted during the exploratory factor analysis, explaining the greatest amount of variation of any of the six factors. It is therefore reasonable that scores on the Blame factor were more consistent than subsequent factors. Moreover, Opportunity was the sixth factor displaying residual variance.

Table 4

Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient for Pre- and Post-test Subscale and Total Scores

	Pre-test	Post-test
Blame (6 items)	0.851	0.852
Opportunity (4 items)	0.631	0.641
Total (10 items)	0.847	0.844

Research Design

The research design used was a quasi-experimental non-equivalent control group design. Because the study took place within the context of a predetermined curriculum with the inherent inability to randomly assign participants to either a treatment or control group, a quasi-experimental non-equivalent control group design was necessary. The experimental group consisted of students enrolled in courses which taught diversity as a focus of the curriculum. The control group students were those who experienced a course which did not address diversity as a focus of the curriculum. A pre-test/post-test survey was used to assess attitudinal change across time and across instruction within a treatment delivery (see Figure 1).

$$\underline{O_1 \ X \ O_2}$$
$$O_1 \qquad O_2$$

O_1 represents the pre-test and O_2 represents the post-test and X represents the diversity treatment.
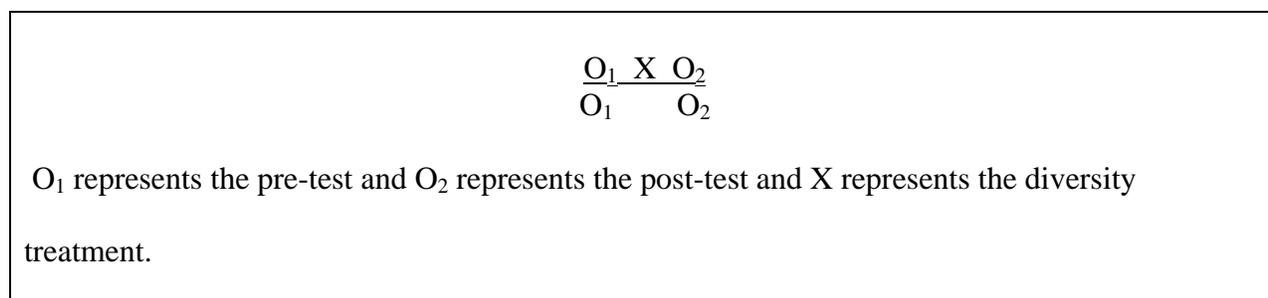
Figure 1. Pre- and post-treatment and control quasi experimental design.

Data Collection Procedures

In order to gain permission to directly make contact with faculty whose course section would be involved in the study, the Chair of the Education Department where the course sections were taught was contacted. Once permission was granted, the faculty were contacted in order to explain the purpose of the study and to solicit their participation. Once a faculty member agreed to participate in the study, the faculty member received electronically scripted instructions

regarding the procedures to be implemented. In order to achieve consistency of delivery, each faculty member was provided instructions including a statement to be read to the students in his or her course. The statement read that the administered survey would investigate attitudes of preservice educators. Each faculty member was also instructed to distribute the survey consent form and review it with the students. In accordance with Virginia Tech Institutional Review Board (VT IRB) protocol, the students were asked to read the informed consent document (see Appendix D) provided to them, which clearly stated that their participation was optional. Each student who decided to participate placed his or her name on a cover sheet which was then collected by the instructor and coded for confidentiality.

The $YHSB_1$ surveys were distributed to the students within the treatment and control course sections within the first four weeks of the term. Upon completion of administration of the $YHSB_1$, instructors within each course continued delivery of the departmental curriculum. Surveys collected were assigned a numerical code which was used for identification purposes and to secure the anonymity of the participants. Within the last two weeks of the term, the post-test survey, the $YHSB_2$, was administered. Participants were assigned the same numerical code assigned to the $YHSB_1$.

Statistical Analyses

All pre- and post-tests which had a minimum of 90% of responses completed were included in the analysis. Because all pre-and post-test surveys were coded according to the individual students participating in the study, in situations where a post-test was not completed, the corresponding participant's pre-test survey was eliminated from the analysis.

The Statistical Program for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 14.0 for Windows statistical software package was used for analysis. In order to analyze the impact of the treatment (exposure to direct instruction on issues of diversity) on students' attitudes, a split-plot (repeated measures across time for two independent groups), alternatively referred to as "mixed-ANOVA," was conducted in order to analyze pre- and post- survey results between the treatment and control groups and allow for the testing interaction. Significance was assessed using $p \leq .05$.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Overview

Descriptive statistics and a 2 x 2 split-plot analysis of variance (ANOVA; 2 levels between groups and 2 levels within subjects, or *mixed* ANOVA) were used to examine the three research questions: (a) Are there differences in prejudice level between preservice teachers who have taken a diversity course and those who have not taken a diversity course? (b) Are there differences in prejudice level in preservice teachers before and after taking a diversity course? and (c) Do preservice teachers who have taken a diversity course and those who have not taken a diversity course display different pre/post levels of assessed prejudice?

Participants

The sample was comprised of 137 college preservice education students enrolled in either a foundations course (the control group) or a diversity course (the treatment group) in the spring semester of 2010. One hundred twelve students participated in the control group, while 25 students participated in the treatment group. Demographic data regarding the participants' race/ethnicity, gender, status in school, GPA and mother's highest level of education were collected.

The participants were asked to self-identify their ethnicity or race (see Table 5). Three participants chose not to self-identify, leaving 134. The control group self-identified as the following: 4 Black/African American, 2 Hispanic, 2 Asian, and 102 White/Caucasian. The treatment group consisted of: 0 Black/African American, 0 Hispanic, 2 Asian, and 22 White/Caucasian. Because the study focused on prejudicial attitudes toward non-whites, all non-white students were eliminated from the analysis, for a total sample size of 124. In all subsequent demographic reports only White participants were included.

Table 5

Ethnicity of the Control and Treatment Groups

	Control n (%)	Treatment n (%)	Total n (%)
Black/African Am.	4 (3)	0 (0)	4 (3)
Hispanic	2 (2)	0 (0)	2 (2)
Asian	2 (2)	2 (8)	4 (3)
White/Caucasian	102 (93)	22 (92)	124 (92)
Total	110 (100)	24 (100)	134 (100)

Of the 124 participants comprising the total sample, 22 were male and 102 female. The control group consisted of 16 males (16%) and 86 females (84%). The treatment group consisted of 8 males (36%) and 14 females (64%).

Table 6 identifies the year of enrollment for participants. Of the 102 participants in the control group who completed both the pre- and post-test measures, there were 76 sophomores, 11 juniors, 14 seniors, and 1 fifth-year senior. The treatment group consisted of 4 sophomores, 17 juniors, and 1 senior who completed both pre- and post-test measures.

Table 6

Year in School Distribution

	Control n (%)	Treatment n (%)	Total n (%)
Sophomore	76 (75)	4 (18)	80 (65)
Junior	11 (11)	17 (77)	28 (22)
Senior	14 (13)	1 (5)	15 (12)
5th year	1 (1)	0 (0)	1 (1)
Total	102 (100)	22 (100)	124 (100)

Self-reported GPA data were collected as part of the demographic information. In order to be enrolled in an education course, the education department of the institution required a 2.0 minimum GPA. As indicated in Table 7, of the total control group participants, 12 had a GPA range between 2.0 and 2.5; 0 in the treatment participants. Six in the treatment group and 32 in the control group had a GPA between 2.6 and 3.0. Between 3.1 and 3.5, 13 were noted in the treatment group, while 35 in the control group fell within this range. Finally, those students with a GPA between 3.6 and 4.0 were 6 in the treatment and 23 in the control group.

Table 7

Demographics of Grade Point Average (GPA)

	Control n (%)	Treatment n (%)	Total n (%)
2.0 – 2.5	12 (12)	0 (0)	12 (10)
2.6 – 3.0	32 (31)	6 (27)	38 (31)
3.1 – 3.5	35 (34)	12 (55)	47 (38)
3.6 – 4.0	23 (23)	4 (18)	27 (21)
Total	102 (100)	22 (100)	124 (100)

Participants' mother's highest level of education was measured as a possible influence on symbolic racism (see Table 8). Mother's education ranged from high school through graduate degree. Eleven participants indicated that their mother had a high school diploma; 18 indicated some college, 56 recorded a college degree and 38 recorded graduate degree completions. Within the control group, 10 participants indicated high school, 15 indicated some college, 48 recorded college, and 28 recorded graduate degree completion. Within the treatment group, 1 participant indicated high school, 3 indicated some college, 8 recorded a college degree, and 10 recorded graduate degree completion. One participant failed to record a response to this particular survey item.

Table 8

Demographics of Mother's Highest Level of Education

	Control n (%)	Treatment n (%)	Total n (%)
High School	10 (10)	1 (5)	11 (9)
Some College	15 (15)	3 (14)	18 (15)
College	48 (47)	8 (36)	56 (45)
Graduate degree	28 (28)	10 (45)	38 (31)
Total	101 (100)	22 (100)	123 (100)

Pre- versus Post-test Group

Analysis of Blame Scores

The analysis of variance revealed no difference in scores on the *YHSB* between participants who took a diversity course and those who did not. On the post-test, the mean difference of the Blame score of the control group (M=3.03) and the treatment group (M=2.86) was not significant, $F (1, 107) = 2.37, p =.127, \eta^2 = 0.022$ (see Tables 9 and 10). The difference

within groups from pre- to post- was also found to not be significant, F (1, 107) = 0.82, p = .367, η^2 = 0.007. Moreover, the difference between the treatment and control group (*YHSB* Blame Scores) was found to not vary over time, F (1, 107) = 3.36, p = .070, η^2 = 0.03 The lack of interaction over time is depicted in Figure 2. It must be noted that the total sample size was reduced from 124 to 109 based on the total responses recorded on the specific survey items that corresponded with both Opportunity and Blame factors.

Table 9

Group Means (SD) on Blame and Opportunity Pre- and Post-Test Subscale Scores

	Blame		Opportunity	
Group	Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test
Control	3.19 (1.09)	3.03 (1.14)	3.93 (0.89)	3.83 (1.00)
Treatment	2.61 (0.95)	2.86 (1.03)	3.48 (0.93)	3.78 (0.99)
Total	3.08 (1.09)	3.01 (1.12)	3.84 (0.91)	3.82 (0.99)

Note. Total N = 109; Control N = 89; Treatment N = 20

Analyses are computed on data from White students only.

Table 10

Split-Plot ANOVA Summary Table Comparing Between and Within Blame Scores

Source	SS	*df*	MS	*F*	*P*	*η2*
Groups Treatment/Control	4.74	1	4.74	2.37	0.126639	0.022
Subjects within Groups Treatment/Control	214.39	107	2			
Time Pre/Post	0.32	1	0.32	0.82	0.367215	0.007
Groups x Time	1.31	1	1.31	3.36	0.069578	0.030
Pre/Post x Subjects within Treatment/Control	42.04	107	0.39			
Total	262.79	217				

Note. A = groups: the between-subjects variable delineated by the rows

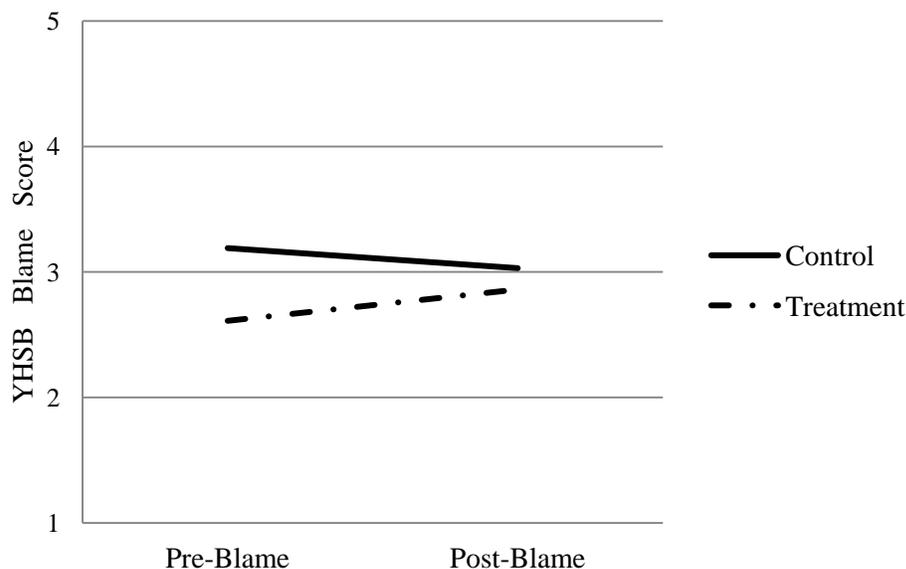B = the repeated-measures variable delineated by the columns

Figure 2. YHSB blame scores from pre- to post- for the treatment and control groups.

Analysis of Opportunity Scores

As shown in Table 11, the difference between the treatment and control group *YHSB* Opportunity scores was found to change significantly from pre-test to post-test, F (1, 107) = 4.27, $p = .04, \eta^2 = .038$. The control group Opportunity scores decreased from 3.93 to 3.83 while the treatment group Opportunity scores increased from 3.48 to 3.78 (see Figure 3). While the two groups changed differently over the two observations points, the direction of change was not as predicted. There was no significant difference found between the treatment and control group *YHSB* Opportunity scores or the pre-test/post-test *YHSB* Opportunity scores.

Table 11

Split-Plot ANOVA Summary Table Comparing Between and Within Opportunity Scores

Source	SS	df	MS	F	P	η2
Groups Treatment/Control	2.11	1	2.11	1.4	0.239346	0.013
Subjects within Groups Treatment/Control	161.4	107	1.51			
Time Pre/Post	0.03	1	0.03	0.1	0.752446	0.001
Groups x Time	1.28	1	1.28	4.27	0.041205	0.038
Pre/Post x Subjects within Treatment/Control	32.07	107	0.3			
Total	196.89	217				

Note. A = groups: the between-subjects variable delineated by the rows

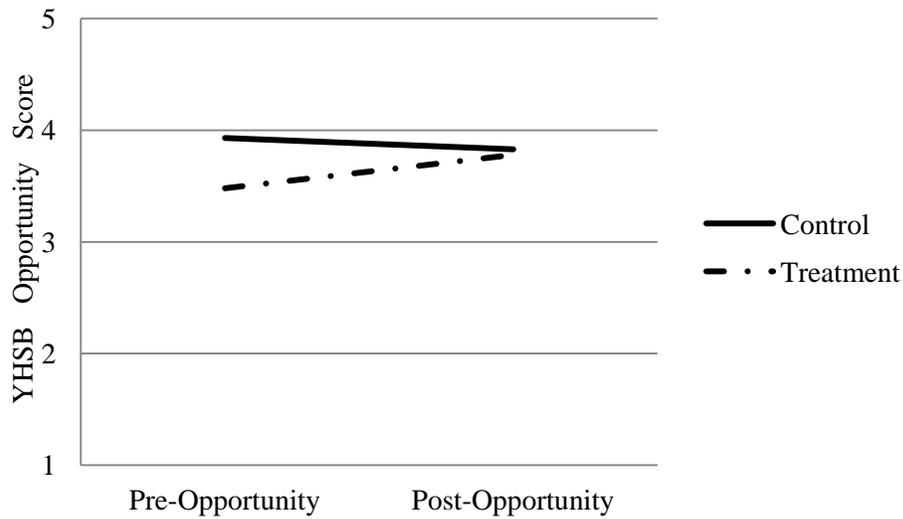B = the repeated-measures variable delineated by the columns

Figure 3. Opportunity scores from pre- to post- by condition.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Restatement of Research Questions

This study investigated the extent to which diversity coursework reduced prejudice levels in preservice teachers. Specifically, three research questions were examined: (a) Are there differences in prejudice level between preservice teachers who have taken a diversity course and those who have not taken a diversity course? (b) Are there differences in prejudice level in preservice teachers before and after taking a diversity course? and (c) Do preservice teachers who have taken a diversity course and those who have not taken a diversity course display different pre/post levels of assessed prejudice?

The group differences were examined on both Blame and Opportunity scores which were identified through exploratory factor analysis of the *YHSB*.

(a) Are there differences in prejudice level between preservice teachers who have taken a diversity course and those who have not taken a diversity course? No significant differences between the treatment and control groups were found with respect to either the *YHSB* Blame or Opportunity score.

(b) Are there differences in prejudice level in preservice teachers before and after taking a diversity course? The data analyses revealed that there was no significant change in Blame and Opportunity prejudicial attitudes of the participants between the beginning and the end of the semester.

(c) Do preservice teachers who have taken a diversity course and those who have not taken a diversity course display different pre/post levels of assessed prejudice? Finally, the analyses of variance revealed that there was a significant interaction between students who took the diversity course and students who did not take the diversity course that develops across time for Opportunity scores only. Those in the control group (i.e., those who did not take a diversity course) showed a decrease in Opportunity prejudice levels from pre-test to post-test, while those in the treatment group (i.e., those who had taken the diversity course) displayed a slight increase in their Opportunity prejudice levels from the beginning to the end of the semester.

Discussion

The study findings were contrary to research expectations. However, it is not completely surprising given inconsistent results reported in other studies. For example a pilot study reported at the Annual meeting of the Florida Association of Institutional Research (Romano, Cummings, Coraggio, & Kromrey, 2007) indicated that among 10 diversity courses only one demonstrated significant prejudicial reduction. Of the six different studies investigating whether a course on diversity reduces prejudicial attitudes reviewed in Chapter 2, four studies revealed significant results indicating that a course on diversity reduces prejudicial attitudes while two did not.

Several factors may explain why results did not demonstrate reduction of prejudice within the treatment group (i.e., participants who took a course in diversity). Most significantly, the researcher had no influence on the content or the delivery of the curriculum. Even though there was a specific course design and a specific course syllabus, there may have been variations in the way the course was taught, in the way the curriculum was delivered, and the interactions among students and professors for both the control and treatment groups.

Duncan-Andrade (2011) suggested that teacher education programs are fragmented and differ greatly, depending on the instructor, as well as the specific features of interventions utilized within the course. Duncan-Andrade noted that it would be naïve of teacher educators to think that the many changes made in diversity courses, specific readings, meaningful assignments, and diverse field placements to address issues of prejudice reduction and social justice always result in changes in actual teacher attitudes or practices. As Nieto and McDonough (2011) found, "despite our best efforts to have them confront issues of racism, classism, and privilege, preservice teachers' attitudes and beliefs, and consequently their practice, may show little change" (p. 380). Although demographic information was gathered from each of the participants it was impossible to determine to what extent the participants had experiences with diversity outside this particular course. Bidell, Lee, Bouchie, Ward, and Brass (1994) noted that White college students are capable of significant developmental growth in their conceptions of racism, especially within the context of cultural diversity coursework. However, an important question to investigate more closely is how much change takes place dependent upon the specific context or whether this prejudice reduction and understanding of racism takes place more or less "naturally" in the broader context of the student's college experience. Perhaps even limited interaction with a person of color or a chance encounter with a child who had been a

victim of prejudicial attitudes could have a more profound impression. In the current study there was no way to know if any of those interactions occurred within either group.

In the addition to the researcher's lack of control over the curriculum of the diversity course or the students' out-of-class experiences, exposure to diversity curriculum itself may have affected the results. Darling-Hammond (2010) states that diversity coursework, as it introduces students to the idea of race and White privilege, may initially cause students to hold more firmly to original prejudices and may explain student response on the *YHSB* post-survey. Holding firmly to original prejudices may be a defensiveness or cognitive dissonance informed by self-preservation. An examination of several models representing identity development and cultural sensitivity support and strengthen this explanation. The first reported by Moule (2011) offered a model of White Racial-Identity development developed by Helms (1995). This is a model in which Whites can move to recognize their power and privilege. The White Racial-Identity Development consists of five stages and the most pertinent of which may be the second stage entitled "disintegration status." At the disintegration stage, Helms suggests that White students experience anxiety and discomfort as they begin to recognize deficiencies of actions of their racial group. Within the disintegration stage, the White participant has "encountered information or has had experiences that lead to the realization that race does, in fact, make a difference. The result is a growing awareness of and discomfort with privilege" (Moule, 2011, p.81). Moule speaks directly to the college classroom environment when discussing the four stages of her own racial interaction scale. In the third stage of Moule's racial interaction scale, the zealot-defensive stage, there is a likelihood that the White students will take the racial criticism personally and may tend to withdraw (Moule, 2011). These explanations from both Helms and Moule's racial scales may explain why students who participated in the diversity course work may have shown an increase in prejudicial attitudes on the post-test.

In addition, a developmental model of intercultural sensitivity identifies six orientations, including, denial, defense, minimization, acceptance, adaptation, and integration. It is possible to assume that as students encounter information about other races and as they move from ethnocentrism as defined by Hammer, Bennett, and Wiseman (2003) toward ethnorelativism, there is no reason to believe that students will move through two or more of these orientations over a short period of time, even with the intervention of diversity coursework.

One could posit that the most important factor in reducing prejudice through diversity course work is simply time. In a summative discussion of diversity in teacher education Nieto and McDonough (2011) stated, "also problematic is the one-course approach; that is, the practice of offering just one course in diversity as if that were enough to prepare preservice teachers for the tremendous variety of ethnicities, languages, cultures, and social class backgrounds they will be facing in their classrooms" (p. 380). Just being introduced to topics of prejudice over a limited amount of time such as one semester most likely is not adequate to institute change in attitudes and beliefs. Significant change most likely will take more than one university diversity course to make a difference in the attitudes of preservice teachers who encounter the current diverse demographics of the classroom.

<div align="center">Recommendations for Further Study</div>

Further research should be conducted to establish the parameters for effective prejudice reduction in preservice teachers. Several recommendations for further research can be offered. First, every attempt to monitor the content and delivery of curriculum within diversity coursework in order to maintain greater consistency, and implementation fidelity across treatment and control groups should be exercised. The course sections that are selected for the research should be taught in such a way as to ensure the greatest effect. Courses taught by instructors with expertise, passion, and interest in diversity issues may lead to more favorable results. Course content in the control sections should not introduce or discuss topics of diversity that could directly lead to prejudice reduction. Chang (2002) and Hogan (2005) have established the paucity of empirical evidence about the impact of prejudice reduction classes. The current study of prejudice reduction through diversity course work has raised the question of whether just one course can have sufficient effect. Optimally, a series of studies should be conducted examining undergraduate teacher preparation with one diversity course, two or more courses, or programs with carefully sequenced prejudice reduction experiences throughout the program. In addition, programs with and without field experiences should be studied.

A final and important recommendation for further study would be the continued investigation into both measures of prejudice reduction and a determination of what exactly is being measured. The current study of prejudice reduction is an important first step in development of such a measure. The identification of Blame and Opportunity scores as related

yet distinct factors ($r = 0.323$) is a key finding from this study. However, understanding that the *YHSB* scale development is an ongoing and iterative process, continued investigation into reliability and validity evidence for scores from the measure is warranted.

Conclusion

There is little disagreement that in the 21st century, American educators will serve a diverse population. The racial and ethnic demographics of students in schools across America will continue to represent increased diversity while the teaching population will remain primarily White and middle class. It will be imperative that teacher-training institutions develop and implement programs that effectively reduce prejudicial attitudes of their potential teachers. Explicit and implicit prejudice could be vital components that contribute to lower achievement for students of color, lowered teacher expectations, behavioral and emotional dissonance, and gaps in relevance and relationships. Finding ways to avoid these adverse outcomes is important for achieving the mission of American public schools.

This study found that one course that was intended to reduce prejudicial attitudes was ineffective. However, there are many factors that may have an effect on the success of a diversity course in reducing prejudice. These factors include but are not limited to: the skills, knowledge, and disposition of the professor; the specific curriculum; the instructional strategies used by the professor; and the quality and design of a diverse field experience. Each of these treatment factors need to be studied in order to determine which could make a diversity course more effective in reducing the prejudicial attitudes of future teachers. The study of Blame (i.e., blaming persons of color for their lack of effort) and Opportunity (i.e., thinking that persons of color do not take advantage of opportunities provided), as identified in this study, may also provide additional insight.

Course content, strategies, and best practices to reduce prejudice should be identified in order to provide schools of education with a coherent effective curriculum for their teacher candidates. Prejudice reduction is a complex process that occurs over time and experience. Collaboration across disciplines in the university is needed to strengthen the effort to better prepare teachers to effectively embrace diversity in their future classrooms. Coursework in diversity and prejudice reduction can bring positive change in elementary and secondary school classrooms only if the coursework is appropriately informed by research and implemented

effectively. The challenge is substantial but success is imperative if the promise of "education for all" is to be achieved.

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APPENDIX A

LITERATURE REVIEW RESEARCH COMPARISON CHART

Reference	Field Experience	Subjects	Results
Tran, M.T., Young, R.L., & Di Lella, J.D. (1994). Multicultural education courses and the student teacher: Eliminating stereotypical attitudes in our ethnically diverse classroom. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *45*(3), 183-189.	Immersion experience called a plunge experience -in half-way houses, ethnic churches etc.	n=55, 31% male, Majority of students identified themselves as White	The course had a significant effect on changing student attitudes toward three different ethnic groups. Conducted 2-tail t-tests (p<.05)
Bondy, E., Schmitz, S., & Johnson, M. (1993). The impact of coursework and fieldwork on student teachers' reported beliefs about teaching poor and minority students. *Action in Teacher Education, 15*(2), 55-62.	Required tutoring in either public housing or non-public housing.	n=184, control group n=25	Study 1 – calculated mean scores on pre- and post-tests – A strong general treatment effect for students taking the revised course. Study 2 – Those who took course and tutored in public housing had sig. higher post-tests scores
Pohan, C.A. (1996). Preservice teachers' beliefs about diversity: Uncovering factors leading to multicultural responsiveness. *Equity & Excellence in Education*, *29*(3), 62-69.	No field placement required	n=493, 83% White and 78% female across 4 universities	A significant relationship between multicultural coursework and both personal and professional beliefs – Those who took more coursework significantly more aware and responsive toward diverse learners.
Wiggins, R. A., & Follo, E. J. (1999). Development of knowledge, attitudes, and commitment to teach diverse student population. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *50*(2), 94-105.	30 hour field experience in at least two urban and two suburban school districts.	n=123, 95.6% White, 86% female	With minor exceptions, no clear differences between groups or field placement locations.
Deering, T. E., & Stanutz, A. (1995). Preservice field experience as a multicultural component of a teacher education program. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *46*(5), 390-394.	50 hour field experience in a middle school with a predominately Hispanic and African American student population.	N=16, 10 male, 6 female, middle to upper class,	The results of research on attitudes and behavior are mixed and disappointing. No significance found.

APPENDIX B

YODER-HARTMAN SURVEY OF BELIEFS[1]

Year in School_____

Major_____

Area of Education Endorsement/s_____

My gender is:
_____Female
_____Male

My ethnicity is:
_____Black/African American (non-Hispanic)
_____Hispanic
_____American Indian or Alaskan Native
_____Asian or Pacific Islander
_____White/Caucasian (non-Hispanic)

My SAT score was between:
_____800-1000
_____1000-1200
_____1200-1400
_____1400-1600
_____above 1600

My cumulative GPA is:
_____less than 2.0
_____2.0-2.5
_____2.5-3.0
_____3.0-3.5
_____3.5-4.0

County and State_____

Religious Affiliation _____

Have you lived outside the United States for any length of time?
Circle: Yes or No
If you answered yes, how long? _____
If you answered yes, where? _____

Have you previously taken the education course EDU 330 Foundations of Education or are you currently taking the education course EDU 330 Foundations of Education?
Circle: Yes or No

Mother's occupation _____

Father's occupation _____

Mother's highest level of education:
_____less than high school
_____high school
_____some college
_____college
_____graduate degree

Please rate each of the following statements, indicating how much you agree or disagree with each statement. Use the scale below and put your answer on the line next to each statement.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I Strongly DISAGREE			**I am neutral**			**I strongly AGREE**

1. When I take a test, I am primarily concerned about the satisfaction I may   _____
    get from knowing the right answers.

2. I would not change my opinions or the way I do things to please others.   _____

3. Of all the current racial tension and animosity towards Blacks in the U.S.,   _____
    Blacks are responsible for creating most of it.

4. I believe swearing and obscenity are more repulsive in the speech of a woman   _____
    than in that of a man.

5. I often think about what it would be like to do very well in academic   _____
    situations.

6. Over the past few years Blacks have gotten less than they deserve.   _____

7. If while traveling I went to church of my own denomination and a woman   _____
    was in the pulpit, I have to admit, I would feel a little strange.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I Strongly DISAGREE			**I am neutral**			**I strongly AGREE**

8. I feel a bit awkward in public and do not show up as well as I should. _____

9. It's really a matter of some people not trying hard enough; if Blacks would only try harder they could be just as well off as Whites. _____

10. In different situations and with different people, I often act like a very different person. _____

11. I believe women earning as much as their dates should bear equally the expense when they go out together. _____

12. Generations of slavery and discrimination have created conditions that make it difficult for Blacks to work their way out of the lower class. _____

13. I go into academic situation expecting the worst, even though I know I will probably do OK. _____

14. I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people. _____

15. Of all the current racial tension and animosity towards Hispanics in the U.S., Hispanics are responsible for creating most of it. _____

16. I believe that intoxication among women is worse than intoxication among men. _____

17. I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if I have to). _____

18. Irish, Jewish, Italian and many other "minorities" overcame prejudice and worked their way up. Hispanics should do the same. _____

19. Sometimes I deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them. _____

20. I often think about what it would be like if I did very poorly in an academic situation. _____

21. There is not very much discrimination towards Blacks today, which might limit their chances of getting ahead. _____

22. If I had to go to court, I wouldn't care if my attorney were male or female. _____

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I Strongly DISAGREE			**I am neutral**			**I strongly AGREE**

23. I believe women should worry less about equal rights and more about being good mothers.   _____

24. In the past few years, Hispanics have gotten more economically than they deserve.   _____

25. In a group of people, I am rarely the center of attention.   _____

26. My main concern in any given class is the grade I will receive.   _____

27. Black leaders have pushed and are pushing too hard, causing more racial tension than necessary.   _____

28. I believe under modern conditions with women becoming more active outside the home, men should share more equally in the household tasks like cooking, cleaning and shopping.   _____

29. When I do well on a test I often feel relieved and sometimes surprised.   _____

30. It's really a matter of some people not trying hard enough; if Hispanics would only try harder they could be just as well off as Whites.   _____

APPENDIX C

YODER-HARTMAN SURVEY OF BELIEFS$_2$

Please rate each of the following statements, indicating how much you agree or disagree with each statement. Use the scale below and put your answer on the line next to each statement.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I Strongly DISAGREE			**I am neutral**			**I strongly AGREE**

1. When I take a test, I am primarily concerned about the satisfaction I may get from knowing the right answers. _____

2. I would not change my opinions or the way I do things to please others. _____

3. Of all the current racial tension and animosity towards Blacks in the U.S., Blacks are responsible for creating most of it. _____

4. I believe swearing and obscenity are more repulsive in the speech of a woman than in that of a man. _____

5. I often think about what it would be like to do very well in academic situations. _____

6. Over the past few years Blacks have gotten less than they deserve. _____

7. If while traveling I went to church of my own denomination and a woman was in the pulpit, I have to admit, I would feel a little strange. _____

8. I feel a bit awkward in public and do not show up as well as I should. _____

9. It's really a matter of some people not trying hard enough; if Blacks would only try harder they could be just as well off as Whites. _____

10. In different situations and with different people, I often act like a very different person. _____

11. I believe women earning as much as their dates should bear equally the expense when they go out together. _____

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I Strongly DISAGREE			**I am neutral**			**I strongly AGREE**

12. Generations of slavery and discrimination have created conditions that make it difficult for Blacks to work their way out of the lower class. _____

13. I go into academic situation expecting the worst, even though I know I will probably do OK. _____

14. I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people. _____

15. Of all the current racial tension and animosity towards Hispanics in the U.S., Hispanics are responsible for creating most of it. _____

16. I believe that intoxication among women is worse than intoxication among men. _____

17. I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if I have to). _____

18. Irish, Jewish, Italian and many other "minorities" overcame prejudice and worked their way up. Hispanics should do the same. _____

19. Sometimes I deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them. _____

20. I often think about what it would be like if I did very poorly in an academic _____ situation.

21. There is not very much discrimination towards Blacks today, which might _____ limit their chances of getting ahead.

22. If I had to go to court, I wouldn't care if my attorney were male or female. _____

23. I believe women should worry less about equal rights and more about being _____ good mothers.

24. In the past few years, Hispanics have gotten more economically than they _____ deserve.

25. In a group of people, I am rarely the center of attention. _____

26. My main concern in any given class is the grade I will receive. _____

27. Black leaders have pushed and are pushing too hard, causing more racial _____ tension than necessary.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I Strongly DISAGREE			**I am neutral**			**I strongly AGREE**

28. I believe under modern conditions with women becoming more active   _____
    outside the home, men should share more equally in the household tasks
    like cooking, cleaning, and shopping.

29. When I do well on a test I often feel relieved and sometimes surprised.   _____

30. It's really a matter of some people not trying hard enough; if Hispanics   _____
    would only try harder they could be just as well off as Whites.

Based upon what you have experienced as a student in this course, please rate how safe of an environment your instructor created for discussion of the various topics. 1= very unsafe, 2= somewhat unsafe, 3= neither unsafe nor safe, 4= somewhat safe, 5= very safe. Please circle your numerical response below

1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*
very unsafe	*somewhat unsafe*	*neither unsafe nor safe*	*somewhat safe*	*very safe*

Based upon what you have experienced as a student in this course, please rate how much of this class was spent addressing issues of diversity. 1= very small amount of time, 2= somewhat small amount of time, 3= average amount of time, 4= somewhat significant amount of time, 5= very significant amount of time. Please circle your numerical response below.

1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*
very small amount of time	*somewhat small amount time*	*average amount of time*	*somewhat significant amount of time*	*very significant amount of time*

APPENDIX D

NAME SHEET FOR RESEARCH SURVEY

Please sign your name below. Once this sheet is received the name will be assigned a 4-digit numerical code and the name sheet will be detached from your actual survey to ensure confidentiality. Thank you for your participation.

Full Name: _____

APPENDIX E

INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT

Introduction and Background Information

A doctoral student from Virginia Tech (Luke A. Hartman) in collaboration with the Educational Leadership and Policy Studies Department at Virginia Tech is conducting a research study to collect information about the impact of education coursework on attitudinal change in higher education.

Procedures

We are asking you to complete the questionnaire form provided. Once completed, return the form in the envelope provided to course professor. The questionnaire requires about 10 to15 minutes to complete.

Risks

Although this survey requests information from you that is sensitive, the survey is anonymous therefore any risks associated with completing this survey are minimal.

Confidentiality

The attitudinal survey is an anonymous survey. Data will be stored in a locked file in a local school office. The data will be retained for approximately 5 years. Authorized Virginia Tech personnel will have access to the data collected in this study. Results and findings will be reported to course instructors participating in the study as well as selected Virginia Tech faculty. Findings may be shared with policymakers, researchers, educators and other interested persons through various means, such as journals, newsletters, conferences papers, journal articles, books, and presentations.

Disclaimer

The Virginia Tech Institutional Review Board has the authority to inspect consent records and data files only to assure compliance with approved procedures.

Voluntary Participation

Participation in this study is completely voluntary. You may refuse to participate or discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

Research Participant's Rights and Contact Persons

If you have any questions about this study, you may contact Researcher Luke A. Hartman at 540-908-6494 or Virginia Tech IRB Chair, Dr. David M. Moore, moored@vt.edu or 540-231-4991.

Thank you for participating in this important study! We appreciate the time and effort you are offering!