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Pre-Service Teacher Pathways to Urban Teaching: A Partnership Model for Nurturing Community-Based Urban Teacher Preparation

**By Robert E. Lee, Lucille L. T. Eckrich,
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Introduction

A teacher's knowledge of how culture is formed and sustained, and his or her attitudes regarding education, are a vital component of effective student learning, particularly in classrooms where the teacher's background and culture are very different from those of the students (Loadman, Freeman, & Brookhart, 1999). Understanding the influence of culture on education has become increasingly important in recent years, and the relevance that cultural mapping has for learning is now recognized (Vygotsky, 1962; Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977; Murrell, 2007). "Cultural mapping is the method by which to uncover the ideologies and meaning systems that play a significant role in shaping cultural practices and how

young people [and teachers] position themselves in relation to those practices” (Murrell, 2007, pp. 21, 39). An individual’s cultural map is shaped through experience; one relates all new experiences to the previously learned map, thereby interpreting the new in terms of the old and possibly also changing the map. It is through this map that perceivers—including teachers and students—identify cultural behaviors in others that are relevant to their own respective culture.

Teachers—both pre-service and in-service—who are put into radically new and different situations generally attempt to transplant their own cultural map onto the new environment, which can lead to misinterpretation by the teacher of cultural behavior, dissatisfaction and/or alienation on behalf of the teacher and/or students, and a lowered learning threshold for the students (Wolffe, 1996). Gibson (2004) states: “In many pre-service education programs, there is still minimal understanding of race and ethnicity and yet a high incidence of ethnocentric power-struggles between pre-service teachers and their diverse students” (para. 15). She contends “despite the evidence of increased diversity and cultural segregation of many public schools in the United States, mainstream pre-service teachers consistently show lack of needed competencies in teaching students who are different from themselves” (para. 32). Furthermore, without addressing the assumptions and beliefs that individuals have at the outset, classroom field experiences have the potential to actually increase prospective teachers’ stereotypes of diverse students, compromising their effectiveness as urban educators and inhibiting future learning (Haberman & Post, 1992; Gomez, 1996).

Collaborative university-and-school-based teacher education programs can address this situation by engaging pre-service teachers in diverse field experiences combined with guided discourse about the beliefs, assumptions, dispositions, and concerns that they bring with them. Programs should “provide substantial field experience during teacher preparation that places prospective teachers in the kinds of hard-to-staff settings in which they will be teaching” (Allen, Palaich, & Anthes, 1999, Key Questions, para. 2). As a result of such course-embedded exposure and preparation within the urban classroom setting, awareness and cultural understanding can increase, and cultural differences can be treated as learning opportunities rather than as deviations from academic or mainstream norms (Gibson, 2004).

But do these suppositions bear out in practice? After reviewing the literature on urban teacher preparation, this article presents findings from the second year of one large university’s grant-supported work to infuse teacher education courses with new contents, guided discourse, and diverse field experiences related to urban teacher preparation (UTP). The findings are based on data from attitudinal surveys completed at the beginning and end of each semester by students enrolled in the redesigned courses. Survey results indicated that students’ intentions to teach in an urban setting increased during the semester in which they participated in a redesigned UTP course. Furthermore, respondents’ intentions to teach in an urban setting correlated positively with their urban education perceptions, attitudes toward

multiculturalism, and exposure to such a setting. Finally, students who participated in an urban field experience as part of the redesigned course indicated more positive growth on all measures than did non-participating classmates. Implications of these initial findings for teacher education programming and future research are discussed. We conclude that efforts to redesign courses taken by teacher education students should continue at the host institution and be replicated elsewhere, become even more theoretically informed and practically situated, and be studied qualitatively and longitudinally in addition to continuing the quantitative approach reported here.

Literature Review:

The Context for Urban Teacher Preparation

In 1997, the National Center for Education Statistics stated that over the next 10 years the United States would need to recruit 2.2 million teachers to fill our nation's classrooms. A decade later, actual figures are higher and continue to rise. In 2006 there were 3.6 million K-12 teachers, and 4.2 million are projected for 2018 (Hussarr & Bailey, 2009). In addition to the need for new teachers due to our increasing population, accelerating retirements of baby boom teachers are exacerbating the teacher shortage. In 2009, the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future reported that in the next four years a third of the nation's current teachers could retire, with it amounting to one-half within a decade, at least if current retirement policies are kept in place (Carroll & Foster, 2009, 2010). What is not often cited is that, when focusing on the economic principle of supply and demand, there actually exists an overall numerical surplus of qualified candidates to positions available. The shortage only exists when focusing on the distribution of these teachers—in particular, those willing to teach in high-poverty urban or isolated rural schools, and those who teach subjects that are in high demand: mathematics, science, bilingual education, and special education (Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 2003; Haberman, 1987; Ingersoll, 2003; McDiarmid, Larson, & Hill, 2002; Meyer & Feistritzer, 2003). Higher levels of teacher dissatisfaction and attrition, as well as under-qualified teachers, are also concentrated in high-need schools, making them even more underserved and harder-to-staff. Using data from the nationwide Schools and Staffing Survey, Imazeki (2007) found "...a fairly consistent trend that the least qualified teachers are more likely to be found in schools with higher concentrations of high-need students. This distribution of teachers across schools has been largely attributed to teacher mobility and the problems that high-need schools have with recruiting and retaining teachers" (p. 2).

The accountability demands of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB), combined with this unbalanced distribution and retention of qualified teachers, have put many already under-served schools at greater risk. Beyond the many challenges underserved schools face in meeting Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP), NCLB also

explicitly states that all states must submit a plan for ensuring “that poor and minority children are not taught at higher rates than other children by inexperienced, unqualified, or out-of-field teachers” (NCLB, 2001, Section 1111(b)(8)(C)). However, for this to work, it requires that sufficient numbers of qualified teachers are willing to teach in their schools—and this distribution is unbalanced across districts as well as within districts, largely based on the level of poverty of the school (as measured by percent of students eligible for free or reduced lunch). This disparity can thwart even proactive, concerned administrative efforts to recruit and retain good teachers, and frustrations from such failures can lead both teachers and administrators elsewhere, drawing away more needed talent from the school or district. While NCLB allowed time for schools to adjust to new requirements such as this one, it is clear that measurable, sustained overall progress is expected—and, with the law’s disciplinary authority over schools (probation, withholding funding, or closure), the consequences of not achieving such progress are very real.

Given this demand for high quality teachers in urban schools, recruitment of teachers has been aggressive and competitive (Kantrowitz & Wingert, 2000). Similar to tactics used by the private business sector, corporate-style recruitment efforts have offered potential candidates not only alternative or emergency fast-tracks into the classroom but additional incentives too. Many states—particularly California, Georgia, New Jersey, New York, and Texas—now offer promising college and nontraditional students benefits for pursuing a degree or alternative certification in education and committing themselves to teach in low-income, hard-to-staff urban schools (National Center for Alternative Certification, 2005). Some of the concessions used to stimulate interest include college tuition reimbursement, opportunities for discounted continuing education, college loan repayment, job placement, housing, and competitive salaries, including signing bonuses and benefit packages (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Hirsch, Koppich, & Knapp, 1998; Imazeki, 2007; Johnson, Birkeland, & Peske, 2005). NCLB has provided federal funding for many of these initiatives, including some alternative certification programs (Denton et al., 2008).

However, such recruitment efforts often overlook the premise that pre-service teachers who are preparing for hard-to-staff urban schools benefit from deliberate learning experiences that include both coursework about and clinical experiences within those settings (Lee & Radner, 2006). Instead of developing such partnerships between universities and school districts, several institutions of higher education and local educational agencies in cooperation with city/state boards of education have aligned to create what amounts to a quick reactionary solution. Varieties of certification programs (e.g., emergency credentials and alternative certification programs), which may not necessarily follow the traditional path of teacher preparation, have emerged in response to the shortages and sometimes moved into classrooms individuals who have met only limited requirements or in some instances not had any formal preparation. For example, Mississippi officials have approved four

alternative routes to teacher certification the largest of which offers college graduates provisional (one-year) licensure after an eight-week summer workshop or a 10-week fall or spring online course, and the second largest of which offers it after 15 days (or 90 clock hours) of summer training followed by nine Saturday classes during their first year on the job (Ratliff, 2008). The state also allows for one-year emergency licensure issued at the request of school districts that need to fill a vacant position for which they cannot find a certified teacher. These “nontraditional” routes accounted for 64% of certifications issued in Mississippi in 2007-08, 75% of which were emergency licenses (Ratliff, 2008). As of 2007, there existed 130 such routes to teaching implemented in 485 distinct programs nationwide. Overall, the number of teachers receiving alternative certification has risen dramatically in recent years, from 6,000 in 1998 to nearly 60,000 in 2005, increasing about 20% per year (Feistritzer, 2007). One of the main goals of alternative certification is to get teachers into vacant classrooms as fast as possible, especially teachers who are “recruited for areas where the demand for teachers is greatest—in large cities and rural areas—and in subject areas in greatest demand—special education, mathematics and science” (NCAC, 2005, para. 9).

While quick-fix certifications often compromise quality, historically schools of education have also been ill-suited to develop a systematic way to induct pre-service teachers into actual classrooms, especially in ways that substantially improve the conditions of teaching and learning in those schools (Haberman, 1987; Hagger & McIntyre, 2007; Lee & Radner, 2006; Murrell, 2006). Classroom-based instruction delivered in traditional university-based teacher education programs bears little resemblance to the realities of a PK-12 classroom, especially an urban one. Schools of education today do gradually increase pre-service teachers’ real-world exposure by placing them in classrooms for observations and practice teaching. However, the partnerships between universities that prepare future teachers and the urban high-need schools that need to mentor and hire them are recent and as yet still weak. Bridging this gap between universities and urban classrooms and schools can be an integral component in pre-service teachers’ development (Haberman, 2000; Hagger & McIntyre, 2007; Lee & Radner, 2006; Murrell, 2007; Thompson & Smith, 2005). Such context-based exposures assist in the development of teacher skills, which can be best learned by observing, reflecting, interpreting, and implementing practices appropriate and sensitive to the needs of children from diverse backgrounds.

To bridge this divide, partnerships between universities and under-resourced schools need more rigorous development. One goal of these partnerships should be to expose teacher candidates to urban schools and classrooms as early and substantially as possible in their preparation programs. Placing teacher candidates in actual classrooms at the onset and throughout their preparation allows the candidates multiple opportunities to observe, reflect, and decide over the course of their collegiate career if an urban school setting is a good fit and, if it is, to prepare to teach in that setting. However, many teacher education programs, including many of the largest, are not

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located in large cities (Lin & Gardner, 2006). This poses additional challenges for forging meaningful and affordable partnerships with urban schools.

Positive initial urban field experiences correlate positively with teacher retention (Chapman & Green, 1986). According to Levine (1988), when teacher education programs focus more on clinical experiences, graduating teachers are much better prepared for the classroom and more likely to stay in the teaching field. Gallego (2001) argues “teacher educators must provide pre-service teachers with opportunities to interact with the communities and children representative of those they are likely to teach” (p. 312). Arthur Levine’s (2006) national study of university-based teacher education programs found that effective teacher education programs are ones that achieve “curricular balance,” integrating “the theory and practice of teaching” by “balancing study in university classrooms and work in schools with successful practitioners” (p. 21). This study also found that pre-service teachers’ “urban school experience was especially limited” (p. 41). Although scholars have noted some flaws and limitations in Levine’s research and recommendations, no one has rejected the study wholesale nor disputed these two findings (Gordon, 2007; Robinson, 2006; Sroufe, 2006; Whitcomb, Boroko, & Liston, 2007).

Because of the demands put on teachers in characteristically tenuous urban environments, new teachers who have had limited exposure to—and thus developed inadequate cultural maps for—the urban or low-income classroom may develop negative perceptions of the children they are to serve, which affects children’s ability to learn (Aaronson, Carter, & Howell, 1995) and their own ability to teach effectively. Acknowledging that pre-service teachers bring with them a host of assumptions and conceptions, Gallego (2001) proclaims that “without opportunities to deliberately expand and challenge personal and professional habitudes, (prospective) teachers may routinely underestimate students’ abilities and misunderstand diversity” (p. 313). This view highlights the issue facing many urban teachers—that is, the importance of cultural and community contexts and their relevance for learning. Evidence from traditional teacher education paradigms suggest that separating learner from environment and knowing from doing can lead to detrimental effects on the beginning teacher’s relative development and subsequent retention in urban schools. Further, many of these traditional approaches toward teacher education instruct in various degrees of abstract form that are not directly applicable to the meaning of clinical situations, thus making learning an arduous process that is unrelated to the demands of an urban reality. In such environments where learning occurs outside of real-world settings, knowledge gained without the ability to relate and reflect within contextual domains remains inert and ultimately vitiates the relevance of practice in meaningful situations. Whether prospective teachers are limited in their exposure to urban communities, or come from urban contexts or African-American, Latino/a, or minority communities, all benefit greatly from the identity and sense-making work they can do conjointly with children and cooperating teachers when situated in mul-

ticultural or nonmainstream settings (Murrell, 2000, 2007; Quartz, Olsen, & Duncan-Andrade, 2008).

Clearly, more opportunities for pre-service teachers to challenge and inform their cultural maps through community-based urban school experiences are needed if the shortage of well-prepared, culturally-competent, and critically-minded urban teachers is to be addressed. While the UTP work described below only begins to establish the conditions of the possibility of inculcating what Murrell (2007) calls “cultural mapping by doing cultural practices inquiry” (p. 22; also see pp. 129-171) among teacher education faculty and students at the host institution and the urban schools where they work, it has helped to establish a broader and long-term commitment at this institution to stay this UTP course.

Research Context

This study examines the influence of urban education course work and field experiences, provided through a federal grant, on pre-service teachers’ intentions, perceptions, and attitudes toward urban teaching. Spearheaded by a large Midwestern public university located in a suburban city, this partnership brings a large urban school district, community-based organizations, businesses, community colleges, not-for-profit educational organizations, and the university together in a collaborative project based in two contiguous neighborhoods—one Mexican-American, one African-American—in that large urban district. One component of this project offered university faculty a summer grant opportunity to redesign a course they regularly have taught and/or will teach so that it better prepares teacher candidates for urban and high-need settings. This study examines student data from the second year of this UTP Course Development Grant (CDG) program.

All university faculty were eligible to apply for the CDG, although teacher education faculty across disciplines were targeted. Additionally, faculty of several General Education courses (English, Communications, Psychology, History, and Interdisciplinary Studies), which are taken by large numbers of the university’s undergraduates, redesigned one or more sections of their courses. These sections were then “tagged” in the registration directory as having an urban education emphasis, thus attracting interested education majors to enroll. Three years of grantees have represented a variety of course levels and disciplines, including English, Communications, History, Biology, Physics, Health Sciences, Math, Psychology, Theater, Art, Music, Spanish, Gender Studies, Business, Geography, and Foundations of Education. Grantees received awards of \$3,500 plus benefits, including an experiential trip to this partnership’s large urban school district for redesign work and community-based activities.

The rationale for the CDG derives from the UTP literature, as discussed above, as well as from goals outlined in the host university’s teacher education mission to “Realize the Democratic Ideal” (Council for Teacher Education, 2000). This mis-

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sion imparts a set of moral and intellectual virtues that aim to graduate teachers with “sensitivity toward the varieties of individual and cultural diversity” (para. 3) and who “aspire to teach everyone, especially those on the margins, those who have been or are in danger of being excluded” (para. 5). The CDG rationale was stated in the grant RFP (request for proposals) to provide faculty with goals and outcomes to focus upon when conceptualizing and redesigning their courses. It emphasizes the need for grantees to help pre-service teachers to:

- View public schools and their inhabitants as situated within and related through a nexus of social, cultural, historical, economic, political, and geographic contexts.
- Have rich and sustained first-hand experiences in urban schools and neighborhoods preceded, succeeded, and accompanied by theoretical discussions with peers and experienced educators and community members.
- Examine how identities shape understandings of and experiences in school.
- Understand, critique, and, as possible, participate in overcoming the systemic sources of racial and economic inequity in our society and schools.
- Experience and facilitate authentic student-centered learning and assessment.
- Practice principles of universal design that benefit all students, and without which some students are unable to succeed.

Grantees participated together in a four-day field experience similar to the kind of urban field experience they were expected to integrate into their redesigned courses. Other grant outcomes included a revised syllabus for and a narrative report on their redesigned courses, which were to incorporate new UTP content and relevant pedagogical and authentic assessment strategies designed to meet the needs of urban teachers and their students. While describing the actual changes faculty made to their syllabi, classes, assignments, assessments, and other areas of instruction is beyond the scope of this study, a report and assessment of the CDG outcomes has been compiled each year and is available upon request.

Methodology

Hypotheses

This study sought to reveal the impact of redesigned UTP courses and their course-embedded urban field experiences on pre-service teachers’ perceptions of urban education, their attitudes toward diversity and multiculturalism, and their intentions to teach in an urban setting. Three hypotheses framed this study:

H1: Pre-service teachers' intentions to teach in an urban setting will increase significantly during the semester in which they take a redesigned course.

H2: Pre-service teachers' intentions to teach in an urban setting will be positively related to their urban education perceptions, attitudes towards multiculturalism in schools, and personal level of exposure to such a setting.

H3: Compared to students who did not participate in an urban field experience, those students who did participate in the urban field experience will demonstrate significantly higher post-course scores on (a) intentions to teach in an urban setting, (b) urban education perceptions, and (c) attitudes toward diversity and multiculturalism in schools.

Research Participants

During the fall 2007 and spring 2008 semesters, students participating in ten courses, which had been redesigned to focus on urban education topics with an urban-based field experience, were targeted for this study. A total of 491 students enrolled in the redesigned courses, 424 of whom participated in the research. Due to significant missing data and anonymous responses, 271 cases were omitted from analyses. Full sets of data including both pre- and post-course surveys were collected for 153 participants. The findings reported below are based on the 153 complete cases, constituting a response rate of 31%.

The mean age of the respondents was 21.5 ($SD=3.3$) years. The sample included 87 women (57%). There were 24 freshmen (15.7%), 20 sophomores (13.1%), 26 juniors (17%), 79 seniors (51.6%), and 4 respondents (2.6%) who did not specify. One hundred thirty-seven participants identified as White (89.5%), 5 as Black (3.3%), 6 as Latino/a (3.9%), and 5 respondents (3.3%) did not identify their race/ethnicity. Eleven respondents (7.2%) indicated attending high school in an urban setting, 97 (63.4%) in a suburban high school, 37 (24.2%) in a rural high school, and 8 respondents (5.2%) did not indicate their high school setting. One hundred forty-three students (94%) declared a major in education, and 132 (86%) respondents expressed that they planned to begin working as a teacher upon graduation. At the beginning of the study, 103 respondents (67%) indicated having little or no experience in an urban school setting. As a central component of the CDG project, 89 students (58%) participated in the clinical urban experience and 64 (42%) did not go on an experiential trip.

Instruments

In order to evaluate the effects of the redesigned courses on students' attitudes and perceptions, the study was conducted in a pre- and post-course survey design. Students in ten newly redesigned courses were asked to complete a survey during the first weeks of the fall 2007 and spring 2008 semesters and then again at the end of each respective semester. Two prior administrations of the pre/post survey design were conducted with redesigned courses in fall 2006 and spring 2007 to

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pilot the instrument. The survey instrument included four measures and is listed in the Appendix:

- The Urban Teaching Intentions (UTI) scale;
- The Urban Education Perceptions (UEP) scale;
- The Teacher Multicultural Attitudes Scale (TMAS); and
- The Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES).

The UTI and UEP measures were specifically designed for this study and were composed of six and nine items, respectively. The UTI scale measured students' intentions to teach in an urban setting once they graduate; higher scores indicated greater intention to teach in an urban school. The UEP scale measured participants' endorsement of stereotypical beliefs about urban schools and is scored so that higher scores indicated more positive attitudes toward urban education. The first pilot administrations of the UTI scale (fall 2006 and spring 2007) yielded adequate reliabilities of .87 and .88, respectively. The UEP scale also demonstrated adequate reliabilities during the pilot administrations, yielding alphas of .74 and .77 during the fall 2006 and spring 2007 semesters. Using the current sample, the UTI and UEP scales demonstrated internal consistency alphas of .82 and .70, respectively, for the pre-course survey administration, and .77 and .72, respectively, for the post-course survey administration.

The TMAS is a 20-item survey instrument designed to measure multicultural awareness of teachers working in kindergarten through grade 12 (Ponterotto, Baluch, Greig, & Rivera, 1998). The wording of some items was adapted for administration to pre-service teachers. Previous work has demonstrated the reliability and validity of the scale (Ponterotto et al., 1998) and higher scores indicated more favorable attitudes toward multiculturalism in the classroom. During the first and second pilot administrations, the modified TMAS scale yielded alphas of .85 and .84. Employing the current sample, the observed alpha for this scale was .88 for the pre-course administration and .90 for the post-course administration.

The TSES has a long-form (24 items) and a short-form (12 items) each of which measures a respondent's sense of efficacy as a teacher or pre-service teacher, which is "a judgment of his or her capabilities to bring about desired outcomes of student engagement and learning, even among those students who may be difficult or unmotivated" (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001, p. 783). The short-form was utilized for this study. The instrument developers reported an alpha of .90 for this short form (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). For this study, six items that were relevant to urban education were added to the scale yielding an 18-item measure. Higher scores indicated greater self-efficacy in the classroom. During the pilot administrations, the observed alphas for the scale were .83 and .91. Reliability remained high with the current sample, yielding alphas of .91 and .94 for the pre-course and post-course administrations, respectively. Thus, the added items had little effect on the scale's reliability.

Results

Major Analyses

The data supported hypothesis 1. A paired-samples *t*-test was conducted to determine if there was a significant increase in urban teaching intentions (UTI) from the pre-course survey (*Time 1*) to the post-course survey (*Time 2*). A statistically significant increase over time in UTI was observed, $t(151)=-3.01, p=.003$. Participants' UTI scores went from 3.03 ($SD=.79$) to 3.20 ($SD=.77$), on a scale of 1 to 5. Respondents participating in the clinical experience demonstrated slightly higher UTI scores ($M=3.26$) than those who did not ($M=3.11$) at *Time 2*, although not significantly.

Using data at *Time 1* and *Time 2*, hierarchical multiple regressions were conducted to test hypothesis 2. The demographic variables of race/ethnicity and high school setting were entered in the first step as control variables. The variables of self-rated experience in an urban school (per their respective high school setting), urban education perceptions (UEP), and multicultural attitudes (TMAS) were entered in the second step as hypothesized main predictors. Table 1 displays the results of these analyses.

Entered as a control, participants' respective high school setting emerged as a

Table 1.
Hierarchical Multiple Regression of Urban Teaching Intentions (UTI)
onto Demographic, Experiential, and Attitudinal Predictors at *Time 1* and *Time 2*

	<i>Time 1</i>		<i>Time 2</i>	
	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β
Step 1: Control variables	.091*** ^a		.023 ^c	
Race/ethnicity		-.120		-.070
HS setting		-.252**		-.121
Step 2: Main variables	.250*** ^b		.165*** ^d	
Urban experience		.221**		.162
UEP		.387**		.271**
TMAS		.138		.187*
Total R^2	.341		.188	

Note: Race/ethnicity (coded 0 for Non-Whites and 1 for Whites); HS setting (coded 0 for Urban HS and 1 for Non-urban HS); urban experience was on a continuum ranging from 1 (no experience at all) to 5 (extensive experience).

*($p<.05$)

**($p<.01$)

^a *F* change (2, 146)=7.29, $p=.001$.

^b *F* change (5, 143)=14.82, $p=.000$.

^c *F* change (2, 146) = 1.72, $p=.183$.

^d *F* change (5, 143) = 6.60, $p=.000$.

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significant predictor of urban teaching intentions at *Time 1*. This finding indicates that those students from urban high schools exhibited significantly more intent to teach in an urban setting. All of the main predictors exhibited a significant relationship with UTI at either *Time 1* and/or *Time 2*. Self-rated urban experience emerged as a significant predictor of urban teaching intentions at *Time 1*. That is, students who started with more extensive urban school experiences voiced stronger intentions to become urban teachers. The most robust predictor, urban education perceptions, exhibited a positive relationship with UTI at both *Time 1* and *Time 2*. At *Time 2*, multicultural attitudes were positively related to the UTI scale. These findings indicate that those students who had or developed more positive perceptions of urban education and multiculturalism/diversity exhibited more intent to teach in an urban setting.

As detailed, the data supported hypothesis 2. Pre-service teachers' intentions to teach in an urban setting were positively related to their urban education perceptions, attitudes towards multiculturalism in schools, and personal level of exposure to such a setting. These results suggest that participants' previous experiences, knowledge, and attitudes are important predictors of their intention to teach in an urban setting. In sum, all five predictor variables combined to explain 34% of the variance in UTI scores at *Time 1* and 19% at *Time 2*.

Hypothesis 3 received no significant support. ANOVAs were run to test the effect at *Time 2* of having had attended an experiential trip. Trip participants demonstrated higher scores on the UTI scale ($M=3.26$) than students not participating in a trip ($M=3.11$). Respondents completing a trip also scored higher on the UEP ($M=3.16$) and TMAS ($M=3.95$) scales, compared to their non-trip counterparts with a mean score of 3.03 on UEP and 3.79 on TMAS. Although these mean levels were higher for trip participants, no statistically significant differences were found on UTI, UEP, or TMAS at *Time 2*.

Post-hoc Analyses

In addition to assessing the hypotheses, a number of supplemental post-hoc analyses were run to investigate other potentially significant relationships.

Additional *t*-tests were conducted to determine if there was a significant change in participants' levels on the other study variables (i.e., UEP, TMAS, and TSES). Participants' UEP scores increased significantly from *Time 1* to *Time 2*, $t(152)=-3.23$, $p=.002$. Participants' TMAS scores also increased, although not significantly, 3.82 ($SD=.48$) at *Time 1* to 3.88 ($SD=.54$) at *Time 2*. TSES scores rose significantly over time, $t(146)=-2.87$, $p=.005$. Again, all scores are on a scale from 1 to 5. Table 2 depicts the means and correlations for the four scales.

Discussion

Almost 25% of this state's public school students presently reside in its eight largest cities (Illinois State Board of Education, 2008). None of these eight school

Table 2.
Inter-correlations between Variables.

Variable	<i>M (SD)</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. UTI (<i>Time 1</i>)	3.03 (.79)	--							
2. UTI (<i>Time 2</i>)	3.20 (.77)	.63**	--						
3. UEP (<i>Time 1</i>)	2.96 (.49)	.40**	.31**	--					
4. UEP (<i>Time 2</i>)	3.10 (.52)	.29**	.32**	.45**	--				
5. TMAS (<i>Time 1</i>)	3.82 (.48)	.25**	.27**	.07	.26**	--			
6. TMAS (<i>Time 2</i>)	3.88 (.54)	.21**	.28**	.05	.20*	.75**	--		
7. TSES (<i>Time 1</i>)	3.95 (.50)	.41**	.34**	.34**	.28**	.18*	.19*	--	
8. TSES (<i>Time 2</i>)	4.05 (.55)	.30**	.30**	.27**	.38**	.20*	.33*	.60**	--

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

districts made AYP in 2008 with an average of only 58% of their students meeting or exceeding state standards in all subjects. Collectively, 66.7% of these districts' students are low income (ranging from 45% to 84%), and 25.9% of them are White (ranging from 2.4% to 52.9%). Given these statistics, it behooves teacher education programs in the state to ask whether they are preparing their pre-service teachers to live and teach in these urban communities.

In 2002, faculty and staff at the host university started asking themselves these questions and soon realized that the answers to both were "no." Efforts have been underway ever since, by a gradually increasing cadre of staff and students, to remedy this situation. The urban teacher preparation (UTP) course development grant (CDG) program reported in this article constitutes just one of the inter-connected fronts through which this initiative is being waged. While the program requires considerable human and financial resources and its results, as reported above, are as yet modest, we believe the latter are in the right direction.

Specifically, participation in a course redesigned to focus on urban education significantly increased or enhanced participating pre-service teachers' intentions to teach in an urban setting, their perceptions of urban education, their attitudes toward diversity and multiculturalism, and their efficacy toward urban teaching. Furthermore, the course-embedded urban field experience seemed to reinforce and augment the positive effects of participation in the redesigned UTP courses, although not as significantly as anecdotal evidence suggests. Finally, study subjects' intentions to teach in an urban setting were positively related with more open and informed urban education perceptions, positive attitudes toward diversity and multiculturalism, and more personal exposure to urban settings.

In light of these findings, we believe the UTP CDG program warrants ongoing support at the host university, replication at other institutions, and further study. The remainder of this discussion outlines some key concerns regarding its ongoing support and replication as well as central questions that future research should examine.

Ongoing Support and Replication

While three years may be sufficient time to design and implement an educational innovation, it is hardly long enough to work out all its kinks and to evaluate its immediate, ongoing, and long term effects and to conduct cost/benefit analyses. Unfortunately, most external funding sources do not last much longer than three years, so unless innovations are funded internally from the outset or successfully incorporate means to sustain themselves internally once established with external stimulus, they fizzle out unless new external funds are secured.

The UTP CDG initiative incorporates some but perhaps not sufficient means for long-term internal sustainability. On the one hand, once a faculty member redesigns a course, as long as s/he continues to be assigned that course, s/he is likely to teach its redesigned version. In our case, three out of the 24 grantees have since left the host university; however, in each instance, another faculty member has picked up and is teaching a UTP-version of that course. The remaining 21 grantees still teach their redesigned courses and other courses influenced by their redesign work. Equally important, over half of them have become involved in other aspects of the host university's UTP initiative, indicating that investing in faculty bears rich, even if unpredictable, dividends.

On the other hand, an integral part of redesigned courses is an urban field experience, grant-supported funds for which decreased by half each program year and expired completely at the end of the three-year federal grant (though efficient use of funds allowed for a fourth, no-cost extension year). While some departments have absorbed some of the costs not covered through the grant or by participating students, many could not, and none as yet is prepared to continue doing so entirely on its own. Thus, unless other university funds or new external grant sources are secured to subsidize these course-embedded urban field experiences, they will not continue, and the long-term difference they might make to help fill hard-to-staff urban schools with well prepared teachers will never be known. This hampers the UTP efforts of large-model teacher education programs based outside urban communities.

How long will funding for urban field experiences be necessary? While there will always be students at the host university who would benefit educationally from such field experiences, the multiple fronts of this university's UTP partnership should reduce this need. Two of these fronts involve nurturing teacher college prep clubs at partner high schools in the host university's partner urban district and providing transitional support for the district's graduates who come to the university to study (Nourie & Lee, 2006). Given that most pre-service teachers want to go home to teach, recruiting more urban district graduates to become teachers and do at least some of

their preparation at the host institution is likely to increase the number of graduates who want to student teach and pursue their teaching career in the partner district. Indeed, this study found that students from urban high schools exhibited significantly more intent to teach in an urban setting. This is consistent with findings by Bradley and Loadman (2005) and prior studies cited therein (p. 18). Furthermore, by bringing their experiences and perspectives into university classrooms, these urban-raised pre-service teachers will also influence the campus-based education of their fellow teacher education students, possibly influencing some of them also to choose to student teach and teach in urban communities. As this “pipeline” for urban students, most of whom are Latino/a, Black, and lower-income, starts to flow in earnest, the need for course-embedded urban field experiences at the host university should lessen, even if educationally it will always remain of value. But at a minimum, ten years of funding for these UTP initiatives are needed to establish this teacher pipeline and judge its success. This is how long it would take ninth grade students to proceed through high school and, with the support of a teacher college prep club, the transitional bridge program, and mentorship while in college, to graduate with a teaching degree and become inducted into the field through two years of full-time teaching.

These UTP initiatives have been recognized as exemplary by professional associations such as the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) and the National Network for Educational Renewal (NNER), and Arne Duncan, now the U.S. Secretary of Education, has recommended they be replicated (personal communication, October 28, 2008). If each public university in the host university’s state established a community-based presence in one or more under-resourced community that could eventually be tapped by the other universities in the network, a state-wide multi-directional teacher education pipeline for urban and other high-need schools could result. While urban communities and schools represent the highest need at present, there is no reason why other high-need communities in rural and small town areas could not also become focal points of such a network over time.

Future Research

As with most research, this study has answered some questions while raising others. A number of additional research questions could expand the scope of this study and help to clarify the results. First and foremost, given the discrepancy between anecdotal evidence and the finding of this study regarding the field experience, further research is needed to ascertain the impact and cost-benefit analysis of the course-embedded urban field trip. Both qualitative and quantitative methods should be employed to explore both the short- and long-term consequences of this curricular innovation for those who participate compared to those who do not. It may be that those who do not participate are nevertheless indirectly influenced because participants share about and process the experience in class. It may also be that the challenge of teaching in hard-to-staff schools becomes much more real to participants, sobering

their responses to survey questions in ways that are productive for the longevity of their employment in an urban school once they accept a job there. Mixed methods and longitudinal research are needed to examine such complexities.

Second, collecting and analyzing certain qualitative data could help to illuminate how faculty changed their courses and which elements of the redesigned courses were most (and least) effective in the minds of students. Analyses could also determine how these elements are similar or differ across disciplines. For example, while students in many of the redesigned courses completed a reflection or journaling assignment, the variations in content, guided questioning, and the activity's stated purpose among courses could have considerably different impacts. Determining how effective certain assignments, such as this one, were across various courses would inform future course curricula by providing specific assessments backed up by evidence and example. This evidence could also help instructors in specific disciplines choose more effective assignments for their subject matter, while steering clear of others that have proven less effective. It could also help illuminate why certain combinations were in fact perceived as ineffective, and provide ways to improve the assignments through modification.

Third, longitudinal data-collection techniques should be employed to understand the influence of UTP involvement on participants' professional careers and on the educational achievement of their students. With their increased exposure to urban education due to the redesigned courses, we hypothesize that more students will in fact continue to pursue this route after completing the courses—that they will prefer to student teach in urban or other under-served schools, and subsequently try to find employment in these or similar schools. Whether this is the case and whether they remain at and thrive in these positions for long periods of time are two of the central questions future research should pursue. Comparative analyses with their counterparts who did not participate in UTP courses or related programming are also needed.

Finally, because the teacher attrition rate in under-served schools is significantly higher than in others, determining ways to lower this would be beneficial to the schools and districts in question. If this can be achieved with relatively low cost at the front end, such as through improving urban teacher preparation through this course development grant program and early career support, there will be a significant overall monetary savings (because schools will spend less on finding and supporting new hires) and an increase in teacher experience levels (because teachers will stay at their positions for longer periods). Determining the most effective ways to interest students in and prepare them for urban teaching is therefore of primary importance. Finding and analyzing various data to track student-teaching placement and teacher employment, retention, and development as leaders comprise an important subsequent element of this research agenda. Most of these data are readily available through quantitative databases, such as a state-level Teacher Data Warehouse and the Schools and Staffing Survey (SSAS)

of the National Center for Education Statistics, and can be supplemented with qualitative studies of alumni.

Conclusion

Valuing diversity should be an organizing construct for teacher preparation. If to value means to invest increasingly qualified effort over time, then as future teachers gain experience with and personal and analytical understandings of ethnic, racial, socioeconomic, gender, sexual, linguistic, religious, and other forms of human diversity, they will become more skilled in how to negotiate, critique, and address the societal implications of identity issues within diverse settings. Research and experience from this university indicate that hands-on, community-based, immersive activities, combined with structured opportunities for critical reflection, provide students with powerful tools for examining and possibly rethinking or redrawing their cultural maps regarding teaching in under-served urban areas and in variously diverse classrooms. Because the public school demographic of the future is moving rapidly towards greater cultural diversity and lower economic diversity, it is essential that future teachers both come from and have experience during their teacher preparation program working with diverse populations. Community-based urban teacher preparation will better enable them to create “communities of achievement” with their future students and colleagues (Murrell, 2007, pp. 103-128) and to recognize themselves as advocates of social justice and public education.

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Appendix

Survey Instruments

Urban Teaching Intentions Scale Items

1. At this time, I would feel uncomfortable teaching in an urban classroom.*
2. I am likely to pursue my career in an urban setting.
3. I will likely begin my teaching career in an urban school.
4. I am open to the possibility of working in an urban setting.
5. I'm curious about the long-term urban teaching experience.
6. I want to work in a high-need urban school at least once during my career.

Urban Education Perceptions Scale Items

1. In comparison to other schools, urban schools are more difficult to work in.*
2. Urban schools are predominantly attended by underachieving students.*
3. Teachers in urban school districts face challenges beyond their resources.*
4. Urban schools are safe places to work in.
5. Urban school teachers are equally prepared in comparison to non-urban school teachers.
6. Urban school students are harder to teach than non-urban school students.*
7. Urban students have more behavior problems than their non-urban counterparts.*

8. Urban students are more respectful toward teachers and peers than their non-urban counterparts.
9. Urban school district administrators are less supportive of their teachers than non-urban district administrators.*

Teacher Multicultural Attitudes Scale Items

1. I would find teaching a culturally diverse group rewarding.
2. Teaching methods need to be adapted to meet the needs of a culturally diverse student group.
3. Sometimes I think there is too much emphasis placed on multicultural awareness and training for teachers.*
4. Teachers have the responsibility to be aware of their students' cultural backgrounds.
5. It is the teacher's responsibility to invite extended family members to attend parent-teacher conferences.
6. It is not the teacher's responsibility to encourage pride in one's culture.*
7. As classrooms become more culturally diverse, the teacher's job becomes increasingly challenging.*
8. I believe the teacher's role needs to be redefined to address the needs of students from culturally different backgrounds.
9. When dealing with bilingual students, some teachers may misinterpret different communication styles as behavior problems.
10. As classrooms become more culturally diverse, the teacher's job becomes increasingly rewarding.
11. I can learn a great deal from students with culturally different backgrounds.
12. Multicultural training for teachers is not necessary.*
13. In order to be an effective teacher, one needs to be aware of cultural differences present in the classroom.
14. In order to be an effective teacher, one needs to be critically aware of one's own cultural and socio-economic backgrounds.
15. In order to be an effective public school teacher, one needs to understand the systemic causes of poverty and inequity.
16. Multicultural awareness training can help me work more effectively with a diverse student population.
17. Students should learn to communicate in English only.*
18. Today's curriculum gives undue importance to multiculturalism and diversity.*
19. Regardless of the racial and ethnic make-up of my class, it is important for all students to be aware of multicultural diversity.
20. Teaching students about cultural diversity will only create conflict in the classroom.*

Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale Items

If you worked in an *urban school*, how much do you think you could...

1. Control disruptive behavior in the classroom?
2. Motivate students who show low interest in school work?
3. Get students to believe they can do well in school work?
4. Help your students to analyze the socio-economic conditions of their lives and communities?
5. Help your students to value learning?
6. Craft good questions for your students?

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7. Get children to follow classroom rules?
8. Get students to help create effective classroom rules and standards?
9. Calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?
10. Mediate a conflict between students?
11. Establish a classroom management system?
12. Use a variety of assessment strategies?
13. Provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?
14. Assist families in helping their children do well in school?
15. Implement alternative strategies in your classroom?
16. Voice your opinion about educational matters to school administrators?
17. Voice your opinion about educational matters to senior teachers?
18. Voice your opinion about educational matters to district administrators?

Note. All items were listed on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 to 5. Reverse scored items are indicated with *.