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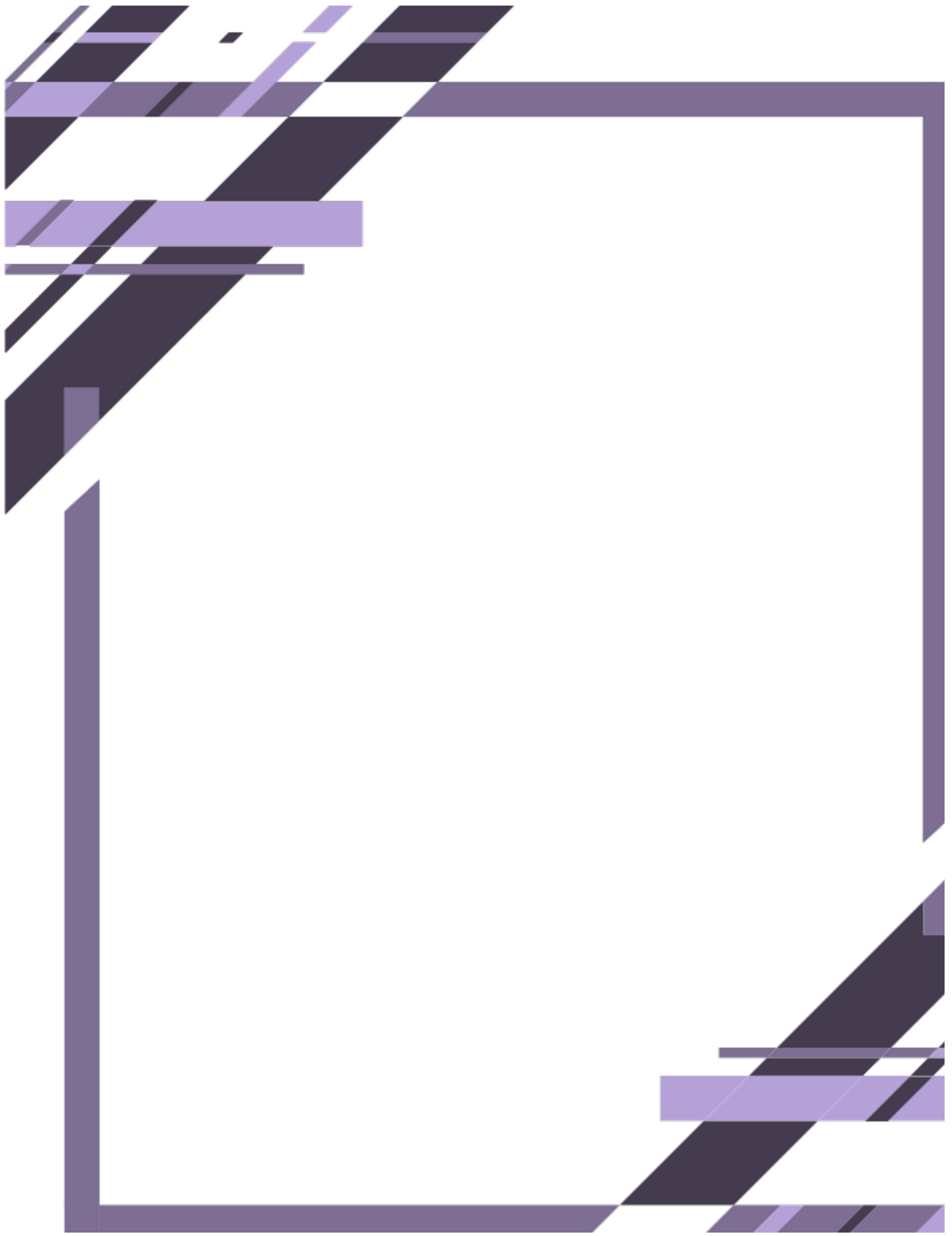
A MESSAGE FROM THE EDITORS

Welcome from the The OHIO Journal of Teacher Education Editorial Team. We are honored and privileged to shepherd this journal for the educational community of Ohio

The OHIO Journal of Teacher Education (OJTE) is an online journal We invite all forms of article formats, as seen in the publication and manuscript guidelines included inside the journal. However, we do invite authors to utilize the online format. The use of links and other interactive devices will allow the online journal to be more than simply a pdf of articles that you can print at your own workstation. In the future, the hope of the editorial team is to develop a truly functional online journal experience which can open the world of practice to our readership.

We will strive to build upon the solid foundation left by the previous editorial teams and move the OHIO Journal of Teacher Education forward as a resource for pre-service teachers, in-service teachers, and all with an interest in teacher education.

Dr. Jean Eagle and Dr. Mark Meyers, Co-Editors



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The Ohio Journal of Teacher Education (OJTE) is looking for interested individuals to join the Editorial Board of the journal. We are looking to establish a board that represents the Colleges and Universities of Ohio as well as offers a broad spectrum of content expertise.

If interested, please submit a one page letter of intent that includes your College or University, your educational background, and your content area of interest to the co-editors.

Dr. Mark Meyers and Dr. Jean Eagle at
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We look forward to hearing from you.

Conceptualizing and Responding to Student Diversities: Voices from Partner Schools

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Abstract:

Through focus group conversations, partner school personnel unpacked conceptualizations of and responses to diversity, and shared views on diversity-related experiences important to teacher preparation. A constant comparative approach to data analysis was employed. Findings revealed similar conceptualizations and varied, multifaceted responses. Personnel advanced teacher innovation in a supportive and collaborative context as central to providing effective instruction for diverse learners. Disconnects in views of how teachers should build relationships, and partner with students and families to address authentic challenges emerged. Recommendations for enhancing learning opportunities by leveraging experiences and assets of educators, students and families and expanding partnerships are advanced.

Recognizing that academic success is uneven across demographic categories (ODE, 2016; NCES, 2013), and that teachers and students are becoming more demographically dissimilar (NCES, 2013; Toldson & Lemmons, 2013), a diversity forum series was developed to support intentional, collaborative examination of educator perspectives and practices regarding diversity. Members of our school partnerships engaged in dialogue focused on understanding the diversities and responses evident in the school settings. The goal was to support effective linkages between campus-based learning and the experiences and expectations of teacher candidates in the field. Specifically, two research objectives framed the study:

1. To understand how leadership personnel from our partner schools and districts conceptualize and respond to diversity in the educational settings they steward.
2. To understand partner school leaders' perspectives on how the teacher preparation program can enhance teacher candidates' readiness to serve diverse learners.

Context/Participants

Two focus group conversations with school leadership personnel took place as part of a larger Diversity Forum Series with elements for both teacher candidates and school personnel. Two school personnel sessions, each about two hours long, flanked four two-hour diversity forum series conversations for teacher candidates. The first personnel session did not include teacher candidates and served to establish an understanding of what partner school personnel perceive as priority diversity-related issues and responses. Ideas from the first personnel conversation were incorporated into topics discussed in the candidate sessions. Candidate sessions were held across one academic semester to explore candidates' identities, experiences of schooling, and the meanings made diversity-related coursework and field experiences. Helpful and needed supports were also explored. Upon conclusion of the candidate sessions, the second personnel conversation was conducted as a discussion with and teacher candidates. School personnel introduced conceptualizations of diversity, related initiatives, and responded to questions developed by teacher candidates. The school personnel conversations are the focus of this study.

Seven of nine partner districts sent one or more representatives to participate in the school personnel sessions. Both sessions included representatives of schools which displayed variation in their demographic composition. Table 1 summarizes school partner participants by role, title, district and session(s) attended. All names are pseudonyms.

Table 1

Participant Overview

District Type	% Afr Amer	% White	% Econ Disad.	% Special Needs	Participant	Title	Session 1 Participant	Session 2 Participant
Urban	100	NC	100	5	Debra	Superintendent	Y	N (schedule conflict)
Suburban	10	75	75	15	Chris	Department Chair (HS) / Cooperating Teacher	Y	Y
					Allen	Curriculum Director	Y	Y
					Olivia	ESL Coordinator / Cooperating Teacher	Y	Y
					David	HR	Y	
Suburban	20	60	50	15	Richard	HR	Y	N (Sp. Break)
					Otis	Middle School Principal	Y	N (Sp. Break)
Suburban	5	80	35	10	Ryan	Superintendent	Y	
Suburban	5	85	15	10	Susan	Curriculum Director	Y	N (Sp. Break)
					Stacy	ESL Coordinator	Y	
Urban w rural parts	90	5	100	20	Gennifer	HR	Y	Y
					Jeffrey	Principal		Y
Suburban	15	65	55	20	Craig	Superintendent		Y

*Demographic information is rounded to the nearest 5% for confidentiality of district identities

Data Collection and Analysis

Each session was facilitated in a focus group interview style borrowing from methods advanced by Liamputtong (2011). Central features included intentional affordances for interaction between the participants and the facilitator, active listening, and interactions among participants. Sessions were audio recorded and transcribed. Researcher memos, email

communications and informal meeting notes emergent from interactions between sessions were included in the data analysis.

A constant comparative approach to the qualitative analysis of data was employed (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). As data were analyzed, emergent themes informed the research process. Issue focused analysis (Weiss, 1995) and grounded theory (Creswell, 1998) were integrated to inform the approach to qualitative data analysis utilized in this study. Drawing from issue-focused analysis we focused on "what could be learned about specific issues – or events or processes from any and all respondents" (Weiss, 1995, location 2807). Specifically, we sought to understand participants' identification, conceptualization, and responses to diversity issues in education. Issue focused analysis, a method often used with interview data, mirrors grounded theory in that it aims to develop theory based on relationships among sub-themes and experiences revealed through participant data (Weiss, 1995; Creswell, 1998). Four key analytic processes – coding, sorting, local integration, and inclusive integration - lead to the development of a tentative theory of partner schools' diversity practices and how they inform teacher education. Borrowing from grounded theory, we reserved extensive engagement with the academic literature until understandings of the data through constant comparison of new to existing data was conducted.

Findings

Conceptualizations of Diversity

Understanding others and building relationships across differences. Across the two sessions, school personnel identified diversity to be "*…very simplistically, [diversity] is being different." (Otis, Session 1)*. In the personnel only session, a wide range of student diversities were identified by the school leaders. These included ability levels, special needs, giftedness,

longevity within school or district, socioeconomic status, social background, language and country of origin differences, value systems and academic and social goals of families. In the second session, more contemporary diversities were introduced by teacher candidates. These included diversity of gender, sexual orientation, and parenting by students.

Notably, in the first session, the school personnel identified demographic school data as a narrow view of diversity. For example, Debra stated *"our two schools are not diverse, one is 98% African American, the other one is about 87. But that's a real airplane view. What we're finding is that economic diversity has such an impact on our children… by Midwest standards we just automatically it seems think in terms of race, but there's just so much more that's complicating…and exciting"*. Personnel engaged and empathized with one another, often nodding as they offered specific examples of how families and their unique lived experiences shaped their expectations of the teachers and school. One middle school principal stated "*…it really complicates your parent engagement because what's appropriate for someone who is 19 with a 5 year old and really struggling to make ends meet and two college educated parents who have chosen a school for academic rigor"*. In the first session, personnel shared experiences and brainstormed how ideas could be adapted to suit one another's contexts. A common theme revealed was best articulated in Otis's words "*an imperative is that we first accept others' differences and then begin to develop an understanding of them…to provide good instruction… you have to know where folks are coming from…* Allen added, "*…it is that persevering with ongoing relationship building…."*

Another participant shared:

…we are really struggling to find candidates who clearly want to be in urban education, sought the training or the experiences, to prepare them….so we wind up with a lot of people who are

coming from backgrounds very dissimilar to the population and are open to training and sensitizing to get them to have empathy and understanding…it's a big challenge…

Teacher diversity as a social and political risk. In the first session, personnel had articulated consensus that getting to know people was essential to accepting and understanding their diversities. The second session, however, revealed that conceptualizations of particular types of diversity were highly interwoven with political concerns and power relationships. Questions which elicited advice on interactions beginning teachers might have with students and families that would help students develop strategies to succeed academically and socially were met with responses which suggested that getting to know students was a good idea, but that allowing students' knowledge of their teachers' challenges and paths to success was not. For example, the statement "I watch students struggle with trying to balance parenting and consider sharing some of the tips that worked for me as a parenting high-schooler" was met with "if you were a pregnant teen and you made it, I'd caution you not to share your story with your students and families. It could be controversial. Just refer them to the right agencies". When prompted with specific questions from teacher candidates regarding study skills and habits they used to help them be academically successful while experiencing poverty, teacher candidates were cautioned to "not talk about yourself that way". In this way, the acceptance and understanding associated with diversity appeared limited to students/families and/or those diversities which appeared socially and politically safe.

Responses to Student Diversities

Classroom instruction and setting the tone. School personnel described responses to diversity as occurring at several levels. When discussing classroom levels of teacher responses to diversity in the first conversation, personnel emphasized that though teacher approaches may

differ, they centered upon knowledge of learners, commitment to them, hard work and use of effective motivators. Debra's statement mirrored multiple examples provided during this conversation:

> *…lots of different things…extremely different styles, some people are no nonsense they call it the way they see it, the kids really like that honesty and they can get away with that because the kids know that they care about them….other people whose strength is their planning, they keep the kids so engaged with meaningful and creative stuff that, um, they could engage anybody…*

Administrative supports in terms of modeling, providing professional learning opportunities, a supportive context for making mistakes and growing through them and allowing autonomy as long as teachers had sound rationales for their choices were regarded as important contributors to effective teacher responses to diversity.

Responding to diversity beyond the classroom. School personnel also identified responses to diversity occurring at school, district, and community levels. Approaches described included means of getting to know students, their families, and communities to inform differentiation of instruction and relationship formation. School, district, and community approaches centered upon the idea that teachers should "empathize" (Debra), and "meet people where they come from" (Olivia). Building on the ideas shared by the recently responding ESL coordinator and an urban Superintendent respectively, one suburban curriculum director added "respond – understand the family – respond to the family, not just empathize, differentiate your approach, respond to the differences that the kids bring to the table" (Susan).

To make these goals a reality, one superintendent shared that teacher pairs make home visits to the students' households, "informally, to have conversation and learn about the family",

another participant described a peer mentorship program which occurs at the whole-school level. This program enables students to get to know one another and to develop positive relationships with students who may be perceived as different from them. The program has resulted in students tutoring one another, reductions in bullying, and a more positive school climate. One teacher shared a schoolwide initiative by the school guidance department to respond to challenges associated with student diversities:

> *…there's an assembly every month and they're addressing all of these different things that relate to indirectly to bullying but also directly to kids backgrounds, support of our No Excuses University you could be the first one to go to college, there are other opportunities beyond [district name] city limits (Olivia)*

Community involvement was also articulated as an important way of responding to diversity. One ESL coordinator shared the importance of being involved in the community beyond teachers' own personal interests – attending a wide range of community events and allowing students to see you as "a real human, a member of the community that acknowledges them and is glad to see them outside of school". Building on this theme, others added that allowing students to incorporate their outside interests such as their sports, hobbies, and religious endeavors into coursework and interactions with teachers and peers helps to build motivation, interest and connection to subjects that students might not otherwise have commitment to. For example, in the second session, one teacher shared that he uses a survey at the beginning of the year to gain information about the students that can be related into the course content and incorporated into lessons. In the first conversation, one local superintendent shared that the due to changes in local businesses and the economy, his rural community has changed significantly. "Though most of the teachers within the district originally came from the district, it is important to stay involved

with the community across the career span to be aware of new advantages and pressures faced by students and families" (Ryan).

District wide initiatives to address diversity by building community among students and their teachers and making high quality instruction accessible were also shared. Technology policies and resources were shared as ways of addressing student diversities by leveling the playing field across levels of economic diversity. Several participating districts shared 1-to-1 laptop arrangements, online texts, and other resources available to reduce costs to students across their districts. One Superintendent shared a district-wide foundation for instruction and interaction based on developmental assets. All students and teachers within the district are trained on the developmental assets and a different asset is a focus each week. The assets address supports, empowerment, boundaries and expectations, use of time, commitment to learning, positive values, social competencies, positive identity, self-discipline and grit. All school personnel agreed that even with programs and policies in place, it is most important for teachers to know their students, families and communities and to make well- reasoned decisions to advance student learning.

Responding to diversity as an ongoing process. Notably across the sessions, school personnel regarded effective responses to diversity as an ongoing process. Two participant statements summarized the overarching sentiment: "be flexible…know that if it is not working you need to be open to new ideas or trying new things before you find success (Ryan)". Another echoed: "…one size does not fit all …it is something that is ongoing, you never get there…you have to keep working toward it(Gennifer).

In the second session, all but one personnel participant expressed a goal related to improving responses to diversity. Themes centered upon interacting with students as

individuals/differentiation and relationship building (Gennifer), attending more to the celebration of successes (Allen), positioning the address of diversity as an ongoing process (multiple), and maintaining attention to racial diversity as conceptualizations of diversity are expanded (Jeffrey). The participant who did not express a goal shared that he had no concerns or questions related to diversity and cited the district wide adoption of a developmental assets framework which incorporates a focus on relationships as a key contributor to the effective address of diversity implemented within his district.

Preparing Teacher Candidates to Effectively Respond to Diversity

Discussion of perspectives on how teacher candidates could best become prepared to effectively teach diverse learners evidenced the school leaders' shared belief that effective teacher preparation for diversity centered upon actions of three groups – teacher preparation programs, p-12 school settings, and teacher candidates themselves. Across these categories, increased variation of school based experiences, heightened community interaction, and cultivation of beneficial habits of mind were regarded as important priorities.

School-based experiences. In relation to the field placements, suggestions focused on timing and variation of experiences. Jeffrey articulated the multiple field placements offered is one way that the university "is very careful to make sure their students have a lot of diversity experience…a point of success". Chris also commented on program structure stating "the importance of teacher candidates experiencing the beginning of the school year even when it does not coincide with the start of the university term…to experience how relationships, classroom culture and student/teacher interactions begin". A suggestion was advanced that greater flexibility regarding teacher candidates course schedules may be needed:

> *…the structure limits a lot of our kids' ability to say hey, stay there get involved figure it out before school, after school but their coursework and the classwork doesn't really align that well for them to have those other experiences we know would really help them. To sit in on some of those parent teacher conferences, to sit in on an IEP meeting, sit in on an IAT meeting…*

Adding to the theme of increased flexibility and variation of school-based experiences, Chris stated:

> *…I teach honors and AP kids so that might be something that they are unfamiliar with, but that might be another piece that helps solve the puzzle…they need to spend a day with a special ed teacher, they need to spend you know, sometime in an inclusion room, they need to spend some time in the ESL room. I think maybe putting a piece in there where they, like you say, they have to spend a day in a setting that is not their classroom setting. But I think doing it in that same school gives you a little, a little familiarity.*

An HR director agreed that teacher candidates should see varied learning environments, but highlighted differences in the quality of teacher practice. "It is important for them to see inclusion done *well*, not just done. That experience of seeing inclusion at its best gives a good foundation for teaching diverse learners in a way where everyone is valued".

Collaborative cooperating teachers and other school leaders were identified for their potential as resources to beginning teachers and teacher candidates. Discussing the variation of experiences, Chris introduced the importance of cooperating teachers' thinking about student teacher learning beyond their own classroom:

> *"…some of it from a student [teacher]'s point of view is that they don't know it's there, they don't know what to ask for…if they don't know what IAT is, they're not going to know to ask for that… see how an inclusion room goes, I can make that happen.*

Recognizing that cooperating teachers may demonstrate differing levels of ability with explaining their rationales for the practices they enact, and that future teachers may have varying levels of comfort with interrupting cooperating teachers to ask questions, one teacher candidate suggested that future teachers could contribute to questionnaire items or surveys administered to students at the beginning of the school year under the guidance of their course faculty. This idea was welcomed by the school personnel as a way to promote dialogue about student differences between cooperating teachers and the future teachers placed in their classrooms.

Community interaction. Heightened community interaction both during and after formal teacher preparation was suggested by school personnel. Innovation on the part of the university was highlighted as a contributor to deep teacher candidate learning. One administrator described her own experience of becoming a teacher –

> *…as a college freshman in 1969….there were race riots in Dayton…. we would live with a family in a housing project we [also] had to be in a very isolated farm community for one of our rotations. We had to study dialect and its relationship to the pragmatics of language and how people communicate….I learned a lot living at [housing project name] for two weeks.*

Olivia suggested that teacher candidates should "observe different types of cultural environments, within and beyond the classroom, see what's going on and learn about many different types of populations". A Superintendent re-iterated the importance of home visits or at least meeting with families:

> *Sometimes the parents don't want us in their homes, sometimes they met us at Wendy's but rarely do we get turned away…also do a tour of the neighborhood and have some people come in who work with substance abuse and community based mental health how hard it is for families to access this...what's it like if you use the services of the food bank. For our out of the culture teachers, it is very eye opening. And when I say out of the culture I don't mean just race. Some of our teachers who look like our students had such dissimilar background.*

Notably only one school personnel participant mentioned the importance of community and home visits as a way to identify and leverage the resources that the students and their families bring to the school rather than to understand their hardships. One ESL Coordinator stated "getting involved with the families and the community is so important. It is how I get great translators, how I learn about what means something in the students' cultures, and who the important members of the community to bring in that the kids can relate to are".

Habits of mind. Cultivation of beneficial habits of mind in teacher candidates was also suggested as a way to steward effective teacher responses to student diversities. Most school personnel advocated for an inquiring stance by teacher candidates – "a willingness to experience what the students and communities bring, and a willingness to learn from and alongside students as they teach them" (Jeffrey). Several school personnel commented on the supports teacher candidates may need to cultivate inquiring and open habits of mind. Statements by school personnel mirrored the requests candidates made during their own sessions, in which they articulated needs for help in establishing their roles within the classroom, scaffolds toward engaging with parents, more modeling of how to get to know students, and safe opportunities to unpack "confusing" experiences without being judged. In the second session, mentorship by

cooperating teachers and formal post-hire mentoring programs were discussed as available supports within each district. In contrast, one Superintendent placed the onus of cultivating appropriate initiative on the teacher candidates and teacher education programs stating:

> *Be a doer as contrasted with being an observer…. what if you walk in and your cooperating teacher is busy watch and see what they're doing and figure out what's the goal, what's your objective for being there, is it to observe?… get in and do something…*

Notably absent from this discussion was conversation surrounding how differences among cooperating teachers' performance might be supported by professional development offered by the school or university. In response to a teacher candidates' request for a meet and greet style set of informal interactions with potential cooperating teachers, it was suggested that teacher candidates enter the field setting with "Activities to ask about, things to do … [which] can really make a big difference".

Despite disagreement among the school personnel about how teacher candidates should become self-starters with high expectations of themselves and their students, they all agreed that initiative and high expectations were important. One statement by a district Superintendent aptly summarized the group's perspective on the value of holding high expectations:

> *…the most insidious form of racism, classism or whatever is low expectations. I'm not saying just put high expectations and don't give any supports to the table, but I would want teachers to have uncompromising high expectations, coupled with all that flexibility and other things. Because when we look at someone and size them up and sell them short and lie to their parents about where they are, it just promotes a system*

of haves and have nots and we see so much of that by the time our students get to high school.

Discussion and Conclusions

Analysis of the school personnel diversity conversations led to a tentative theory of partner schools' diversity practices and how they inform teacher education. Practices of partner districts evidence many strategies recommended within the academic literature and simultaneously offer opportunities for continued growth. Much research advocates relationship building and learning about students and families (Cammarota, Moll, Gonzalez, & Cannella, 2013; Costello, Wachtel & Wachtel, 2010; Smith, Fisher, & Frey, 2015). Relationship building and cultivating understandings are central to each school partner's response to diversity. Responses to diversity may be strengthened by attending to faculty diversities, learning about and leveraging *assets* of students and families and expanding networks which contribute to mutual learning and support across stakeholder groups.

Leverage Faculty Diversities in Relationship Building and Student Support

NCES data identify teachers and students as becoming more demographically different in recent years (NCES, 2013). Several personnel statements appeared to echo the idea that faculty and students may come from very different backgrounds. In keeping recommendations by Nieto (2005) partner school personnel aim to form "relations of trust built on understandings, particularly when teachers instruct students who are 'vastly different from them in terms of background and experience'" p. 7. Whereas professional development offerings are made available to school faculty, preservice and practicing educators' experiential knowledge which may strengthen academic and social trajectories of diverse learners remains unknown and

potentially untapped. As recommended by Rosebery & Warren, 2008 teachers are encouraged to respect and taking an interest in the students and their experiences and to make content connections tied to high expectations for academic learning.

Educator sharing of their own experiential learning with students and families may support their capacity to build relationships and enhance student learning. hooks (2010) asserts that "Story, especially personal story, is one of those powerful ways to educate to create community in a classroom….it is important to a learning community to dismantle unnecessary hierarchies" p. 56. Bandura (1977; 1997) advances verbal persuasion and vicarious modeling as among four essential contributors to self-efficacy development. When students see their teachers as caring enough to share their story in a supportive and helping context increased commitment to the community and learning are promoted.

Leverage the Assets of Students and Families

Each school partner shared methods of learning about students and their families. Assignments rooted in students' lives outside of school and home visits are among research-based practices identified as essential to building understandings of diverse learners (Moll, Gonzalez, Amanti and Neff, 1992). Language used and perspectives taken regarding students' and their families contributes greatly to students perceptions of community at school. Students and their families hold funds of knowledge – "historically and culturally developed bodies of knowledge and skills essential to household or individual functioning" (Moll, Gonzalez, Amanti & Neff, 1992, p. 133) which can be leveraged in support of diverse learners' academic pursuits. Importantly, students and families should be viewed as partners toward progress at school. One

participant specifically mentioned families as an asset to educational outcomes. Identification and utilization of family and community strengths should be expanded.

Expand Teacher education Partnerships beyond Hierarchal Boundaries

Teacher decision-making was consistently highly regarded across all participants. This offers an appropriate entry point for both personnel and teacher candidate learning in community. Bishop asserts, "…an appreciation of relational dynamics without an attendant analysis of power balances, as in many liberal multicultural approaches, can promote professional development that emphasizes ways of "relating to" and "connecting with" students of other cultures without there being a means whereby teachers can understand, internalize, and work towards changing the power imbalances of which they are a part" (2010, p. 67). Building relational bridges across the categories of students, parents, teacher candidates, and practicing teachers may yield an expansive community of practice focused on building capacity to include and meaningfully educate diverse learners.

Communities of practice engage in collective learning by attending to both the pursuit of shared enterprises and attendant social relations (Wenger, 1998). The brainstorming, advancing of questions, sharing of stories, proposal of solutions, and spirit of partnership recognizable in the first personnel session is characteristic of an effective community of practice. Teacher candidates, parents, and cooperating teachers share the interest in promoting effective learning environments for diverse learners, and thus are identifiable as sharing the domain of interest. Members of the community may emerge from distinct settings each bear belief systems, priorities and professional actions stemming from their primary setting, these potential constraints are mitigated by the shared domain of interest (Wenger, McDermott, & Snyder,

2002). A "well-developed domain becomes a statement of what knowledge the community will steward….is a commitment to take responsibility for an area of expertise and to provide the organization[s] with the best knowledge and skills that can be found" (Wenger, McDermott, & Snyder, 2002, p. 32). As advanced at each session, distinct groups, teachers, teacher candidates, and parents each hold unique knowledge of students and communities that can be leveraged in partnership to support student learning. Moll, Gonzalez, Amanti and Neff (1992) utilized a research and professional development approach which blended ethnographic analysis of household dynamics, examination of classroom practices and engagement in study groups to share developing understandings and develop ethnographically informed classroom practices. Incorporation of such strategies across school stakeholders holds promise to further improve upon current teacher education offerings

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Helping Pre-Service Content-Area Teachers to See Themselves As Teachers of Writing

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Abstract:

In this paper, we experimented with a writers' workshop with pre-service content-area teachers to assess its impact on writers' attitudes. Three classes of Education majors (n=92) were administered a survey to gauge attitudes towards writing. Next, in a smaller group of two classes (47 students) we introduced a writers' workshop, gave a detailed test of writing attitudes both before and after the writers' workshop, along with a content analysis of those students' portfolio self assessments. In the survey, a majority of education majors reported a negative experience with writing. For those part of the writers' workshop, students scored higher on several dimensions of writer enjoyment, confidence, and evaluation - the content analysis of the portfolios supported those findings.

Students get insight into teaching writing in their content areas through their *general education* and subject-*specific college classes* **and** *teacher preparation classes*. Our Education majors complain that college-level writing "success" varies from class to class by uneven grading and more correction than explanation of how to grasp and perfect content area papers. We have found our future teachers too often replace the idea of becoming effective writers with that of becoming "just good enough" to get a teaching license. Indeed, it seems that for many teacher-candidates, the rules for successful writing are, in great measure a moving target, as different content genres have different rules, which are often not made explicit.

For example, one English major teacher candidate complained that a required paper on "a personal experience" had been marked down for being "sentimental." Not once in classes had she heard the rule to avoid sentimentality, she complained. "How would I have known?"

A science major grumbled that the addition of personal commentary into his report lowered his score, but only after the paper had been returned with no chance to rewrite it. One mathematics student protested that the only writing she had done in mathematics occurred with a research paper assignment and that did nothing to help her study discipline-related writing to help her own future students with content or mathematics discourse.

With too few instructors using rubrics to help clarify genre components and little explicit teaching of content-area writing for secondary teachers, many future teachers follow a pattern of "correcting writing" as their papers had been corrected, rather than actually teaching writing or finding ways to help their own students become better writers.

Although there has been a push to include content-area literacy in the general college curriculum, there is still not much written on best practices for teaching pre-practicum education students about how to teach writing (James, 2011). We are also lacking meaningful direct instruction in the specific values and structures of discipline specific writing (Gritter, 2010). General literacy practices do not always match those of specific subject areas. Students do not always have access to the practices and values of the experts in specific fields such as science, history or English Literature (Gritter, 2010; an important exception to this is a forthcoming series from Oxford University Press "Oxford Brief Guides to Writing in the Disciplines" edited by Mya Poe and Thomas Deans).

The widespread negative experiences with and lack of direct instruction in subject-specific writing is particularly worrisome in the case of secondary content-area teachers. Writing scholars have long maintained that teachers ought to be aware of their own relationship to writing and have frequent and ongoing practice with it (Graves, 1983; Atwell, 1998, Elbow,

2009). Norman & Spencer (2005) maintain that those pre-service teachers who have negative feelings about and experiences with writing are not as successful at teaching writing as those who have a more positive relationship. With national and state educational standards for each of the content areas now explicitly referring to written literacy, the importance of better prepared teachers is especially crucial.

To address the problems we have outlined above, we have tested out a writing workshop with pre-service content-area teachers. The writers' workshop was designed to address the lack of positive experience students had recently with writing. The article begins with the results of a survey we administered to three classes of Education majors (n=92) at two private college in the Northeast to assess overall attitudes towards writing. Next we report on the impact of the writer's workshop had on those attitudes through a more detailed test of writing attitudes to just two of those classes (n=47), accompanied by a content analysis of those students' portfolio self assessments. The article concludes with some reflections on the research and recommendations for teacher education practice and research.

Establishing a Positive Relationship with Writing

Content-area pre-teachers need the opportunity to reconnect with writing in a positive way. Our own students frequently give voice to the idea that academic writing has become intimidating and lessened the confidence they had felt in high school and before. The pre-service teachers we asked (n=92) in a three-question open-response survey described feeling inadequate in regard to college academic writing (80%), and reported generally negative experiences with college writing (80%), citing memories of biting teacher comments and unclear expectations and constraints in academic papers.

> "Reading and writing were enjoyable during these early years. It was something I did by choice.... As young children we have this freedom, as we have yet to enter the world of "required reading" and "essay topics."
> (History teacher-candidate)

> "Writing in elementary school was a way for me to write my way into another world.... I often would write of visiting some fantasy land of unicorns and faeries. (My teacher) ended up laminating the poems and she made it into a whole book that she ended up keeping in her class room for a long time... It was probably the only time that I felt that my writing ended up meaning anything to anyone else. My dislike for writing grew exponentially over the course of my high school career. (Math teacher-candidate)

These teacher candidates' stories are stories of loss. This relationship to writing does not set the stage for becoming teachers who share an enthusiasm for content area writing or who will use writing as a frequent and positive learning tool. People uncomfortable with writing tend to avoid it. "...teachers of writing must write: ... their authority as teachers of writing must be grounded on their own personal experience as writers—as persons who know first hand the struggles and satisfactions of the writer's task" (Blau, 1988, pg. 31).

Learning to "Write the Write" in Subject-Areas

Different academic fields have particular discourse styles for required genres. Each "discourse community" has both implicit and explicit rules for writing. In academic discourse communities, as in other discourse communities, there is disagreement, dissent and change:

discourse communities are dynamic. Swales (1990) definition of discourses communities as a broadly agreed upon set of common goals with **its own** mechanisms of intercommunication among its members is helpful for content area teachers to remember.

Swales adds that each discourse community has provides information and feedback in its own way and utilizes various genres to further its aims. The discourse of any community or content area allows members to both be recognized as a member and to participate more fully as a member. (24-27)

Subject-area teachers need to be able to write in a competent fashion as recognized by their discourse community and to be able to teach their students to do so, also, they should bring a confidence and fervor for the task that is not possible when one fears or feels inadequate in the undertaking. Most of the content-area teachers in our classes have reported that they have had little to no direct instruction in regard to writing in their content area. Only ten percent of students said that they learned about writing in their content area from observing their own teachers and trying to draw out of their behavior and language what they valued. Some responses given when surveyed as to their preparation for teaching writing in their field were as follows:

> **Mathematics teacher-candidate**: "None, but I have written two papers in mathematics and simply handed them in and never saw them again."
>
> **English teacher candidate**: "I have had no training in how to teach, design, or correct writing assignments. I am not prepared to teach writing."
>
> **Spanish teacher-candidate**: I feel "fearful, overwhelmed and nervous (about teaching content writing). I do not have this type of preparation."

Science teacher-candidate: In the sciences we were not formally prepared to teach writing. It is 'assumed' that the student should already know how to write."

The student who reported learning to teach writing by observing teachers seemed to speak for many. We do learn the values of our communities from approximating the behaviors of our mentors; however, a more purposeful, focused process where professors speak directly about what they are looking for in writing could be more supportive, effective and far-reaching.

Our informal discussions and surveys with students have convinced us that professors seldom explicitly ask students to thoroughly examine the craft of writing in genres required in content subject areas. Most assume students know or should know that information beforehand. Some students, such as those mentioned above, have figured-out that the way to learn these values is to observe the teachers and try to piece together the underlying inexplicit rules. In our experience, this does not appear to be working well. Rather, the more teachers articulate the underlying assumptions and values that make up the discourse community, the better they can communicate to students how to write, teach, and encourage successful writing in that area.

In a seminal study of college students and their writing across the curriculum, Chiseri-Strater (1991) found that college content area teachers expected particular elements in students' papers and were very disappointed when did not appear. For example, when required to "contrast two sculptures" one student wrote too much detail about one of the pieces of art. The student relied on general strategies for writing she had learned in college writing, making connections between the artist's life and work, and describing and analyzing the details of the work. Chiseri-Strater's explains the Professor reaction: She was looking for generalizations drawn from visual detail, but not lots of visual detail. She responded, "Instead of all this

detail…you need to discuss the development of the sculptured environment." The professor had given her students a hint of what she was looking for: "I'm interested in philosophical issues rather than a visual or aesthetic approach. If you begin with the color-field artists and the abstract expressionists and think what happened next, you will probably come up with the format of the exam." (66), but without direct explication of her statements or models exemplifying these characteristics, her students did not really internalize what she was looking for. Chiseri-Strater sees the problem as the need to "disclose a way of thinking about art history that many students were not understanding, and synthesizing the materials in her course." Because the student had been a competent writer in college writing, Chiseri-Strater concluded that her problem was "not the result of deficient skills but rather the result of the new context and language in the field…" (69).

Pre-service teachers need to be familiar with the values of their discourse community. They need not only practice writing in the genres, but explicit understanding and training in articulating what makes a good paper in the field. They also need to develop strategies for passing along that knowledge directly to their students.

Writers' Workshop

We implemented the writers' workshop with a different set of 47 pre-service subject-area teachers in two "Teaching Literacy in the Content Area" classes. Of the junior-year students, 42 identified as European American, one identified as African-American, and the other four chose not to identify. There were 33 females and 14 males in the classes.

We ran two rounds of writers' workshop based on the style of workshop advocated by those who have come to be associated with the writers' workshop movement (Elbow, Macrorie, Atwell). The writing workshop included freewriting, peer response, self-assessment, revision,

self assessment, peer response, and final drafts. The topics for writing were open. The plan was for students to spend three class periods on these tasks, and to do some writing and revising outside of class. After one round of workshopping, we asked students if they wanted to continue with the second writing assignment and workshop. They voted to have the second round, but to shorten it by one class period.

Evaluation of Student Attitudes Towards Writing

The Daly-Miller Apprehension Test[1] was administered at the beginning of the writers' workshop and at the end of the writers' workshop (see Appendix 1 for a list of the test's questions). The results were examined, test-wide, and for changes in individual questions. Descriptive statistics were run using SPSS and a one-sample t-test was used to understand if the differences, pre- and post-Writer's Workshop were statistically significant at the 90% confidence level. In addition, an introductory statement that all students wrote for their end-of-semester portfolios were coded (using content analysis) to note any changes in writing identity.[2]

Findings

Daly-Miller Apprehension Test

While there were no statistically significant changes in students' overall score on the Daly-Miller Apprehension test (see Table 1), there were changes in some individual questions on the survey. For the following, changes from before and after the writers' workshop were statistically significant at the 90% confidence level. Questions associated with the writing process being "fun" and "enjoyable" showed positive change for a majority of those surveyed. These were "I enjoy writing" (Q15), and "Writing is a lot of fun" (Q17). Regarding

[1] The Daly-Miller Apprehension test is widely used to measure students' apprehension, self-esteem, and personality (Daly and Miller 1983; Lavelle & Guarino 2003).
[2] The method employed borrowed from a similar study of college students (Author 2010).

the commonly held fear of evaluation, students showed a slight improvement from before and after the writers' workshop: "I am afraid of writing essays when I know they will be evaluated" (Q4). Lastly, students demonstrated improvements in their views of how others respond (in a non-evaluative sense) to their writing: "People seem to enjoy what I write" (Q14) and "I never seem to be able to write my ideas down clearly" (Q16).

	Test Value = 0					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	90% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Q1DIFF	-.717	40	.478	-.03496	-.1171	.0472
Q2DIFF	-1.601	40	.117	-.14756	-.3028	.0077
Q3DIFF	.342	40	.734	.01626	-.0638	.0964
Q4DIFF	**-1.800**	**39**	**.080**	**-.08083**	**-.1565**	**-.0052**
Q5DIFF	-.097	40	.923	-.00528	-.0966	.0860
Q6DIFF	.624	40	.536	.02764	-.0470	.1023
Q7DIFF	.129	40	.898	.00854	-.1029	.1200
Q8DIFF	-1.270	40	.211	-.04187	-.0974	.0136
Q9DIFF	-1.464	40	.151	-.17683	-.3802	.0265
Q10DIFF	-1.462	40	.151	-.10285	-.2213	.0156
Q11DIFF	.143	40	.887	.00772	-.0829	.0984
Q12DIFF	.264	40	.793	.01585	-.0853	.1170
Q13DIFF	-.903	40	.372	-.03252	-.0931	.0281
Q14DIFF	**1.801**	**39**	**.079**	**.06458**	**.0042**	**.1250**
Q15DIFF	**2.185**	**40**	**.035**	**.10935**	**.0251**	**.1936**
Q16DIFF	**-1.950**	**40**	**.058**	**-.05894**	**-.1098**	**-.0081**
Q17DIFF	**2.691**	**40**	**.010**	**.10041**	**.0376**	**.1632**
Q18DIFF	.784	40	.438	.07927	-.0910	.2495
Q19DIFF	-.296	39	.769	-.01417	-.0949	.0666
Q20DIFF	1.546	40	.130	.06098	-.0054	.1274
Q21DIFF	.665	40	.510	.03130	-.0480	.1106
Q22DIFF	-.664	40	.510	-.01911	-.0676	.0293
Q23DIFF	.261	40	.796	.01667	-.0910	.1243
Q24DIFF	.328	40	.745	.01585	-.0655	.0972
Q25DIFF	-.702	40	.487	-.02886	-.0981	.0403
Q26DIFF	-1.192	40	.240	-.03740	-.0902	.0154

Table 1: Change in Writing Assessment Scores, Pre- and Post-Writer's Workshop (One-Sample T-Test)

In Table 1, the five Daly-Miller questions where a statistically significant change occurred are presented in bold. While test-wide, students did not have statistically changes in their scores, it is worth emphasizing that the only statistically significant changes were in those five individual questions and they all changed in a direction indicating improvements to writer identity.

Portfolio Self Assessment

The portfolio self assessments students wrote echoed the enjoyable aspects of writing mentioned above. Thirty-two students out of 43 indicated positive experience with the writing they did. Twenty-one talked about the experience as ‘enjoyable” or “fun.” Eight specifically referred to reconnecting with the enjoyable and productive aspects of writing. Three talked about both “enjoyment” and “reconnection.”

In the portfolio assessments students spoke about most often as writing as a “process” (n=21). They talked about writing as “therapy” (n=8) and writing as personal expression (n=7). Eight students talked about writing as in a mixture of ways including the above ways. And seven students made connections between writing and subject matter teaching.

Conclusion

This study has attempted to study the value of writers’ workshops as a teaching methods for pre-service subject area teachers as they prepare to teach writing in their subject area. Writers’ workshop has been suggested by feedback from current and past pre-service teachers about their preparation to teach writing in their subject area. The writers’ workshop addressed students’ lack of experience and connection with the writing process.

The results of this study show how the writers’ workshop as having at least some value for pre-service subject area teachers. The writing workshop appeared to have a positive effect on

students' relationship with the fun and enjoyable aspects of personal writing, assuaged students' fear of evaluation, and enhanced their confidence around how their writing in perceived. Those results were confirmed through a content analysis of students' self assessments, where some of the same positive responses to writing captured in the Daly-Miller test were replicated.

As we strive to help pre-service subject-area teachers with their role as writing teacher, we hope that teacher educators will continue to research writers' workshop and content-area literacy values exploration for their possible contribution to the subject-area teachers' preparation for content area literacy instruction.

Literacy educators have worked hard to highlight the importance of teaching writing in all subject areas. Standards for the subject areas reflect this work. It is not enough however to just mandate this way of thinking about literacy and content areas. Pre-service teacher education and professional development programs, must support and equip content-area teachers with actual strategies that help them teach and practice writing needed in the content classes they, themselves, will teach.

The aim of the paper is to further the conversation about how to best prepare content-area teacher in regard to the writing they will require in their own classrooms. We understand that in order to be dynamic and fruitful, the conversation must be extended and we invite our colleagues to add to and critically reflect on the strategies and ideas we have presented.

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Eat and Learn: Food as a Semiotic Resource to Promote Cultural Understanding

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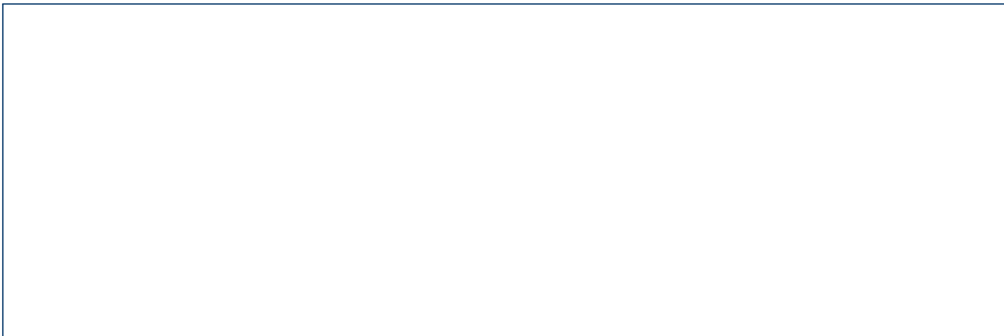
Abstract:



Food holds power and symbolism in all environments that encompass people. Business negotiations are conducted over lunch or dinner; people chat over coffee at a nearby Starbucks and children eat lunch at school. In fact, children at school are impacted by the way food is presented to them, whether it be through school lunch programs, snacks passed out in classrooms, peers sharing treats, or official school parties and ceremonies (Briefal et al., 2009; Nukaga, 2008; Karrebæk, 2014). There are significant issues with the inequality of food distributed in US schools; there is a disparity in the nutritional value of foods that middle and upper class mainstream children consume, as opposed to the less healthy foods that poor and/or non-mainstream children eat. School based meal programs began in 1966 and from the beginning; scholars have debated the pros and cons of these programs (Armario, 2015; Briefal et al., 2009). However, food, like language is a semiotic resource that is never neutral (Appelbaum, 2006; Fischler, 1988). Students use food at school to negotiate social networks and to establish power (Nukaga, 2008; Maurice, 2015).

Culture and food are interconnected. As our school population steadily increases with students from culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) backgrounds, teachers have the opportunity to think of the use of food as a culturally responsive pedagogical practice which can intrinsically connect and motivate students. We agree that food can be utilized as a way to teach about health and celebrations but also food is a formidable instrument to promote acceptance and cultural understanding in the K-12 classroom. Because schools are powerful socializing agents for young people, especially non-mainstream youth (Heath, 1986), teachers and peers influence not only what children eat in school, but also how they feel about the ethnic or unfamiliar foods, eating utensils, table manners or consumption patterns, and, as a result, about different cultures and their values (Torralba & Guidalli, 2015). Because of that power, we propose that K-12 teachers actively make use of food not simply as a conduit to meet state standards, or to feed children healthy meals, but also as a vehicle to promote the acceptance of cultural diversity in the K-12 classroom.

We assert that food heritage is a social construction and students of all ages have agency in this process (Bessière, 1998; Baeta Neves Flores, 1995). Ideas about one's food heritage as a member of a group or community are transmitted by adults to children, *and* by children to their peers. By using food as a central topic of discussion and research in the K-12 classroom, instructors can teach acceptance for other cultures by presenting different food traditions and norms in an academic format. More than ever before, a cultural acceptance mindset is crucial for today's multicultural classrooms and globalized world.

Food from a global perspective

Scholars have focused on food and culture for a long time. Food, like language, is central to our sense of both individual and collective identity. For example, in 1921 the anthropologist Franz Boas wrote a treatise concerning how the Indigenous Kwakiutl prepared salmon. His work and that of other anthropologists after him have shown that the way any given human group eats helps it define and assert its diversity, hierarchy and organization. At the same time, this pattern reflects both its oneness and the otherness of whoever eats differently (Fischler, 1988).

Sociologists Bourdieu and Passeron (1979) have outlined various social norms governing eating, showing that economics and politics factor into seemingly mundane food choices. Clearly, like language, how people respond and interact with food is extremely complex. But unlike language, where sounds have never been traced conclusively to biological or environmental factors, food possesses a biological aspect that is tied to the cultural group that consumes it. Culural groups decide the nutritional and symbolic functions of the food they consume. Here, however, as with language, food symbolism links a member to the collective.

Bourdieu (1979) asserts that "tastes" are socially constructed and differentiated, including normative sets of practices ("popular" taste, "bourgeois" taste, etc.). This concept is pivotal, because within a school setting, what students eat can determine the kinds of relationships they have with their peers (Nukaga, 2008). Some researchers have studied identity formation in terms of the food choices made within ethnic groups, i.e. Latinos, African Americans and Whites (Devine, Sobal, Bisogni, & Connors, 1999). For schoolchildren, if their food is not considered “acceptable” by the group, they will not feel accepted (Karrebæk, 2014). Sociologists have also reflected upon how social and cultural conditions may generate elaborate

forms of culinary art (Goody, 1982); such culinary differences could be used in classrooms to support a love of diversity. Still other scholars have found relationships between the rise of food systems, such as sugar, and a nation's economic and political systems (Minz, 1985). Some have explored the relationship between food scarcity and war (Ember & Ember, 1994). Such topics are relevant to helping mainstream students understand the historic, political and economic conditions that explain the immigration of students whose families come to the US in order to escape negative circumstances or take advantage of opportunities.

Eating a meal together with someone is a social institution and is the heart of sociality, but in terms of social class and culture many differences exist among young people regarding eating modes and attitudes (Danesi, 2014). Certainly, food is ubiquitous in the K-12 classroom and it has impact upon student health, individual sense of self, and the way young people relate to their environment (Weaver-Hightower, 2011). Teachers express concern over food brought into classrooms or about the kinds of food that parents pack for their children's lunches (Karrebæk, 2014). Local journalists and parents have debated the pros and cons of treats and sweets in the classroom (Coyne, 2012; Moore, 2013). Some European researchers have focused on the ways in which food is perceived as a way to assimilate non-mainstream children into the dominant culture (Karrebæk, 2014); others have explored how students use food to build social networks (Nukaga, 2008). Researchers have investigated the impact of proper nutrition on K-12 students (Van Wye, Seoh, Adjoian, & Dowell, 2013); lowered nutritional standards of Indigenous and non-mainstream children (Arcan et al., 2013); and the rise of obesity in children worldwide (Isoldi et al., 2012). Scholars have also noted that teacher food preferences and habits impact their students (Arcan et al., 2013; Kubik et al., 2002).

Leila Harris (2013), an educator from North West London promotes positive student health at school by examining food holistically. She advocates for student trips to local farms and the development of student managed gardens so that young students can experience authentic learning about food production, both plant and animal.

In regard to children and adults, the symbolic use of food cannot be underestimated. Food cultures we see in schools, in cafes, and in homes, are created through everyday practices (Boni, 2015). In these seemingly mundane *foodscapes* "the physical, organizational and socio-cultural spaces in which clients/guests encounter meals, and food-related issues, including health related messages" (Mikkelsen, 2011: 215) complex negotiations occur. Significantly, children have agency in transacting such negotiations (Torralba & Guidalli, 2015). Finally, the food we eat tells us who we are; in schools, the food presented tells children about the dominant culture's ideas of acceptability (Karrebæk, 2014). In sum, food usage has great political influence on how children view themselves in relation to others, especially others from different cultures and linguistic groups. We advocate employing the topic of food in as many content areas as possible, by studying food from an academic perspective, and by using this subject matter to promote acceptance and respect for cultural diversity.

Engage students with food study

Culturally responsive pedagogy enhances the learning experiences of CLD students by focusing on their cultural knowledge, prior experiences, frames of reference and performance styles. Effective teachers learn about the cultures represented in their classrooms and use this knowledge into inform instruction (Gay, 2010). The topic of food is a universal common concept to all cultures, an authentic way to integrate content. Utilizing food topics in a deliberate and systematic manner not only creates a warm and respectful environment in the classroom (Torres-

Velasquez & Lobo, 2005), but also can foster PK-12 students' cross-cultural understanding in a significant way. The depth of study, of course, depends upon grade levels. For example, for preschoolers, touching , tasting and talking about food may be enough to promote sharing and positive emotions towards differences in foodstuffs. But for older students, the study of food provides for authentic integration of content, concepts and processes across disciplines. Students can study food in social studies and language arts by examining prose, poetry and traveler's tales. In addition, we urge teachers to make use of visual arts i.e. photographs, films, and documentaries, as well as primary sources connected to food such as those displayed in museum exhibits with prehistoric paintings, ceramics and artifacts from different cultures or field trips to local ethnic markets, bakeries and restaurants.

Teachers often do not recognize the impact of their own biases in their interactions with their CLD students. While diversity itself is not a problem, the potential cultural mismatch between teachers and CLD students is often an issue (Dray & Wisneski, 2011). Including food and related materials in the instruction allows for readings and discussions from multiple perspectives which not only reinforce critical literacy skills, but allow for open dialogue where similarities and differences are acknowledged in a safe environment (Tharp, Estrada, Dalton, &Yamauchi, 2000).We urge teachers to have students collect and bring to class examples of material food culture from their home lives. This includes family cookbooks and recipes, cooking tools; any kind of food artifact. Teachers can collect and display materials on historic, archaeological, and cultural topics by sourcing various food-related magazines. All these resources establish a way to build background knowledge about food, while providing opportunities for students to develop critical skills for 21st century learning, (e.g. collaboration, creativity, problem solving and critical thinking) in sharing and discussing different ways food is

prepared and consumed. Mowell (2003) suggests that geography classes write recipes according students' homelands and prepare these foods in class; using Appadurai (1988) as a model, high school students could analyze and write essays on the ways national cuisines are created.

Culturally responsive practices shift the focus from a teacher centered curriculum to a student centered one (Gay, 2010). The emphasis then is on infusing culturally responsive instruction with food as the theme. This can be through assignments and projects which demonstrate meaningful learning, not only of content but also multicultural competence. A middle school to high school level project could be to focus on practical food issues. We suggest a unit of study that would introduce students to mainstream and non-mainstream foods in their cities, or nearby urban areas. This subject could segue into discussing the diversity of cooking techniques, or of special dietary habits, such as fasting, keeping kosher, and festive and ceremonial dishes. Such an emphasis on food and foodways (the eating habits and culinary practices of a people, region, or historical period) helps students to become aware of their own cultural environment and then reflect upon ways in which other cultures address food. By studying differences, students come to realize that every culture has specific kinds of rules and recipes. This scaffolds students into widening their cultural consciousness and into accepting and respecting a wide diversity of food norms and foodways.

In terms of a framework for high school students, we suggest that teachers offer Derrick Jelliffe's (1967) food classification model, which organized food into five categories. Students could analyze diverse cultures through these food categories. The first is the cultural super foods group; those foods that provide the bulk of calories and proteins for a group. Such super foods also have great symbolic and ritual significance, because they are essential to the group's survival. The second category is prestige foods: anything ingested on special occasions.

This category also includes expensive foods, rare foods, and usually only a select few members of a group can afford to consume them. The third category is called body-image foods: they impact the human body, either positively or negatively. Magic foods are the fourth category, and they are substances with extraordinary powers. The fifth and final category consists of physiologic foods; such substances are restricted by conditions of age, gender, or health.

Teachers can also ask middle school students to list their own local foodways under these five categories. This builds awareness of one's own culture. Next, they can study local foods from a classmate from a different culture. By examining and reflecting upon the complexity of how people perceive food, projects like these not only build an academic framework for doing research, but also foster respect and acceptance the norms, rituals, and habits of those from outside their own culture.

Food study as a cultural pedagogical practice can be interwoven in all content areas (mathematics, science, language arts and social studies). It allows teachers to emphasize key core concepts and processes from Ohio's Learning Standards such as time lines, compare and contrast, read and write informative/explanatory texts and convey ideas and information clearly, measurement, probability, and chemical reactions that occur in food. One way to explore food would be to look at the ways in which a food staple has been presented in a culture over time, and compare it to other cultures. Bread is an excellent example, because it is prevalent throughout many cultures; it is an ancient form of nourishment; and because it has consumed in many different ways, for a variety of reasons. Most cultures have sacred breads, festive breads, and breads that are made only on special occasions. Bread is part of the religious sacrament for members of the Christian church. In Russia, offering bread and salt to a visitor is a traditional

form of welcome; likewise, in Crete, the first day that a child walks, mothers make bread in the shape of a bird (Psilaki, 2013).

Yet another way to help students see the ways in which people are similar in regard to food would be to look at one food and compare how it is presented in different cultures. For example, the Greek *koulouri* looks like the Turkish *simit,* which resembles the Dutch *krakeling,* the Norwegian/Danish *kringle,* Polish *precel,* Hungarian *perec,* Bulgarian *covrig,* the Russian *bublik*, and the German, American, Spanish, Italian, and French *pretzel*.

Bread and pretzels are not the only universal kind of food made from grain. Take, for example, pancakes - a simple kind of food, often sold on the street. We urge teachers to have their students examine all kinds of street foods, and look for historical, cultural, and nutritional similarities and differences. Pancakes come in all shapes and sizes: Ethiopian pancakes made from *teff*, French *crêpes* made from wheat; Russian *blini* made from buckwheat; Mexican *tortillas* made from corn; Italian *frittella* consisting of wheat and potatoes. Students could study environment and geography to understand the reason these pancakes all consist of different plant bases; at the same time, they can celebrate the diversity in choice and taste, as well as the ingenuity of the human spirit.

For all levels of K-12, a great way to celebrate diversity is to break bread together in class. We encourage teachers to ask their students to share recipes or even bring in a loaf of bread/pretzel/pancake from their culture. Students realize that there are remarkable similarities in all bread preparations. What is most important, however, is that bread is a staple food item, the staff of life in many cultures. It is used as an offering to the people, to God, to the departed; it is the sign of friendship, of sharing.

An anthropological point of view focused on food can also be very enlightening for students in the middle and upper grades. Classical ethnographic food subjects relevant to younger students: examining single commodities and substances (e.g., potato; pepper, coffee, chocolate); analyzing food and social change (GMOs and the Third World; the rise of frozen foods); looking at human behavior, especially in terms of food insecurity (food and war; food distribution in times of famine); studying the relationship between ritual; eating and identities (food for the altar, forbidden foods, food branding). Other pertinent questions to ask students to study include: Why are there still hungry people in the world? How is politics connected to hunger and migration? How has globalization changed foodways for mainstream and non-mainstream cultures?

Science teachers may help student examine the biological aspects of eating. For example, how do different cultures view food as nutrition and food as medicine? A science teacher could ask: What are the preparation taboos you can discover, and why do you think they come about in this particular culture?

Social Science teachers could ask students to analyze the obstacles to and benefits of the spread and assimilation of new food. For example, when and how did Tokyo's wholesale tuna market go global? Teachers could ask students to deconstruct how foods gain a foothold in specific settings, maybe by focusing on the now global food truck phenomenon. How did Chinese restaurants and Indian restaurants cause these "ethnic" foods to enter the American mainstream? What is the relationship between food industries and the incorporation of ethnic cuisines? How have foodways from your local ethnic communities' inspire dietary shifts in the mainstream? Other topics include: What kinds of rituals, consumption patterns, and gender dynamics affect the way your classmates prepare and consume food? How did hunting and

eating impact past cultures? Today, how do GMOs and chicken factories impact health, both for the consumer and the producer?

Home economics teachers could ask students to examine how the milk industry has evolved over time, in and outside the USA. Another topic could be: How do different cultures decide appropriate and nutritious infant food and when to wean children off of breastmilk? Students could take a look at the organic food movement in relation to ethnic groups; who defines organic, anyway? How has the industrialization of food helped or hurt groups who grow their own vegetables?

Language arts students could start by examining multicultural food etiquette. The class might discuss and write about the different ways people eat and behave around food, offering stories about manners regarding consumption, ranging from how American nuns eat to the Japanese Tea Ceremony. Adventurous teachers could also address exotic topics such as cannibalism and substances that create major psychoactive changes. Additionally, political topics exist: students could examine the relationship between food sharing and moral codes, or have students analyze how governments affect diet and dietary changes – particularly in children (in their own schools).

Art teachers could explore the kinds of foods that cultures revere for their shape, color, and aesthetic value, and look at the various art mediums that different cultures use to present food as art. It would also be fun to have a look at feasting though time from an artistic perspective, or at the various designs for lunch boxes. Art teachers could even explore the meaning and design of cake, or the aesthetics of what constitutes a meal across cultures.

Conclusion

After breathing, eating is the most essential human activity. Making and consuming food is an integral and culturally unique part of social life around the planet (Appelbaum, 2006). We urge teachers to allow students to gain an understanding that cultures have similarities in food habits. This promotes respect and acceptance. Moreover, studying food highlights the complexity of human behavior in general, and instills a sense of tolerance, even delight, for things that might seem initially strange. Using food as a topic also allows students to perceive culture as dynamic in space and time. Finally, teaching young people about food helps students to understand social structures, collective and individual attitudes, economies, politics, and the roles of production and labor, both past and present.

The study of food establishes a firm context for cross-cultural collaboration in the classroom. Students can draw from their own cultural backgrounds and ask and answer questions. Lively discussions will ensue about food activities. Additionally, a day of eating the food of the "other," engages students in authentic sensory and multicultural experiences. They can not only study food diversity but also share ideas, opinions, and experiences by creating, sharing and discussing what is embodied in a dish or in an arranged meal. In conclusion, we feel it is crucial for young people to gain awareness of their own embedded and unconscious ideas about their culture and the culture of others. Using food in these diverse ways helps K-12 students to understand and accept diverse cultural environments and specific social processes that codify a given culture’s customs, symbolic systems, and religious rituals.

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Resources

In seeking out resources for teachers to use to meet state standards while simultaneously presenting the subject of food from diverse cultures, we discovered a vast array of materials. Here are some of our favorite online sources:

http://foodtank.com
https://foodanthro.com
http://www.foodwastemovie.com/video/
http://www.indiewire.com/2015/10/25-mouth-watering-movies-about-food-restaurants-chefs-111034/
http://www.pbs.org/program/meaning-food/
http://www.buffetmovie.com
http://www.imdb.com/title/tt1252486/

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Dr. Vakil's general philosophy focuses on changing perceptions of educators towards inclusion of individuals with disabilities and English Learners. Her research and teaching connects practice to theory by linking experiences and voices of individuals with cognitive disabilities to the academic, ethical and social contexts that exist in the classroom.

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Dr. Kline's research focuses on the preparation of early childhood teacher candidates to design educational environment that support the optimal learning and development of **all** children with particular attention given to inclusion, differentiation of instruction and building partnerships with families and communities.

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Dr. Broadway holds an undergraduate degree in chemistry and worked as a middle and secondary school instructor before attaining his Ph.D. He is very active in pre- and in-service teacher education programs, and plays a major role in cross-college collaborations involving the colleges of Education, Engineering, and Arts & Sciences. Dr. Broadway's general philosophy focuses on curriculum defined "as what is ultimately structured in the child's mind – that is, what is remembered, understood, used, and enjoyed" (Sizer, 1999, p.163). Building upon a queer theory epistemology, his research and teaching connects curriculum to all his interactions with individuals especially as learners including himself.

The Value of One-Time Video Recording during Early Childhood Pre-Clinical Field

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Abstract:

The current study examines the value of video recording one lesson during pre-clinical field, and the effects it had on the pre-clinical candidates. The overarching research question was generated to help improve the video reflection process within the pre-clinical early childhood teacher education program: "How valuable is using a video recording on the process of reflection of pre-clinical early childhood candidates?" Pre and post survey data were collected from 26 pre-clinical candidates to determine the value with the intent of understanding if the video reflection process helped to prepare the candidates for the EdTPA during the pre-clinical semester and to what degree. Five survey questions were analyzed to showcase the effectiveness of combining guided individual and peer reflections while discussing nine specific teaching tasks.

The video camera made its first debut in 1888 (Cook & Sklar, 2016); since that point in history, society has used video recordings to savor special memories, highlight unique events, and reflect on changing times. The field of education has embraced video recordings to document observations and to strengthen teaching practices for several decades (Tripp & Rich, 2012a). Video reflection can be a highly effective approach for helping instructors to improve their teaching when used the correct way. The video recordings allow teachers to view their teaching second-by-second, to write notes while observing their own teaching, and to share their recordings with other colleagues. The documented recordings can also be linked to gaining certification, licensure, and promotion (Tripp & Rich, 2012a).

The usage of video recordings can hold positive effects, but if not executed appropriately, several adverse effects can occur. Video is a powerful tool for teacher practice and teachers must be trained on how to advantageously use the recordings to enable them to effectively reflect on their own practice. The use of video can be just as beneficial

for pre-clinical candidates who are in the beginning stages of learning how to reflect (Kong, 2010).

Pre-clinical candidates must learn how to develop as reflective practitioners and cannot simply be lectured on how to reflect. The candidates must authentically experience how to reflect first-hand, and the use of video tapping is an effective and practical source for personal and professional enlightenment.

Review of Related Literature

The art of reflective practice can be developed through many different modalities ranging from written journals, to data collection, to observing video recordings of one's self and other colleagues. As Dewey (1933) emphasized several decades ago, reflection is active, persistent, and careful consideration of belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it and the further conclusions to which it ends. By valuing the source of video recordings as a means of self-reflection, teachers have the potential to increase their effectiveness concerning all classroom related pedagogical decisions and teaching practices (Tripp & Rich, 2012a).

Although the video camera was invented over a century ago and has been embraced by society on many different levels, limited research exists on the benefits and effects of video recordings on pre-clinical teaching candidates (Tripp & Rich, 2012a). While limited research exists concerning the benefits and effects, several studies noted the specific process pre-service teachers execute while learning how to reflect on the video recordings and discussed the areas of teaching that they reflect upon; for example, Luttenberg and Bergen (2008), documented that candidates spent the majority of their reflection time observing video recordings on the issue of

lesson preparation. Classroom management and student-teacher relations were also reflected upon, while pedagogical content was the least emphasized during the video reflections.

According to Kleinknecht & Schneider (2013), limited studies exist where teachers compare their video recordings with other teacher's video recordings. By observing other colleagues' video recordings, pre-clinical candidates may activate prior knowledge and experience while fostering an analytical view of a variety of teaching experiences through the eyes of a similar experience connected to their own learning environment. The observers may create a variety of connections to their own practice, which include deep levels of understanding pertaining to engagement and involvement (Goldman, 2007). The video recordings activate a variety of levels of understanding, which include levels of cognitive, emotional, and motivational modalities (Kleinknecht & Schneider, 2013). Documentation supported the fact that teachers prefer to engage in collaborative video analysis rather than solitary reflection. Tripp & Rich (2012a) posited that extensive research should examine the impact of video reflection on teachers and their practices.

In the few studies that exist concerning the impact of video reflection, a variety of methods were implemented ranging from collaborative viewing, individual viewing, varied times of videos, varied tasks for viewing videos, and varied grade levels and environments (Tripp & Rich, 2012a). Using the varied methods within the few studies, a beginning foundation for future analytical studies to investigate the effectiveness of video recordings was created. Research stated that for teachers who viewed the recordings collaboratively, documented that the discussion was the most valuable aspect of viewing the recordings; a variety of viewpoints and opinions analyzing the videos increased the effectiveness of the analysis of each observation. Professional development occurred on heightened levels compared to reflecting individually.

Many teachers expressed that the suggestions and recommendations during the collaborative video sharing helped them to increase their effectiveness of being a high performing teacher (Borko, Jacobs, Eiteljorg & Pittman, 2008). Other researchers documented the effectiveness of written reflections after view their video recordings; the written reflections required each teacher to view the video with a focused purpose and each used the reflection to provide evidence to support their effectiveness of being a high performing teacher (Sherin & van Es, 2005).

Research studies consisting of pre-clinical candidates acknowledged the benefits of having a checklist provided to help them successfully analyze their video along with fellow peers' videos. By providing candidates with reflection tasks to take note of throughout the viewing, the subjects succinctly observed teaching tasks that they may otherwise not have noticed (Tripp & Rich, 2012a). In addition, reported findings declared that pre-service candidates were more readily able to notice their peers' mistakes, but failed to recognize similar mistakes within themselves. By providing suggestions and recommendations to peers, they were in return helping themselves to view their own teaching on a variety of platforms (Rich & Hannafin, 2008a).

Several factors must be eliminated prior to reflection in order for pre-clinical students to be successful in evaluating and reflecting upon themselves; the initial viewing of one's voice, appearance, and self-perception must be eliminated. The viewing of one's self can be filled with stress and can construe the objectivity of feedback while forcing the candidates to focus on themselves (Snoeyink, 2010). However, by providing the opportunity for candidates to self-reflect, candidates were able to take note of negative mannerisms such as inappropriate slang, awkward hand motions, and unacceptable practices. Through self-awareness from observation of the video recordings, they were able to make immediate changes to their teaching performances.

In addition, improved "withitness" occurred in several areas including, classroom management, student understanding, and reflection-in-action (Snoeyink, 2010).

With the limited literature surrounding the usage of video recordings in a pre-clinical teaching environment, it was the current goal of this study to highlight the outcomes of reflecting upon video recordings in an early childhood classroom. By taking notice of specific practices to increase the effectiveness of the pre-clinical candidates, increased knowledge surrounding the usage of video recording reflections may highlight the benefits of such a valuable practice.

Method

To begin the study, the overarching research question was generated to help improve the video taping reflection process within our pre-clinical early childhood teacher education program: "How valuable is using a video recording on the process of reflection of pre-clinical early childhood candidates?" It was also to be determined if an one-time video recording with the intent of preparing the candidates for the EdTPA had value during the pre-clinical semester and to what degree. To begin to address this multi-leveled study, a survey was created and administered to collect pre-quantitative and qualitative data from the pre-clinical candidates. Five questions were asked of the 26 early childhood pre-clinical students including:

1. How comfortable are you teaching in front of your early childhood students?
2. Describe how you feel when you are teaching.
3. What are your strengths when you are teaching?
4. What are your weaknesses when you are teaching?
5. How prepared do you feel for student teaching after reflecting on your video recording?

The research assistant surveyed 28 pre-clinical candidates from an early childhood field education program at a four-year, public university during the spring 2016 semester a week before the students were required to videotape a lesson that they were teaching in their field placements. Two students opted out of the study for undocumented reasons. The candidates were instructed with directions on how to create a successful video recording, including tips and suggestions ranging from where to place the video camera in the room, making sure the camera was fully charged, and how to face the camera when speaking, etc.

During class time, the candidates viewed a video from a pre-clinical candidate from a previous semester. The instructor provided the candidates with nine tasks based on information from the EdTPA to analyze as they watched the video of a peer's teaching performance. The candidates were instructed to provide a rating of 1-5, and to cite specific evidence for each task they viewed. They were instructed to analyze the following areas:

1. Students are engaged in discussions, tasks, or activities
2. A positive and respectful rapport is demonstrated
3. Student learning occurs through teacher-student and student-student interactions
4. Links are made between new content and students' prior learning
5. Academic language is applied by the teacher and students
6. Students are encouraged to develop their understanding of content
7. Interdisciplinary connections are developed
8. Knowledge gaps are addressed
9. Higher order questions are effectively utilized

After collecting evidence and providing a rating, the candidates shared their feedback with peers in the classroom. A thorough discussion analyzing each task helped the candidates to begin to formulate their understanding of reflective feedback based on criteria from the EdTPA. The instructor provided a facilitator role to help guide the discussion to help the candidates reflect.

After the pre-clinical candidates taped their lesson in their field placement, they were asked to independently analyze their video recording using the same nine tasks as previously stated. The candidates were then asked to view two peers' video recordings and to analyze using the same nine tasks. Upon returning to class a week later, the candidates independently and collaboratively viewed three video recordings in total. During class, the instructor led a discussion asking the students what their strengths and weaknesses were, what they would change with their future teaching, and how this video taping experience helped them to reshape their understanding of reflection and teaching practices. The following week, the research assistant distributed the post-survey through email. The pre and post survey results were analyzed and compared to search for themes, and a better understanding of the value of video recording in an early childhood pre-clinical field program.

Results and Findings

The following five questions were analyzed to determine a clear picture on the value of video recording on the reflection process in an early childhood classroom. The findings are presented as they relate to the opinions of personal reflection on one's teaching.

Question 1: How comfortable are you teaching in front of your early childhood students?

Candidates were asked to rank their comfort level on a scale of: 4 - extremely comfortable; 3 - comfortable; 2 - slightly comfortable; 1 - extremely uncomfortable. For the pre-

survey, the mean score was 2.96. For the post survey, the mean score increased to 3.31. The number of candidates within the category of extremely comfortable increased from 12 percent to 38 percent. For the pre-survey, several candidates expressed how nervous they were and they wished they could teach more to gain more experience. Specific statements included:

- "With more time and experience, I'll feel more comfortable."
- "Slightly uncomfortable because I don't feel as though I've have enough experiences teaching before this semester."

However, after the one lesson and video reflection, the statements included:

- "I feel that I am prepared to teach and enjoy doing so, but I also feel that I have much growing to do to be a wonderful teacher."
- "I am much more comfortable teaching in front of my students than I was in the beginning. I feel that knowing the students' personalities and strengths helps."

After teaching one lesson and conducting guided reflections on their own video and two peer videos, it was apparent to see an increased level of confidence gained through each video reflection and for presenting the lesson. According to Fox, Brantley-Dias, and Calandra (2007), through guided reflections from observing video recordings, teachers can enhance the quality of their teaching and their comfort levels. The preclinical candidates were able to view their own teaching with a focused framework while alleviating some of the jitters from gaining more first-hand experience teaching.

Question 2: Describe how you feel when you are teaching.

Candidates were asked to express their variety of emotions before and after the video segment and guided reflections; they were allowed to document more than one emotion. The pre-survey indicated that 96 percent of the candidates were happy/excited, while 92 percent

expressed an emotion of nervousness. In addition, 38 percent of candidates stated that they were concerned about forgetting their lesson plans. Several candidates candidly expressed their thoughts before teaching their first lessons including:

- "I am happy and excited to teach! I am nervous because I want to be successful and I want the students to be successful. And when it comes to teaching I feel like I forget some things I should be teaching (like procedural steps)."
- "I feel as though I will accidentally forget something while teaching and that makes me nervous. I am happy when the students are actually engaged and interested in what I have to say."
- "I love teaching and am comfortable teaching, but I do get nervous still at times that a lesson will go wrong or that students will not learn from my lesson."

After the video segment and guided reflection, the emotions of happy and forgetfulness were document with similar results on the post survey of 96 percent and 38 percent respectively; however, the emotion of nervousness decreased from 92 to 65 percent. After the video segment, the candidates' reflections on their emotions were much more in depth and focused. Several candidates were able to take into consideration the change within their emotions:

- "I love the students that I have and I wouldn't trade them for anything. They are difficult because of behavior but they challenge me as an upcoming teacher. This is good for me because I need to learn the strategies necessary for my classroom to thrive. I have been overwhelmed a few times but mostly happy to be able to teach the students something myself! They tell me they love my lessons so that makes me extremely happy."

- "I very much enjoy teaching, but since I am still new at this I do get very nervous which causes me to forget and rush. I did improve on this during lesson week however, but it is still there to some extent."
- "I love working with the students in the classroom, teaching them lessons that I have created and seeing what they learned and how they progress from each lesson that is taught. I still do get nervous when teaching because I want to ensure that all students are learning and that my lesson will be the one that students can learn from and will go well."

The decrease in the emotion of nervousness, the increase for detailed reflections after the video segment, and guided reflection supports the notion that candidates valued the one-time process as it contributed to immediate benefits. According to a study by Wu and Kao (2008), pre-service teachers gain valuable dialog and insight after discussing video segments with peers; the candidates were able to make immediate teaching changes which similarly resulted within our pre-clinical candidates.

Questions 3 and 4: What are your strengths when you are teaching? What are your weaknesses when you are teaching?

During the pre and post surveys, candidates were asked to discuss their strengths and weaknesses. Most candidates were limited with their statements during the pre survey, but the candidates expressed detailed reflections during the post survey. General statements during the pre survey concerning strengths included themes pertaining to: exhibiting enthusiasm, creating fun lessons, and building good rapport with students. Specific statements included:

- "My strengths when teaching include enthusiasm, planning, explaining, and helping students who need it."
- "Keeping the students interested and excited."
- "My strengths during teaching are enthusiasm and making sure all students are included and engaged."

General statements during the pre-survey concerning weaknesses included themes pertaining to: classroom management, time management, and lesson planning requirements. Specific statements included:

- "I struggle with behavior issues."
- "My weaknesses during teaching are classroom management and discipline."
- "Remembering all of the procedural steps with the lesson. Using academic language."

The post survey statements were elaborate and focused; each student was able to thoroughly identify their weaknesses and strengths while provided ample examples and connections to the information they learned from the video segment guided reflection discussions with their peers. The themes stayed similar as documented in the pre-survey, but now the candidates expressed beyond simple statements concerning their strengths and weaknesses. Specific statements for their strengths from the post survey included:

- "I believe my biggest strength is coming up with adaptations to solve issues in the classroom during a lesson. If the students are not grasping the concept I feel I am good at finding a way to modify the lesson to better help the students understand the information given."

- "I feel like I am good at developing a positive rapport with every single one of my students. I am good at differentiating instruction and recognizing my students' strengths and weaknesses. I feel like my lessons are engaging and very hands-on, and I am good at motivating the students to learn."
- "My strengths when teaching are classroom management, providing students with positive feedback, planning a variety of ways for students to learn, using various teaching styles and approaches, and teaching to meet the needs and differentiate instruction so that all learners are able to understand the material being taught."

Specific statements concerning their weaknesses from the post survey include:

- " I feel that my weakness is behavior management. I struggle finding the right way to discipline the class. I think I struggle in this area because it is not my own classroom, and I came in half way through the school year. At first I wasn't aware of how the teacher handles all of the different behavior problems. I also do not want to cross the line and step on the teacher's toes in her own classroom."
- "My weakness is math instruction. I often worry that I might word instruction incorrectly and confuse the students. Plus, of all the content areas, I feel that this is the one I have had the least instruction of actually teaching in the classroom. I know how to incorporate manipulatives into instruction, but I do not know how to introduce a new topic and teach it to students."
- "I feel that my weakness while I am teaching is teaching students and providing discipline while teaching. I am very soft spoken and have a difficult time

correcting students when behaviors occur throughout a lesson. I need to learn to be stern about what is appropriate and inappropriate while I am teaching."

Viewing the increased amount of detailed reflections from the pre-survey to the post-survey, the candidates were able to view their own teaching to make effective and advantageous changes to their own style of teaching to benefit their elementary students. Teachers and candidates engaged in video reflection change in multiple aspects including: gaining new perspectives, learning how to focus on specific teaching tasks, trusting the feedback they receive, feeling accountable to change their teaching style, and finally executing the learned information to better themselves as teaching professionals (Tripp & Rich, 2012b).

Question 5: How prepared do you feel for student teaching after reflecting on your video recording?

Finally, the students were asked a question to gauge how prepared they felt for student teaching after conducting a lesson with a video segment guided reflection with their peers during the pre-survey and post survey. During the pre-survey, the results ranged from feeling very prepared to not feeling prepared at all, while 53 percent documented that they were feeling more prepared as the semester progressed, but they felt they still had information to learn before student teaching. After the video segment and guided reflection, 88 percent of candidates reported that they felt more prepared for student teaching after conducting the lesson with the video reflection. The statements, once again, were more detailed during the post survey as the candidates commented on their learning. The pre-survey statements included:

- "I feel almost prepared completely. After this semester I think I will be totally fine. The more opportunities I have to teach before then, the better."

- “I don't feel totally prepared, but I don't feel unprepared. As pre-clinicals go on I believe I'll feel more prepared.”
- “Getting more prepared every day.”

The post survey included the following statements:

- “I feel more prepared than I did before. I have learned so much through my peers and my resource teacher. I know that I will continue to learn and put all of these things to use when I get into the student teaching experience.”
- “I feel very prepared for student teaching. The information I received from this experience and my YSU professors and resource teacher gave me insight on how to become a successful teacher. Along with the new information I learned, I also got to practice my teaching styles for my future classroom.”
- “I feel very prepared for my student teaching experience after the video reflection. I’ve become comfortable with the lesson plan format. I also feel comfortable working with students at various levels. I am nervous because I will have a new placement for student teaching and I have become so comfortable with my resource teacher. I do not know what to expect, but I am confident that I will be able to handle it.”

The detailed post survey results displayed an increased level of confidence and an increased level of understanding for the teaching tasks. Each student was able to sufficiently say why they believed they were prepared for student teaching. According to Snoeyink (2010), pre-clinical candidates value the use of video reflection as a means of improving their teaching, classroom managements and their “withitness” as an educator.

Conclusion

Through analysis of the five questions, the candidates documented the process of self-reflection through the usage of video recording one lesson, which followed with a guided reflection individually and with two peers. It was apparent through the post survey's elaborate and detailed qualitative statements that each candidate increased their role of understanding as a pre-clinical candidate. The reflection of the nine guided tasks helped each candidate to hone their reflection to most effectively impact their style of teaching. As supported by Tripp & Rich (2012b), the video reflections increased the pre-clinical candidates' desires to change their teaching. With the documentation of limited research concerning the impact of value of video segments on pre-clinical early childhood educators, this study helped to place emphasis on the importance on the video and guided reflection process. When the two are combined, pre-clinical candidates increase confidence and awareness in regards to the execution of specific best practices. The one-time video recording during early childhood pre-clinical field significantly helped the candidates to place emphasis on how to effectively reflect to better prepare themselves for their future role of being an efficacious educator.

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Moving the Race/Culture Discussion Forward in Classrooms: Using Picture Books to Promote Wisdom

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Abstract:

One means of bringing discussions of race and culture into classrooms is the use of a fourfold framework based Howard's work (2016). The framework consists of honesty, empathy, advocacy, and action. Teachers read-aloud multicultural literature to help move discussions of race and culture forward in classrooms. The envisionment building model (Langer, 2011) overlays this process to help understand how learning wisdom develops through shared literary experiences. Wisdom, according to Hill Collins (1998), is the belief that although the lived experiences of others are different from your own, they are true, and should be honored.

Increasingly, U.S. teachers are of European-American descent, hold middle class status, and speak only one language (Ladson-Billings, 1995). A 2012 study by the American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education (AACTE) states that teachers of color make up only 17.5% of the educator workforce. In contrast, public schools today are increasingly diverse with an estimated 21% of school-aged children speaking a first language other than English (American Community Survey, a branch of the U.S. Census Bureau, using 2012 census data). Nearly 21% of children live in families with incomes below the federal poverty level and nearly 42% live in low-income homes (National Center for Children in Poverty, 2014). The same AACTE study stated that students of color make up more than 45% of the PK–12 population. U.S. 2012 Census (American Community Survey) data shows that nearly half of all children under the age of five are minorities; no racial or ethnic group will constitute a true majority by 2050. The changing demographics in U.S. schools present a challenge for the many dominant culture pre-service teachers who must learn to connect with students with whom they do not share racial and cultural frames.

Using texts with characters who are not of the dominant culture is one means of introducing race and culture into classroom curricula as teacher candidates read books aloud and generate discussions based on the themes presented in the texts. This paper will introduce a discussion framework developed by Diana Garlough, Director of Teacher Education at Ohio Northern University, in coordination with Bob Carrothers, Chair of the Sociology, Psychology and Criminal Justice Department, in response to this challenge. The framework utilizes the racial and cultural diversity represented in award-winning picture books of various racial and cultural groups.

Demographics

The majority of faculty, staff, and students at Ohio Northern University are of the dominant culture. The most recent edition of the university's Fact Book reports that over 78% of the student population and 89% of the faculty and staff are white. The student body is generally quite affluent as well with 43% coming from homes making more than $100,000/year and 64% from homes making in excess of $75,000/ year. The median household income for our student's families in 2016 was more than $93,000. Religiously, more than 81% of the student body report affiliation with some Christian denomination, others report no affiliation, and less than 3% report a non-Christian faith. The data in each of these categories is relatively constant over the past five years. In short, our students are, in many important ways, of the dominant culture. Similarly, prior to their arrival at our university many of our students, including our teacher candidates have not been made aware of their privilege, or the impacts of social stratification, nor were they given the necessary skills and information to dismantle cultural myths such as meritocracy.

Within the last five years the ONU teacher education program has sought to challenge our student's conceptions of their place in the culture and to understand themselves as racial

beings. Our teacher education program has had a long-standing focus on various aspects of diversity provided in the introductory education class, Culture and Schooling. A few of the other education classes taught aspects of diversity, but our faculty knew we needed to provide more opportunities for our own as well as our teacher candidates' growing understanding of privilege. The process began in earnest in the fall of 2010 with individual faculty members making changes to our courses, and discussing additional ways to provide our teacher candidates with wider opportunities to experience diversity and to become more comfortable working with diverse groups of students. This desire led to a concerted effort to make the understanding of diversity a core element of the teacher education program. The department successfully recruited a more diverse faculty and staff as positions became available. We also developed a week-long urban experience for students seeking to apply concepts of diversity that they were learning about within urban settings. Faculty and staff participated in our own growth process by attending workshops, and working with a nationally known expert in diversity. That led to rewriting the program's conceptual framework; focusing our professional book study around understandings of privilege and social stratification; and creating an inventory of the diversity topics we teach including the assignments, experiences, and resources used. This work continues to the present with faculty members continuing to find ways to enrich our own racial identity development, to enrich the curriculum in regard to racial understanding, and to work with students in regard to diversity. The project discussed below was developed in this vein.

The Book Discussion Framework Based on Howard's Work

Garlough and Carrothers developed a fourfold framework that can be used to facilitate reflection on dominance as it relates to race and ethnicity based on Howard's (2016) work. The framework consists of four factors: honesty, empathy, action, and advocacy. Howard encourages

teachers to try to understand the nature of dominance as authentically as they can. For white teachers the assumption of rightness and the luxury of ignorance are challenged by an honest approach. Through empathy, white teachers learn to feel with others. Empathy requires white educators to focus their attention on the perspective and worldview of others and realize the impact of the dominance on the on the lives of their students, and then to work with them to create healing responses to dominance. Through advocacy, teachers start to work on behalf of their underrepresented students. Finally, through action, white educators work to eradicate the problems caused by racial dominance. This fourfold framework is applied to picture books that were honored with an award by their corresponding racial/cultural group as being representative of that race/culture: Native American- the American Indian Youth Literature Award, Asian/Asian American- the Asian Pacific American Libraries Association, African/African American- the Coretta Scott King Award, Middle Eastern- the Middle East Book Award, Jewish- the National Jewish Book Award, and Chicano/Latino/a- the Pura Belpre Award. Caldecott Award (Norton 2012). Garlough and Carrothers made further sense of the framework by overlaying Langer's Envisionment Building Model (2011) as well as the third-wave feminism of Hill Collins (1990).

Hill Collins' Discussion of Knowledge and Wisdom

Howard's (2016) discussion framework echoes the message of Hill Collins (1990) on the distinction between knowledge and wisdom. The essential distinction between these two forms of knowing is that knowledge is available to everyone as it is established and accepted fact, whereas wisdom comes only from experiencing and dealing with issues which arise in the context of daily oppression. Knowledge is the established "book learning" that is seen as primary and essential to everyone. Wisdom is often downplayed in importance, seen only as stories, or

the experience of one person, which is not valued in the way as "real" information found in textbooks or academic journals is. Elevating wisdom, which is often conveyed through stories, provides an especially powerful lens through which to view dominance (Hill Collins). Howard's work facilitates cross-cultural communication between teachers and students around the concepts of healing and authenticity. Most of our teacher candidates are filled with knowledge--knowledge of their content, knowledge of pedagogy, knowledge gained from both their high school and college educations. However, their wisdom, especially with respect to those of different races, ethnicities, classes, genders, religions, and sexual orientations is lacking. Additionally, the wisdom we try to deliver to them as part of their preparation typically comes in the form of knowledge through lectures and readings about difference. Our candidates need to know these things to graduate but, knowledge without wisdom will not be enough when they have their own classrooms. As Hill Collins states, "Knowledge without wisdom is adequate for the powerful, but wisdom is essential to the survival of the subordinate...." (1990, p. 257). The goal of our program is to make wisdom essential for the powerful as well.

Envisionment Building

Langer's Envisionment-Building Model (2011) explains a process view of reading in which the readers' understandings of texts changes and grows during their reading. According to Langer's model, readers may move through five stances while reading: (a) being outside and stepping into an envisionment, (b) being inside and moving through an envisionment, (c) stepping out and rethinking what you know, (d) stepping out and objectifying the experience, and (e) leaving an envisionment and going beyond. Readers who experience these five stances are active participants with the text. These stances are not linear, but rather recursive, mobile, and, at times, co-occur during the meaning making process. This process of creating an envisionment in

which readers move through a text with central characters who are not of the dominant culture provides readers the opportunity to move through the experiences of others, to rethink what they know, and perhaps, to go beyond their newly developed understanding and enact this understanding in some way.

Use of Teacher Candidate Work to Inform Connections Among Framework, Theory and Wisdom

Howard proposes that white educators facilitate racial healing through a fourfold process of honesty, empathy, advocacy, and action. In this section, we lay out the framework as it would typically be used in classrooms and show how both the work of Hill Collins (1990) and Envisionment Building Model (2011) inform its use. Garlough presented her foundations of literacy class with two assignments with the hope of better understanding the responses of readers from the dominant culture to stories whose main characters are outside of that culture. Most of the 14 early and middle childhood candidates were sophomores with a few holding a higher class rank. Garlough used *How Many Days to America?* (Bunting, 1990) for the assignments. In this text, a family of four leaves their undisclosed homeland and nearly all of their possessions behind in order to flee persecution in an attempt to reach America. They board a very small boat with twelve other people. The trip is fraught with many hardships, but the young family and their traveling companions are welcomed to America at the end of the text. In the first assignment candidates were asked to write their responses while listening to *How Many Days to America?* as an in-class assignment that lasted over two class periods. Candidates made initial contact with the text through a teacher read-aloud format. As the candidates listened, the reader paused at various points in the story so candidates could write notes in a formatted guide that would indicate where they were in building an envisionment. On the second day, candidates

had copies of the text available to them so they could continue their work independently. They were also allowed to work on the assignment outside of class if they chose. In the second assignment, candidates worked in self-selected pairs to create the fourfold framework with the text. Excerpts from candidates' work as they listened to or reread the text provide insight into how the candidates built an envisionment, how their responses correspond to the fourfold framework and how, if at all, they began to develop wisdom.

What follows is each part of the fourfold framework with the corresponding stance(s) from Envisionment Building (2011). Excerpts from candidates' work are used to indicate how they worked through the selected text. Each section includes thoughts drawn from Hill Collins' (1990) work to show how dominant culture candidates may attain the wisdom of others by participating in a literary experience even when the contact between cultures occurs as a literary experience. We fully anticipate that teachers in P-12 classrooms would further develop their students' understandings of others and encourage them to put their understandings into practice though we did not allow for this in this setting due to time constraints.

The healing process begins with honesty. While we use honesty as a means of dominant culture people in addressing their privilege, Hill Collins (1990) stresses the importance of honesty when people of different backgrounds come together in a different way. A key element to wisdom is being able to recognize (and recognize quickly) a lie. Our candidates who wish to connect with non-dominant culture students without first understanding the differences between their backgrounds, risk being viewed as inauthentic by their students. In short, an attempt to be nice or even professional can be viewed as a lie.

1. Honesty- For white teachers the assumption of rightness and the luxury of ignorance are both challenged by an honest approach. They must learn to question their assumptions and

acknowledge what they have been preconditioned to understand and believe is likely not the same for everyone. They must realize and admit that there is much they do not know, and their only access to knowing is through wisdom-- listening to and believing the experience of others. It is through honesty that they can see the limits of knowledge and realize that those in privileged groups have rarely experienced long-term hunger, having others observe them with suspicion, being asked to represent their reference group in a room filled with those not like them, or having watched while someone is killed. It is also through honesty that they can include stories of wisdom into the curriculum, such as teaching various perspectives on historical events, adding global literature, or teaching about inequality as something that still occurs.

In the **being outside and stepping in** an envisionment, readers make initial contacts with the genre, content, structure, and language of the text making use of prior knowledge and surface features to get sufficient information to begin to build an envisionment. Readers use information available to them, typically their own knowledge and experiences, in order to step into the text-world. Readers initially collect as many clues as possible to form initial suppositions about the characters, setting, problem, events and solution, and how these plot elements interrelate. These suppositions are often very superficial. Though this stance occurs with the readers' first contact with the text, it also occurs throughout the reading when ideas are new or if readers have to exit the text due to puzzlements such as unforeseen events or new vocabulary. When the teacher presents one of multicultural picture books, readers might experience this stance as they encounter characters and settings with which they are unfamiliar and/or problems or events that they believe could never happen to them. The framework challenges readers to go beyond what they know to be true and accept that others hold equally valid, though different, as truth.

In order to make initial contact with the selected text, candidates asked questions of the text such as, “Why are these people being persecuted?” and, “Why is it so urgent that they get to America?” When it came to honestly evaluating their own privilege, many of the candidates easily voiced the understanding that they have never had to think about being persecuted or leaving behind their home and most of their loved ones. Some made statements that indicated their understanding of privilege. One candidate wrote, “Some people may be forced to leave their homes, while others are able to have a sense of safety as long as they live.” Several also voiced the stress that would accompany leaving home for a new life that you could only hope would be better and more secure. Most failed to state outright what they alluded to, that part of privilege is relative safety and security even in times of struggle. Were these candidates in a classroom with children of refugees or immigrants fleeing some form of upheaval, the inability to recognize their good fortune of living in a relatively stable society would likely impede their ability to connect with their students. If the best attempt at *stepping in* to this family’s journey is to realize how difficult the journey must have been, or even the difficulty in making the decision to leave their home behind, then teachers need to allow those who have had similar experiences share their stories. By listening to and believing the stories of others, teachers can gain wisdom.

2. Empathy- Means "to feel with" and requires us to focus our attention on the perspective and worldview of another person. Empathy requires more than just a guess as to what it feels like; it requires a reflexive role-taking where you imagine what it would be like to be someone in a given position. So while teachers may have no idea what it is like to be a Hindu child in a predominantly Christian school, they have the ability to recall what it was like to be an outsider because of what they thought or believed. From that prospective, it is a matter of listening to the wisdom of those who have experienced a specific challenge in order to help

teachers and students connect. Empathy also requires the end of non-engagement; it is through empathy that we engage with others. Though it may be subtle, empathy is as much a positive action as a racist thought is a negative action. Through empathy teachers can step outside of the dominant position and see their own position in a new light and are able to better gauge what an appropriate response to a given issue may be. Empathy may also help teachers to better connect with their students.

In the **being inside and moving through** stance readers are immersed in the text-world. They use even superficial text knowledge combined with their personal knowledge, knowledge of the genre, and social context to furnish ideas to develop their thinking. Now immersed in the text-world, readers go beyond what they had already understood and ask questions about motives, feelings, causes, and implications. In this stance, the sense of the text's meaning can change quickly as readers are caught up in the text-world and elaborate on their own thoughts calling on knowledge of the text, themselves, others, life and the world. In this stance and others, readers speculate about what aspects of the reading might mean, testing ideas, and remaining open to change, using momentary understanding to contribute to the development of the envisionment. Readers in this stance are more open to considering the truths of others' lives than they might have been initially. Readers become empathic as they live within the text-world and experience the truths of others, however briefly. Teachers will be able to understand if their students have developed empathy and are truly understanding the characters' feeling and text implications by asking their students to write how they would feel if they were the character, or thinking how the latest event in the text has an impact on current society.

Most candidates stated that they were able to experience the being in and moving through stance, though many felt the lack of a specific story setting hindered their ability to do so.

Candidates still felt they could empathize with the young boy stating that they, too, would have felt fear and confusion at the outset of the story when the children hide under a bed because soldiers came to their house at night. These feelings were heightened because the candidates view soldiers as protectors of civilians. The feeling of confusion was nearly constant throughout many candidates' envisionments. Several candidates thought that the parents did not provide the boy and his sister with enough details about the trip. As adults they rationalized that the parents may not have known the dangers they would face, or they might have been trying to protect their children by saying little. Regardless, the candidates wanted to know more. At one point, a group of thieves board the boat and take the travelers' few remaining belongings. At another point in the text, the travelers thing they will be able to go to nearby land, but soldiers shoot at them to turn them away. These events added to the candidates' confusion because they expect to feel secure as they live out their lives. Many of the candidates also felt desperate and hopeless after the boat's engine quit working. The incidents with the thieves and being shot at added to their feelings of desperation to confusion. Many candidates also said they would feel sad to leave their homes and extended families.

Moving through an envisionment relates to the fourfold framework in that readers empathize with the text's characters. At this point in the literary experience, the candidates were not guessing how the characters felt, they were relating how they would feel if they were fleeing their homeland "under a veil of darkness" along with the feelings of insecurity, confusion, fear, and sadness of traveling perilously to start a new life which they hoped would be better. Dialogue is essential to developing understanding within a community of learners. Candidates were in a literary dialogue with the text's characters as they developed empathy and asked questions of the text. This is not simply stereotypic guesses as to what one may have felt in the

situation. In fact, stories generally tell you what the characters are thinking. At one point, the young boy says, “That was the only time I was not afraid,” while his father sang him to sleep. We want the teachers to develop such skills and allow themselves to become open to wisdom in order to hear stories from other points of view.

In the **stepping out and objectifying the experience** stance, readers distance themselves from the text-world, objectifying their understandings, their reading experience, and the text itself. They judge the text, reflect on it, analyze it, and relate it to other texts and experiences. Readers can evaluate the text structure, and literary merits. They can read from the perspective of literary theory, or from the perspective of another culture or era. In this stance, readers can also reflect on the reasons a text has significance to them, and whether they agree with others’ interpretations as a group shares their experiences with the text. Readers identify differences and similarities between their own and the author’s sense of the world, perceptions of real world events, as well as placing this text within the greater sense of literary, cultural, and intellectual traditions. Readers will only want to step out and objectify texts that allow them to connect with the characters, to care about their plight, and to connect the story to news headlines and/or other texts they know.

Candidates said that there were parts of this text that made it difficult to relate to. Their own life experiences were so vastly different from the characters’ experience of being forced to leave their homeland, the vagueness of the setting, and not believing that most political refugees are welcome in the United States, that some had difficulty staying within the envisionment. At this point, some part of the text must allow them to re-enter the text in order to continue to build an envisionment. For the candidates, their re-entry came through emotional connections with the characters. Both candidates and text characters shared strong familial bonds. All could relate to

the family's strong sense of wanting to be safe, and to stay together even if they had to make sacrifices. Many candidates made explicit statements about the value of being together with their families, and taking family closeness (geographic) and security for granted. While the emotional connection to the characters shows empathy, it also shows the limited perspectives from which the candidates are working. Not only do most of our candidates lack any personal experience with fleeing a dangerous situation and the sacrifices involved in this story, they likely have little experience to draw from that involves anything close to the story. Exposure to these narratives, especially those coming from the wisdom of having lived through such things, are what will allow the candidates to grow. After readers have stepped out of the text they decide if the literary experience challenged them to advocacy or action.

3. Advocacy- After honestly assessing their own positions of privilege, and developing empathy, candidates can become advocates. Advocacy can take a variety of forms from encouraging the inclusion of diversity in lessons which gives underrepresented people the power to be heard, to speaking on behalf of underrepresented people in circles of power, to encouraging other privileged people to take an honest inventory of their own actions and beliefs. It is through acts of advocacy that structural changes may start to occur, thereby leveling the playing field, or at the very least, to include significant aspects of the race and culture of underrepresented groups within the classroom through selected curricula.

The **stepping out and rethinking what you know** stance is different from the other stances in which readers use their knowledge and experiences to make sense of text-worlds. Readers do the reverse in this stance by use of their developing understandings of text-worlds as they add to their personal knowledge and experiences. A shift in processing occurs as readers focus on meaning development in the ideas and knowledge they are creating and what those

ideas and knowledge mean for their own lives. Readers use envisionments to reflect on things they never knew, did, or felt before having read the text. In this stance a reciprocity occurs between the fictive and real worlds of readers. According to Langer (2011), "The envisionment illuminates (and influences) life, and life illuminates (and influences) the envisionment." Readers often rethink what they knew as a result of reading. This stance does not occur as often as the other stances because not all texts intersect readers' lives in ways that allow for reflection, and because it may take readers time and willingness to develop the ability to allow texts to impact them in such ways. Both the power and pervasive nature of this stance are the very reasons readers take part in literary events (Langer). Texts can help readers make sense of their lives and of real world events. As students make use of the text to add to their personal knowledge and experiences, they have certainly reached the empathy stage, and are most likely searching for ways to advocate for people who are not of the dominant culture.

When the candidates moved through the text to the point of rethinking what they know, one said, "My thoughts of moving were broadened. I knew that people have been and are forced to leave their homes, but in reading this book that thought and idea reoccurred and made me think of what people in those situations must feel like." Another said, "I have never been forced to leave my home, but it makes me really sad that other families have been separated and experienced difficulties in their homeland." Concepts such as governments that do not allow what dominant culture people consider to be common freedoms, and feeling forced by a government to do something they did not want to do were concepts that these candidates admitted that they had not thought about before. Most of the candidates said that as they moved through this text, they actually thought about America's immigrants as real people, as individuals and not just the dehumanized things that are represented in the news or written about in text

books. They thought about immigrants as people in the following ways: they had lives prior to coming to America, they made sacrifices to get to America, they may have faced many dangerous situations to get to America, they will face uncertainty once they get to America, and they were trying to protect themselves and their families. They were able to empathize about specific details of life. Several of the candidates said that they now thought about immigrants as living in the present time, not just in the past. They thought about governmental oppression and how immigrants must feel being surrounded by people who may not understand their language and customs, and even how they view Americans. One candidate stated, "Certainly this text gives perspective to people that are fortunate enough to have their rights protected. … Reading this reminds the reader to be thankful for what they have; some are in more dire situations than us. Personally, reading this makes me want to hug my parents a little tighter next time I see them." Such comments show the value of exposing the candidates to the wisdom of these stories. Any demography course could discuss various factors that may push citizens to leave their country of birth or pull factors that could draw then toward another society. However, such knowledge is unlikely to be sufficient to overcome nightly dinner table talk of immigrants "stealing American jobs." Hearing the story of a family's decision to leave extended family, friends, and cultures that they know to find opportunity or flee oppression activates the empathy associated with wisdom and gives our candidates the tools to discuss such issues for multiple perspectives.

As the discussions shift from students' connections with the texts, and moves to discussing the authors' craft, students' perceptions of the world that were gained through some sort of texts, and rethinking what they know, readers are well on their way to asking questions that will lead them to researching ways of advocating for others. Though these candidate

statements about rethinking what they know are not tantamount to advocating for others, it is plausible that these types of thoughts could lead to advocacy. Using the fourfold framework could provide the needed impetus.

4. Action- The first three steps in the framework lead to action in which dominant culture people actively work to assure that the dominance that exists, and ultimately caused these problems, is eradicated.

The **leaving an envisionment and going beyond** stance occurs less often than the other stances. This stance can only occur when readers have built sufficiently rich envisionments that provide knowledge or insight that can be used in new and sometimes unrelated situations. While our teacher candidates may not become political activists, they can begin the journey through which they can conclude as other white educators before them have, that even though they are not responsible for having started racism and dominance, they are responsible for responding to it (Kivel, 1996; Kozol 2005).

For candidates, leaving an envisionment and going beyond lends itself to action because they now have feelings for immigrants, and would work to help immigrants feel welcome if they come into contact. When they thought about themselves as teachers, most said that they would help their students think of ways to make new students, especially immigrants, feel comfortable within the classroom and in the community. Though most said that the way they would go beyond the text was to be more grateful for what they have, one candidate said that he would be prompted to act on behalf of others in this way. “I might try to look at immigration in a different way, or advocate for people to look at it differently. It was helpful to look into how immigrants are feeling when they are coming to a place that is completely unfamiliar to them.” Another said he would be involved with committees that welcome immigrants into the community.

Candidates had less to share in this stage, which is not surprising since Langer (2011) tells us that this state of envisionment building is accomplished less often than the other stages. It is important to note that action can take multiple forms. We do not need our candidates to all become social justice warriors or stage sit-ins for immigrant rights. If the wisdom allows them to better connect with students from underrepresented populations, or advocate within their own building or district for the needs of immigrant students, or even to shut-down an aggressive discussion in the classroom, that candidate is taking action.

Conclusion

It is well documented through research that teachers' beliefs and the types of knowledge that they value are the filters through which they make the decisions that impact teaching and learning within their classrooms. These decisions are the means through which they select or de-select particular materials and strategies, as well as more subtle interpretations of what and how they teach. From the time they are teacher candidates in their preparation programs to the time they will be practicing teachers, they have been filtering what they are learning and what they will pass on in their classrooms (Borko & Putnam, 1996; Wideen, Mayer-Smith, & Moon, 1998). Garlough and Carrothers believe that the proposed fourfold framework can be used within classroom communities in which teachers and students do not share frames of reference in order that they may develop racial and cultural understanding. Classrooms in which teachers facilitate discussions in which their students are expected to develop ever-changing understandings of texts, themselves, and their worlds (Langer, 2011) are firmly grounded in the theoretical framework of Envisionment Building (2011). Candidates learn to facilitate discussions using an Envisionment Building stance with other students and with texts. Classrooms discussions develop a key element of wisdom, talking with and not talking at. It is through wisdom that we

can admit there is much that we do not know and may learn from each other and texts through discussions. Both teachers and students can develop wisdom and bridge cultural gaps through honest dialogue.

The discussion framework was implemented during the 2016-17 academic year. Additionally, we created a website to house book reviews of the award winning picture books and organized it according to awards/racial groups. For each book on the site, there is a discussion guide using the framework, and related sociological concepts. The website is intended to be open source and available for anyone to add and edit materials with the hope that the site becomes a clearinghouse for educators to use at all levels.

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Pre-Service Teachers' Definitions of Academic and Mathematical Academic Language

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Abstract:

This qualitative study focuses on pre-service teachers' (PSTs) constructions of academic and mathematical academic language. The PSTs in two distinct programs, the Middle Childhood Mathematics Teacher Education Program (MCMTEP) and the Early Childhood Teacher Education Program (ECTEP), completed a written survey and defined both terms. Using literature, working definitions for academic and mathematical academic language were written and then used to develop codes of "sophisticated," "under construction," and "fragile" to categorize the PSTs' definitions. Based on the findings, there exists a need to deepen PSTs understandings of both academic and mathematical academic language through possible changes in the programs.

Students in the United States K-12 educational system complete many standardized tests by which educators and policy makers make decisions (Burns, Klingbeil, &Ysseldyke, 2010). Despite debate for and against such wide-spread testing, the areas of some of the lowest scores on these tests are in mathematics skills and achievement (Chard, Baker, Clarke, Jungjohann, Davis, & Smolkowski, 2008). These results give rise to added attention to pedagogies with a focus on improving the mathematics performance of our students. One such pedagogy is related to academic language in mathematics as a way to enhance students' performance on standardized tests. Current changes in education standards and the adoption of the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) in many states have brought about an increased interest in the role of academic language in the mathematics classroom. The Teacher Performance Assessment (edTPA) also places attention on academic language.

The increased attention on academic language through CCSS and edTPA mandates the need for teachers to address these concerns and led to the current study. We investigated how students in two distinct programs, the Middle Childhood Mathematics Teacher Education Program (MCMTEP) and the Early Childhood Teacher Education Program (ECTEP), at a small private Midwestern university during their final year in the education program, defined academic and mathematical academic language.

We posed the following research question: How do pre-service teachers in the final year of their middle childhood or early childhood education programs define academic language and mathematical academic language? In order to frame the discussion of our survey results we focused on using the voices of the students and created *in vivo* codes.

Literature

The literature on the constructs of academic and mathematical academic language is vast. Many key terms are associated with academic language. Some of the closely-related terms are: discourse (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices, & Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010; Stanford Center, 2013; Ratzel, 2012); mathematics language (Dial & Baines,1998; Richardson, Morgan, & Fleener, 2012; Wallace & Evans, 2013); content area literacy/mathematical literacy (Harmon, Wood, & Stover, 2012; Miller & Veatch, 2011; Siebert & Draper, 2008); and, academic vocabulary (Baumann & Graves, 2010; Nagy & Townsend, 2012; Solomon & Rhodes, 1996). Here we will focus only on the term academic language.

Academic Language

In order to gain an appreciation for the varying degrees of interpretation and meaning and to grasp the breadth and depth of this construct of academic language, we summarize some definitions for academic language. Chamot and O'Malley (1994) defined academic language as,

"… the language in grade level content areas that is used by teachers and students for the purpose of acquiring new knowledge and skills" (p. 40). More broadly, Nagy and Townsend (2012) provided another definition of academic language, "… [it] is the specialized language, both oral and written, of academic settings that facilitates communication and thinking about disciplinary content" (p. 92). Furthermore, Solomon and Rhodes (1996) provided yet another definition: "Academic language is the type of written and spoken language students need to successfully participate in academic tasks in the classroom" (p. 5).

Finally, 2013) because students in both the MCMTEP and the ECTEP must complete the edTPA as a program requirement, it defines academic language as: "Oral and written language used for academic purposes; the means by which students develop and express content understandings; the language of the discipline that students need to learn and use to participate and engage in meaningful ways in the content area" (p. 39).

Working Definitions of Academic and Mathematical Academic Language

Most all of these definitions included the notions that academic language is used by teachers and students (Baumann & Graves, 2010; Chamot & O'Malley, 1994; edTPA) and in academic settings (Nagy & Townsend, 2010; Solomon & Rhodes, 1996). Synthesizing these, we created our own working definition for *academic language*: the oral and written language acquired through reading, writing, speaking, listening, and representing content area concepts across curriculum consisting of text, instruction, and media for the purpose of academic communication. Using this definition as a foundation, we then created a working definition for *mathematical academic language*: the oral and written language acquired through reading, writing, speaking, listening, and representing mathematical concepts for academic purposes

consisting of mathematical symbols and content-related vocabulary for the purposes of doing mathematics and communicating mathematically.

Conceptual Framework

We chose to frame our research and the analysis of the survey and interview data from the PSTs within student voice. Our search for research designs within mathematics education that used student voice data proved sparse (e.g., Ebert, 1995; Author 2, 2007; Johnston, 2001; Steele, 1994). However, we felt that collecting data from the PSTs and then reporting our findings using *their* words would allow us to acknowledge, honor, and respect the role that they played in shaping our research.

"[No] clear and definite conception exists for 'student voice'" (Cook-Sather, 2006, p. 359) although particular words – "rights"; "respect"; and, "listening" – surface repeatedly when researchers describe its' use. Voice can denote students merely expressing their point of view on a topic or it can move beyond to students actively participating in generation of knowledge and action or praxis. For researchers, such as ourselves, the use of student voice data provided the potential to reposition our PSTs so that they could: shape power dynamics; garner respect; and, challenge us to listen (Cook-Sather, 2006). We concur with Bishop (1993) who acknowledged the dangers of using "student-vacant" research projects to inform our instruction because, as teacher educators, our ultimate goal was that this research would cause us to think deeply about both academic language and mathematical academic language in light of teaching and learning for our own PSTs.

However, as Cook-Sather (2006) cautioned, researchers must refrain from the monolithic tendency to report our findings as though one "single student voice" exists for all participants. There is "danger" in placing our students' responses into isolated categories of experience as this

can produce a subtle form of silence (Hadfield & Haw, 2001). Therefore, we chose to report our findings without "overlooking essential differences among students, their perspectives, and their needs" (Cook-Sather, p. 369).

Methodology

We used a qualitative inquiry approach for data gathering and analysis.

Access and Permissions

All survey procedures and data were approved through the Institutional Review Board process. Of 36 possible participants, 35 PSTs agreed to participate.

Participants

This study took place at a small, private, Midwestern university. The PSTs were selected using convenience sampling (Creswell, 2012) because they were traditional students in the education programs where one of the researchers was employed. Of the 35 participants, nine were in the MCMTEP and 26 were in the ECTEP. Each of the middle school PSTs was pursuing a degree with mathematics as one of the two required concentrations. All 35 were seniors, finishing their last education courses before entering a 16-week student teaching field experience.

Prior to the administration of the surveys, the PSTs had some exposure to academic language. They took a course on reading in the content area as part of a teaching methods block and also attended seminars about the requirements of edTPA, which included discussions about academic language. Within the content area courses taught in the School of Education, the professors were encouraged to address academic language

Data Gathering Strategies

The survey (see Appendix A) consisted of five questions asking PSTs' to define academic and mathematical academic language, whether or not they perceived any difference in the two, and what information on academic and mathematical language they felt they needed. The survey asked PSTs to submit demographic data. Results reported here focus on PSTs' responses to questions #1-2.

Data Analysis Approach

Coding. For each iteration of coding, we used *in vivo* codes as we sought to capture the PSTs' voices. According to Charmaz (2006), there are two phases of coding: the initial phase and the focused phase. During the initial phase, we read over each question individually, grouping codes of common words and phrases which we then discussed at our meetings. Then, during the focused coding phase, we created categories for PSTs' definitions which we named: "sophisticated;" "under construction;" and, "fragile." These categories emerged as we analyzed the data and compared PSTs' responses to our working definitions for academic and mathematical academic language.

PSTs' responses categorized as "sophisticated" included at least three of the following four components: indicated cross curricular understanding; included the idea of academic purposes; expanded academic communication to more than one component - reading, writing, speaking, listening, and representing; and, addressed two dimensions of language including oral and written. PSTs' responses categorized as "under construction": maintained a description of language as a whole; focused on concepts; referred to academic settings; and, may have included specific examples. PSTs' responses categorized as "fragile" focused on vocabulary and teacher usage.

Findings

Descriptions of Academic and Mathematical Academic Language

As seen in the literature, academic language is a deep construct with varying meanings and terms with which it is associated. We found the same to be true with the PSTs' definitions. One idea that seemed to reach across most PSTs' responses was that academic and mathematical academic language are to be learned in academic settings and used for academic purposes. This belief stood out as the most prominent belief. The PSTs' definitions included the notions that academic language is used by teachers and students (Baumann & Graves, 2010; Chamot & O'Malley, 1994; edTPA) and in academic settings (Nagy & Townsend, 2010; Solomon & Rhodes, 1996), which corresponded to definitions from the literature.

How do you define academic language? All PSTs began their definitions by using a noun to claim they believed academic language was either a "language," "vocabulary," "words," or "terminology." From this starting point, 27 PSTs used at least one adjective to describe this language such as "specific," "appropriate," "necessary," and "not common." Twenty-six of the PSTs named a place they believed was associated with academic such as: "school;" "classroom;" "academic setting;" "education setting;" and, some combination of "discipline" or "subject area." The final major aspect of the definitions dealt with the goal of academic language or the target of the language and PSTs used words such as: "content area;" "curriculum;" "domains;" "concept;" and, "grade level." PST # 14 referred to academic language as, "Language that is different from that used at home." There were four PSTs (#3, #26, #29, and #30), who used the phrase, "not common in everyday language."

How do you define mathematical academic language? All of the PSTs again began this definition with one of the following nouns: "language;" "words;" "vocabulary;" or, "terms."

As with the definitions for academic language, the PSTs used several adjectives, described the location, and provided ideas for the purpose of the language. Many of the same adjectives were repeated here such as: "specific;" "uncommon;" "appropriate;" and, "exclusively." The location descriptors were more specific to mathematical classrooms and settings with PST #19 stating, "Language specifically related to life in a math classroom."

Several PSTs gave examples of mathematical academic language. Some of the terms written were "multiplication," "integer," "solve," and "line." PST #29, gave a more general statement indicating a belief that mathematical academic language, "Helps learners understand the meaning and function behind some of the things we do in math." PST #9 noted, "Mathematical academic language is any language whether content or process, that has to do with mathematics." Interestingly, eight out of the nine middle childhood PSTs described the purpose of mathematical academic language as both conceptual and procedural, whereas, only three of the 26 early childhood participants identified both aspects.

PST #5 wrote, "Mathematical academic language is any words associated to this specific field and is required to be explained further to students. It affects the ability to accurately do mathematical problems." This response indicated that mathematical academic language must be taught by a teacher and understood by a student in order for them to "do" mathematics. This belief, though not shared as intensely by others, was communicated through other responses such as PST #2, "Words, phrases, or vocabulary that must be known to complete a problem or understand a concept."

Categorizations of PSTs' Definitions

With the aim to help clarify our categorizations of the PSTs definitions, we created Figure 1 which displays exemplars for academic language definitions for each of the three categories: "sophisticated;" "under construction;" and, "fragile" and the totals.

	Sophisticated (S)	Under Construction (C)	Fragile (F)
Descriptions	Included at least three of the following four components: indicated cross curricular understanding; the idea of academic purposes; expanded academic communication to more than one component - reading, writing, speaking, listening, and representing; and, addressed two dimensions of language including oral and written	Maintained a description of language as a whole; focused on concepts; referred to academic settings; and, may have used specific examples	Focused on vocabulary and teacher usage
Exemplars	PST #8 "Academic language is the type of language read/seen and heard in the field. This includes instructional/procedural language as well as content specific vocabulary."	PST #17 "Academic language is vocabulary used to define something in a school setting. It is language students and teachers should know to get more from their education."	PST #31 "A specific use of vocabulary that is specific to a classroom setting."
Academic Language Count	2	10	23
Mathematical Academic Language Count	1	7	27

Figure 1: Exemplars and Totals

Discussion

This research on academic and mathematical academic language enlightened us to several points of interest. The PSTs tended to use many of the same descriptions and definitions for both academic language and mathematical academic language, often identifying mathematical academic language as a subset of academic language. Many of the PSTs expressed confusion and limited knowledge of the constructs as a whole and descriptions remained similar. Some of the repeated nouns they used in their definitions were: "language;" "vocabulary;" "words;" or, "terminology." The adjectives included: "specific;" "appropriate;" "necessary" and, "not common." Nearly all of the PSTs described academic settings or classrooms as the primary location for using academic language with the mathematics classroom being the location for mathematical academic language.

Finally, PSTs expressed the sentiment that academic language was a thing to be learned and taught by PSTs and that their students will subsequently become the learners as well implying that academic language would be imposed upon the students by the PSTs. Only three PSTs had definitions categorized as sophisticated and all three of them were in the middle childhood program.

Limitations

The findings of this study were constrained by the small number of participants as well as the fact that all PSTs were enrolled in one small liberal arts university. Our goals were that the data analysis would cause us to think deeply about both academic and mathematical academic language in light of teaching and learning for PSTs and that our own conceptions of these terms would be shaped and enhanced. Our methods for analysis resulted in attainment of verisimilitude or plausibility; someone else could read the transcripts and understand both how

and why we arrived at our conclusions. The results are not generalizable, but transferable. Transferability is a process involving reflective action by consumers of research: 1) the reader first conceptualizes the context of the study; and, 2) using reflection, the reader considers the consequences of applying the findings to a different context (Greenwood & Levin, 2005).

Implications

From this study, we gained a new depth of knowledge of academic and mathematical academic language for our own teaching and learning as well as for future research. We also gained useful ideas for our programs and future courses. The PSTs' mostly "fragile" definitions revealed to us the need for more time in our courses devoted to academic and mathematical academic language. This need may also translate into an added course, designated seminar, more emphasis into the already existing reading in the content area course, or more prominence in mathematics or other methods courses for the teacher education program. Perhaps the university supervisors of the PSTs, during field experiences, should provide more formative feedback into their own development of these concepts during the planning, implementing, and assessing aspects of unit and lesson planning.

Based on the results of this study we plan to interview PSTs about academic and mathematical academic language. Furthermore, we plan to compare the categories we assigned to PSTs' definitions to their edTPA scores for Rubrics #4 (Identifying and Supporting Language Demands) and #14 (Analyzing Students' Language Use and Mathematics Learning), which focus on academic language. Is there a connection between the categorizations of the PSTs' definitions and their scores on these two rubrics?

Conclusion

Again, we noticed that most all of the PSTs' definitions included the same notions researchers used in their definitions: academic language is used by teachers and students (Baumann & Graves, 2010; Chamot & O'Malley, 1994; edTPA) and in academic settings (Nagy & Townsend, 2010; Solomon & Rhodes, 1996). In some ways this is troublesome because it implies that academic language is not used by nonstudents and/or in places outside of school. Yet, to understand or do mathematics in settings outside of school, the language of mathematics is a critical tool. For example, without understanding mathematical terms how can citizens make decisions about environmental issues that are based on statistics or probabilities?

Interestingly, eight out of the nine middle childhood PSTs described the purpose of mathematical academic language as both conceptual and procedural, whereas, only three of the 26 early childhood participants identified both aspects. Why is it that only 23 of 26 PSTs in the ECTEP wrote about mathematical academic language as related to procedures? Is this finding significant for PSTs at this university and enrolled in the early childhood program or would similar findings exist for PSTs at other universities and enrolled in early childhood programs? Opportunities exist for more research into PSTs constructions of academic and mathematical language. This research has the potential to impact student learning in classrooms, K-12.

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Appendix A

CONCEPTUALIZATION OF MATHEMATICAL ACADEMIC LANGUAGE RESEARCH STUDY SURVEY

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Status: Junior/ Senior **Years at [Blank] University**:__________________

Gender: Male/Female **Student ID Number:**___________________________

Program: ECE/MCE **If MCE indicate both concentrations** _______________________

Please complete each question to the best of your ability. If you do not know the answer or do not feel comfortable answering the question, please indicate by stating "I cannot answer at this time."

1. How do you define academic language?
2. How do you define mathematical academic language?
3. Do you see a difference between academic language and mathematical academic language? Explain.
4. How is the following phrase an example of academic language and/or mathematical academic language: "Evaluate the following problem."
5. What would you like to know about mathematical academic language?

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Lori Ferguson earned her bachelor's degree at Cedarville University and her master's degree at the University of Dayton. She is currently pursuing an Ed.D. in Curriculum and Instruction, Mathematics Education at the University of Cincinnati with research interests in academic and mathematical academic language. Ferguson taught third-grade for one year and eighth-grade mathematics for seven years and is excited to share her teaching experience with pre-service teachers. She came back to teach at Cedarville University because she enjoyed her time as a student, believes it is an excellent environment for learning, and wants to be part of Cedarville's reputation of academic excellence. She enjoys teaching rigorous courses in mathematics content and methods of early and middle childhood mathematics education.

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