

Abstract

Maher, Michael John. An investigation of teacher candidate ethical identity. (Under the direction of Alan J. Reiman.)

The purpose of the study was to investigate the ethical identity of teacher education candidates. Ethical identity is composed of candidate ethical sensitivity, ethical judgment, and ethical action in a clinical context. A study of this nature is necessary because classrooms in the United States are becoming more diverse (racially, ethnically, linguistically) and yet the teaching profession and those entering the profession continue to reflect primarily the majority culture. The disconnect between student and teacher culture can be remedied by effective parent/caregiver communication. However, training in parent/caregiver communication is virtually nonexistent in teacher education programs.

This study investigated the ethical identity of teacher education candidates using a series of seven research hypotheses and two research questions. These hypotheses and questions were used to address the following question: *What is the relationship between teacher candidate ethical sensitivity, ethical judgment, and ethical action in a clinical setting?*

The assessment of ethical judgment occurred first with the administration of the Defining Issues Test (DIT) to a sample of 40 undergraduate teacher education students. Ethical sensitivity was assessed using the Racial Ethical Sensitivity Test (REST) and consisted of a sample of 22 students who participated in the DIT administration. To assess ethical action in a clinical context, a purposeful, stratified sample of 12 students were

selected. These students participated in a “standardized” parent conference where their verbal sensitivity was analyzed using an Adapted Flanders Interaction Analysis.

Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated to investigate the relationships between each of the variables (Ethical Sensitivity, Ethical Judgment, Ethical Action). Additionally, within-group and post-hoc analyses of three cases were conducted to better explicate the findings resulting in a more robust conception of teacher candidate ethical identity.

Among the significant quantitative findings were a moderate negative correlation (-0.42) between candidate ethical sensitivity and candidate indirect verbal interaction and a moderate correlation (-0.37) between candidate ethical judgment and the proportion of teacher candidate talk. Qualitative findings suggest there are advantages to the use of the standardized parent in teacher education preparation. As well, the three post-hoc case analyses show clear areas of divergence between individuals at low, moderate, and high levels of ethical sensitivity and ethical judgment. As ethical sensitivity and ethical judgment increase there is an increasing awareness of the need to identify and accept feelings, an increasing awareness of how to proceed to determine an ethically justifiably course of action, an increasing recognition of the responsibility to confront those in positions of power who use racial or gender bias, and an increasing awareness of a “felt sense of personal responsibility” in creating and/or remedying an ethical dilemma.

Findings from this study of ethical judgment, racial/ethical sensitivity, and ethical action in a clinical setting suggest that Blasi’s (1980) comprehensive review of the relation between moral reasoning and behavior is a definitive work on the question of relationships between moral judgment, moral sensitivity, and moral action. The proposed self model has

three major components of ethical functioning that could guide program design in Colleges of Education. This dissertation concludes with a manner in which to incorporate this model into a teacher education program.

An Investigation of Teacher Candidate Ethical Identity

by

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my wife Catherine and daughters Madeline and Megan. Catherine provided the constant love, support, and encouragement needed for this endeavor and Madeline and Megan were daily reminders of the truly important things life and the need to maintain a balance.

Biography

Michael Maher was born in Keansburg, New Jersey in 1974, the oldest of three children. Michael began his education in the Keansburg Public School System and graduated from Keansburg High School in 1992. He continued his education at Belmont Abbey College, where he received a Bachelor of Science degree in Biology in 1996. He met his wife, Catherine Elrod, at Belmont Abbey and they were married there in 1997. Michael began his teaching career at Robert B. Glenn High School in Kernersville, North Carolina, later enrolling at North Carolina State University to begin work on a Masters of Education degree. His first daughter, Madeline, was born soon after in 2001. Michael completed his M. Ed. in Curriculum and Instruction in 2002 and immediately began work on his Doctorate. His second daughter, Megan, was born in 2004. Soon afterwards, Michael completed his Ph. D. in Curriculum and Instruction at North Carolina State University.

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Classrooms in the United States are more culturally diverse than ever before (Dosanjh, 2003; Gutman, 1994; Howard, 2003). At the end of 2000 nearly 33% of all children were persons of color and this figure is expected to rise to 40% by 2020. The increase in diversity however, has not only been manifested in terms of racial composition. Family compositions, socio-economic status, ethnicity and religion have also contributed to the growth (Van Hook, 2002). Additionally, current estimates show that roughly 5.5% of the total school aged population are English language learners and roughly 20% of those enrolled in Head Start speak a language other than English (Wesson & Jackson, 2002). In response to the increasing multicultural nature of our classrooms, teachers must be equipped to deal with the variance in student background and cultural perspective including cultural, ethnic, racial, and social class (Howard, 2003; Jordan, Reyes-Blanes, Peel, Peel, & Lane, 1998). This situation is compounded by the fact that as our schools are becoming more culturally diverse the teachers entering the profession continue to reflect the majority culture (Van Hook, 2002).

The literature surrounding ethical education has contributed little to our understanding of race and teacher education (Blum, 1999) but what has been contributed reports that the majority of teacher candidates are from backgrounds with limited exposure to diversity (Van Hook, 2002), and schools of education acknowledge the importance of diversity but issues pertaining to diversity, particularly race and gender, are not evidenced in either research or teaching (Wesson & Jackson, 2002).

In a monocultural society, moral relativism prevails because the laws of society reflect its values. The United States, however, is not a monocultural society. The moral relativist determines solutions to dilemmas based on the norms of their particular culture (Dosanjh, 2003). This conventional line of reasoning can serve as a detriment for those students not accustomed to a particular culture. It is imperative that Colleges of Education investigate the ethical identity of its teacher candidates and its association to racial and gender sensitivity. Without an understanding of the nature of ethical identity it is impossible to develop programs that foster its growth. Although there is a large body of literature regarding professional competence in relation to racial and gender issues, there are few validated tools for evaluating one's racial or ethical awareness (Brabeck, Rogers, Selcuk, Henderson, Benvenuto, Weaver, 2000). A related methodological challenge is the need to establish a means by which to assess components of ethical identity and performance in order to show the relationship between ethical identity and ethical action.

The ethical nature of the teaching profession has been well established and includes both ethical sensitivity and ethical judgment (Strike, 1990; Strike & Soltis, 1992; Strike & Soltis, 1986). Ethical sensitivity is the ability to identify the component parts of ethical situations that exist in the teaching profession. Ethical Sensitivity is also described as being able to identify different courses of action in an ethical situation and understanding how each of those actions may affect other individuals (Brabeck et al., 2000; Rest et al., 1999). Within professions, ethical sensitivity refers to the expectations based on distinct codes and norms that govern practice. Such codes and norms are necessary in order to socialize individuals into that profession (Bebeau, 2002).

The assessment of ethical sensitivity was first conducted in the field of dentistry but has subsequently been applied to other professions including: medicine and nursing, journalism, sports and within professional education with counselors and school personnel. It has also been assessed within computer users, and in undergraduate education (Bebeau, 2002; Brabeck et al., 2000). Studies investigating ethical sensitivity have shown that individuals within a profession show considerable variability (Bebeau, 2002), women tend to score higher on the construct (Bebeau & Brabeck, 1987), and ethical sensitivity can be reliably measured (Bebeau & Brabeck, 1987). Ethical sensitivity can be improved through deliberate intervention, and is distinct from ethical judgment (Brabeck et al., 2000).

The assessment of ethical judgment has been carried out in a variety of fields including: medicine, business, dentistry, journalism, veterinary medicine, education, and sports (Rest & Narvaez, 1994). Within the field of education, studies have consistently shown that practicing teachers and teacher candidates show lower levels of ethical judgment when compared to other professions or academic majors (Chang, 1994; Cummings et al., 2001). Although there are very few studies investigating the link between ethical judgment and behavior, studies have explored relationships to delinquency, cooperative behavior, conscientious objection, aggression in athletes, civic engagement, and teachers' perceptions of discipline. No studies, as of yet, have investigated ethical judgment and teaching candidate clinical practice (Cummings et al., 2001). While there is an abundance of research focused on ethical judgment (Rest et al., 1999) the research surrounding ethical sensitivity and teacher behavior is virtually nonexistent.

One area of needed competence for teacher candidates is parent/caregiver communication. Family involvement in schools has been linked to various forms of

achievement in students including: higher standardized test scores, higher grades, better attendance, improved social skills, and greater likelihood of admission to higher education institutions (Henderson & Mapp, 2002). The involvement of parents or caregivers in schools is directly linked to teacher practices and whether teachers encourage parental involvement in the school (Tischenor, 1998). Teacher candidates often feel unprepared in implementing parental involvement strategies (Tischenor, 1998), a direct result of a lack of attention in teacher education. The relationships teachers foster with parents or caregivers can have a profound impact on student achievement. The behaviors of teacher candidates and their relation to parents or caregivers, however are yet to be studied (Tischenor, 1998).

Because of the ethical nature of the profession, increased accountability in student achievement, and the increasingly diverse make-up of the student population, it has become imperative that teacher education investigate the linkages between the ethical sensitivity and specific pre-professional behaviors of their teacher candidates. Ethical sensitivity has been reliably assessed in various professional fields (Bebeau, 2002; Brabeck et al., 2000), but not in teacher candidates and ethical sensitivity is an important component in ethical identity. Among the needed professional behaviors is the interaction with parents or caregivers. Family involvement in schools contributes to student achievement and teachers have a direct impact on the involvement of parents and caregivers. Most teacher education programs, however, do not offer any type of formal training in parent/caregiver involvement and as a result many teacher candidates feel unprepared for these encounters (Tischenor, 1998). The section to follow will address the purpose of this study: an investigation of the ethical identity of teacher candidates.

Statement of the Purpose

This study will investigate the ethical identity of teacher candidates, as expressed by ethical sensitivity, ethical judgment, and ethical action. Ethical sensitivity is the awareness of how actions affect other individuals and is what alerts an individual to the notion that a dilemma exists (Rest et al, 1999). Ethical sensitivity requires an individual to interpret a situation and imagine what courses of action are possible. It additionally requires that an individual anticipate how each course of action will impact the welfare of each person involved. An ethically sensitive teacher recognizes that he/she can decide on a course of action that will affect the interests, well being, or expectations of students, colleagues, or parents. Research in the field of social cognitions has clarified some of the complexities of ethical sensitivity including a research finding that social situations can arouse strong emotions either of dislike or empathy. These emotions often accompany or precede cognitions. They often proceed before reflective judgment with its careful examination of facts, and becomes an important part of how an individual interprets and responds to social problems. Consequently, these emotions can impede or enhance judgment. When an individual is instantly disliked, there is often the temptation to deny that individual his/her full rights (Hoffman, 2000).

If individuals are ethically sensitive they will be more likely to engage in careful analysis of the situation. This can be crucial to the disregard of initial feelings and the weighing of evidence in order to make an informed judgment. Ethical sensitivity will be assessed in this study using the Racial Ethical Sensitivity Test (REST). The REST is designed to assess ethical sensitivity to acts of racial and gender intolerance that occur in school settings (Brabeck et al., 2000).

Ethical judgment, the second component of the study, refers to the manner in which individuals justify a particular course of action. Ethical judgment can be viewed as a cognitive preference and recognition of ethical problems. In the context of the proposed research, ethical judgment is conceptualized as the explanations and justifications that teacher candidates give as they encounter ethical dilemmas. An example might be deciding what is right in a classroom situation. The teacher may identify fairness as an organizing concept for particular ethical judgments. In effect, the teacher uses the principle of fairness to judge future actions. It is the “goodness of fit” between the teacher’s principles and the general situation that gives him/her a sense of conviction and certainty. The Defining Issues Test-2 (DIT-2) is one method by which to assess the ethical judgment of individuals (Rest, 1994) and will be utilized in this study.

Ethical action is the manner in which an individual responds to a particular ethical situation. Ethical action involves implementing one’s intentions or judgments. In the case of a teacher candidate, it could mean deciding how to communicate during a conference with a parent or caregiver during a clinical experience. The teacher candidate would need to overcome unexpected difficulties, overcome frustrations, and sustain a sense of competence, responsiveness, and professional character as she/he engaged the parent or caregiver in a dialogue. Such persistence may be related to a positive affective state. In effect, the teacher candidate acts as a cheerleader to himself/herself thus increasing staying power during involvement in a complex professional interaction such as a parent/caregiver conference. Ethical action in this study will be assessed during a clinical performance with a “standardized” parent. The assessment of the teacher candidate’s nonverbal sensitivity will be conducted using an adapted version of the Galloway System (adapted Galloway) and

verbal sensitivity using the Adapted Flanders Interaction Analysis (adapted Flanders) for types of talk (direct vs. indirect).

The study springs from a need to understand teachers candidates' ethical sensitivity, ethical judgment, and ethical action. However, it builds on a convergence of research (Blasi, 1993; Colby & Damon, 1992; Lapsley, 1996; Noam, 1993; Nucci, 2001; Power & Khmelkov, 1998) toward the idea that ethical practice in teaching is best understood in relation to how the teacher integrates various ethical components into a personal identity. The most influential source of this shift in thinking is Blasi (1993). For Blasi, ethical responsibility is the result of the integration of morality in one's identity or sense of self. From such an identity derives the psychological need to make one's actions consistent with one's principles. In a similar vein, Power and Khmelkov (1998) redefine character as the moral self. In the case of education, a teacher may undertake a particular course of action, even at some cost, because they want to become or remain a certain kind of person. Thus, teachers' ethical identity embraces sensitivity, cognition and action.

Research Hypotheses and Questions

This study investigated the ethical identity of teacher education candidates by addressing the following meta-question: *What is the relationship between teacher candidate ethical sensitivity, ethical judgment, and ethical action in a clinical setting?* Research hypotheses and questions included the following:

Research Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: Teacher education candidates significantly differ in their ethical sensitivity, by gender, as measured by the Racial Ethical Sensitivity Test.

Hypothesis 2: Teacher education candidates significantly differ in their ethical sensitivity, by age, as measured by the Racial Ethical Sensitivity Test.

Hypothesis 3: There is a positive correlation between ethical sensitivity and ethical judgment for the teacher education candidates.

Hypothesis 4: There is a positive correlation between ethical sensitivity and teacher education candidate clinical performance in a standardized conference as measured by the proportion of indirect teacher candidate verbal interaction.

Hypothesis 5: There is a positive correlation between ethical judgment and teacher education candidate clinical performance in a standardized conference as measured by the proportion of indirect teacher candidate verbal interaction.

Hypothesis 6: There is a positive correlation between ethical judgment and teacher education candidate clinical performance in a standardized conference as measured by the proportion of teacher candidate talk.

Hypothesis 7: There is a positive correlation between ethical judgment and teacher education candidate clinical performance in a standardized conference as measured by the proportion of parent talk.

Research Questions

Research Question 1: Can the ethical sensitivity of teacher education candidates be effectively and efficiently assessed by teacher educators using the Racial Ethical Sensitivity Test?

Research Question 2: What are the advantages associated with the utilization of the standardized parent in teacher education preparation?

Significance

The ethical nature of the teaching profession has been well established (Strike, 1990; Strike & Soltis, 1992; Strike & Soltis, 1986), yet very little research has been done pertaining to the investigation of teacher candidate ethical identity (Bebeau, 2002; Brabeck et al., 2000). There is an abundance of research evidence reporting that teachers who reason at the post-conventional level tend to more frequently exhibit the qualities that represent thoughtful and responsible professional practice (Chang, 1994). Teachers at the post-conventional level of ethical reasoning are more tolerant of students' disturbing or defiant behaviors (Holt, Kauchak, & Person, 1980), ensure certain rights of students, are more willing to involve students in the composition of rules, are more democratic and facilitative (Johnston & Lubomudrov, 1987), have more positive relationships with students, have a more intellectual and participative climate, and see curriculum from both a broad social view and in terms of individual student interests (Taylor & Wasicsko, 2000).

Teachers are continuously subjected to ethical dilemmas and are expected to make ethical decisions (Strike, 1990; Strike & Soltis, 1986). There is great variety in the type of ethical dilemmas teachers face on a daily basis. When two students are absent, one due to illness and the other due to vacation, how does the teacher determine the best way to handle

the missed assignments? Questions like this abound and some are more difficult than others to answer, but teachers are expected to make well-informed sound judgments regardless of the number or type of questions. According to Goodlad (1990), the difficulty in making sound judgments is increased by contextual complexity. Contextual factors in classrooms include physical factors such as the size of the classroom or number of students, as well as cultural factors including the socioeconomic or racial makeup of students. These contextual factors also have a profound impact on the teachers' instructional behaviors (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Goodlad, 1990).

Developing individual teachers who can make sound decisions about moral and ethical situations is paramount since they work with children, often in isolation. This solitary work is compounded by the fact that children are often unable to recognize unethical treatment (Sirotnik, 1990; Strike & Soltis, 1992). When parents send their children to school, they believe teachers behave ethically in the classroom, transmit values upheld by society, and serve as role models for their children (Sirotnik, 1990). The research, however, may not support this, considering teacher candidates and practicing teachers compare unfavorably in terms of their ethical judgments with those of other professions or college majors (Chang, 1994; Cummings et al., 2001). When taken in conjunction with the fact that there is no research comparing the ethical sensitivity of teacher candidates or practicing teachers with other professionals the need to study ethical identity becomes more evident.

A review of research findings in teacher education reveal that many teacher education programs do little to foster growth or change in teacher candidates' entrenched beliefs (Chang, 1994; Hill, 2000). Teacher education candidates bring with them a series of dispositions that develop over the course of their own formal learning, upbringing, and

school socialization (Goldstein & Lake, 2003; Minor et al., 2002; Raths, 2001). Raths (2001) refers to this as a “folk pedagogy” which is the belief held by many teacher education candidates that they already have what it takes to be a good teacher and therefore have little to learn from formal teacher education. An example of the “folk pedagogy”, attribution theory, claims that many teachers attribute student failure to external factors in the students’ life (home, parents, peers) rather than reflecting on their own teaching practice to determine a cause (Raths, 2001). These findings should not be surprising however, since we do not have a firm understanding of the teacher candidates’ ethical identity.

Evidence supporting the need to develop teachers who make sound ethical decisions is also found within accrediting and professional organizations. National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) defines dispositions as the values, commitments, and professional ethics that influence behaviors toward students, families, colleagues, and communities and affect student learning, motivation, and development as well as the educator’s own professional growth (NCATE, 2002). NCATE further states that dispositions are guided by beliefs and attitudes related to values such as caring, fairness, honesty, responsibility, and social justice (NCATE, 2002).

The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS), a national organization devoted to the advancement of teaching professionalism, has noted among its core propositions how the ethical dimension of teaching distinguishes it from other professions. As a result of the compulsory nature of education, coupled with the fact that the clients are children, teachers are obligated to meet high ethical standards. Teachers are to model the role of an educated person and students learn to read and draw lessons from their teacher’s behavior and character. It is incumbent upon teachers to conduct themselves in a

manner that students might emulate. The NBPTS concluded that professional teaching should emphasize its ethical nature (NBPTS, 2003).

The study will contribute to our understanding of communication with parents/caregivers. Conferences between teachers and parent/caregivers are, in some instances, the only link between the school and the home and can be a key component to positive communication between parent/caregivers and the school (Jordan et al., 1998). The caveat associated with parent/caregiver conferences lies in the fact that many parents feel vulnerable or uncomfortable around teachers and in the school setting (Jordan et al., 1998; Nielson & Finkelstein, 1993). The expectations teachers have also profoundly impact the success of the parent/caregiver-teacher relationship and communication. These expectations are further affected by cultural differences between teachers and parent/caregivers (Jordan et al., 1998). Most individuals relate more easily to people most like themselves and many teacher candidates expect to teach students who are much like they were as students (Kagan, 1992). Teachers and teaching candidates often, out of ignorance, hold negative stereotypes that prevent them from treating persons different from themselves with respect and dignity.

In order to produce positive, effective interactions between parents or caregivers and teachers in our multicultural society, parents must be actively involved in the conferences. It has been found that parents typically have realistic notions of their child's academic abilities and social needs, further supporting the importance of active involvement of parents in conferences (Jordan et al., 1998). By assessing the verbal and nonverbal sensitivity of teacher candidates while engaged in a conference, we can better understand how parents are affected by the behavior of the teacher and how, in turn, students are affected.

Research, accrediting institutions, and professional organizations identify ethical decision making as fundamental to effective teaching. The literature surrounding ethical sensitivity, the foundation for ethical decision making, reports that studies have been conducted in dentistry, medicine, nursing, counseling, and sports. Teaching, however is noticeably absent from this literature (Brabeck et al., 2000). The relationship between ethical judgment and teacher performance is well documented; however the relationship between ethical sensitivity, ethical judgment and teacher-parent/caregiver interaction is virtually non-existent. This study will investigate how ethical sensitivity is related to ethical action as demonstrated in a parent/caregiver-teacher conference. This research must address two particular problems.

The first problem to be addressed pertains to the investigation of a relationship between ethical identity and ethical action. The basic research design for this study is the correlational method. The correlational method is used for the following two reasons (1) to explore relationships between variables, and (2) to predict scores on one variable from a score on a second variable (Gall et al., 1996). This study will investigate the relationship between ethical sensitivity (as measured by the REST), ethical judgment (as measured by the DIT-2), and ethical action in clinical performance (as measured by the adapted Galloway and Adapted Flanders). The relationship between ethical sensitivity and ethical judgment as measured by the DIT-2 has been established. This study will not only serve to confirm and build upon the established norms but explore the relationship between the two constructs using the REST as the measure of sensitivity.

The second problem to be addressed is the control of variables. As with any quantitative study, control of extraneous variables is of paramount importance. In this

particular study the composition of the sample and the use of a “standardized parent” will serve to control the impact of additional variables. The sample will be constructed in a stratified sample based on DIT-2 scores. Every attempt will be made to ensure a homogeneous sample is selected based on the three levels of ethical reasoning: pre-conventional, conventional, and post-conventional.

The standardized parent, a model adapted from the medical community, has proven to be very effective (AAMC, 1998). In medical education use of the standardized patient has steadily increased culminating in 97% of U.S. medical schools using the model in instruction, 85% in assessment, and 72% for advancement. It was further reported that 49% of the schools were using the standardized patient in a final comprehensive examination (AAMC, 1998).

In this study the standardized parent will be an African-American, female who is an experienced teacher, mentor, and parent. The standardized parent will be coached in the situation they are to present to the teacher candidate to ensure standardization of the conference. Selected teacher candidates will take part in a training session on how to conduct the conference prior to interaction with the standardized parent.

Limitations

The purpose of correlational research is to discover relationships between two or more variables. A relationship exists when the status on one variable tends to reflect the status on another variable. Correlational research is used to develop an understanding of related events, conditions, or behaviors or to make predictions for one variable based on the other (Gay, 1999). For this study the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (r) will be the

specific type of correlational statistic used. This particular type of correlation was selected for two reasons. First, each of the variables used are continuous interval data. Second, the Pearson r is a parametric statistic and measures used in the study are based on parametric assumptions (Charles & Mertler, 2003).

The primary limitation to this type of study is the understanding that correlation does not imply causation (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). It is, therefore, impossible to conclude that there is a cause and effect relationship between ethical identity and ethical action. A second limitation to the study is the sample selection and instrumentation. A stratified sample will be selected based on DIT-2 scores. It is advisable that the sample be as homogeneous as possible in order that the number of extraneous variables be minimized (Gall et al., 1996). The reliability and validity of the tests being utilized also factor heavily into the success of the correlational study. The reliability and validity data for each of the instruments utilized in this study will be reported on in the chapter three of the dissertation.

Organization of the Dissertation

The second chapter of this dissertation will constitute the review of literature. The review of literature will include an explanation of cognitive developmental theory, the neo-Kohlbergian approach to ethical development including a detailed analysis of the two parts of the four component model (ethical sensitivity and ethical judgment) used in this study, and schema theory. It will also include sections on parent/caregiver conferencing, verbal and nonverbal sensitivity, and the standardized patient/parent.

Chapter three will be an explanation of the study methodology. This will include a description of the manner in which the study was conducted, participant selection and

characteristics, and procedures for conducting the clinical performance. The chapter will also include the reasoning behind the choice for a Pearson Product Moment Correlation along with its limitations and advantages. The measures being used in the study (REST, DIT-2, adapted Flanders, adapted Galloway) will be explained and analyzed according to their reliability and validity.

Chapter four will include the findings of the study. The chapter will begin with the results of the DIT, the first test administered, followed by the REST and finally the clinical performance. For each section basic statistics will be reported (n, mean, standard deviation, etc.) followed by the Pearson correlations between each variable (ethical judgment, ethical sensitivity, and clinical performance).

Chapter five will include conclusions and implications. Within the body of this section an analysis of the findings will be reported. This chapter will also include both advantages and limitations of the study and the chapter will conclude with implications for teacher education as well as directions for future research.

Summary

Ethical sensitivity determines how successful an individual is in identifying the ethical components of a situation. Ethical judgment pertains to how individuals make decisions regarding issues of ethical conflict. Making sound ethical decisions in a classroom is hampered by a variety of contextual factors, which can often cloud judgment or identification of components, and teachers are expected to make numerous ethical decisions on a daily basis. We know that teachers who reason at post conventional levels of ethical judgment possess qualities associated with effective and responsible teaching. What we do

not know is how the ethical sensitivity relates to their judgments, their actions, and particularly their interactions with parents. This study intends to investigate this relationship by addressing the following questions:

- Can ethical sensitivity be reliably assessed in the teacher candidate using the REST?
- Do teacher candidates differ in their ethical sensitivity?
- What is the relationship between ethical sensitivity and ethical judgment?
- What is the relationship between ethical sensitivity and teacher candidate clinical performance in a standardized conference as measured by the adapted Galloway System?
- What is the relationship between ethical sensitivity and teacher candidate clinical performance in a standardized conference as measured by the adapted Flanders Interaction Analysis?
- What is the relationship between ethical judgment and teacher candidate clinical performance in a standardized conference as measured by the adapted Galloway System?
- What is the relationship between ethical judgment and teacher candidate clinical performance in a standardized conference as measured by the adapted Flanders Interaction Analysis?
- What are the advantages associated with the utilization of the standardized parent in teacher education preparation?

Conferences between teachers and parents/caregivers are an instrumental link between homes and schools, yet many parents are often intimidated by the setting or

education professionals. By investigating the relationship between the ethical identity of teacher candidates and their ethical actions in a standardized parent conference we can better understand how parents/caregivers are affected by the nonverbal and verbal behavior of teacher candidates. Using the DIT, REST, and a standardized clinical performance Pearson correlations can be calculated resulting in a quantitative assessment of the ethical identity of teacher candidates. The resulting study is an investigation of the relationship between ethical identity and ethical behavior in a clinical performance.

Terms

The following is a list of key terms and their definitions used in this dissertation.

- *Clinical Performance* – The act of carrying out an action or set of behaviors in a professional setting.
- *Cognitive Developmental Theory* - Individuals process and interpret experience through cognitive structures that are arranged in stages (Reiman, 1999), and how individuals understand and reason about a situation is a determinant of their behavior in response to that situation (Bebeau et al., 1985; Bebeau & Brabeck, 1987).
- *Conventional Reasoning* - The second, or intermediate, level in Kohlberg's theory of moral development. Individuals abide by internal standards that are the standards of others, such as parents or the laws of society.
- *Cultural Relativism* - Moral theory that holds that what is good, bad, right, or wrong varies from society to society depending on what each society says to be, or believes to be, good, bad, right, or wrong.

- *Defining Issues Test (DIT or DIT-2)* - A method of assessing ethical judgment. A paper-and-pencil measure presenting subjects with 12 issues to rank according to their importance as they relate to a hypothetical situation. The reported p score is a measure of the amount of justification given that represents post-conventional reasoning (Rest et al., 1999).
- *Direct Interaction* – In the Flanders Interaction Analysis a set of interactions consisting of the one-way flow of information (Lecturing, Giving Directions).
- *Dispositions* - An attributed characteristic that summarizes the trend of a person's actions in a particular context (Katz & Raths, 1985). The personal qualities or characteristics that are possessed by individuals, including attitudes, beliefs, interests, appreciations, values, and modes of adjustment (Collinson & Killeavy, 1999).
- *Ethical Action* - Measures taken in response to an ethical dilemma.
- *Ethical Identity* – The culmination of ethical sensitivity, ethical judgment, and ethical action.
- *Ethical Judgment* - The manner in which individuals justify ethical action.
- *Ethical Sensitivity* - The ability to identify the components of an ethical situation and take the perspective of other individuals within the situation.
- *Globalization* - The term “globalization” describes the increased mobility of goods, services, labor, technology, and capital throughout the world. Although globalization is not a new development, its pace has increased with the advent of new technologies, especially in the area of telecommunications.

- *Indirect Interaction* – In the Flanders Interaction Analysis a set of participatory, collaborative interactions which promote the construction of concepts or ideas.
- *Parent Talk* – Response to questions or the generation of new ideas or concepts by parents in a conference.
- *Post-Conventional Reasoning* – The highest level in Kohlberg’s theory of moral development. Individuals recognize the legitimacy of alternative ethical courses of action and base decisions on a personal ethical code. When laws conflict or are unjust individuals will follow democratic principles and decisions are primarily based on conscience and universal human rights.
- *Schema Theory* - An explanation for the manner in which individuals process and interpret experience. Schemas are general knowledge structures located in long-term memory and activated by new stimuli that resemble previous stimuli (Narvaez & Bock, 2002; Rest et al., 1999).
- *Standardized Parent/Caregiver* – An individual used to play the role of parent/caregiver in a clinical conference. The individual carries out the scenario in the same manner each time.
- *Teacher Candidate* – Students majoring in teacher education and participating in an introductory education course.

CHAPTER 2

Review of Literature

This literature review examines research and theoretical literature that support the investigation of the ethical identity of teacher candidates. The review will include an explanation of the theoretical foundations for this dissertation including: cognitive developmental theory, the Neo-Kohlbergian approach to ethical development, and schema theory. It will also include sections on parent/caregiver conferencing, verbal and nonverbal interaction, and research on ethical identity.

The literature review supports the investigation of the following research question: What is the relationship between teacher candidate ethical sensitivity, ethical judgment, and ethical action in a clinical setting? It establishes significance of the study by noting the dearth of studies investigating teacher/caregiver conferencing, while highlighting the importance of these communications. Finally, it serves as a contribution to the existing literature surrounding the investigation of teachers' ethical identity.

Cognitive-Developmental Theory

This dissertation is grounded in cognitive-developmental theory, which is best explained using the work of individuals such as Jean Piaget, Lawrence Kohlberg, Lev Vygotsky, and Jane Loevinger among others. Based on their work it is understood that how individuals understand and reason about a situation is a determinant of their behavior in response to that situation (Bebeau et al., 1985; Bebeau & Brabeck, 1987).

Cognitive-developmental theory also makes specific assumptions about adult cognition:

- (1) all individuals process and interpret experience through cognitive structures,
- (2) these cognitive structures are arranged in stages from less to more complex,
- (3) behavior is a function of the interactions between the person and the environment,
- (4) individuals move in a stepwise fashion through the stages with appropriate interaction with their environment,
- (5) growth occurs generally without regression, and
- (6) cognitive development can be used as a determinant of behavior, however the relationship is not one-to-one (Reiman, 1999).

Adult cognition can be explained best by describing the role of cognitive structures in supporting cognition. When an individual encounters a new experience (perception, decision-making, reasoning) pre-existing cognitive structures (schema) are activated (Narvaez & Bock, 2002). Piaget referred to this as the assimilation-accommodation process. In his theory individuals had to “fit” new experiences into their current preferred stage of development or understanding. If the experience contrasted with pre-existing cognitive structures cognitive dissonance would result. For example, if a young student has a bad experience the first time she takes part in a class field trip the next time she is involved in that same activity there will be some apprehension to participate. When an individual was able to change or modify the present stage of processing, cognitive development occurs (Reiman, 1999). Dewey (1933) referred to this change in cognitive structure as experiential learning and believed that individuals develop as they experience new situations and develop meaning based on these experiences. Assumptions one and two are supported by individuals such as Case (1992) who discussed evidence to support the notion that humans process experience through cognitive structures. He demonstrated that in a variety of samples there

was considerable evidence to support the notion both within and across cultures. Narvaez and Bock (2002) similarly discuss how cognitive structures (schema) are used by individuals to interpret experiences. Derry (1996) further elaborates on the assumptions by describing the three types of schema used by individuals and how they are used in cognition. Derry also discusses how the schema increase in complexity and result in stage shifts.

Evidence supporting the notion that stages are organized from less to more complex can be found in the work of Piaget (1972), Kohlberg (1969), Loevinger (1976), Hunt (1974), and King and Kitchener (1994). Piaget noted that children move through a series of stages beginning with sensorimotor and ultimately culminating with post-formal operations. Loevinger's work in ego development explicated nine stages with most adults functioning within one of three (conformist, conscientious/conformist, conscientious). Kohlberg identified six stages of moral reasoning which have been modified by the recent work of Rest and his associates into three schema (Personal Interest, Maintaining Norms, Post-Conventional) (Rest, 1999). Hunt and King and Kitchener in their work on conceptual development and reflective judgment respectively have identified three stages which identify individuals as pre-reflective, quasi-reflective, or reflective and note that they are assigned based on conceptual complexity and individuals do not typically regress (Reiman, 1999; King & Kitchener, 1994). It is assumed within cognitive-developmental theory that individuals grow within one stage without regression to an earlier stage. It should be noted however, that earlier stage cognitions may be present because transition periods between stages are broad and flexible (Flavell et al., 1985). Assumption three focuses on growth occurring within stages and is supported by the work of Kohlberg (1978), King and Kitchener (1994), and Loevinger (1976). In each of the studies adults demonstrated patterns

of slow growth through the respective domains. Kohlberg's studies focused on adolescent and adult moral development. Kohlberg concluded that moral judgments can be classified from less to more complex and that with age, experience, and education individuals increase their post-conventional reasoning. Although Kohlberg's original studies consisted of white males, his subsequent studies incorporated both men and women and included studies in over 50 different countries (Reiman, 1998). King and Kitchener (1994) conducted studies involving reflective judgment. They found that, as with moral development, individual reflective judgment increases in complexity from pre-reflective to reflective and develops over time. Loevinger (1976) developed a framework, based on interviews, for understanding ego development. She found that self-understanding increases in complexity just as moral development and reflective judgment through a series of stages. Each of these studies support assumption three and conclude that cognitive development occurs in stages without regression.

The interaction between the person and the environment is an extremely important assumption in cognitive developmental theory. Experience drives learning and experience occurs within the context of an environment and the environment can include other individuals or interactions (Dewey, 1933). Vygotsky and Mead claimed that supportive, social, interactive talk promotes growth as well (Reiman, 1999). Vygotsky noted that we make meaning through discourse and we can accomplish more with the help of a more capable other than alone. The more capable other provides assistance in the movement through the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) leading to cognitive growth. The more capable other, however, does not have to be a person as Rest (1999) notes for example, it can

be words on a page. According to Rest the DIT-2 measures the less competent end of the ZPD with the words serving as the assistance or more capable other.

A final assumption of cognitive developmental theory is that the behavior of an individual can be determined by their level of development (Reiman, 1999; Narvaez & Bock, 2002). Research in the fields of education and dentistry have shown that individuals at particular levels or within certain schemas exhibit characteristics predictive of that level (Rest & Narvaez, 1994). Additional studies by Chang (1994), Holt, Kauchak, and Person (1980), and Johnston and Lubomudrov (1987) further support this assumption.

Summary - Cognitive Developmental Theory

Cognitive developmental theory is one construct by which to explain how individuals grow and develop intellectually. It is based on the work of individuals such as Dewey, Piaget, Vygotsky, Kohlberg, Loevinger and King and Kitchener. The work of these individuals along with a series of studies in fields including, but not limited to, education, nursing, medicine, business, and sports have served to support the underlying assumptions which include:

- (1) humans process experience through cognitive structures;
- (2) these structures are organized from less to more complex;
- (3) behavior is a function of the interactions between the person and the environment,
- (4) growth occurs in stages without regression;
- (5) growth occurs with appropriate interaction between the person and the environment; and
- (6) behavior of a person can be determined by their level of development.

Schema theory is introduced in the next section of this review.

Schema Theory

Schema theory proposes a set of assumptions to explain how individuals process and interpret experience. These assumptions include:

1. Schemas are hypothetical mental structures which represent concepts stored in memory.
2. All understanding is based on schemas and new experiences are reinterpreted according to existing schemas.
3. Schemas are activated with or without conscious control.
4. When individuals notice a similarity or recurrence in experience the creation of expectations, hypotheses, or concepts results.

A schema is a hypothetical mental structure for representing generic concepts stored in memory. Schemas are characterized as general knowledge structures located in long-term memory and activated by new stimuli that resemble previous stimuli. Current literature identifies at least three classes of schemas (Derry, 1996). These three types of schemas exist in a hierarchy and are identified as: memory objects, cognitive fields, and mental models (Narvaez & Bock, 2002) (see figure 2.1). Memory objects, the simplest schema type, are the basic component of stored knowledge. Memory objects are identified as small units of related information which may include: pictorial, procedural, auditory, or emotional knowledge. Memory objects are created in response to different experiences and can be associated with academic disciplines, social situations, or cultural practices (Derry 1996).

An example might include an early experience where an individual visited a bakery as a child. In the experience he/she may have gone to the bakery with a beloved grandparent. The memory objects created could include visual “memories” of the grandparent, the bakery (and “treats”), auditory memory objects could include the slow whirr of a larger mixer, olfactory memory objects could include the smell of fresh baked cookies or breads, and the emotional memory objects might be joy, comfort, or a feeling of closeness with the grandparent.

Cognitive fields compose a second type of schema and are essentially an activated set of memory objects (Narvaez & Bock, 2002). Certain memory objects are activated in response to a particular situation. The cognitive field mediates experience and learning by determining which memory objects are activated in response to the situation. It is thus the cognitive field which determines how a situation will be interpreted and understood. The cognitive field further determines which previously existing memory objects can be modified or updated (Derry, 1996). Continuing with the previous example of the bakery experience, a cognitive field will be activated if that individual returns later without the grandparent. If he/she visits the bakery with some friends later on in life he/she will initially activate the memory objects of the previous experience along with other memory objects created through similar experiences, such as a visit to a grocery store which has a bakery. The cognitive field will determine which memory objects are most appropriate to this particular situation and the individual will have an initial impression of how the experience is going to turn out. If however, the baker is less friendly (abrupt, quieter, inattentive, etc) or if the person working behind the counter is rude to or suspicious of the individual, the cognitive field will be

altered to include these new memory objects. Instead of the bakery being a place of joy or comfort, it may become one of resentment or fear.

The third and the most complex type of schema are mental models. Mental modeling is the process of constructing, testing, and modifying mental representations of a situation. Mental models are situation specific and involve mapping active memory objects onto real-world situations followed by reorganization of the objects in order to form a model of the entire situation. The goal of the mental model is to develop an understanding of a situation (Derry, 1996). Continuing with the bakery example, if the individual, later in life, enters a different bakery he/she will activate a series of cognitive fields and associated memory objects. He/she will unconsciously attempt to interpret the experience or build a mental model based on the prior experiences, through the use of memory objects, and cognitive fields. This new experience will be reinterpreted based on the pre-existing memory objects and the resulting new memory objects from the experience.

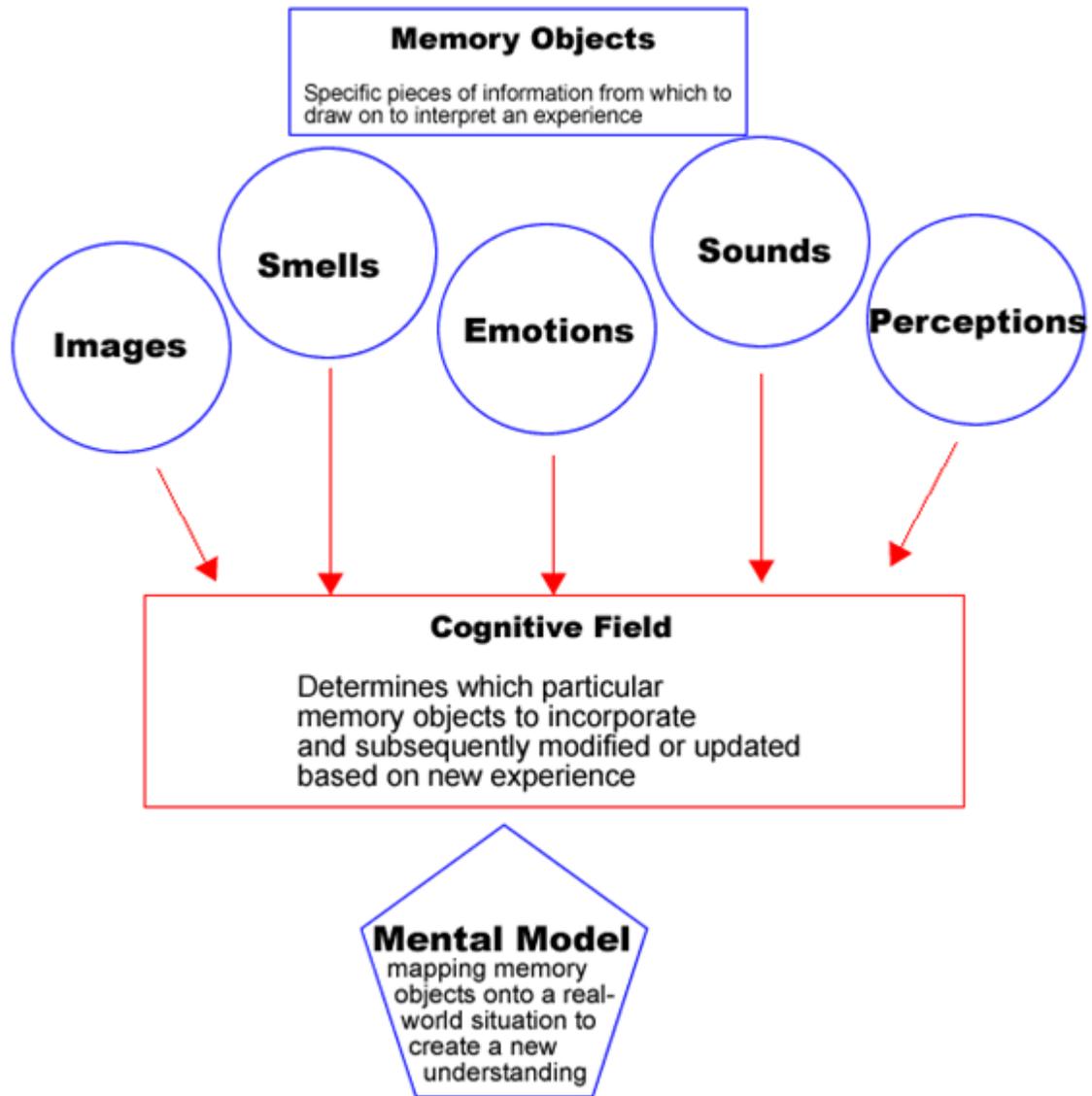


Figure 2.1. Types of Schemas

All understanding of experience is based on schemas and each new experience is reinterpreted according to existing schemas. Individuals notice similarities and recurrences in experiences and as a result build cognitive structures to accommodate the new experiences. These accommodations include: expectations, concepts, stereotypes, belief systems, worldviews, perceptions, and reasoning. When confronted with a new experience, a schema

is activated either with or without conscious control. When an individual notices a similarity or recurrence in experience, the creation of expectations, hypotheses, or concepts results (Narvaez & Bock, 2002; Rest et al., 1999).

Theoretically, the intersection of all three types of schemas leads to more complex thinking or decision-making. The logic follows that if individuals have a larger, more organized set of memory objects then they can activate a greater number of cognitive fields. This greater number of activated cognitive fields leads to forming more elaborately connected and complex mental models (Narvaez & Bock, 2002). It is precisely when the new experience is different from prior experiences that new memory objects must be created, or existing one's reinterpreted or modified in order to rectify the difference between the two experiences. This is an iterative process which leads to greater understanding of the world and specific situations.

Schemas can also serve to reinforce stereotypes of individuals or situations. An example by Narvaez and Bock (2002) highlights the process:

“Harry walked in. He looked at the prices. He ordered.”

These three sentences are an example of an ambiguous situation that involves several competing schemas. Consequently, individuals may have difficulty or different interpretations. After reading the sentences, one is unaware of where Harry is (restaurant, bakery, home improvement store etc.) (Narvaez & Bock, 2002). Each of the examples can activate a different schema pertaining to the type of place along with the different schemas about what he might have ordered. Based on prior experience and established schemas, an

individual will make a justification about the situation. The creation of stereotypes results in the same manner.

Often when an individual is asked to “picture” a criminal the will most often “see” an image of a black male. It has been argued that the creation of this stereotypical image is the result of media bias. The images of criminals most often seen in the popular media are black males even though the majority of crimes are, in fact, committed by whites. These images broadcast by the popular media contribute to the establishment of schemas pertaining to crime and black males (Narvaez & Bock, 2002). Stereotyping can also occur in classrooms with students as evidenced in the following example:

“Ms. Jones attended a meeting with three individuals after school yesterday. Ms. Jones was informed by the principal that she would be receiving a new student in her 7th grade social studies class. The guidance counselor informed her that Jimmy was a special needs student. The special education teacher Mr. Thompson informed her that Jimmy was classified as Behaviorally-Emotionally Handicapped (BEH). Four years ago, Ms. Jones had another BEH student who was, in her opinion, completely out of control; he would often hit other students, failed to do any classwork, and was usually disruptive.”

The characteristics of BEH students, according to one particular school whose mission is to serve students identified as BEH, includes:

- negative and resistant social interactions with peers and authority figures
- excessive aggressive and non-compliance behavior

- aggressive behaviors including: verbal abuse, teasing, threats, arguing, fighting, stealing, and property destruction
- defiance of teacher imposed rules, structures, and or procedures
- absence of empathy and respect for the rights of others
- persistent violation of social norms
- ineffective problem solving skills including considering alternatives and evaluating consequences
- academic deficits as well as finding academic tasks to be generally unrewarding

(WCPSS, 2004)

These particular characteristics, along with Ms. Jones' prior experience with one particular student, can result in the formation of a stereotype about all students identified as BEH. Because she has received limited information about Jimmy and has prior experience she will create a mental model of how the situation will proceed. For example, it might be interpreted by Ms. Jones in the following manner:

She will attempt to work with Jimmy, but he will be disruptive, fail to complete assignments, and be abusive to other students. This will continue with little administrative intervention until Jimmy is eventually removed from her class or this particular school setting and then she can continue on with "teaching" her other students.

This is one example, albeit, a worst-case scenario of how this encounter may progress but, since schemas are flexible and changeable (Narvaez & Bock, 2002) it is possible for an

individual to work to overcome or modify them. However, since these are subconscious schemas individuals must first learn to identify these negative schemas and make a conscious effort not to accept them.

Summary - Schema Theory

Schema theory helps explain how individuals process and interpret experience. Current literature identifies at least three classes of schemas (Derry, 1996). These three classes exist in a hierarchy and are identified as: memory objects, cognitive fields, and mental models (Narvaez & Bock, 2002). Memory objects, the simplest schema type, are the basic component of stored knowledge. Cognitive fields compose a second type of schema and are described as an activated set of memory objects (Narvaez & Bock, 2002). Certain memory objects are activated in response to a particular situation. The third and the most complex type of schemas are mental models. Mental modeling is the process of constructing, testing, and modifying mental representations of a situation with the goal of developing an understanding of a situation (Derry, 1996). It is the intersection of all three types of schemas that leads to more complex thinking or decision-making. The following section discusses the Neo-Kohlbergian approach to ethical development which embodies and is based upon both cognitive developmental theory and schema theory.

The Neo-Kohlbergian Approach to Ethical Development

Rest, Narvaez, Bebeau, and Thoma (1999) have developed what is known as the Neo-Kohlbergian approach to moral/ethical development. The Neo-Kohlbergian approach is

grounded in cognitive developmental theory, schema theory, and is based on four of Kohlberg's core ideas:

- 1) Emphasis on cognition,
- 2) Individual construction of moral epistemology within a social context,
- 3) Moral understanding development over time, and
- 4) Shift from conventional to post-conventional ethical reasoning.

Neo-Kohlbergians argue that understanding moral/ethical behavior necessitates an understanding of how individuals make sense of the world. Within this new approach changes to the original theory are suggested. Changes include a soft rather than hard stage framework, incorporation of schema theory, development of the four component model, and the construction of the Defining Issues Test (Rest et al., 1999). These changes are now described in detail.

It is now widely accepted that Kohlberg, in his original studies, investigated one aspect of moral/ethical development, namely moral/ethical judgment. However, Neo-Kohlbergians propose a four component model (FCM) to explain moral/ethical development (Table 2.1). The FCM (Rest et al, 1999) is one means by which to explain the ethical identity of individuals. The four components include ethical sensitivity, ethical judgment, ethical motivation, and ethical character.

Ethical sensitivity is the first component of moral development and is the ability to identify the different components of an ethical situation. It is also described as identifying different courses of action and how each course of action will impact other individuals (Brabeck et al., 2000; Rest et al., 1999). In professional situations, such as teaching, ethical

sensitivity refers to the expectations of the profession based on the distinct codes and norms that govern its practice. As a result, ethical sensitivity is necessary in order to socialize individuals into their chosen profession (Bebeau, 2002). The ethically sensitive teacher would identify that the student from the previous example, Jimmy, will be affected by his/her own course of action. The ethically sensitive teacher would also understand that although there are characteristics which generally describe a BEH student, each student is an individual and thus does not embody all of those particular characteristics. They also understand that all students identified as BEH will not behave in the same manner as previous students with whom they have come into contact. Finally, the ethically sensitive teacher would identify the specific codes and norms governing educational practice. Among these are the fairly straightforward procedures that typically reduce inappropriate behavior. When applied with fidelity, setting and maintaining rules, rewarding appropriate behavior (made explicit by the teacher), and providing mild negative consequences for inappropriate behavior ensure that the needs of all students are met, especially those with special needs.

Ethical sensitivity was first assessed in dental students and has since been applied to other fields including medicine, nursing, journalism, counseling, and science (Bebeau, 2002; Brabeck et al., 2000, Clarkeburn, 2002). Sensitivity studies have shown that individuals within a profession show great variability (Bebeau, 2000), women tend to score higher than men (Bebeau & Brabeck, 1987), and sensitivity can be reliably measured, improved through deliberate intervention, and is distinct from component two of the FCM, ethical judgment (Brabeck et al., 2000, Clarkeburn, 2002).

Component two, ethical judgment, involves identifying various courses of action and determining the most ethically justifiable. If an individual has an overly simplistic manner of

justifying ethical action, they are said to be deficient in the second component. Ethical situations can be simple or complex and an example involving Jimmy during his first day in Ms. Jones' classroom. The ethical situation will partly entail how best to accommodate Jimmy in the new situation. Where will he sit (alone, next to another boy, next to a girl)?, How will he be introduced to the class? How will he be informed of or learn class routines? There are any number of questions, with ethical connotations, that could be asked in this situation and would need to be acted upon. Appropriate ethical judgment on the part of Ms. Jones would identify the different characteristics associated with each question and determine a course of action most appropriate to each situation while meeting the needs of the individual students in her class.

Ethical judgment was first assessed using the Moral Judgment Interview (MJI) developed by Kohlberg and is now more commonly assessed using the DIT-2 (Brabeck et al., 2000; Rest et al., 1999). The DIT-2 is a multiple-choice, paper-and-pencil measure derived from Kohlberg's stage theory. It is composed of a series of ethical dilemmas followed by 12 response items. Each of the items represents a different way of expressing the issues comprising the dilemma. The test is based on the assumption that individuals at different points in their ethical development will "define the issues" (Bebeau et al., 1985) in these problems differently. Since its inception there have been over 2,600 studies with more than 500,000 participants (King & Mayhew, 2002; Rest et al., 1999; Walker, 2002). These studies have included: medicine, business, dentistry, education, and sports. Although there have been studies investigating the correlation between ethical judgment and behavior, no studies, as yet, have investigated ethical judgment and actual (or simulated) clinical practice (Cummings et al., 2001).

Components three and four, ethical motivation and ethical character respectively, have not yet been formally assessed. Ethical motivation is determined by an individual's ethical course of action and can be assessed by determining whether she/he places ethical values over personal values (Brabeck et al., 2000; Rest et al., 1999). When individuals place personal values (career, relationships, loyalties) over ethical values, they are said to be deficient in the third component, ethical motivation. Finally, if individuals are able to identify the components of an ethical situation, make a sound ethical judgment, prioritize moral values over personal, but fails to follow through with the chosen course of action they are said to be deficient in the fourth component, ethical character. Ethical character results in executing an action in an ethical manner (Rest, 1994; Brabeck et al., 2000). The ethically responsible action could come at some personal cost. Taking an unpopular or difficult perspective may cause more work for the individual. It is the ethically responsible teacher who realizes the personal cost and yet sacrifices for the good of the individual student or collective class.

Figure 2.2 displays the components and characteristics of the FCM. The components include Ethical Sensitivity, Ethical Judgment, Ethical Motivation, and Ethical Character.

Figure 2.2
The Four Component Model

Component	Characteristics
Ethical Sensitivity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Ethical sensitivity is the awareness of how actions affect other individuals and is what alerts an individual to the notion that a dilemma exists. *Ethical sensitivity requires an individual to interpret a situation and imagine what courses of action are possible. It additionally requires that individual to anticipate how each course of action will impact the welfare of each person involved. *If an individual is ethically sensitive they will engage in careful analysis of the situation
Ethical Judgment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> *The manner in which individuals justify a particular course of action. *The explanations and justifications that a teacher gives as they encounter ethical dilemmas. *Deciding what is right in a classroom situation.
Ethical Motivation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Placing ethical values over personal values. *Determining an ethical course of action
Ethical Character	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Following through with an ethical course of action.

Note. Adapted from Rest, 1999

Figure 2.2 is used to summarize the attributes of each of the four components of the Neo-Kohlbergian model. Ethical sensitivity requires careful analysis of a situation and refers to an awareness of how actions affect other individuals. Ethical judgment is the means by which individuals justify a particular course of action. Ethical motivation involves placing ethical values over personal values and ethical character occurs when individuals follow through with their chosen course of action.

As noted in the introduction to the Neo-Kohlbergian approach to ethical development this new construct also includes schema theory. Ethical reasoning schemas are among those developed by individuals at an early age and although they are developed early on, they are highly flexible and changeable (Narvaez & Bock, 2002). Ethical reasoning schemas, as do all schemas, change in their size and relation to one another as new experiences are interpreted. Through the process of assimilation and accommodation, whereby new information is identified, categorized, and reconciled with pre-existing information, new ethical reasoning schemas are produced or are integrated with other memory objects associated with ethical reasoning.

The Neo-Kohlbergians propose and study three ethical reasoning schemas: Personal Interest, Maintaining Norms, and Post-Conventional (Narvaez & Bock, 2002) (Figure 2.3). The simplest schema is the Personal Interest, in which individuals are primarily concerned with survival and personal advantage. Individuals within this schema refer to the needs of others only in brief stages and only if the result is more advantageous for themselves (Rest et al., 1999). A teacher operating within this schema would be most concerned with the additional work required of himself/herself when having a new student introduced into his/her class, especially if the student has special needs as in the case of an identified BEH student.

Maintaining Norms is more complex than personal interest and is the time in which individuals begin to understand issues of macro-morality (society-wide) as opposed to micro-morality (individual). Individuals within the maintaining norms schema are primarily concerned with cooperation between and among people. The established society practices, rules and codes are most important when determining decisions. Teachers who operate

within the maintaining norms schema would be most concerned with maintaining order in their classrooms (Rest et al., 1999). The introduction of a student identified as BEH would be met with concern for the social order in the classroom. The student would be expected to comply with the established rules without regard to his/her special circumstances or needs. The teacher would make decisions based on the established school norms or rules and would justify decisions on the basis of the “good of the whole class”.

The most complex schema is the post-conventional. Individuals within this schema of reasoning believe a just society is one in which there is equality of access between all groups. These individuals are able to suggest changes to the status quo and apply moral ideals in a fully reciprocal manner (Narvaez & Bock, 2002). The post-conventional teacher would identify the BEH student as having unique needs and would adjust the classroom environment and rules accordingly. They would also take into account the needs of the other students in relation to the new situation. It is the post-conventional teacher who acts, not in the name of “fairness” where all children are treated equally, as does the conventional teacher, but in response to the needs of each individual in the classroom resulting in equitability.

Figure 2.3 displays the three ethical judgment schemas and characteristics and attributes embodied by individuals are described. The schemas include Personal Interest, Maintaining Norms, and Post-Conventional. The characteristics refer to the internal justifications individuals use when making decisions based on the particular schema and the attributes refer to the expressed characteristics of individuals operating within the schema.

Figure 2.3

Ethical Judgment Schemas

Schema	Characteristics	Attributes
Personal Interest	<p>*Individual's primary motivation for ethical thinking is based on self-interest, but also consider what others can do for them.</p> <p>*This stage is characterized by the phrase "What can you do for me?"</p> <p>*Concern for external, concrete consequences to self. Only consider the needs of others if it benefits you.</p> <p>*Individuals at this stage use the basis of pleasing others as the basis of their ethical judgments.</p> <p>*Desire for social approval and to avoid physical punishment.</p>	<p>*Impulsive cooperation</p> <p>*Self advantage</p> <p>*Survival</p> <p>*In-group reciprocity</p>
Maintaining Norms	<p>*Individuals within this stage believe in the obligation to live up to socially defined roles in order to maintain order in society.</p> <p>*Law and Duty to the social order.</p> <p>*Maintain the social order for the good of all.</p>	<p>*Need for norms</p> <p>*Society-wide view</p> <p>*Partial society-wide reciprocity</p> <p>*Duty</p> <p>*Uniform standards</p>
Post-Conventional	<p>*Individuals recognize there are alternative ethical courses, and accordingly, they explore other options and base decisions on a personal ethical code.</p> <p>*Right is decided by the whole society.</p> <p>*When laws conflict or are unjust, individuals are most concerned with following democratic principles.</p> <p>*Decisions at this stage are based on conscience and universal human rights.</p>	<p>*Ideals</p> <p>*Primacy of the moral ideal</p> <p>*Full reciprocity</p> <p>*Rights oriented</p>

Note. Adapted from Reiman & DeAngelis-Peace, 2001; Santrock, 1995; Narvaez & Bock, 2002

In figure 2.3 Ethical Judgment Schemas the three schemas, characteristics, and attributes are summarized. The lowest level of judgment is the Personal Interest. Individuals operating within the schema are most concerned with self-advantage and use the basis of pleasing others to make ethical judgments. Individuals using the Maintaining Norms schemas to make ethical judgments believe in the need to operate according to existing norms and that law and duty are necessary to maintain the social order. The highest level of ethical judgment is the Post-Conventional schema. Individuals operating at the post-conventional level base decisions on personal ideals, recognize alternative courses of action, and understand that laws and values are relative.

Summary - The Neo-Kohlbergian Approach to Ethical Development

Rest, Narvaez, Bebeau, and Thoma (1999) developed what is known as the Neo-Kohlbergian approach to ethical development. The Neo-Kohlbergian approach is grounded in cognitive developmental theory and is based on four of Lawrence Kohlberg's core ideas: 1) Emphasis on cognition, 2) Individual construction of moral epistemology within a social context, 3) Moral understanding develops over time, 4) Shift from conventional to post-conventional thinking. It also encompasses a series of additions or changes to the original theory including: soft versus hard stages, incorporation of schema theory, development of the four component model, and the construction of the DIT (Rest et al., 1999).

The Neo-Kohlbergian approach recognizes four components to ethical development: ethical sensitivity, ethical judgment, ethical motivation, and ethical character. Ethical sensitivity is the first component of ethical development and is the ability to identify the different aspects of an ethical situation. It is also described as identifying different courses of

action and how each course of action will impact other individuals (Brabeck et al., 2000; Rest et al., 1999). Component two, ethical judgment involves identifying various courses of action and determining the most ethically justifiable. Ethical motivation is determined by an individual's ethical course of action and is assessed by determining whether she/he places ethical values over personal values (Brabeck et al., 2000; Rest et al., 1999). Ethical character is determining the ethical aspects, identifying and justifying an ethical course of action, choosing ethical values over personal values, and executing an ethical action in an ethical manner (Rest, 1994; Brabeck et al., 2000).

Ethical reasoning schemas are among those developed by individuals at an early age yet are highly flexible and changeable (Narvaez & Bock, 2002). Ethical reasoning schemas, as do all schemas, change in their size and relation to one another as new experiences are interpreted. The shift from hard stages to schemas is the result of individual's inconsistent use of one primary schema. Individuals, especially in times of conflict, will reason at a stage below a previously recorded stage. It is believed this is the result of a disequilibrating time in his/her life. What has been found is that there is a preferred stage of reasoning which will most often be used when making an ethical decision.

In analyzing ethical judgment three ethical reasoning schemas are identified: Personal Interest, Maintaining Norms, and Post-Conventional (Narvaez & Bock, 2002). Within the simplest schema, Personal Interest, individuals are primarily concerned with survival and personal advantage. Individuals within this schema refer to the needs of others only in brief stages and only if the result is more advantageous for him/herself (Rest et al., 1999).

Maintaining Norms is more complex than personal interest and is the time in which individuals begin to understand issues of macro-morality (society-wide) as opposed to micro-

morality (individual). Individuals within the maintaining norms schema are primarily concerned with cooperation between and among people. The established society practices, rules and codes are most important when determining decisions (Rest et al., 1999).

The most complex schema is the Post-Conventional. Individuals within this schema of reasoning believe a fair society is one in which there is equality of access between all groups. These individuals are able to suggest changes to the status quo and apply moral ideals in a fully reciprocal manner (Narvaez & Bock, 2002).

This review now turns to literature on multiculturalism. As noted in chapter one, classrooms in the United States are more culturally diverse than ever before, yet teachers entering the profession continue to reflect the majority culture (Dosanjh, 2003; Howard, 2003). Further, the literature surrounding ethical education has contributed too little to our understanding of race and teacher education (Blum, 1999).

Multicultural Perspectives on Communication

Culture has been described as the ever-changing values, traditions, social and political relationships, and worldviews shared by a group of people. These people are bound together by a number of factors that can include a common history, geographic location, language, social class, and/or religion (Nieto, 1992). Culture, therefore, is more than one aspect of a person's identity, it is composed of a number of facets that are socially constructed and interact to create a cultural identity. This cultural identity could include, but is not limited to, ethnicity, race, gender, and/or social class.

The concept of multiculturalism has been modified over time and is continuously evolving (Hidalgo & Almeida, 1991). A multicultural perspective asserts that information

and knowledge are not neutral (Foster, Lewis, & Onafowora, 2003). What “counts” as knowledge is often determined by those in power who are considered a part of the dominant culture. White, middle-class values are seen as the dominant cultural perspective in the United States. An American multicultural perspective, however, relies on a shift from these Eurocentric norms for evaluating individuals to one of multiple perspectives (Hidalgo & Almeida, 1991).

In the United States the dominant culture (white, middle class) holds a certain set of values and standards. These values include competition, individualism, freedom (defined as being left alone by others), and work ethic (O’Connor, 1993). Individuals within the dominant culture have differing degrees of power (Banks, 1991) and these differing degrees of power can be determined by particular characteristics of the individual (O’Connor, 1993). For example, men are considered dominant using the characteristic of gender, while white men would be considered dominant using the characteristic of race. It is precisely this notion of dominance that leads to a power differential and determines who will have access to power and privilege in a society (O’Connor, 1993).

An individual must develop an understanding of his/her own identity in order to expand access to those outside of this realm of power. This identity entails an understanding of how he/she has access to or interacts with the dominant culture. If an individual focuses only on the “other”, he/she will fail to examine himself/herself and the dominant cultural assumptions to which he/she ascribes. This will ultimately limit his/her ability to learn, understand, and accept individuals from other cultures (O’Connor, 1993). Banks (1993) affirms this position with his belief that students must learn to identify their own positions, interests, philosophies of ideals and assumptions and it is necessary for teacher educators to

help teacher candidates develop the skills necessary to critically analyze their positions particularly as they relate to issues such as ethnicity and culture (Howard, 2003).

In developing an understanding of oneself it is important to critically analyze the dominant cultural assumptions which determine who is valuable, who is powerful, and what rules are enforced. Often it is the case that an individual not meeting the standards of the dominant culture is perceived as in need of assistance or remediation. One perspective states it is acceptable merely to understand the values, traditions, and beliefs of others. In doing this we will be better able to understand and serve others and thus create tolerance. In this instance we view difference as “cultural nuances”. The result of this view however, is that we learn what it is we want to change about others in order to fit them into the dominant culture (O’Connor, 1993). These nuances are often the manner in which the topics of diversity and multiculturalism have been interpreted in schools and result in activities focused on ethnic foods, holidays, or costumes (O’Connor, 1993). According to Nieto (1992) this approach focuses on deviance rather than acceptance and does little to challenge issues of dominance or power.

Teachers need to view cultural differences not as “nuances” but rather as the cultural capital that diverse students and parents/caregivers bring with them. This capital is a form of cultural transmission that individuals acquire from their given social structure. It embodies the norms, social practices, ideologies, language and behavior that are part of a groups’ identity and frequently this cultural capital is drastically different from mainstream (dominant) worldviews and norms (Howard, 2003).

Although many have identified steps that need to be taken within teacher education to ensure teacher candidates are developing an appreciation for diversity, it is common for

many of these students to be apprehensive about diversity and multiculturalism. Many students express subtle resistance to multicultural implementation. Elementary teacher candidates often declare they are afraid of engaging different ethnic groups and multicultural content and secondary candidates express doubts about the relevance of multicultural education (Gay & Howard, 2000). Fear and resistance are due to a lack of exposure to diversity (Gay & Howard, 2000).

The lack of teacher candidate exposure to diversity can have a serious negative impact on communication. This negative impact is important for two reasons. First, communication is at the heart of teaching and second, communication is strongly influenced by culture (Gay & Howard, 2000). Students and their parents/caregivers from different cultural groups will subsequently talk, write, and listen in ways that are different from school patterns and expectations.

The term intercultural competence refers to a teacher's ability to communicate effectively with a variety of different people. Good communication requires a healthy respect for forms and varieties of communication styles that people use to express themselves (Ladson-Billings, 1999). For example there are usually two major preferences for type of talk. The first preferential style of talk is used by persons who are white and consequently is perceived as preferred for use in schools. The second preferential style of talk is by African Americans and other persons of color and is less likely to be legitimated both in school and in society in general. The first example is referred to as topic-centered talk and is linear, reportorial, descriptive, and dispassionate. The second is referred to as topic-chaining and is usually circular, passionate, elaborate, episodic, advocating, and story telling (Gay &

Howard, 2000). Teachers with well established intercultural competence will be successful with both types of talk.

Intercultural competence found among teachers described by Delpit (1995), Foster (1997), and Ladson-Billings (1994) is devoid of value judgments. However, these teachers typically have had close relationships with communities of color and often use the language themselves. Usually these teachers perceive themselves as parental surrogates or advocates for African American students. These teachers also employ a teaching style filled with rhythmic language and rapid intonation with many instances of repetition, call and response, high emotional involvement, creative analogies, figurative language, gestures and body movements, symbolism, aphorisms, and lively and often spontaneous discussions. Additionally, they spend classroom and non-classroom time developing a personal relationship with their children and often tease and joke with their students using a dialect or slang to establish a personal relationship. (Irvine & Fraser, 1998).

Regardless of the previous examples there is little evidence that teachers and teacher candidates appreciate the many ways that students different from themselves use language and other forms of communication (Ladson-Billings, 1999). Most teacher education students have led monocultural lives and thus have not had the opportunity to broaden their communication skills across racial or ethnic lines (Ladson-Billings, 1999). Teacher education's response to changing demographics and the need for enhanced communication skills has been primarily a reactive one rather than a reconceptualization of teacher education. Most programs use workshops, institutes, and courses to deal with the "problem" of culturally different students (Ladson-Billings, 1999) and a review conducted by Ladson-

Billings (1995) indicated that many teacher education programs were satisfied with adding multicultural content rather than changing a philosophy or structure.

In the next section another dimension of communication is explored, namely teacher – caregiver communication. The review illustrates the lack of teacher preparation for this communication and it underscores teacher and teacher candidate beliefs about parents and caregivers.

Parent/Caregiver Conferencing

Over the next ten years U.S. schools will need 1.7 to 2.7 million new teachers and each will face similar challenges. Among the challenges facing these new teachers are: classroom management, motivating students, assessment of student work, and relations with parents (Stansbury & Zimmerman, 2002). These new teachers, who have gone through either formal or informal teacher education, will have received training in at least three of the aforementioned areas. Very few will receive any type of training in parent/caregiver - teacher communication.

It has been reported that practicing teachers want parents to be involved in classrooms but perceive that parents do not want to be involved. Pre-service teachers believe parents are the greatest obstacle they need to overcome to be successful teachers and since parents are not as knowledgeable as they are, the parents care less about their children (Van Hook, 2002). The beliefs of both practicing and pre-service teachers are disconcerting. Although there is little empirical data, that which does exist shows small but statistically significant correlations between student academic achievement and parental attendance at school programs, conferences, and extracurricular activities (Finn, 1998).

Buzzelli (1996) noted that the manner in which teachers engage children in discourse has profound ethical implications. When identifying teaching as an ethical profession two common themes emerge to support the notion: 1) teaching is founded on relationships between individuals and is therefore guided by a morality of relationship; and 2) teachers are engaged in changing the behavior of others to attain prescribed ends (Ayers, 1993; Jackson et al., 1993; Sockett, 1993). The judgments made by teachers are based upon questions of values and worth making them ethical judgments (Buzzelli, 1996). Whereas, the analysis of discourse between teachers and students has been addressed in a variety of studies (Buzzelli, 1996) the discourse between teachers and parents/caregivers in a conference has rarely been studied (Maclure & Walker, 2000).

Teachers and parents/caregivers who have had successful interactions with each other, observed or heard about the others' successes, and/or felt that efforts were worthwhile are more likely to have a personal sense of efficacy (Garcia, 2000; Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997). Teachers and parents/caregivers with high efficacy levels are more likely to succeed in parent-teacher relationships (Garcia, 2000; Greenwood & Hickman, 1991). This sense of efficacy can, however, be influenced by "leftover anxieties" from earlier experiences with schools (Taylor, 1968) and many parents are intimidated by the school setting and education professionals (Jordan et al., 1998; Nielson & Finkelstein, 1993).

Current educational reform efforts highlight the importance of parental/caregiver involvement and its relationship with academic benefits (Finn, 1998). The development of an effective or ineffective relationship is predicated on three factors (Keyes, 2004):

1. the degree of match between teachers' and parent/caregivers' cultures and values,
2. societal forces at work on family and school, and

3. how teachers and parent/caregivers view their roles.

It is less likely today than in the past that teachers and parents/caregivers will hold the same values and beliefs. This is primarily the result of teachers being less likely to live in the same communities as their students and often belonging to a different socioeconomic class, race, or ethnic group (Keyes, 2004) and this background has been shown to figure prominently in how teachers relate to parents/caregivers (Solity, 1995; Sturm, 1997).

Societal forces affecting teacher-parent/caregiver relationships include the increasing reliance on technology, the changing nature of work (shift to service oriented economy), and a more diverse population. Family dynamics also contribute to societal forces. Changing family dynamics include: two parent working families, single parent families, adoptive families, and remarried or blended families. The roles within families have changed as well. The roles are often more flexible or fluid today, for example mothers may be the primary wage earners or children may perform some parental functions for siblings (Keyes, 2004). The changing nature of society along with family dynamics can exacerbate a disconnect between the experiences of the teacher and those of the parent/caregiver. This disconnect can also strain or impede the development of an effective relationship.

Finally, how teachers and parents/caregivers view their roles can have an impact on the development of an effective relationship. Most parents believe they have little choice in selecting where their children go to school. They also feel powerless to influence schools and are threatened by the authority it represents. Some also feel that running the school should be left up to the “experts” (Greenwood & Hickman, 1991; Greenberg 1989) and other parents worry about their family’s privacy or find the school climate or bureaucracy difficult to navigate (Comer & Haynes, 1991; Henry, 1996). Parents also note a lack of clarity about

what to expect at meetings and conferences which poses an additional challenge to the building of an effective relationship (Keyes, 2004; Lortie, 1975). Teachers often feel unappreciated by parents and believe that many parents lack interest in what is going on with their children (Keyes, 2004). Others describe parents as adversarial, apathetic, and always a challenge (Galinsky, 1990; Greenberg, 1989; Hulsebosch & Logan, 1998; Langdon & Novak, 1998).

The relationship between teachers and parents/caregivers is rife with misunderstanding, misinformation, and a lack of knowledge about each other. Still, little is being done to study these relationships or to work to improve them through undergraduate teacher education. The manner in which teachers communicate with parents connotes the value they place upon that individual and their contribution. These values are ethical in nature as they relate to issues of fairness, justice, and compassion for others.

Summary - Parent/Caregiver Conferencing

Very few teachers receive training in the development and maintenance of teacher/parent relationships, yet these relationships have been shown to have a positive effect on student achievement. The nature of the relationships can also be affected by misunderstanding and negative prior experiences. Cultural differences between teachers and parents, societal factors, and family dynamics also have profound effects on teacher – parent/caregiver relationships.

An analysis of verbal discourse has been used to examine the relationship between teachers and students. Analysis of verbal discourse can also be applied to the teacher – parent/caregiver interaction. The nature of discourse between teachers and students has

shown the types of beliefs teachers hold about the nature of knowledge and the role of students. This same type of analysis can be applied to teacher – parent/caregiver interaction to identify how teachers view parents and their role. The section to follow will discuss the nature of verbal and nonverbal communication. This study proposes the investigation of communication between teacher candidates and a standardized parent and it is therefore, necessary to identify the existing literature regarding the topic.

Verbal and Nonverbal Interaction (Communication)

Communication is an ongoing process of sending and receiving messages that enable individuals to share knowledge, attitudes, and skills (Johnson, 1999). Messages are sent and received using both verbal components and nonverbal cues (Briton & Hall, 1995; Galloway, 1976). Nonverbal behaviors precede verbal communication and are present in every face-to-face conversation (Galloway, 1976) however, they are interdependent. This interdependence manifests in six ways: repeating, contradicting, substituting, complementing, accentuating, and regulating (Johnson, 1999). Repeating occurs when a body gesture reinforces what has initially been stated verbally such as pointing to a door after saying “go outside”. An example of a contradiction is when a person is trembling and timid but says that they are not nervous. Substituting occurs when a nonverbal cue replaces a verbal message such as a sneer or narrowing of the eyes when showing contempt for another individual. Complementing is used to elaborate or modify verbal communication such as telling someone you are pleased to meet them and shaking his/her hand. Accentuating occurs when the verbal is elaborated or reinforced using the head or hands. Regulating is the use of nonverbal behavior to control the flow of conversation and often occurs through the use of head nods or eye contact.

Verbal communication in classrooms has been extensively studied by Flanders (1967) and resulted in the formation of the Flanders Interaction Analysis (Figure 2.4). In using the Flanders instrument verbal interactions can be categorized into 7 domains which have been further divided into two clusters: Indirect and Direct (Gage, 1978).

Figure 2.4
Adapted Flanders Interaction Analysis

Category	Description
Teacher Indirect Interactions	
1. Accepts feelings	Accepts and clarifies the tone of feelings of the students in an unthreatening manner. Feelings may be positive or negative. Predicting or recalling feelings are included.
2. Praises or Encourages	Praises or encourages parent action or behavior. Humor that releases tension, but not at the expense of another individual; nodding head and saying "um hm?" or "tell me more" are included.
3. Accepts or Uses the ideas of parents	Clarifies, builds, or develops ideas suggested by a student. As teacher brings more of her or his ideas into play, shift to Category 5.
4. Asks questions	Asks a question about content or procedure with the intent that the parent answer.
Teacher Direct Interactions	
5. Lectures	Gives facts or opinions about content or procedure; expresses his or her own ideas, asking rhetorical questions.
6. Gives directions	Directs, commands, or gives orders that parents are expected to comply with.
7. Criticizes or Justifies authority	Makes statements intended to change student behavior from unacceptable to acceptable pattern; bawling someone out; stating the rationale for teacher behavior or action.
8. Parent talk - Response	Talk by parents in response to teacher. Teacher initiates the contact.
9. Parent talk - Initiation	Talk initiated by parent.
10. Silence or Confusion	Pause, wait time, or periods of confusion in which the communication cannot be understood by the observer.

Figure 2.4 (Adapted Flanders Interaction Analysis) summarizes the 10 domains of verbal communication. These 10 domains are further divided into either indirect or direct communication. The figure lists each of the types of communication and the characteristics of each.

Verbal behaviors can be used to exercise power in a relationship through the process of turn-taking (Rees & Cervero, 1997). Turn-taking is a principle feature of verbal interaction and is regulated by linguistic and socio-political conventions. It is a means of framing the function, meaning, and effects of language for the purpose of controlling the “flow” of dialogue (Rees & Cervero, 1997). Within the Flanders framework, the turn-taking can proceed through the alternation of direct and indirect forms of verbal interaction. Verbal interaction or talk can lead to collaborative interaction (Robinson, 1998) which assists in the facilitation of learning (Chizhik, 1998) or interpersonal meaning.

Researchers have traditionally argued that the medical profession, teaching, and courtrooms, although not exclusively, are socially organized in such a way that positions of dominance and subordination are featured. In medicine and teaching, doctors and teachers are dominant and patients and parents subordinate. Research on actual practice however has shown that power is interactively achieved (Robinson, 1998) meaning that there is a balance of power between the individuals. In one instance the teacher may dominate or control the flow of the conversation but soon after a shift may occur and the parent controls the flow. Little is known about the nature of parent-teacher consultations as “interactional events” but comparisons are often made to doctor-patient consultations. In both cases there is evidence that the participants inhabit a “profoundly moral universe”, in which the maintenance of an ethical identity and the avoidance of blame is continuously at stake for all

concerned. In analyzing the talk generated in New Zealand secondary school consultations, there was an active construction of moral versions of parenthood, teacherhood, and studenthood by creating identities for the participants. During the course of these interactions important issues of moral conduct, accountability, identity, and responsibility were negotiated and defended (Maclure & Walker, 2000).

Nonverbal behavior is also known as the language of emotion (Grace, Kivlighan, & Kunce, 1995). Many individuals are unaware of their nonverbal behaviors and thus this behavior is likely to reveal true emotions and feelings (Costanzo & Archer, 1991; Galloway, 1976). Nonverbal behaviors can be used to (1) communicate emotion, (2) signal changes in relationships, (3) regulate conversations, (4) provide clues to attempted deception, (5) convey self-perceptions, and (6) expand on verbal communication (Grace, Kivlighan, & Kunce, 1995). Studies have also shown that more feelings and intents are sent and received nonverbally (93% vs. 7%) (Johnson, 1999) and the nonverbal behaviors are often more powerful than verbal cues (Costanzo & Archer, 1991). According to Galloway (1976) nonverbal behavior tells individual students how a teacher feels about them as individual people.

Body orientation and gaze are two important components of nonverbal communication. The orientation of an individual's body connotes a frame of space or dominance. The act of including or excluding others from this frame of space communicates the availability or lack of availability for collaborative action. Gaze further reinforces the notion of availability for collaboration. Gaze communicates attention, availability, and participation in the actions of others (Robinson, 1998).

Within the field of counseling it has been recognized that nonverbal behaviors can reflect and affect the communication process between counselors and clients (Kim, Liang, & Li, 2003). Counselors who are more sensitive to their clients nonverbal behaviors have been shown to be more effective (Kivlighan & Kuncze, 1995) and trainees can be taught to increase their sensitivity to nonverbal communication. Schools of medicine and psychology have developed methods to teach facets of nonverbal communication and increase sensitivity through the use of role-play (Kivlighan & Kuncze, 1995; Schwebel & Schwebel, 2002) yet teacher education programs, whose graduates also communicate with clients, do not in any consistent manner involve training in nonverbal or verbal communication.

Summary - Verbal and Nonverbal Interaction (Communication)

Communication is the act of sending and receiving messages, through the use of verbal and nonverbal interactions, to share knowledge, attitudes, and/or skills. Although nonverbal interactions often precede verbal and account for a greater number of interactions they are interdependent. Verbal behavior has been studied in classrooms, courtrooms, and between doctors and patients. It can be used to exercise power or result in the interactive achievement of power. Most individuals are unaware of their nonverbal interactions yet they send more feeling and intent and are often more powerful than verbal interactions. Verbal interaction has been extensively studied in teacher student communication, however nonverbal interaction has not. Additionally, while various studies exist reporting the interactions of doctors and patients, few have studied teachers and parents/caregivers.

Research on Ethical Identity

Although much has been written about teaching as an ethical endeavor and the ethical nature of the profession (Strike, 1990; Strike & Soltis, 1992; Strike & Soltis, 1986), very little research has focused on the ethical identity of teachers. An identity can be characterized as generalized, salient attributes and a “fundamental sense of self” (Leicester & Pearce, 1997). Ethical values comprise one part of a person’s identity. Ethical values infuse the individual with a feeling of obligation to maintain their identity as “a good person” (Nisan, 1996). An individual’s identity is subject to many forces that affect and contribute to changes, many of which occur as a result of experiences (Leicester & Pearce, 1997; Nisan, 1996). Two separate studies have found that in order to have an ethical foundation one must have a sense of integrity that is derived from a developed identity which includes a racial identity (Evans & Foster, 2000; Moreland & Leach, 2001). Power and Khmelkov (1998) have described ethical identity of the self as character. It is their assertion that individuals of character will strive to maintain their identity as “a good person” (Nisan, 1996) even at some cost, because they wish to remain a certain kind of person. It is this sense of character that an individual uses to justify keeping a promise to a stranger. Keeping a promise is not simply a consequence of being virtuous, but a contribution to becoming an ethical person and developing an ethical identity (Power & Khmelkov, 1998).

Ethical Sensitivity

Individuals sometimes act unethically simply because they fail to recognize that their chosen course of action is unethical. Unethical behavior, especially that involving relatively minor breaches, is often not the result of a moral judgment-behavior hiatus but

rather a corruption of the construal (act of interpreting) process. This corruption, driven by a desire for personal gain, results in the erroneous conclusion that an unethical action is actually morally acceptable (Bersoff, 1999). This notion is highlighted by the assertion that delinquents hold to the same ethical principles as everyone else; they simply do not always apply them appropriately and often misconstrue situations (Bersoff, 1999).

This self-interest or desire for personal gain can directly affect the interpretation of a situation and the perception of desirable behavior. Other life goals may be more important to an individual than being an ethical person (Bersoff, 1999; Nisan, 1996). These other issues, as a result, feel more pressing than his/her ethical obligations. Research has shown that despite the presence of these more pressing issues, potentially antisocial or unflattering acts are not generally performed unless they can be interpreted or construed in an ethically acceptable or neutral manner (Bersoff, 1999). Nisan (1996) has further reported that if a person perceives a value or way of life as essential to their identity they feel that they ought to act accordingly. It has also been noted that individuals construct explanations in advance if they anticipate their actions are to be deemed unethical and these anticipatory justifications or excuses can have a controlling effect on behavior. If the acts cannot be justified ahead of time they will often be abandoned (Bersoff, 1999).

Individuals differ from one another in the degree to which they interpret ethical problems (Wark & Krebs, 2000). One problem in education is that teachers are not always aware of the ethical impact of their actions and on occasion two educators will not perceive the same problem as being ethical in nature or will see different aspects of the same situation as being ethically relevant (Husu & Tirri, 2001). This interpretation of an ethical dilemma can be identified as an ethical orientation.

There are two basic types (and often researched) ethical orientations: justice and care. A care orientation is associated with the promotion of the welfare of others or prevention of their harm, understanding others in their own terms, and context dependent decisions. Justice orientation is characterized by the considerations concerned with conflicting claims between the self and other (including society) and the maintenance of impartial rules, principles and standards, particularly those of fairness and reciprocity (Wark & Krebs, 2000). The type of orientation used may be embedded in life-experiences and connect with an individual's sense of his or her ethical identity (Haviv & Leman, 2002). According to Gilligan (1982) a large portion of one's reasoning should reflect either a care or justice orientation with little consideration for the other across various contexts. Gilligan further assumed that the type of orientation is related to gender with women preferring care and men preferring justice in solving ethical dilemmas. However, numerous studies including Walker et al. (1987) and Haviv and Leman (2002) have discounted this claim with the latter study revealing that all participants (regardless of gender) expressed slightly more care judgments than justice judgments. Wark and Krebs (2000) have also found that both men and women make predominantly care oriented judgments to prosocial types of real-life dilemmas and both make predominantly justice oriented judgments to antisocial types of real life dilemmas. Prosocial dilemmas are characterized as inherently care oriented (helping another individual) and antisocial are justice oriented (violating rules, behaving dishonestly) (Wark, 2004).

Ethical Judgment

Teaching is an activity that continually requires ethical judgments (Coldron & Smith, 1999) and teachers have reported being ill-prepared for dealing with those ethical dilemmas

they identify in their work (Husu & Tirri, 2001). These judgments are often bound to several, sometimes conflicting demands. Judgments must be based on the school culture, parents, children in their classrooms, their own educational principles, national/state standards, or school administration (Coldron & Smith, 1999).

Judgment also plays an important role in an attempt to lead a meaningful life. The consequences of ethical judgments are actions which impact one's own life and relationships with others. In making ethical judgments, individuals tend to rely on the use of exemplars, stereotypes, and prototypes (Pardales, 2002). Exemplars, also referred to as models, are the examples with whom both children and young people identify themselves. These examples become elements of themselves or their identity, including their ethical identity (Bucher, 1997). Traditionally, educators wanted children to assimilate moral attitudes like those represented by models with development of moral autonomy and moral identity being less important. In order to be effective, however, the model must be perceived as worthy enough to be emulated. The older people become the less likely they are to name someone with whom they are not close to as a model. For example, the most frequent models for young people (17 and 18 yr. olds) are persons with social nearness, mothers, fathers, grandparents, older siblings (Bucher, 1997). Exemplars, or models, serve as concrete instances we encounter during training or learning (Pardales, 2002).

Stereotypes are the socially constructed images of the "typical" exemplars of a concept or category. According to Pardales (2002) prototypes are the result of a process that extracts the central tendency information from the specific set of exemplars to which an individual system has been exposed. We essentially use the common characteristics of each of the exemplars and stereotypes we have internally constructed to determine a prototype for

a particular concept or category. In terms of ethics, we develop prototypes of justice, care, or harm based on the exemplars we have experienced throughout our own lives. At any given moment, each of these specific prototypes is the average of all of our experiences that have included that concept. These prototypes are continually being refined since we are constantly undertaking new experiences (Pardales, 2002). The refining process used can be thought of as an ethical imagination. When an individual finds himself/herself in an ethically ambiguous situation he/she will reflect back on his/her own life to determine how previous decisions have impacted him/her (Pardales, 2002). This process of reflection and revision results in a contribution to the development of an ethical identity.

Professional Identity

In making these ethical judgments teachers actively locate themselves in relation to other possible positions they could have taken (Pardales, 2002) and in doing so develop their professional identity (Coldron & Smith, 1999). The teaching profession is one in which members are initiated into a social practice. This social practice is complete with its own principles of conduct and values, many of which are frequently implicit (Pring, 2001).

Professional ethics in teaching include both individual and collegial morality. The professional teacher can be described as an ethical teacher who co-operates with his/her colleagues, in addition to parents and students (Husu & Tirri, 2001). The new teacher in the process of establishing himself/herself in a school makes choices and works hard to achieve what an outsider might describe as socialization into the school culture. In establishing himself/herself the teacher creates a professional identity which is manifested in his/her classroom practice (Coldron & Smith, 1999). Unless individuals “own” their own actions,

ethical judgment is not possible. Responsible ethical judgment and action must be reasoned to, committed to, and/or willed by a conscious agent (Infinito, 2003). Teaching, as a profession, reflects the ethical divisions in the larger society and teachers in making decisions about the content of learning or specific pedagogical practices are part of the ethical debate (Pring, 2001). The ethical identity of a teacher will be shaped by his/her prior experiences in schools, during his/her time in undergraduate teacher education, and as he/she develops his/her own professional identity.

Conclusion

This review of literature has served to provide a theoretical understanding of ethical identity and provide evidence to support the need to study interactions between parents and teacher education candidates. The theoretical foundation for this study is cognitive developmental theory and the Neo-Kohlbergian approach to ethical development. From cognitive developmental theory we understand that individuals use experience to navigate a series of stages which ultimately leads to cognitive growth. This growth occurs in different domains including the moral/ethical. Within the ethical domain individuals rationalize ethical decisions according to one of three specific schema: Personal Interest, Maintaining Norms, or Post-Conventional. The manner in which they justify their decision combined with their ability to determine when a dilemma exists and what specific components need to be addressed contributes to their sense of an ethical identity. It is this ethical identity that impels individuals to “strive to be good” or “do the right thing”.

This study is an attempt to investigate this ethical identity in teacher education candidates. It is focused on the intersection of ethical sensitivity, ethical judgment and

CHAPTER 3

Methodology

Teaching is, by its very nature, an ethical endeavor. Given the ethical nature of the teaching profession and the responsibility placed upon teachers to act in an ethical manner, it is imperative that the ethical identity of teacher education candidates be investigated. The ethical identity of teacher education candidates is manifested in their sensitivity, judgment, and subsequent actions. In this study ethical sensitivity refers to a pre-service teacher candidate's ability to identify the specific components which make a dilemma an ethical one. It also relates to his/her ability to envision the consequences of his/her actions to the individuals involved. Ethical judgment refers to the justifications the same teacher candidate's employ when determining the most appropriate course of action in response to an ethical dilemma. Ethical action, in this study, is determined by the verbal and nonverbal interactions communicated by teacher candidates in relation to a standardized parent/caregiver conference. Thus, the study has cognitive, affective, and behavioral components. The clinical performance behavioral component is measured in teacher candidates through performance with a standardized, parent/caregiver during a problem-solving conference.

Research Hypotheses and Questions

This study investigated the ethical identity of teacher education candidates by addressing the following meta-question: *What is the relationship between teacher candidate*

ethical sensitivity, ethical judgment, and ethical action in a clinical setting? Research hypotheses and questions included the following:

Research Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: Teacher education candidates significantly differ in their ethical sensitivity, by gender, as measured by the Racial Ethical Sensitivity Test.

Hypothesis 2: Teacher education candidates significantly differ in their ethical sensitivity, by age, as measured by the Racial Ethical Sensitivity Test.

Hypothesis 3: There is a positive correlation between ethical sensitivity and ethical judgment for the teacher education candidates.

Hypothesis 4: There is a positive correlation between ethical sensitivity and teacher education candidate clinical performance in a standardized conference as measured by the proportion of indirect teacher candidate verbal interaction.

Hypothesis 5: There is a positive correlation between ethical judgment and teacher education candidate clinical performance in a standardized conference as measured by the proportion of indirect teacher candidate verbal interaction.

Hypothesis 6: There is a positive correlation between ethical judgment and teacher education candidate clinical performance in a standardized conference as measured by the proportion of teacher candidate talk.

Hypothesis 7: There is a positive correlation between ethical judgment and teacher education candidate clinical performance in a standardized conference as measured by the proportion of parent talk.

Research Questions

Research Question 1: Can the ethical sensitivity of teacher education candidates be effectively and efficiently assessed by teacher educators using the Racial Ethical Sensitivity Test?

Research Question 2: What are the advantages associated with the utilization of the standardized parent in teacher education preparation?

Statement of the Purpose

This study is an investigation of the ethical identity of teacher education candidates, as expressed by ethical sensitivity, ethical judgment, and ethical action. Ethical sensitivity is the awareness of how actions affect other individuals and is what alerts an individual to the notion that an ethical dilemma exists (Rest et al, 1999). Ethical sensitivity requires an individual to interpret a situation and imagine what courses of action are possible. It additionally requires individual empathy and anticipation of how each course of action will impact the welfare of the individuals involved. Ethical sensitivity was be assessed using the REST, a measure of ethical sensitivity to acts of racial and gender intolerance in school settings (Brabeck et al., 2000).

Ethical judgment, the second component of the study, refers to the manner in which individuals justify a particular course of action (Rest et. al., 1999). Ethical judgment can be viewed as a cognitive preference and recognition of ethical problems. In the context of the proposed research, ethical judgment is conceptualized as the explanations and justifications that pre-service teachers give as they encounter ethical dilemmas. An example might be deciding what is right in a classroom situation. A teacher may identify fairness as an

organizing concept for particular ethical judgments. In effect, the teacher uses the principle of fairness to judge future actions. It is the “goodness of fit” between the teacher’s principles and the general situation that gives him/her a sense of conviction and certainty. The DIT-2 is one method by which to assess the ethical judgment of individuals (Rest, 1994) and was utilized in this study.

Ethical action is the manner in which an individual responds to a particular ethical situation. Ethical action involves implementing one’s intentions or judgments. In the case of a teacher education candidate, it could mean deciding how to communicate during a conference with a parent or caregiver. Ethical action, in this study, was assessed using a conference format between the teacher and a parent/caregiver where the assessment of the teacher education candidate’s nonverbal and verbal interactions using the Adapted Flanders Interaction Analysis for types of talk (direct vs. indirect).

Method

Sample

This quantitative analysis was conducted using teacher education candidates enrolled in ECI 205; an introductory course required of teacher education candidates. The participants were students in either the Middle Grades Education Program or Foreign Language Education Program. ECI 205: *Introduction to Teaching Humanities and Social Sciences* is an introductory course for prospective teachers in secondary and middle grades social studies, English, language arts, and foreign languages. It offers an emphasis on differing aspects and procedures of instruction, analysis of competencies required of teachers, and field work in a variety of education settings including an extended period in one curriculum

area. Access to the site and participants was facilitated through the program coordinator and course instructor.

The initial sample consisted of 40 students in two sections ECI 205. These 40 students were administered the DIT in their respective classes. The sample consisted of 33 female students and 7 male students with an age range from 18 to 49. The median age of the sample was 20 years old and the mean was 24.3 years. From the sample of 40, volunteers were solicited to participate in the administration of the REST. From the original sample, 22 students chose to participate in the REST administration. This sample consisted of 19 female students and 3 male students. Their ages ranged from 19 to 49 years old with a median of 20 and mean of 24 years old. The third component sample consisted of 12 students who were administered both the DIT and REST. This sample had 10 female students and 2 male students with an age range from 19 to 23 years old. The median age for the sample was 20 years and the mean age was 20.4 years old.

The sample selection for the third component was both purposeful and stratified. It was purposeful in that it contained more female students than male and that it consisted of students self-identified as white. The reason behind this selection relates to the current teaching population and make-up, nationally, of teacher education candidates (Van Hook, 2002). In public education and teacher education programs the students are primarily white, middle-class, and female. These characteristics are reflected in the sample. The sample was also stratified according to ethical judgment schema. From the REST sample 12 students were selected based on their ethical judgment scores (4 pre conventional, 4 conventional, and 4 post conventional).

There are advantages and disadvantages associated with a sample of 12. The advantages include the ability to conduct qualitative analysis of the conferences and the ability to keep monetary costs to a minimum. The disadvantages relate primarily to the quantitative analyses. The small sample size becomes problematic when conducting correlational statistics as it becomes more difficult to generalize to a larger population.

Measures

DIT-2

The DIT-2 is a multiple-choice, paper-and-pencil measure derived from Kohlberg's stage theory of moral reasoning. It is composed of a series of five ethical dilemmas followed by 12 action choice items. Each of the items represents a different way of expressing the issues comprising the dilemma. The test is based on the assumption that individuals at different points in their ethical development will "define the issues" (Bebeau et al., 1985) in these problems differently. The twelve items were written to represent different schemas of ethical judgment. The most often used index in DIT research is the p score. The p score represents the relative importance an individual attributes to the post-conventional reasoning schema, when justifying an ethical course of action (Bebeau et al., 1985). The DIT is actually more supportive of Kohlberg's stage theory than his own original instrument the Moral Judgment Interview (MJI). It can best be explained using Vygotsky's "Zone of Proximal Development" (ZPD). The MJI measures the higher end of the ZPD because it requires individuals to articulate answers via prompts from an interviewer. This articulation must be logical and coherent in order to obtain a high score on the assessment. This may serve as one reason why it was found that few individuals actually measured in the post-

conventional schema based on the MJI. The DIT-2 however, measures the lower end of the ZPD with the words on the page serving as the source of assistance (Narvaez & Bock, 2002). Thus, the DIT-2 provides a functional level of reasoning.

DIT-2 scores are calculated as a p score, ranging from 0-93, indicating the percent of post-conventional reasoning participants are using when making decisions about moral/ethical dilemmas. The DIT also reports the distribution of reasoning in terms of the three ethical judgment schema. Test-retest reliability and internal consistency has been reported at .75 (Rest, et al., 1999). The DIT has been utilized in over forty countries, and content validity of the DIT has been reported as moderate to high. Over 3000 studies in medicine, dentistry, business, law, accounting, nursing, and teaching have employed the DIT. Research using the DIT has not found significant differences between moral reasoning in relation to participant gender, race, or socioeconomic status (Moreland & Leach, 2001).

REST

The Racial Ethical Sensitivity Test (REST) consists of 5 scenarios depicting scenes of racial or gender intolerance in school settings. Participants are instructed to view two of these scenarios and respond to a semi-structured interview. Videos are used because they have been found to be better stimuli for assessing ethical sensitivity, because it requires an awareness of verbal and nonverbal cues that indicate an ethical problem (Brabeck et al., 2000). The REST measure extends previous work on diversity training and multicultural education by linking ethical sensitivity to existing ethical codes common to different school-based helping professions (Brabeck et al., 2000). Current work with the REST advances earlier work on ethical sensitivity in the professions of dentistry (Bebeau, Rest, & Yamoore,

1985), counseling (Volker, 1984), medicine (Self & Baldwin, 1994), and nursing (Duckett & Ryden, 1994).

Ethical sensitivity is the ability to identify ethical issues in a situation by (a) making inferences from individual's verbal and nonverbal behaviors, (b) identifying what other's affected by the situation want or need, (c) anticipating other's reactions to one's attempts to help and (d) responding with appropriate affect. Bebeau (1994) has conducted the most extensive work on ethical sensitivity. She has demonstrated that ethical sensitivity can be reliably measured, is distinct from ethical judgment reasoning, is predictive of ethical behavior, and can be demonstrably improved through education.

Adapted Flanders Interaction Analysis

The clinical performance of the pre-service teachers conference with a parent/caregiver was assessed using an adaptation of the Flanders Interaction Analysis System (Flanders, 1967) which incorporated an adapted version of the Galloway System (1976). Flanders (1967) found that teacher talk could be categorized into seven areas and student talk into two. The Flanders categories include:

1. Accepts Feelings
2. Praises or Encourages
3. Accepts or uses ideas of students
4. Asks questions
5. Lectures
6. Gives directions
7. Criticizes or justifies authority

8. Student talk – response
9. Student talk – initiation
10. Silence or confusion

Nate Gage (1978) found that the Flanders system could be further divided into two clusters: Indirect and Direct. Categories 1-4 reflect indirect interactions and categories 5-10 reflect direct interactions.

The Flanders framework is relatively easy to master, can assess groups of behaviors, account for a teachers sense of fairness, and assesses both teacher-caregiver/parent interaction (quantity), and teacher student affective concerns (Sprinthall, Reiman & Thies-Sprinthall, 1996). The Flanders system has been criticized for its reliance on verbal interaction but there is ample evidence to support its effectiveness as a valid measure (Flanders & Morine, 1973; Gage, 1985). To address the concerns regarding exclusive focus on verbal interactions, one can turn to the work of Galloway (1976) and his contributions to our understanding of non-verbal communication.

Galloway (1976) noted the need to develop a system of assessment for nonverbal interactions due to its being a significant part of the climate of schools. He subsequently chose to modify an existing instrument and selected the Flanders Interaction Analysis system. The resulting model incorporated the 10 categories devised by Flanders and included two additional factors per category to account for the nonverbal interactions. Nonverbal interactions according to Galloway can be categorized as encouraging or restricting.

Since very little is known about the nature of parent-teacher consultation as “interactional events” (Maclure & Walker, 2000) this study represents an important contribution to the literature base. Using the adapted instrument there will be an attempt to gain a better understanding of how parents and teacher candidates cooperate/collaborate in a conference setting. The instrument incorporates the work of Flanders, Gage, and Galloway and will categorize interactions as either direct or indirect and encouraging or restricting. Scorers view videotaped clinical performance sessions and tally every three seconds based on the verbal category (1-10) and nonverbal signals (congruent/incongruent) (See Figure 3.1).

Figure 3.1

Adapted Flanders/Galloway Systems for Verbal & Nonverbal Sensitivity

Teacher Indirect Interaction		
<p>1. Accepts Feelings - Accepts and clarifies the tone of feelings of the students in an unthreatening manner. Feelings may be positive or negative. Predicting or recalling feelings are included.</p>	<p>Congruent - Nonverbal behavior is consistent with words. No "mixed messages" are given. Body language shows a range of feelings</p>	<p>Incongruent - Behavior contradicts words; for example, smiles when annoyed. Body language is controlled. Feelings are rarely shown.</p>
<p>2. Praises or Encourages - Praises or encourages parent action or behavior. Humor that releases tension, but not at the expense of another individual; nodding head and saying "um hm?" or "tell me more" are included.</p>	<p>Congruent - Nonverbal behavior is consistent with words. No "mixed messages" are given. Body language shows a range of feelings.</p>	<p>Incongruent - Behavior contradicts words; for example, smiles when annoyed. Body language is controlled. Feelings are rarely shown.</p>
<p>3. Accepts or Uses The Ideas of Parents - Clarifies, builds, or develops ideas suggested by a student. As teacher brings more of her or his ideas into play, shift to Category 5.</p>	<p>Implement - As teacher uses ideas of parents, nonverbals are consistently encouraging; for example, leaning forward.</p>	<p>Perfunctory - Nonverbal behavior indicates no genuine interest in parents' ideas; for example, distant or bored facial expression.</p>
<p>4. Asks Questions - Asks a question about content or procedure with the intent that the parent answer.</p>	<p>Personal - Teacher maintains face-to-face contact, is "connected" with the parent.</p>	<p>Impersonal - Teacher avoids contact during questioning.</p>
Teacher Direct Interaction		
<p>5. Lectures - Gives facts or opinions about content or procedure; expresses his or her own ideas, asking rhetorical questions.</p>	<p>Responsive - Tone, pace of talk are designed to keep parent interest.</p>	<p>Unresponsive - Teacher drones on and on, with little variation in tone and little attention to parent cues.</p>
<p>6. Gives Directions - Directs, commands, or gives orders that parents are expected to comply with.</p>	<p>Involve - Nonverbal behavior encourages parent participation in clarifying directions and rules.</p>	<p>Dismiss - Nonverbal behavior cues parents to avoid participation.</p>
<p>7. Criticizes or Justifies Authority - Makes statements intended to change student behavior from unacceptable to acceptable pattern; bawling someone out; stating the rationale for teacher behavior or action.</p>	<p>Firm - Nonverbal behavior is consistent with firm language in controlling misbehavior.</p>	<p>Harsh - Nonverbal behavior is severe, aggressive, genuinely intimidating.</p>
<p>8. Parent Talk: Response - Talk by parents in response to teacher. Teacher initiates the contact.</p>	<p>Receptive - Nonverbal expressions that imply a willingness to listen with patience and interest.</p>	<p>Inattentive - Openly ignoring a parent when a response would ordinarily be expected.</p>
<p>9. Parent Talk: Initiation - Talk initiated by parent.</p>	<p>Receptive - Nonverbal expressions that imply a willingness to listen with patience and interest.</p>	<p>Inattentive - Openly ignoring a parent when a response would ordinarily be expected.</p>
<p>10. Silence or Confusion - Pause, wait time, or periods of confusion in which the communication cannot be understood by the observer.</p>	<p>Comfort - Supportive expressions clearly show the teacher is pleased and approves.</p>	<p>Distress - Disapproving expressions convey dissatisfaction, discouragement, disparagement, or punishment.</p>

Figure 3.1 lists the 10 domains of verbal communication and the accompanying nonverbal responses. The verbal behaviors are categorized as indirect or indirect and the nonverbal as congruent or incongruent with the verbal. Both the verbal categories and nonverbal behaviors are named and described in the preceding table.

Procedures

DIT-2

The study began with the administration of the DIT-2 to two sections of ECI 205 (n = 40). The administration occurred in the individual classes and required approximately 45 minutes. Prior to the administration the students were informed that the DIT is a measure of post-conventional moral reasoning based originally on the work of Lawrence Kohlberg and given an information sheet outlining the procedures, risks, benefits, and contact information. Students were also provided time to ask questions pertaining to the measure, results, or other components of the study.

REST

The second procedure was the administration of the REST and involved 22 students from the original sample. The sample consisted of only 22 students because they had to volunteer to take part in the second component. Whereas the DIT occurred in class, the REST administration did not. Students were required to schedule a time to participate. Upon completion of the DIT students were asked to sign up for a specific time to participate in the REST administration. Those who chose to participate received \$10 as compensation. The students were asked to schedule individual meetings since the test ranges from 40 minutes to

1.5 hours depending upon the individual and requires a computer with CD and 3 ¼ inch floppy drives.

Clinical Performance

The clinical performance component of the study involves a conference between a teacher candidate and parent/caregiver. This component utilizes a “standardized” parent who is an African-American female, an experienced teacher, mentor, and parent. The standardized parent was coached in the situation she participated in with the teacher education candidate in order to ensure standardization. Two separate meetings were held between the investigator and the standardized parent. The first meeting explained the details of the study including the rationale, relevant research, and procedures. The second meeting was scripted and allowed the parent to practice the scenario. Since there was only one parent used in this study there was a reduced level of concern related to standardization across parents.

Selected teacher education candidates, based on DIT-2 scores, participated in a training session on how to conduct the conference prior to their interaction with the standardized parent. At the conclusion of the conference each of the participants (teachers, parent) were asked to answer a short questionnaire about the experience. The questionnaire prompted responses pertaining to significant factors in the conference, feelings upon completion, and verbal and nonverbal cues related to the conference.

From the REST sample of 22 students, 12 were selected to participate in the clinical performance component of the study. Participants were selected based on three significant factors DIT score, race, gender. The sample was selected in such a manner that they

reflected each of the three ethical judgment schemas, were all white students, and were primarily female. The average teacher in today's public schools and teacher candidates in schools of education reflect the majority culture, being primarily white and female. It was important therefore to study the manner in which these particular students relate to issues of racial and gender intolerance and parents representing a culture different from their own.

The Flanders rating scores of the clinical performance formed the primary basis for appraising the clinical competence of the teacher education candidates. Clinical competence has been defined by Kane (1992) as the degree to which an individual can use knowledge, skill, and judgment associated with the scope of professional practice. Such competence is used as grounds for generalizing about practitioners ability to perform a variety of tasks in actual situations.

Limitations

The primary limitation to this type of study is the understanding that correlation does not imply causation (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). It is, therefore, impossible to conclude that there is a cause and effect relationship between ethical identity and ethical action. A second limitation to the study is the sample selection and instrumentation. A stratified sample was selected based on DIT-2 scores with participants representing each of the ethical judgment schemas. It is advisable that the sample be as homogeneous as possible in order that the number of extraneous variables be minimized (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996). The reliability and validity of the tests being utilized also factor heavily into the success of the correlational study.

The homogeneity of the study could be construed as a secondary limitation of the study. The study consisted of undergraduate students within one particular field of education and thus may not be representative of all undergraduate education majors. Additionally, the third component of the study consisted of only white students and thus further limits the generalizability of the study to other populations.

A third limitation of the study is reflected in the different lengths of conferences between the teacher candidates and the standardized parent. The lengths ranged from 6 minutes to 15 minutes thus resulting in different quantities of interactions between the two. Having a small, homogeneous sample compounded by the differing interaction quantities and limits of the standardized measures could impact the results of the study. However, the benefits of and need to conduct such an investigation far outweigh the limitations which may impact the overall findings.

Analyses

DIT-2

Upon completion of the DIT-2 the instruments were mailed to the Center for the Study of Ethical Development at the University of Minnesota. The subsequent report includes scores for each of the three ethical judgment schema: Personal Interest, Maintaining Norms, and Post-Conventional. These scores reflect the relative percentage for each of the schema identified by the participant as a justification. The report also lists self-reported demographic information including age, sex, education level, political liberalism, whether the participant is a U.S. citizen, and whether English is their primary language. Additionally,

sample means are given for each category as well. In this particular study the Post-Conventional or P score was utilized in the correlation analysis.

REST

The REST assessments were scored by two independent raters according to a specific rubric developed by the authors of the test. Each scenario has between 6 and 9 issues upon which the participant will be rated. Each time the participant identifies an issue they receive a score of 2 and if they offer an explanation as to the importance of the issue or a manner in which to alleviate the situation they receive a score of 3. Non-identification of an issue results in a score of 1 for that issue. Each rater scores the participant responses and averages the score for each scenario. Two scenarios are scored for each participant and averaged to create a composite score ranging from 1-3 where a score of 1 would suggest low ethical sensitivity and 3 represents high ethical sensitivity.

The REST consisted of four different scenarios:

1. Faculty Lounge – Two teachers (Mr. Lynch and Ms. Parker) are discussing a Latina student in the presence of a third teacher (Ms. Highland). Mr. Lynch and Ms. Parker use a series of stereotypical remarks during the conversation. The issues involved include: lack of self-awareness, stereotypical remarks, lack of cultural knowledge, competence, professional responsibility, and confidentiality.
2. Math Class – In this scenario Mr. Ross is being observed by Ms. Cruz. What she observes is a teacher who is woefully out of touch with his current students and uses instances of racial and gender bias throughout the lesson.

The issues involved include: lack of self-awareness, lack of information pertinent to teaching, respect for students, differential treatment based on race and gender, and professional responsibility.

3. Residence Hall – The third scenario portrays a meeting in a residence hall of either a college or possibly a boarding school. During the meeting the students two Latina students are informed of their violation of a school policy prohibiting the use of a language other than English in a public area of the school. An argument ensues pitting the teacher (Ms. Colby) and a group of white students against the Latina students. The issues involved include: professional competence, lack of cultural knowledge, differential treatment based on race, respect for others' rights and dignity, racism, social responsibility, diversity, and professional responsibility.
4. Basketball Practice – Throughout the fourth scenario Coach Nichols makes racist, sexist, and classist remarks. James, the student to whom the slurs are primarily directed, is later seen meeting with his counselor (Mr. Elliot). Mr. Elliot fails to recognize the importance of the issues James has presented and additionally portrays his own racial biases throughout the conversation. The issues involved include: racism, classism, sexism, professional responsibility, differential treatment, concern for the welfare of others, and competence.

Clinical Performance

The clinical performance conferences were videotaped and analyzed by two trained raters using the Adapted Flanders Interaction Analysis. In using the instrument, a tally is

recorded every three seconds into one of the 10 categories based on which participant is speaking and the content of the speech. Additionally, the tally is categorized in either the congruent or incongruent category based on the nonverbal behavior of the participant. The scoring results in indirect and direct interactions and congruent and incongruent interactions. Based on the resulting data comparisons were made based on the types of interactions and the sensitivity and judgment scores of the participants.

Discourse Analysis

To assist in the interpretation of the data a post-hoc discourse analysis of selected conferences was conducted. This was conducted in an effort to combat the limitations associated with the study as well as provide a more robust description of the relationship between the variables. The post-hoc analysis includes significant statements or non-statements and nonverbal interactions between the teacher candidates and the standardized parent. The discourse analysis was prompted by the responses located on the debriefing information provided by each of the participants and the standardized parent.

Use of the Standardized Parent

In this study the use of the standardized parent is based upon the model currently employed in medical education. Since its inception in the 1960's the standardized patient has become a routine part of the education of medical students (Norcini & Boulet, 2003; AAMC, 1998; Edinger, Robertson, Skeel, & Schoonmaker, 1999). In medical education a standardized patient is a non-physician trained to portray patients in a standardized and consistent fashion for use in teaching and evaluation of medical students (Larson & Charles,

nd; Edinger, et al., 1999). They are used to create situations or problems in which real patients cannot be used in an effort to teach or evaluate (Larson & Charles, nd). As a result of their popularity and success in medical education, other health professions have begun to incorporate the use of the standardized patient. These professions include: dentistry, pharmacy, and chiropractic education (Monaghan, Vanderbush, Allen, Heard, Cantrell, & Randall, 1998). In the present study three factors in particular were deemed especially relevant to the effectiveness of the standardized parent: sources of error, equivalence, standardized conditions.

Sources of Error

Sources of error exist in all instrumentation and the use of the standardized parent is no exception. The variability in scores reflected in interaction analyses could, at least, be partly attributed to the standardized parent. While every effort is made to ensure consistency between participant experiences each individual will interpret the scene (verbal, nonverbal, setting cues) differently. In an effort to combat this source of error only one standardized parent was used in the study. That parent participated in a standardized training session which followed a prescribed protocol. The parent was also advised that it was necessary to “present the same scenario” to each of the participants.

Another potential source of measurement error can be attributed to the scorers. To ensure reliability a minimum of two raters were used who have been trained in the use of the interaction analysis. There are two raters involved in order to determine inter-rater reliability statistics to further decrease the chance of measurement error.

Equivalence

The use of the standardized patient in the classroom and clinical settings offers an opportunity to add realism and relevance to medical education instruction. It additionally provides the student with the opportunity for trial and error, understanding and appreciation, and personal and professional growth without the relying on “real” patients (Edinger, et al., 1999). The use of the standardized parent offers these same benefits to the teacher education candidate while providing an opportunity not often available to him/her prior to beginning their teaching career. To ensure the “reality” of the simulated conference a standardized parent was used who is familiar with conferences from both the perspective of a teacher and that of a parent. The conference format was based upon a model developed and utilized with beginning and mentor teachers in a school system and the problem with which the students dealt was not uncommon to the profession.

Standardized Conditions

In an effort to provide each of the participants with the “same” experience the setting was contrived in such a manner as to provide easy replication. Each of the conferences was held in the same room with the same standardized parent. Additionally, all participants attended the same training session and received the same handouts. When participants reported to the conference location they were given the same information prior to the start of the conference and responded to the same survey questions upon completion of the experience. By adhering to standardized procedures a model can be adapted from the medical community and have direct and significant benefits to teacher education candidates

by offering them an opportunity to participate in a crucial aspect of the teaching profession in a non-threatening, practical, and controlled manner.

Research Ethics and Human Participants

Increased complexity and development of nontraditional types of research methodologies involving human participants can lead to potential unintentional infringement of the rights, dignity, and privacy of those individuals involved (Anderson, 1998; Hammack, 1997). Virtually all professional occupations have formalized codes of ethics in order to specify in general terms the obligations of researchers to participants (Hammack, 1997). These research ethics, however, have become so deeply embedded within particular fields it has become somewhat tacit knowledge and as a result is rarely discussed or cited within most research method texts (Anderson, 1998). As well, engagement in research may place an individual in a role that he/she is unfamiliar with resulting in the potential for serious ethical problems.

The year 1946 is a seminal time in the study of research ethics and human participants. It marks the time in which 23 defendants faced an international tribunal in the Nuremberg War Crimes Trials. The result of the trials was a ten point statement of the conditions under which humans could be used as participants in research known as the Nuremberg Code. In most countries this document became the foundation for newly developed government policies enacted to ensure the ethical treatment of human participants (Anderson, 1998).

The United States adopted such legislation in 1974 and created the National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research

(Anderson, 1998; Hammack, 1997). This commission was responsible for reviewing areas of research in order to make recommendations for the refinement of legislation along with identifying a set of ethical principles. In 1979, the commission released the Belmont Report which included three ethical principles regarding the treatment of human participants: informed consent, beneficence, and justice (Anderson, 1998).

The first principle asserts that individuals should be treated as autonomous agents, whose freedom to deliberate about their own goals and act in accordance with their decisions must be protected unless their actions are clearly detrimental to others. The Belmont Report states, this essentially means that individuals have given their informed consent – they have freely volunteered to participate in the study after they have been fully informed of the nature and potential consequences for them (Anderson, 1998). It should be noted that not all researchers and associations agree with the use of informed consent in all research instances. Some have noted that obtaining informed consent while researching illegal behavior is difficult at best, while others feel the rules regarding informed consent are overly bureaucratic and may do more harm than good (Hammack, 1997). What is not addressed is the ethical responsibility of the researcher who witnesses illegal or harmful activity and chooses not to act but rather merely observe and document the activity.

The second principle is beneficence, meaning that researchers should do nothing they consciously know will harm participants and they will work to minimize the level of risk associated with the study (Anderson, 1998; Hammack, 1997). This second principle indirectly led to the establishment of Institutional Review Boards (IRB). These committees are charged with the responsibility to assess any risks or benefits associated with a particular study (Hammack, 1997). Studies conducted without the consent of an IRB could have severe

ramifications for both the individual conducting the study and the institution within which it occurred. Unapproved studies could result in the loss of current federal funding as well as eligibility for future funding for both the individual and the institution (Anderson, 1998).

The third principle is justice, stating that researchers will avoid systematically recruiting participants from classes of people such as welfare recipients and persons confined to institutions simply because they are available or easily manipulated (Anderson, 1998). The justice principle is essentially a matter of burden and benefit. It is the responsibility of the researcher to ensure that the benefits will directly relate to the population being studied and are not chosen merely for the benefit of the researcher (Hammack, 1997).

Each of these principles reflects the ethical responsibility the researcher has to the human participant involved in a study. The three principles are expressed in four significant ways in a study: informed consent, selection of volunteers, confidentiality, and education (Biesecker & Peay, 2003). Every effort possible should be made to fully inform participants of the purpose, procedures, benefits, and potential risks involved in study. Exclusions or exceptions to this rule may entail situations where informed consent is dangerous for the researcher or participant. A second example is when there is no current compelling reason to provide data such as when its meaning is unknown or highly suspect (Biesecker & Peay, 2003). Volunteers should be selected in a manner such that their participation reflects the population to which the data will be extrapolated and not merely based upon convenience or the ability to manipulate (Biesecker & Peay, 2003; Hammack, 1997). Researchers should strive to maintain the confidentiality of the human participants. Research data should be treated as private and confidential and every effort should be made to limit the potential for a third party to specifically identify a participant in a research study (Biesecker & Peay, 2003).

Finally, researchers should make an effort to inform and educate participants. This is particularly important when a study results in the opportunity for individual growth or benefit to the participants. In striving to follow these principles, researchers are able to conduct research in an ethically responsible manner and in doing so minimize the risk to human participants while maintaining the benefit of the research.

Conclusion

This chapter incorporated both the technical aspects of the study including the sample, procedures, and instrumentation and theoretical or practical aspects of the study which included the use of the standardized parent and research involving human participants. This study is a correlational assessment of teacher education candidate ethical sensitivity, ethical judgment, and ethical action in a clinical context. It involves three measures the DIT-2, REST, and an Adapted version of the Flanders Interaction Analysis. An additional, post-hoc discourse analysis is suggested in an effort to provide a more robust description of the ethical identity of the teacher education candidates. The manner in which to complete a study of this nature was proposed and included administration of the DIT-2 and REST followed by a clinical performance component. The clinical performance related to a standardized teacher-parent/caregiver conference. The conference incorporated the use of a standardized parent in a controlled setting. The participants and standardized parent attended separate training sessions involving specific protocols to be followed.

The theoretical/practical portion of this chapter discussed the concept of the standardized patient in medical education and its adaptability to teacher education. Support for its use were presented including the benefits (opportunity for trial and error, personal and

professional growth, etc.) and apparent incorporation into other professional programs including dentistry and pharmacy. The section concluded with a discussion of three significant factors involved in the success of the use of the standardized parent: sources of error, equivalence, and standardized conditions.

The chapter concluded with a discussion of Research Ethics and Human Participants and included a brief history of the topic and current issues. The section also discussed the manner in which an individual researcher should carry out a study in order to conduct it in an ethically responsible manner. The chapter to follow will report the findings of this study in light of the preceding review of literature and methods. The chapter will begin with the research questions, followed by the assessment instruments, data pertaining to each particular research question, and conclude with three cases.

CHAPTER 4

Results

In an effort to more fully understand the ethical identity of teacher education candidates the present study has enlisted the use of three measures to assess sensitivity, judgment, and actions in a clinical context. The relationship between the three variables is investigated through a series of hypotheses and research questions. The hypotheses and questions were developed in order to explore trends in the data, make comparisons based on age and gender, assess the feasibility and potential advantages of the study, and create an image, through the use of three cases, of the ethical identity of teacher education candidates. The cases contextualize the data and create a more robust understanding of the notion of ethical identity. The resulting chapter summarizes the hypotheses and research questions, reports sample demographics, reviews tests for normality, reports data pertaining to each particular question or hypothesis, describes evidence from three cases and within group (post hoc) analyses. The chapter concludes with a discussion of evidence and its convergence or divergence with prior research.

Research Hypotheses and Questions

This study investigated the ethical identity of teacher education candidates by addressing the following meta-question: *What is the relationship between teacher candidate ethical sensitivity, ethical judgment, and ethical action in a clinical setting?* Research hypotheses and questions included the following:

Research Hypotheses

- Hypothesis 1: Teacher education candidates significantly differ in their ethical sensitivity, by gender, as measured by the Racial Ethical Sensitivity Test.
- Hypothesis 2: Teacher education candidates significantly differ in their ethical sensitivity, by age, as measured by the Racial Ethical Sensitivity Test.
- Hypothesis 3: There is a positive correlation between ethical sensitivity and ethical judgment for the teacher education candidates.
- Hypothesis 4: There is a positive correlation between ethical sensitivity and teacher education candidate clinical performance in a standardized conference as measured by the proportion of indirect teacher candidate verbal interaction.
- Hypothesis 5: There is a positive correlation between ethical judgment and teacher education candidate clinical performance in a standardized conference as measured by the proportion of indirect teacher candidate verbal interaction.
- Hypothesis 6: There is a positive correlation between ethical judgment and teacher education candidate clinical performance in a standardized conference as measured by the proportion of teacher candidate talk.
- Hypothesis 7: There is a positive correlation between ethical judgment and teacher education candidate clinical performance in a standardized conference as measured by the proportion of parent talk.

Research Questions

Research Question 1: Can the ethical sensitivity of teacher education candidates be effectively and efficiently assessed by teacher educators using the Racial Ethical Sensitivity Test?

Research Question 2: What are the advantages associated with the utilization of the standardized parent in teacher education preparation?

Tests of Normality for the Defining Issues Test

The Defining Issues Test (DIT) assesses ethical judgment. The study included the administration of the DIT to two sections of an undergraduate introductory course for prospective teacher candidates with a total of 40 students. The sample mean was found to be 35.1, median equal to 36, and standard deviation of 12.77. The mean refers to the average score for the sample and the median is the absolute middle score. The standard deviation is the square root of the variance which is a measure of how spread out the distribution is.

The mean for the sample was reported to be 35.1. This value is lower than the nationally reported statistics for both college students in general (42.3) and adults in general (40.0) but higher than the mean for Senior high school students (31.8) (Rest & Narvaez, 1994). Two tests were conducted to determine whether the distribution of scores was normal. First, a graphical test for normality was conducted; the Kolmogorov-Smirnov-Lilliefors (KSL) test. According to the KSL test, provided one or more observations do not fall outside the curved confidence limits there is not a significant normality difference at the 0.05 level. A numerical test, known as the Shapiro-Wilk test, was conducted as well, and it

was concluded by the p-value of .37 that the distribution is not significantly different from a Normal distribution.

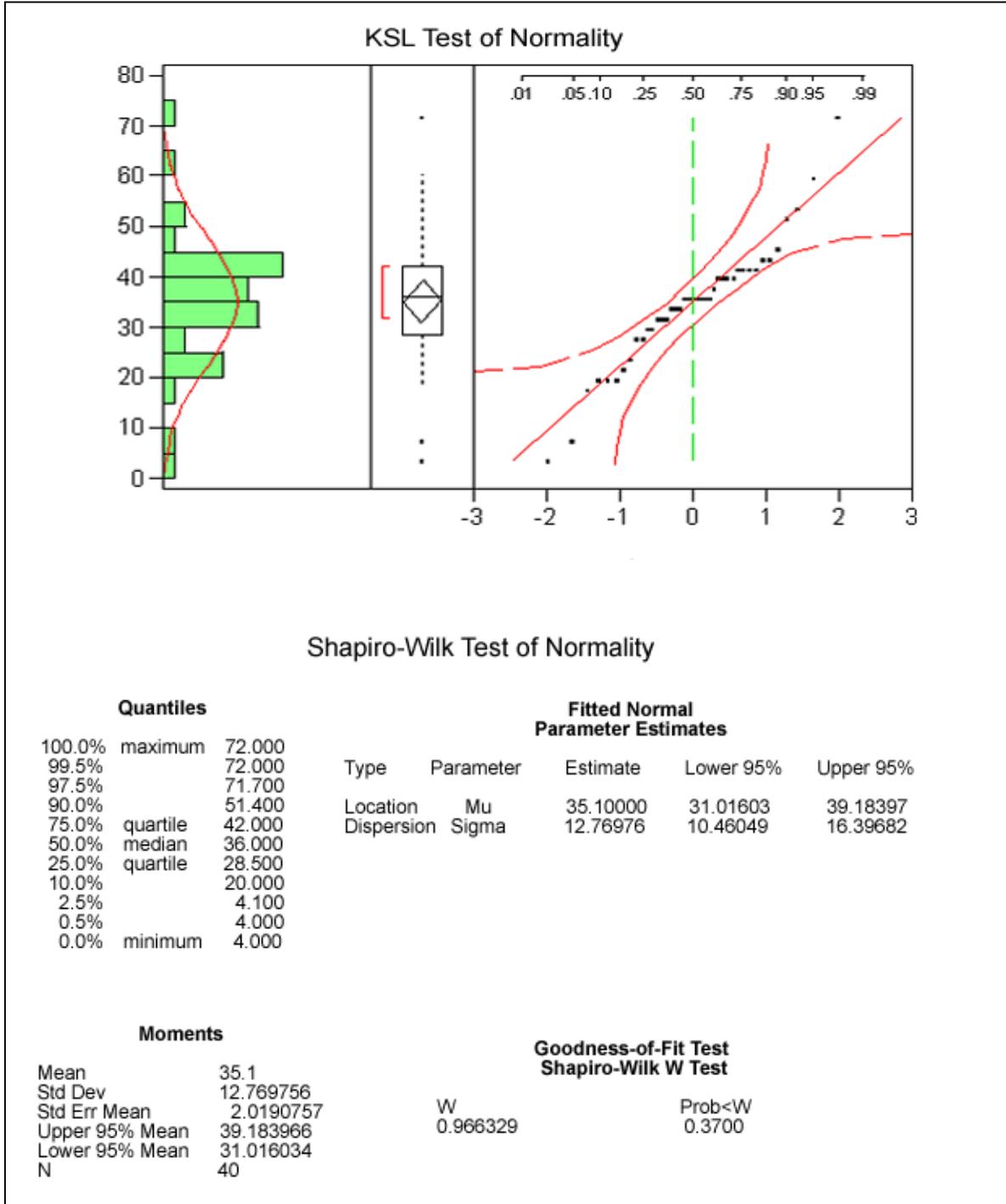
The results of the KSL test and Shapiro-Wilk test can be seen in Table 4.1 (Normality of Sample Distribution for the DIT) along with a histogram, moments, and quantiles for the sample. The upper half of the table contains three sections: histogram of scores, outlier box plot, and KSL test. The histogram is located on the left of the upper half of the table and reports the frequency of each score in 20 point intervals and includes a normal curve sketch.

The outlier box plot is located in the middle of the upper half of the table. The ends of the box represent the upper and lower quartiles. The lines extending from the edge of the box are called whiskers and can be no longer than 1.5 times the length of the box or they are considered outliers.

The KSL test is located on the right of the upper section of the table. This is a graphic which represents the participant values and the curved lines which indicate the 0.05 level of significance. When all points are located inside the curved lines the null hypothesis (that the distribution is normal) cannot be rejected.

The lower half of the table lists the moments and results of the Shapiro-Wilk test. These tables include quantiles, mean, median, standard deviation and sample size. The right lower half of the table includes the parameter estimates and the Shapiro-Wilk test p value.

Table 4.1 Normality of Sample Distribution for the DIT



The preceding table concludes that a normal distribution exists based on two methods, graphical and numerical. Table 4.1 shows graphically, a normal distribution based

on the histogram and KSL test. The lack of points outside the curved confidence lines in the KSL test indicate that the null hypothesis cannot be rejected at the 0.05 level.

DIT scores (percent of principled reasoning) were next categorized into three levels (low, mid, high). Low scores ranged from 0-29, mid scores ranged from 30-42, and high scores ranged from 43 and up. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) of DIT score by DIT level was conducted. The results of the ANOVA concluded that there was a significant difference between the means of each category with a p value $<.0001$.

The next table is provided to graphically and numerically present the findings of the ANOVA. Table 4.2 (One-Way Analysis of DIT Score by DIT Level) includes an upper and lower section. The upper half includes DIT Level (horizontal) and DIT Score (vertical) and the left and each pair compared using Student's t on the right. The vertical axis represents DIT scores ranging from 0 to 60 and the horizontal axis shows DIT level in three categories low, mid, and high each represented by their first letter. Included within this section are graphics called Means Diamonds. The center of the diamond is the sample mean and the height is equal to the 95% confidence interval. The lines at the top and bottom of the diamonds give the interval within the diamonds that can be used to test for equal means. The circles on the right half of the upper portion will show, by either overlapping or not, whether the means are significantly different at the 0.05 level.

The lower half of the table shows the summary of fit, analysis of variance (ANOVA), means, and means comparison. Within this section important features include the R square, adjusted R square, in the summary of fit. In the ANOVA the p value can be found at the far right and the means comparison shows whether or not the levels are significantly different.

Table 4.2 One-Way Analysis of DIT Score by DIT Level

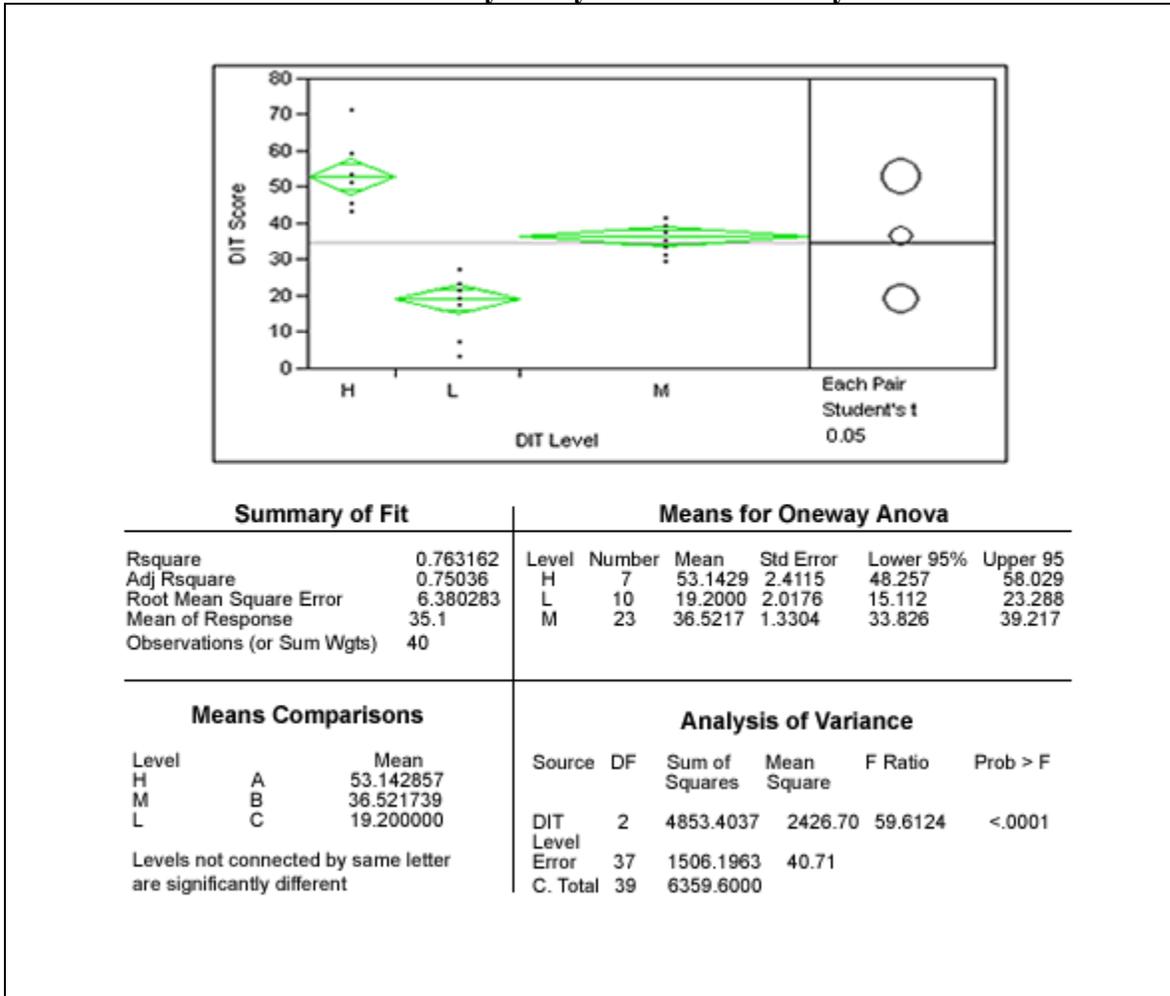


Table 4.2 shows three significantly different levels of DIT score based on both graphical and numerical analyses. Visually, there is no intersection in the means diamonds nor do the circles for student's t overlap. Numerically, the results of the ANOVA report a p value >0.0001 and means comparisons do not show levels connected by the same letter indicating that the levels have means that are significantly different at the 0.05 level. Based on the ANOVA the mean for the low group is 22.5, mid group is 36.5, and high group is 50.0 and there are clearly more individuals located in the mid group (22) than either the low (8) or

high (6) suggesting a normal distribution. The section that follows reports the tests of normality for the Racial Ethical Sensitivity Test.

Tests of Normality for the Racial Ethical Sensitivity Test

Based on the original sample of 40 participants, 22 undergraduates volunteered to participate in the Racial Ethical Sensitivity Test (REST) administration. REST scores range from 1.0 to 3.0 with 1.0 representing low racial ethical sensitivity, 2.0 representing moderate racial ethical sensitivity, and 3.0 representing high racial ethical sensitivity. National norms for the REST have not yet been established because the test is still relatively new and continues to be developed. In the current sample the actual scores ranged from 1.17 to 1.83 with a median of 1.45.

The two tests used to determine normality in the DIT sample distribution were also used in the REST sample distribution. The graphical test for normality used was the Kolmogorov-Smirnov-Lilliefors (KSL) test. According to the KSL test, provided one or more observations do not fall outside the curved confidence limits, there is not a significant normality difference at the 0.05 level. Additionally, the Shapiro-Wilk test was conducted and it was concluded that the p-value of .59 indicates that the distribution is not significantly different from a Normal distribution.

The results of the KSL test and Shapiro-Wilk test can be seen in Table 4.3 (Normality for the Sample Distribution for the REST) along with a histogram, moments, and quantiles for the sample. The upper half of the table contains three sections: histogram of scores, outlier box plot, and the graphical representation of the KSL test. The histogram is located

on the left of the upper half of the table and reports the frequency of each score in intervals ranging from 1.1 to 1.9 and includes a normal curve sketch.

The outlier box plot is located in the middle of the upper half of the table. The ends of the box represent the upper and lower quartiles. The lines extending from the edge of the box are called whiskers and can be no longer than 1.5 times the length of the box or they are considered outliers.

The KSL test is located on the right half of the upper section of the table. This graphic uses points to represent the participant values and curved lines indicating a 0.05 level of significance. Provided all points are located inside these curved lines indicates the hypothesis stating that the distribution is normal be accepted.

The lower half of the table lists the moments and results of the Shapiro-Wilk test. These tables include quantiles, mean, median, standard deviation and sample size. The right lower half of the table includes the parameter estimates and the Shapiro-Wilk test p value.

Table 4.3 Normality for the Sample Distribution for the REST

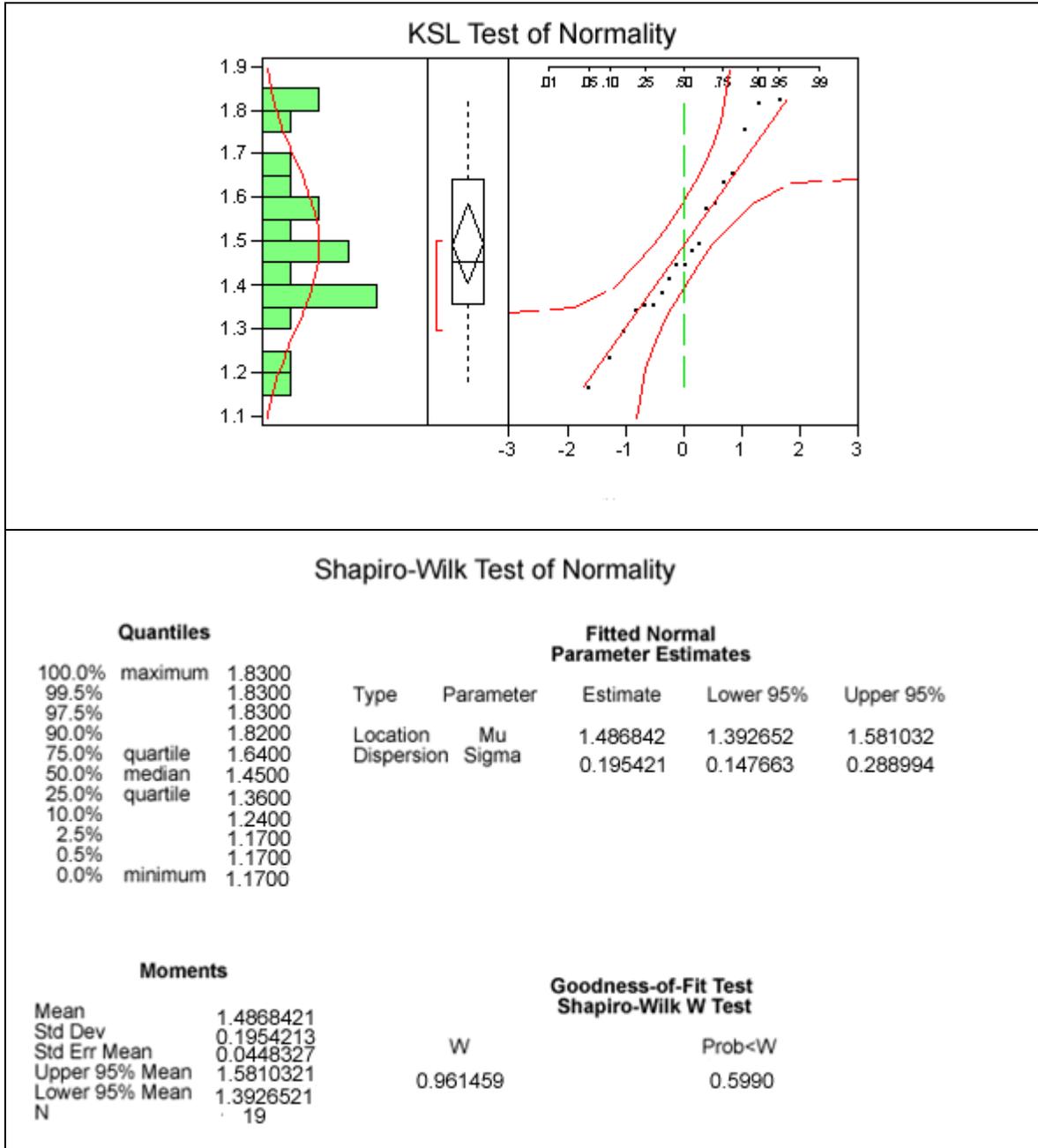


Table 4.3 indicates that a normal distribution exists based on both the graphical and numerical methods. Table 4.3 shows, graphically, a normal distribution based on the

histogram and KSL test. The lack of points outside the curved confidence lines in the KSL test indicate that the hypothesis cannot be rejected at the 0.05 level.

REST total scores for the sample were next categorized as either low, mid, or high levels with low ranging from 0 to 1.36, mid ranging from 1.37 to 1.63, and high being greater than 1.63. A one-way ANOVA concluded there was a significant difference between the means of each category with a p value $<.0001$.

Table 4.4 (Oneway Analysis of REST Total By REST Level) also includes an upper and lower section. The upper half includes REST Level (horizontal) and REST Total (vertical) on the left and each pair compared using student's t on the right. The vertical axis represents REST scores ranging from 1.1 to 1.9 and the horizontal axis shows REST level in three categories low, mid, and high. Low is indicated by the letter A, mid level by the letter B, and high ethical sensitivity by letter C. Included within this section are graphics called Means Diamonds. The center of the diamond is the sample mean and the height is equal to the 95% confidence interval. The lines at the top and bottom of the diamonds give the interval within the diamonds that can be used to test for equal means. The circles on the right half of the upper portion will show, by either overlapping or not, whether the means are significantly different at the 0.05 level.

The lower half of the table shows the summary of fit, analysis of variance (ANOVA), means, and means comparison. Within this section important features include the R square, adjusted R square, in the summary of fit. In the ANOVA the p value can be found at the far right and the means comparison shows whether or not the levels are significantly different.

Table 4.4 Oneway Analysis of REST Total By Rest Level

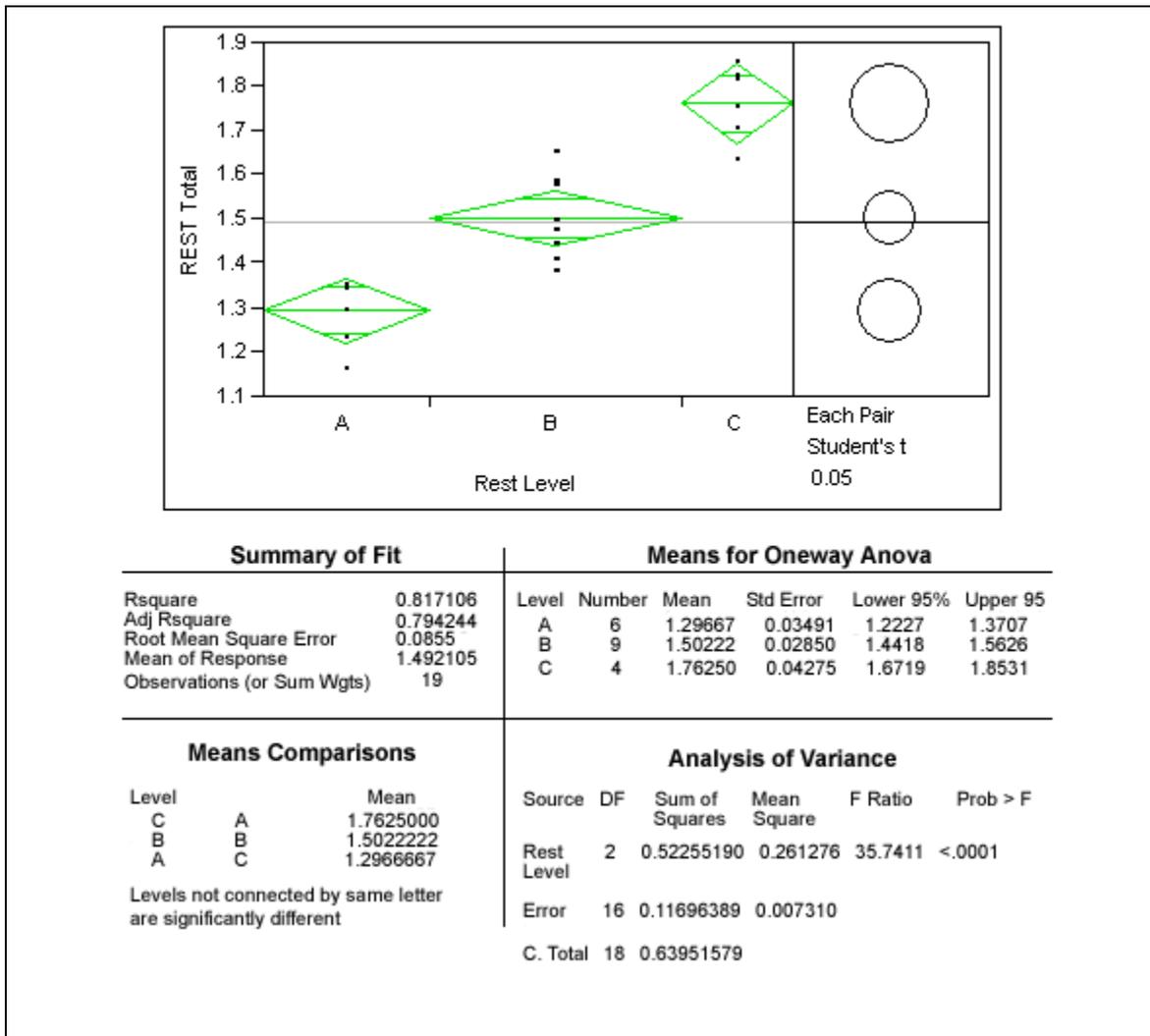


Table 4.4 shows three significantly different levels of REST score based on both graphical and numerical analyses. There is no intersection in the means diamonds nor do the circles for Student's t overlap. Numerically, the results of the ANOVA report a p value >0.0001 and means comparisons do not show levels connected by the same letter indicating that the levels have means that are significantly different at the 0.05 level. The next section will report the results of the clinical performance component of the study.

Tests of Normality for Clinical Performance

The third component of the study was a standardized parent conference. Due to the lack of research on the topic of parent/caregiver communication and the apparent importance of these relationships an investigation of teacher candidate performance, related to this topic, was proposed. The resulting component consisted of a conference between teacher candidates and a “standardized” parent. The results are summarized in this section.

Two categories were calculated and reported in the clinical performance component of the study, indirect interactions and direct interactions. Participant total interactions equal 100% with the majority comprising direct interactions. Direct interactions are categorized as a set of interactions consisting of the one-way flow of information from the teacher to the caregiver such as lecturing or giving directions. Indirect interactions, in the Flanders Interaction Analysis, are a set of more participatory, collaborative interactions which promote the construction of concepts or ideas. Indirect interactions include acknowledgement of ideas and emotions, encouragement and questions.

It was found during the data collection phase that the adapted Flanders Interaction Analysis was very effective at noting verbal interactions; however the nonverbal interactions were not able to be accurately recorded because few incongruent behaviors were observed. It is uncertain as to whether this is a result of the performance itself or a flaw in the observation instrument. It appears that because the performance is a contrived situation and the participants did not necessarily have a personal stake in the outcome they were less likely to display incongruent nonverbal behaviors. As a result only direct and indirect verbal behaviors were analyzed.

The indirect scores ranged from a low of 11% to a high of 41% of total teacher candidate interactions. The basic statistics included a mean of 24%, median equal to 24%, and standard deviation of 9.73. The direct scores ranged from 59% to 89%. The basic statistics included a mean of 76%, median equal to 76%, and a standard deviation of 9.73.

Table 4.5 (Distribution of Flanders Interaction Analysis) includes four quadrants with the top and bottom left detailing the indirect percentage and the top and bottom right direct percentage. The top of the table has histograms and the bottom includes quantiles and moments for each of the categories.

Table 4.5 Distribution of Flanders Interaction Analysis

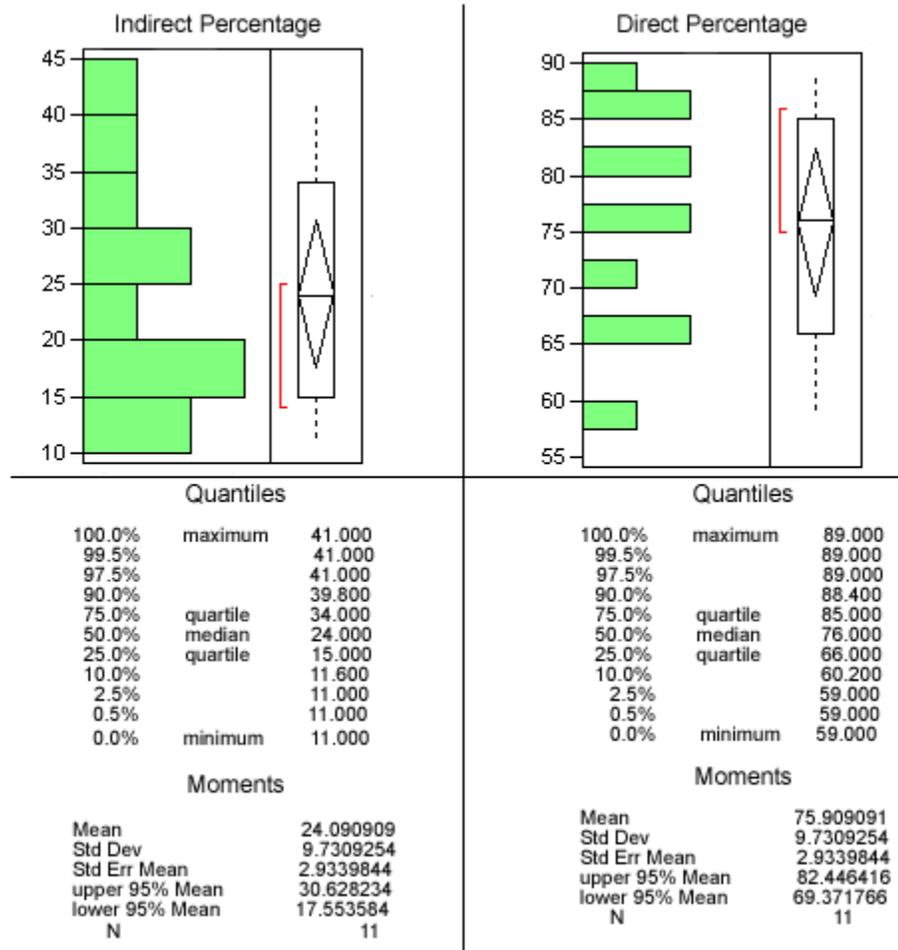


Table 4.5 Distribution of Flanders Interaction Analysis shows the difference in the indirect and direct percentages based on the clinical performance. The minimum indirect percentage was 11% and maximum was 41% with a mean of 24%. The minimum direct percentage score was 59% and maximum was 89% with a mean of 76%. Additionally, there were no outliers found in the sample based on the outlier box plot.

Research Hypothesis and Question Analyses

Research Hypothesis 1: Teacher education candidates significantly differ in their ethical sensitivity, by gender, as measured by the Racial Ethical Sensitivity Test.

Although sample size (19 females, 3 males) precludes one from making a clear determination, there appears to be no difference in ethical sensitivity based on gender. The slight difference reported elsewhere in relation to male and female ethical sensitivity (Bebeau & Brabeck, 1987) cannot be confirmed nor denied based on the findings of this study.

Table 4.6 (Oneway Analysis of Racial Ethical Sensitivity Test by Gender) summarizes the sample scores by gender for the Racial Ethical Sensitivity Test in an upper and lower section. The upper half includes Gender (horizontal) and REST Total (vertical) on the left and each pair compared using student's *t* on the right. The vertical axis represents REST scores ranging from 1.0 to 2.4 and the horizontal axis shows REST level in two categories female and male. Included within this section are graphics called Means Diamonds. The center of the diamond is the sample mean and the height is equal to the 95% confidence interval. The lines at the top and bottom of the diamonds give the interval within the diamonds that can be used to test for equal means. The circles on the right half of the upper portion will show, by either overlapping or not, whether the means are significantly different at the 0.05 level.

The lower half of the table shows the summary of fit, *t* test, analysis of variance (ANOVA), means, and means comparison. Within this section important features include the R square, adjusted R square, in the summary of fit. In the ANOVA the *p* value can be

found at the far right and the means comparison shows whether the levels are significantly different.

Table 4.6 Oneway Analysis of Racial Ethical Sensitivity Test Total by Gender

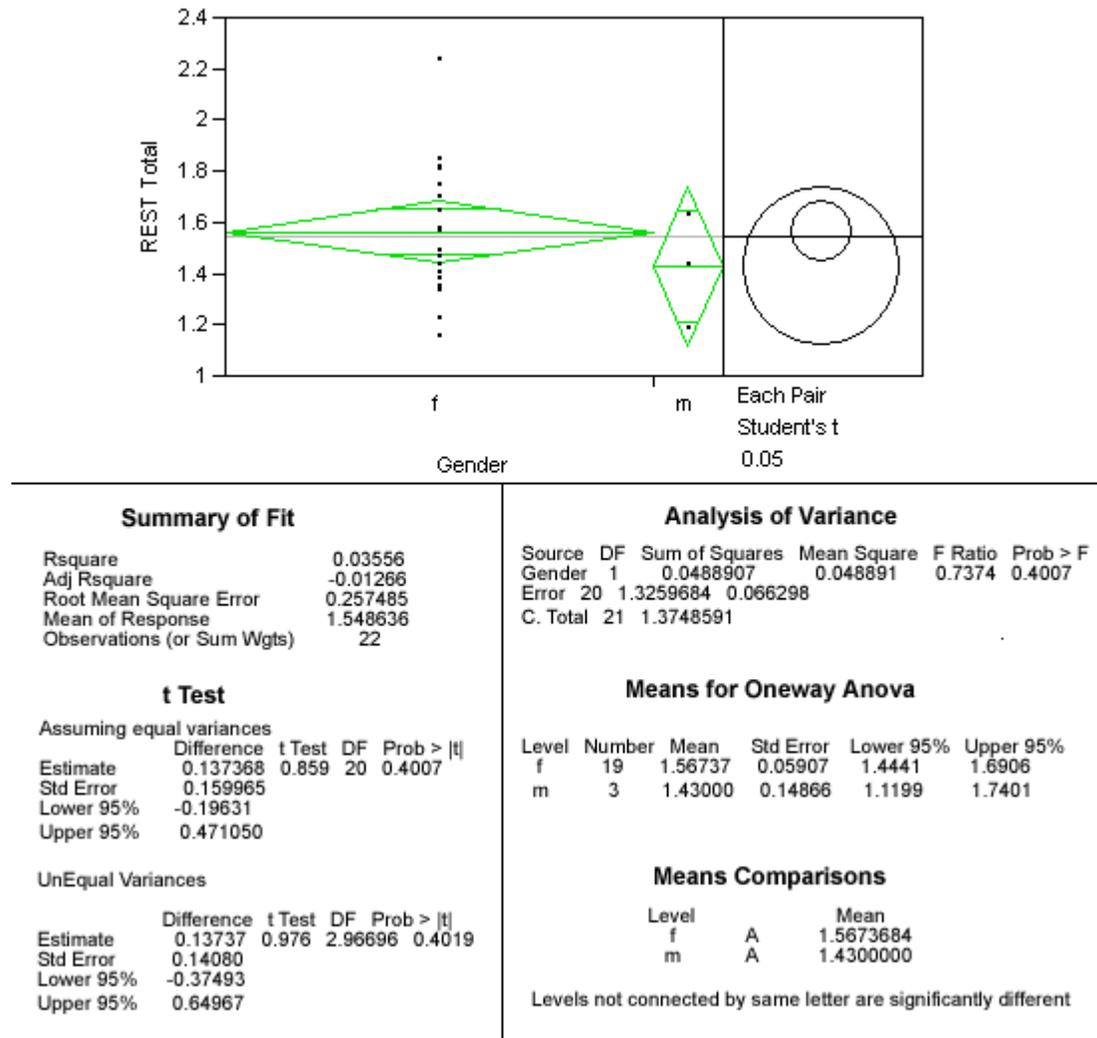


Table 4.6 fails to show significant differences in REST scores by gender on both graphical and numerical analyses. There is an intersection in the means diamonds and the circles for student's t overlap. Numerically, the results of the ANOVA reports a p value of .40 and means comparisons do show levels connected by the same letter indicating that the levels have means that are not significantly different at the 0.05 level. Although the sample

is small, there are no statistical differences in REST score by gender and thus, the directional hypothesis was rejected.

Research Hypothesis 2: Teacher education candidates significantly differ in their ethical sensitivity, by age, as measured by the Racial Ethical Sensitivity Test.

Participants ranged from 18 to 49 years of age with a median of 20 and mean of 24. A one way ANOVA found no significant difference between participants based upon their age. These ANOVA findings are summarized in Table 4.7 (Oneway Analysis of Age by Racial Ethical Sensitivity Test Level). This table contains an upper and lower section with the upper half including REST Level (horizontal) and Age (vertical) on the left. Each pair is compared using student's t and are located on the right upper half of the table. The vertical axis represents ages ranging from 15 to 50 and the horizontal axis shows REST level in three categories: A representing low ethical sensitivity, B representing mid-level ethical sensitivity, and C representing high ethical sensitivity. Included within this section are graphics called Means Diamonds. The center of the diamond is the sample mean and the height is equal to the 95% confidence interval. The lines at the top and bottom of the diamonds give the interval within the diamonds that can be used to test for equal means. The circles on the right half of the upper portion will show, by either overlapping or not, whether the means are significantly different at the 0.05 level.

The lower half of the table shows the summary of fit, analysis of variance (ANOVA), means, and means comparison. Within this section important features include the R square, adjusted R square, in the summary of fit. In the ANOVA the p value can be found at the far right and the means comparison shows whether or not the levels are significantly different.

Table 4.7 Oneway Analysis of Age by REST Level

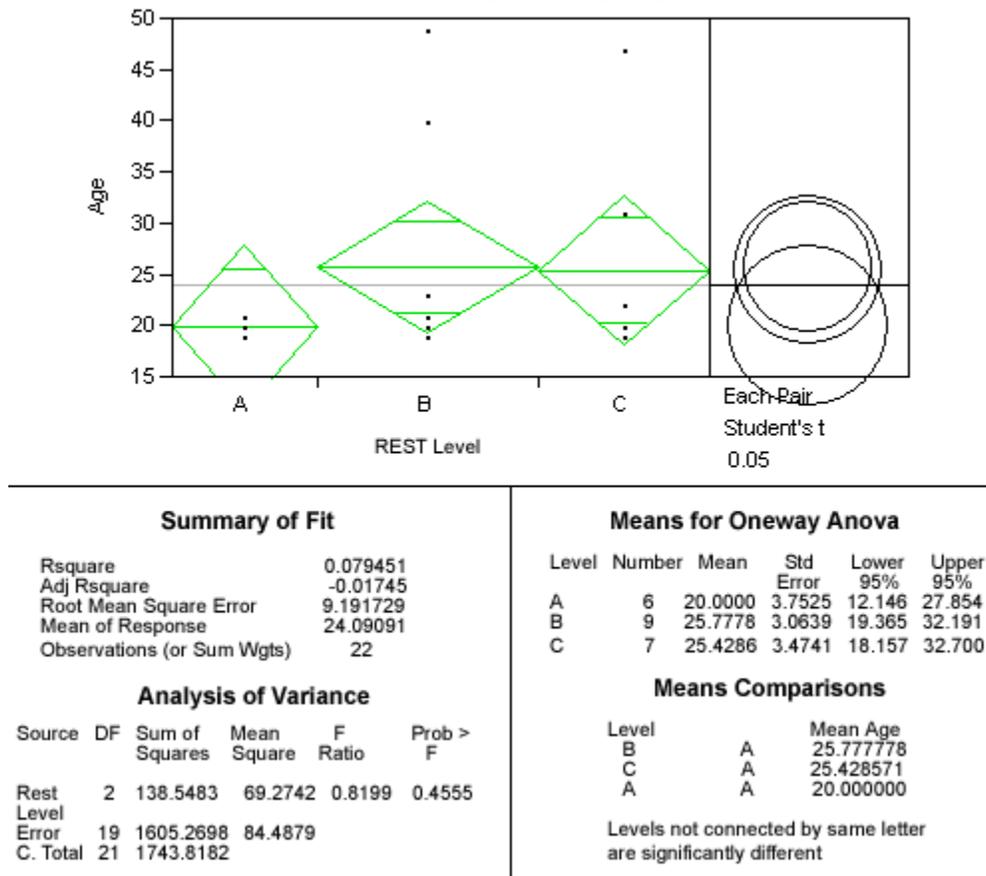


Table 4.7 fails to show a significant difference in REST level based on age in both graphical and numerical analyses. There is an intersection in the means diamonds and the circles for student's t overlap. Numerically, the results of the ANOVA report a p value of .46 and means comparisons do show levels connected by the same letter indicating that the levels have means that are not significantly different at the 0.05 level. Based on both the numerical and visual evidence the hypothesis stating there is a correlation between age and REST level is rejected.

Hypothesis 3: There is a positive correlation between ethical sensitivity and ethical judgment for the teacher education candidates.

To determine the level of relationship between the variables of ethical sensitivity and ethical judgment a scatterplot matrix was created along with the Pearson Correlation Coefficient. The scatterplot is a visual representation of the data and the correlation coefficient is a numerical value representing the degree of relationship. The scatterplot matrix includes density ellipses set at the .05 level of significance. Based on the participants in the sample it is difficult to detect a pattern within the matrix. The lack of relationship is confirmed by the Pearson coefficient measuring -0.0667 . It should not be concluded however, that a relationship does not exist because after conducting a pairwise correlation the significance level was measured at $.7679$ which is too high to draw a conclusion with any amount of certainty.

Table 4.8 portrays the relationship between ethical sensitivity and ethical judgment. The table is composed of three sections including a scatterplot matrix, correlations, and pairwise correlations. The upper half of the table shows the scatterplot with DIT scores and REST total. The lower half is divided into a right and left portion with the left showing the Pearson Correlation and the right showing the Pairwise Correlation which includes the p value.

Table 4.8 The Correlation Between Ethical Sensitivity and Ethical Judgment

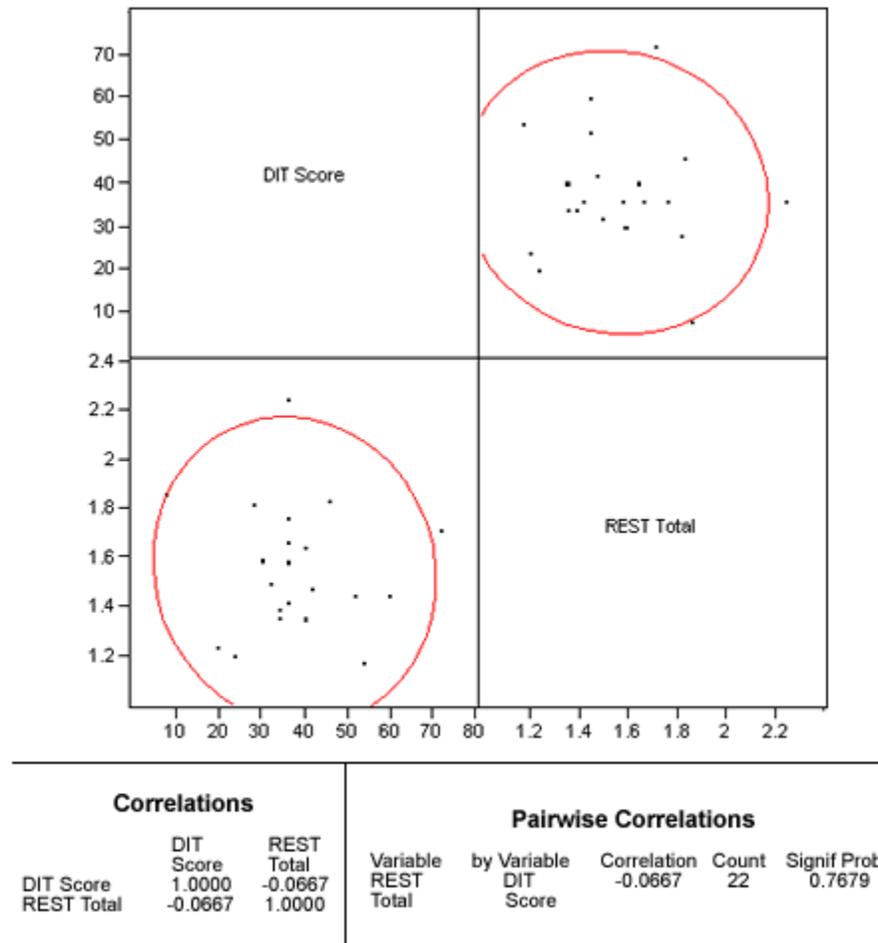


Table 4.8 indicates a lack of relationship between the two variables, ethical sensitivity and ethical judgment. The graphical representation shows no clear trend in the data while the numerical data shows a correlation of -0.0667. The Pairwise Correlation has a p value of 0.7679 reinforcing the conclusion that a significant relationship can not be determined based on the current findings. This results in a rejection of the hypothesis that a correlation exists between ethical sensitivity and ethical judgment.

Hypothesis 4: There is a positive correlation between ethical sensitivity and teacher education candidate clinical performance in a standardized conference as measured by the proportion of indirect teacher candidate verbal interaction.

The first inclination one would have as to the relationship between these two variables would be that as ethical sensitivity rises so should indirect interaction. Being able to elicit the opinion of another, use the ideas, and accept feelings and ideas should be more characteristic of individuals with greater sensitivity, empathy, and the ability to take the perspective of another.

Data collected in this study points in the opposite direction however; there was a small but negative correlation between ethical sensitivity and indirect interaction. As sensitivity increased, indirect interaction decreased. Significance is a problem with the findings, since the p-value for the test was measured at 0.1950.

Table 4.9 portrays evidence related to hypothesis four. The table is composed of three sections: a scatterplot matrix, correlations, and pairwise correlations. The upper half of the table shows the scatterplot REST total and indirect percentage. The lower half of the table is divided into a right and left portion with the left showing the Pearson Correlation and the right showing the Pairwise Correlation which includes the p value.

Table 4.9 The Correlation Between Ethical Sensitivity and Indirect Interaction

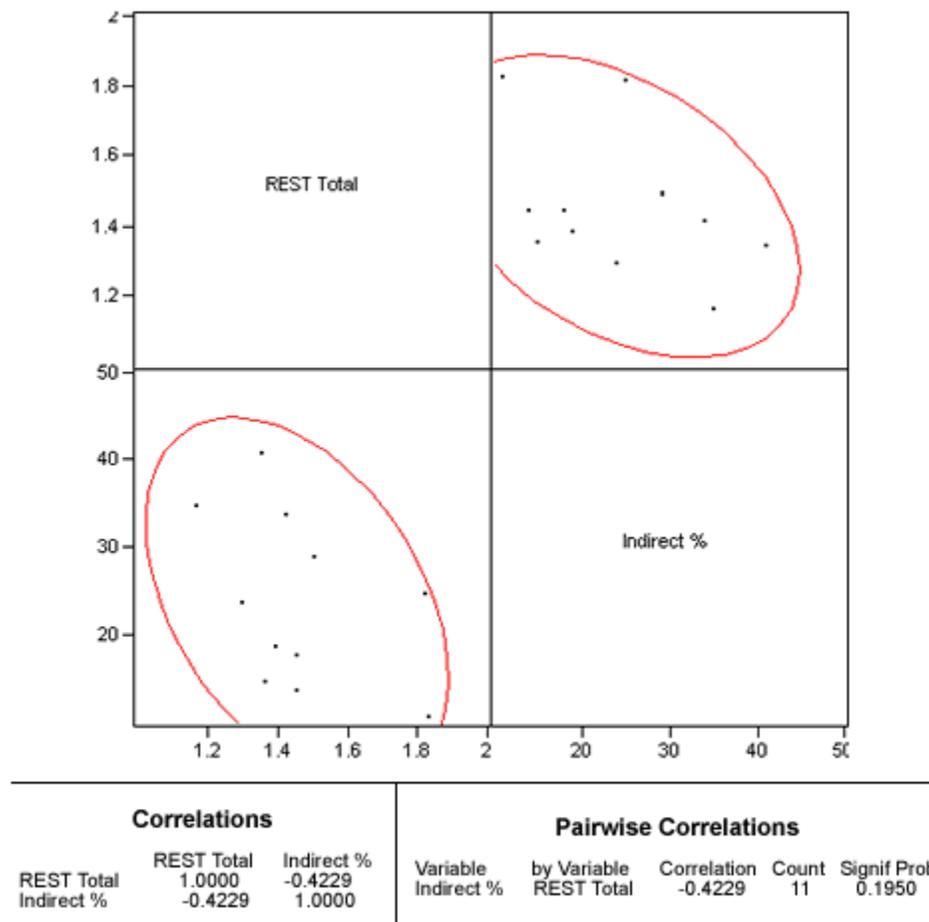


Table 4.9 indicates a small but not statistically significant relationship between the two variables, REST total and Indirect percentage. Closer inspection of the scatterplot matrix reveals two separate groups both with negative correlations. A within group analysis of these potential clusters was investigated and will be presented in the post-hoc analysis section of this chapter. The result of the initial analysis does lead to a rejection of the hypothesis that there is a correlation between ethical sensitivity and indirect interaction.

Hypothesis 5: There is a positive correlation between ethical judgment and teacher education candidate clinical performance in a standardized conference as measured by the proportion of indirect teacher candidate verbal interaction.

The expected relationship between these two variables would be similar to ethical sensitivity, as ethical judgment rises so should indirect interaction. Being able to elicit the opinion of another, use the ideas, and accept feelings and ideas should be more characteristic of individuals with greater ability to make well-informed, sound, decisions based on a preponderance of evidence.

It appears, however, that there is no statistically significant relationship between these two variables. The Pearson Correlation was found to be -0.18 and the resulting p value of .59 leads one to conclude that there is no relationship in this sample.

Table 4.10 The Relationship between Judgment and Indirect Interaction is composed of three sections a scatterplot matrix, correlations, and pairwise correlations. The upper half of the table shows the scatterplot DIT Score and Indirect %. The lower half is divided into a right and left portion with the left showing the Pearson Correlation and the right showing the Pairwise Correlation which includes the p value.

Table 4.10 The Relationship Between Ethical Judgment and Indirect Interaction

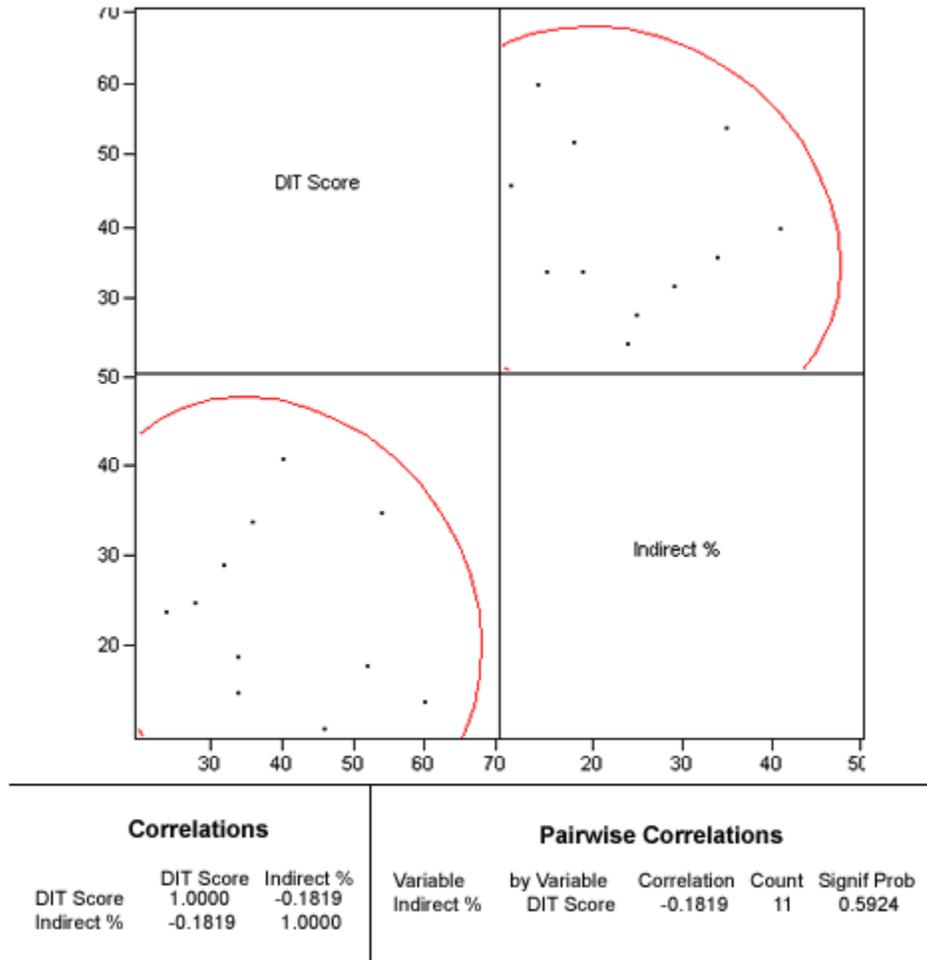


Table 4.10 indicates a lack of relationship between the two variables, ethical judgment and indirect interaction. The graphical representation shows no clear trend in the data while the numerical data shows a correlation of -0.1819. The Pairwise Correlation has a p value of 0.5924 reinforcing the conclusion that a significant relationship not be determined based on the current findings. The findings do result in the rejection of the hypothesis that there is a correlation between ethical judgment and indirect interaction.

Hypothesis 6: There is a positive correlation between ethical judgment and teacher education candidate clinical performance in a standardized conference as measured by the proportion of teacher candidate talk.

It is believed that teachers who use post-conventional reasoning when making judgment decisions allow the parent more time to talk in order to gain as much information and insight as possible. Ideally, there could be a balance between the parent and teacher where neither is dominating the amount of talk, however teachers who are unable to take perspectives, acknowledge and accept feelings and ideas, and elicit opinions will spend more time talking thus shifting the balance.

Although the findings are not significant at the 0.05 level there exists a moderate correlation between the variables in the opposite direction of the stated hypothesis. The correlation coefficient measured -0.37 with a p value of .26. As the DIT score increased the percentage of teacher talk decreased. These findings suggest that there was greater shared dialogue between teacher candidates' and the caregiver as teacher candidate's post-conventional ethical judgment score increased.

Table 4.11 The Relationship Between Ethical Judgment and Teacher Talk Percentage is composed of three sections a scatterplot matrix, correlations, and pairwise correlations. The upper half of the table shows the scatterplot DIT Score and Teacher Talk Percentage. The lower half is divided into a right and left portion with the left showing the Pearson Correlation and the right showing the Pairwise Correlation which includes the p value.

Table 4.11 The Relationship Between Ethical Judgment and Teacher Talk Percentage

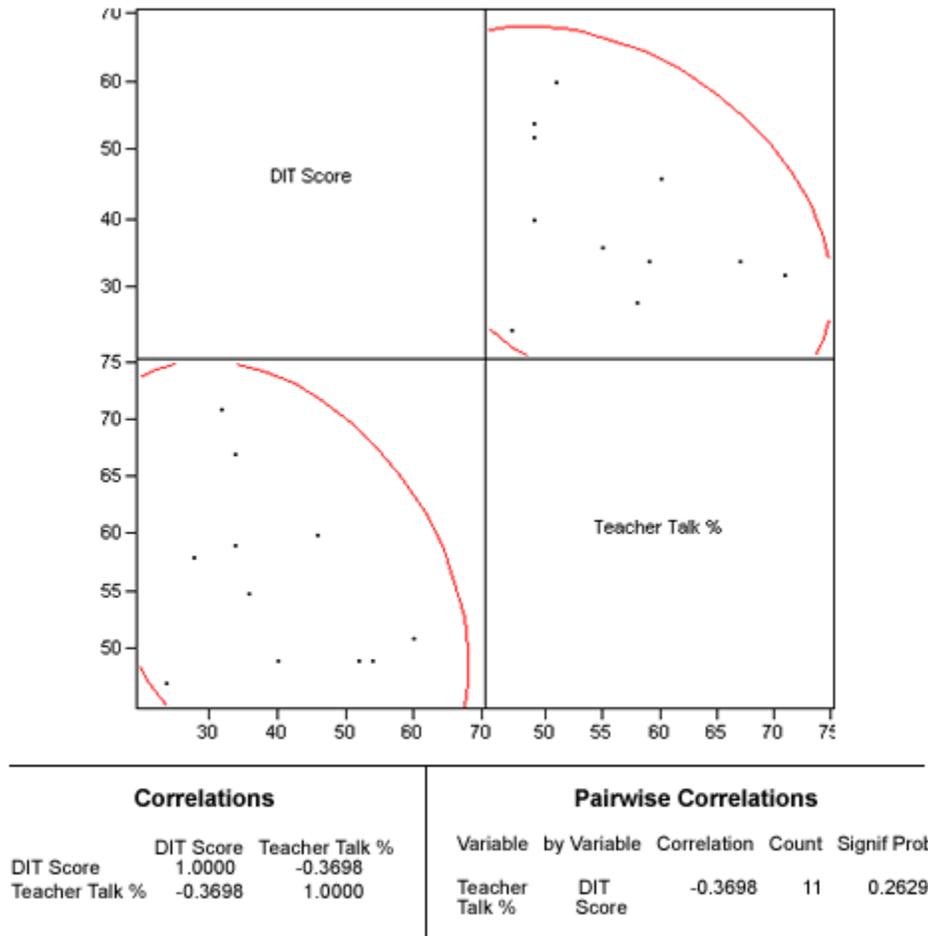


Table 4.11 indicates a moderate but not statistically significant relationship between the two variables, DIT Score and Teacher Talk Percentage. Although the data failed to support the hypothesis there appears to be a trend in the data with the numerical data showing a moderate correlation of -0.3682. The Pairwise Correlation, however, has a p value of 0.2652 making it difficult to conclude with certainty.

As ethical judgment increases the individual understands not only the need to include other parties but also the equality inherent in the relationship. Conferences are meant to be participative and collaborative. Individuals with increased ethical judgment will identify

with the shifting balance of power as the conversation ebbs and flows between the individuals. This balance of talk will thus result in an increased level of parent talk as the level of ethical judgment, within the teacher (candidate) increases. This results in a negative correlation between ethical judgment and the percentage of teacher talk as was evident in the study sample. Based on the visual findings and theoretical foundations the hypothesis is accepted that there is a correlation between ethical judgment and teacher talk percentage.

Hypothesis 7: There is a positive correlation between ethical judgment and teacher education candidate clinical performance in a standardized conference as measured by the proportion of parent talk.

Conferences between teachers and parents/caregivers are meant to be collaborative. The nature of collaboration is one where there is equal input from both parties. However, if one party dominates the conversation the other will spend the majority of their time using response rather than initiation. It has been suggested that as ethical judgment increases the understanding of the need for cooperation, sharing of power, and acceptance of ideas increases. As a result there should be a negative correlation between teacher candidate ethical judgment and parent talk response.

Although the findings are not significant at the 0.05 level there exists a weak correlation between the variables in the expected direction. The correlation coefficient measured -0.1039 with a p value of .76. As the DIT score increased the percentage of parent talk response decreased.

Table 4.12 The Relationship Between Ethical Judgment and Parent Talk Response is composed of three sections a scatterplot matrix, correlations, and pairwise correlations. The

upper half of the table shows the scatterplot DIT Score and Parent Talk Response. The lower half is divided into a right and left portion with the left showing the Pearson Correlation and the right showing the Pairwise Correlation which includes the p value.

Table 4.12 The Relationship Between Ethical Judgment and Parent Talk Response

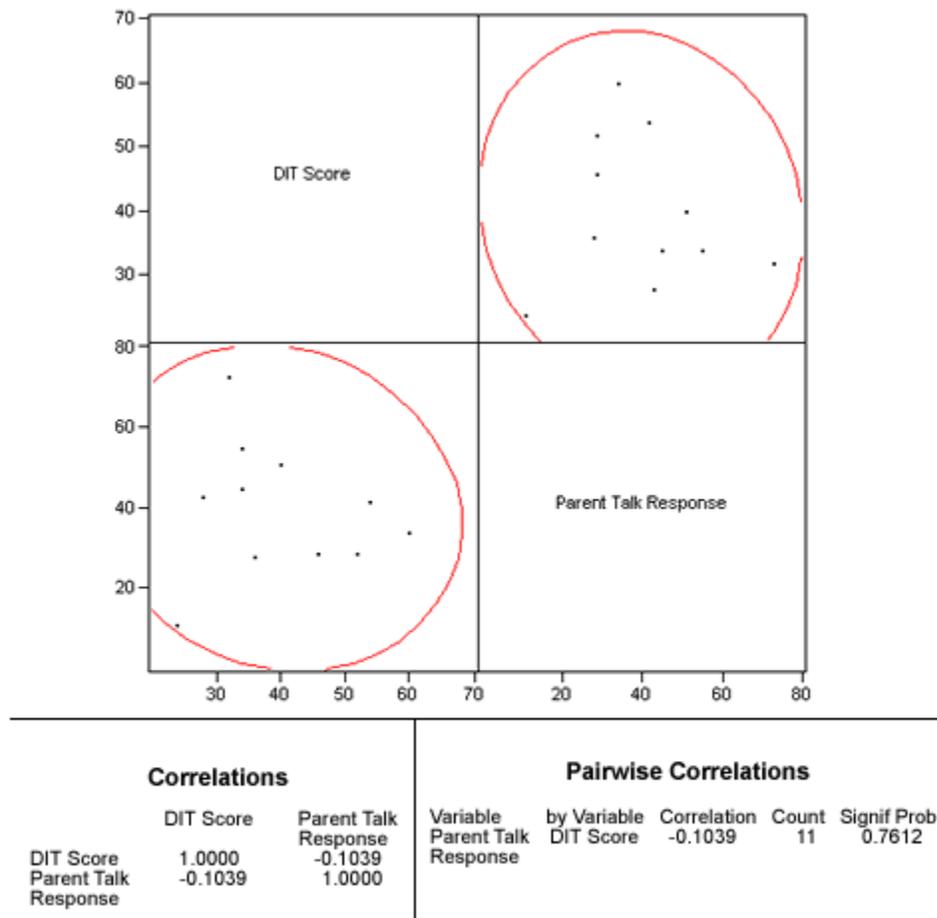


Table 4.12 indicates a small and not statistically significant relationship between the two variables, DIT Score and Parent Talk Response. The graphical representation shows a slight trend in the data with the numerical data showing a correlation of -0.1039. The

Pairwise Correlation, however, has a p value of 0.7612 making it difficult to conclude with that there is a relationship. Based on the findings of this analysis the hypothesis is rejected that there is a correlation between ethical judgment and parent talk response.

The rejection of the hypothesis based on this sample does not mean that the correlation does not exist. As ethical judgment increases conferences should become more collaborative and cooperative. As these conferences become more collaborative the percentage of parent input (generation of new ideas or concepts) will increase and the percentage of parent talk initiation will increase. This results in a negative correlation between ethical judgment and the percentage of parent talk response which may have been identified had the sample been larger.

Research Question 1: Can the ethical sensitivity of teacher education candidates be effectively and efficiently assessed by teacher educators using the REST?

The principle difficulties encountered in the assessment of ethical sensitivity were primarily focused on the equipment and scheduling. The REST is CD based and requires a computer with speakers or headphones, CD-Rom drive, 3 ¼ in. floppy drive, and Apple Quicktime player. Once the necessary computers, peripherals, and software are located and installed the scheduling can begin.

The test administration ranged in length from 40 minutes to 1 ½ hours depending on the participant. After watching the videos the participants responded to a series of questions (also in video format) by typing in responses. The responses were then recorded onto the floppy disk using the identification number provided by the test administrator. The length of responses written by the participants directly impacted the length of the test administration.

Differing lengths of responses resulted in different required times increasing the difficulty in scheduling.

Scoring the tests required two individuals who must be familiar with the scenarios and trained according to a specific protocol. The actual scoring of the tests is not time consuming. In this particular study, 20 administrations were scored in roughly 2 ½ hours. Thus, it took a mean time of 7 ½ minutes to score one protocol. Provided the scorers and administrators are adequately trained the entire process can be done both effectively and efficiently.

Research Question 2: What are the advantages associated with the utilization of the standardized parent in teacher education preparation?

The use of the standardized patient in the classroom and clinical settings offers an opportunity to add realism and relevance to medical education instruction. It also provides the student with the opportunity for trial and error, understanding and appreciation, and personal and professional growth without relying on “real” patients (Edinger, et al., 1999). The use of the standardized parent offers these same benefits to the teacher education candidate while providing an opportunity not often available to him/her prior to beginning his/her teaching career.

To ensure the “reality” of the simulated conference a standardized parent was used who is familiar with conferences from both the perspective of a teacher and that of a parent. The conference format was based upon a model developed and utilized with beginning and mentor teachers. The problem with which the students dealt, an inattentive student, is common to the profession.

As a part of the conference debrief, participants were asked to respond to two questions: 1) What stands out as significant about this conference? 2) What thoughts or feelings do you have about the conference? The questions yielded a variety of responses, but what stood out as most significant were three areas in particular: Future Usefulness, Envisioning the Role, Changing Teacher Education Candidate Perceptions of Parents.

A few participants noted the usefulness of the conference in relation to their future as a teacher:

- *“I would be much more comfortable with a parent conference.” (As a result of the experience)*
- *“I enjoyed it because it will be good practice for the parent conferences to come”*
- *“I felt like it prepared me for the future.”*

Participants also noted how the experience helped them to envision themselves in the role of teacher:

- *“I was nervous at first but then I saw myself getting into the role as the teacher!”*
- *“This (conference) brought it to a much more personal experience”*
- *“It somehow made me feel like a real teacher”*

The most significant result, I believe, was how the experience changed some of the perceptions the teacher candidates had about parents:

- *“It seemed very much a team effort”*

- *“I am very excited that the parent is willing to be so involved and willing to do so much to help.”*
- *“It definitely provided me with a much better idea of where a parent is coming from.”*
- *“What is most significant is how knowledgeable parents are about what works with their children.”*

The use of the standardized parent in teacher education provides many advantages and opportunities to teacher candidates not realized elsewhere. It is fairly simple to implement in a standardized manner, can be used in a variety of formats, and provides a valuable and rewarding experience. In some instances it bridges the gap between teacher candidate’s coursework and actual teaching practice. It can also provide a realistic look at what the expectations are of a teacher, while helping to debunk popular misconceptions and myths. The effectiveness of the clinical performance is best summarized by the words of one participant when she stated *“I felt that this was a very valuable experience and that even more situations should be given to pre-service teachers to experiment with.”* However, there are a host of issues related to the use of a standardized parent that were not addressed in this study, but which will be discussed in chapter five.

Post-Hoc Analyses

During the course of analyzing data related to specific hypotheses and questions it became apparent that there were unforeseen correlations between some of the variables. In order to further investigate these apparent relationships additional within-group analyses were conducted. The sections to follow include such analyses and conclude with three cases

which help to contextualize the data and create a more robust understanding of the notion of teacher candidate ethical identity.

During the course of analysis it became apparent there were additional factors involved. Within-group analyses were conducted to further investigate correlations between the data that were not hypothesized in the initial dissertation design. The table which follows, Table 4.13 Data for Participants Involved in the Clinical Performance Component, represents the 11 participants involved in the clinical performance component of the study. The table lists their participant number, participant ID number, Total DIT score, Total REST score, DIT Level and REST Level (A = Low, B = Mid, C = High), percentages of indirect and direct interactions and teacher talk, and the two types of parent talk, response and initiation.

Table 4.13 Data for Participants Involved in the Clinical Performance Component

Participant Number	Participant ID	DIT Score	REST Score	DIT Level	REST Level	Indirect %	Direct %	Teacher Talk %	Parent Talk Response	Parent Talk Initiation
1	70003	54	1.17	C	A	35	65	49	42	58
2	70005	34	1.39	B	B	19	81	59	45	55
3	70012	34	1.36	B	A	15	85	67	55	45
4	80003	40	1.35	B	A	41	59	49	51	49
5	80004	28	1.82	A	C	25	75	58	43	57
6	80005	60	1.45	C	B	14	86	51	34	66
7	80006	24	1.2	A	A	24	76	47	11	89
8	80010	46	1.83	C	C	11	89	60	29	71
9	80011	32	1.5	B	B	29	71	71	73	27
10	80018	52	1.45	C	B	18	82	49	29	71
11	80021	36	1.42	B	B	34	66	55	28	72

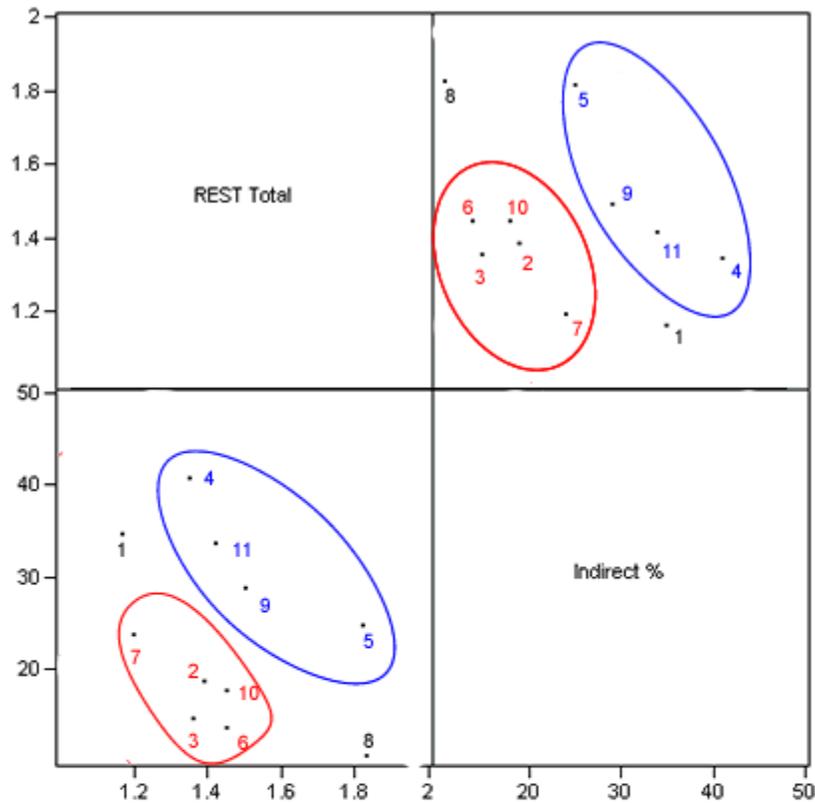
The within-group analyses based on the data found in Table 4.13 will begin with the correlation between ethical sensitivity and indirect interaction. The second analysis involves the correlation between ethical sensitivity and the percentage of teacher talk, followed by

teacher talk percentage and parent talk response. The within-group analysis concludes with a further investigation of the correlation between ethical sensitivity and parent talk response.

Ethical Sensitivity and Indirect Interaction

Research Hypothesis 4 stated there is a correlation between ethical sensitivity and teacher education candidate clinical performance in a standardized conference as measured by the proportion of indirect interaction. The sample data however, revealed a correlation in the opposite direction from what was anticipated and statistical significance was an issue. The data suggested that as ethical sensitivity increased the percentage of indirect interaction decreased. A closer inspection of the scatterplot matrix presented the potential for two separate clusters both with negative correlations (Table 4.14 Ethical Sensitivity and Indirect Interaction Clusters). Table 4.14 portrays evidence related to hypothesis four. The table is composed of three sections: a scatterplot matrix, correlations, and pairwise correlations. The upper half of the table shows the scatterplot REST total and indirect percentage. The lower half of the table reports the Pearson Correlation and the Pairwise Correlation for cluster 1 (participants 4,5,9,11) above and in blue and for cluster 2 (participants 2,3,6,7,10) below and in red.

Table 4.14 Ethical Sensitivity and Indirect Interaction Clusters



Correlations			Pairwise Correlations				
	REST Total	Indirect %	Variable Indirect %	by Variable REST Total	Correlation	Count	Signif Prob
REST Total	1.0000	-0.8782			-0.8782	4	0.1218
Indirect %	-0.8782	1.0000					

Correlations			Pairwise Correlations				
	REST Total	Indirect %	Variable Indirect %	by Variable REST Total	Correlation	Count	Signif Prob
REST Total	1.0000	-0.7975			-0.7975	5	0.1060
Indirect %	-0.7975	1.0000					

Based on the clusters it appears as though there are two distinct groups with separate negative correlations. The group which includes participants 4,5,9, and 11 (cluster 1) has a Pearson correlation equal to -0.8782 and the alternate group, participants 2,3,6,7, and 10 (cluster 2) has a Pearson correlation of -0.7975 . Based on the visual findings it could be

concluded that there are two separate groups with strong negative correlations, however due to the small sample size it is difficult to obtain significant results or determine the reasons for the two clusters. The result of the initial analysis did lead to a rejection of the hypothesis that there is a correlation between ethical sensitivity and indirect interaction. In light of the visual evidence there could be an acceptance of the hypothesis and the conclusion that there is a correlation between ethical sensitivity and indirect interaction.

In a continued analysis of the data for each of the clusters Table 4.15 was created. The table separates the participant data from Table 4.13 into the two clusters. Based on the data from the table it was determined that the average REST score for cluster 2 was higher than cluster 1 (1.52 vs. 1.37) and the average Parent Talk Initiation Percentage was also higher (65 vs. 51).

Table 4.15 Participant Data for Ethical Sensitivity and Indirect Interaction

Clusters

Participant Number	Participant ID	DIT Score	REST Score	DIT Level	REST Level	Indirect %	Direct %	Teacher Talk %	Parent Talk Response	Parent Talk Initiation
2	70005	34	1.39	B	B	19	81	59	45	55
3	70012	34	1.36	B	A	15	85	67	55	45
6	80005	60	1.45	C	B	14	86	51	34	66
7	80006	24	1.2	A	A	24	76	47	11	89
10	80018	52	1.45	C	B	18	82	49	29	71
4	80003	40	1.35	B	A	41	59	49	51	49
5	80004	28	1.82	A	C	25	75	58	43	57
9	80011	32	1.5	B	B	29	71	71	73	27
11	80021	36	1.42	B	B	34	66	55	28	72

These findings support the acceptance of the hypothesis that there is a correlation between ethical sensitivity and indirect interactions. Indirect interactions are participatory and collaborative and the ethically sensitive teacher (candidate) recognizes the need to take

the perspective of the other and involve them in the conversation. Further investigation of this hypothesis is needed to determine if this relationship exists in a larger sample.

Ethical Sensitivity and Percentage of Teacher Talk

Teacher candidates who are unable to take parent perspectives, are reluctant to acknowledge and accept parent feelings and ideas, and do not elicit opinions will spend more time talking, thus shifting the balance of talk toward himself/herself. It was hypothesized in this study that as ethical sensitivity scores increased the amount of parent talk would increase. In this study, although not significant at the 0.05 level, there is a moderate correlation between ethical sensitivity and the amount of teacher candidate talk. This relationship, however, is in the opposite direction from what was anticipated. The correlation coefficient measured 0.40 with a p value of .21.

Table 4.16 The Relationship between Sensitivity and Percentage of Teacher Talk is composed of three sections a scatterplot matrix, correlations, and pairwise correlations. The upper half of the table shows the scatterplot REST total and Teacher Talk Percentage. The lower half of the table is divided into a right and left portion with the left showing the Pearson Correlation and the right showing the Pairwise Correlation which includes the p value.

Table 4.16 The Relationship Between Sensitivity and Teacher Talk

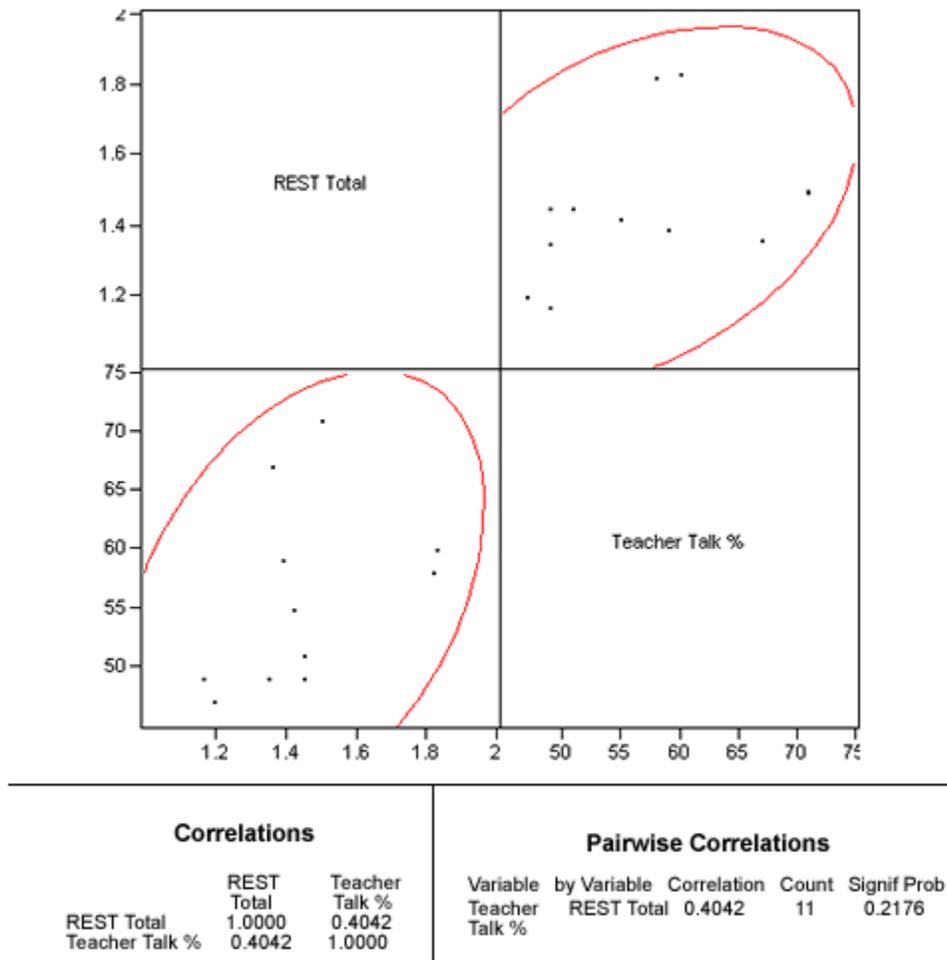


Table 4.16 indicates a moderate but not statistically significant relationship between the two variables, REST total and Teacher Talk %. The graphical representation shows a clear trend in the data and the numerical data reports a correlation of 0.4042. The Pairwise Correlation has a p value of 0.2176 making it difficult to conclude that there is a significant relationship, although there is a visual trend in the data. Based on these results it would be reasonable to conclude that as ethical sensitivity score increases the amount of teacher talk also increases.

Ethical Sensitivity and Type of Parent Talk

Based on the conclusion that as ethical sensitivity increases the amount of teacher talk increases, an analysis was conducted to determine the effect of the teacher talk on parent talk. Parent talk is divided into response and initiation. Initiated parent talk reflects a more cooperative, open, and collaborative conference where ideas are freely expressed and mutually accepted and agreed upon. Response parent talk occurs in an atmosphere where the teacher candidate dominates the conversation and controls the dialogue leading to less cooperation. The hypothesis being tested is that a positive correlation between teacher talk and parent talk response exists.

To support this hypothesis an analysis of teacher talk and response parent talk was conducted and found strong, significant results (Table 4.17). The scatterplot matrix shows a clear visual relationship and the numerical data support the visual findings. Table 4.17 The Correlation Between Percentage of Teacher Talk and Percentage of Parent Talk – Response is composed of three sections a scatterplot matrix, correlations, and pairwise correlations. The upper half of the table shows the scatterplot Teacher Talk Percentage and Parent Talk Response. The lower half of the table is divided into a right and left portion with the left showing the Pearson Correlation and the right showing the Pairwise Correlation which includes the p value.

Table 4.17 The Correlation Between Percentage of Teacher Talk and Percentage of Parent Talk - Response

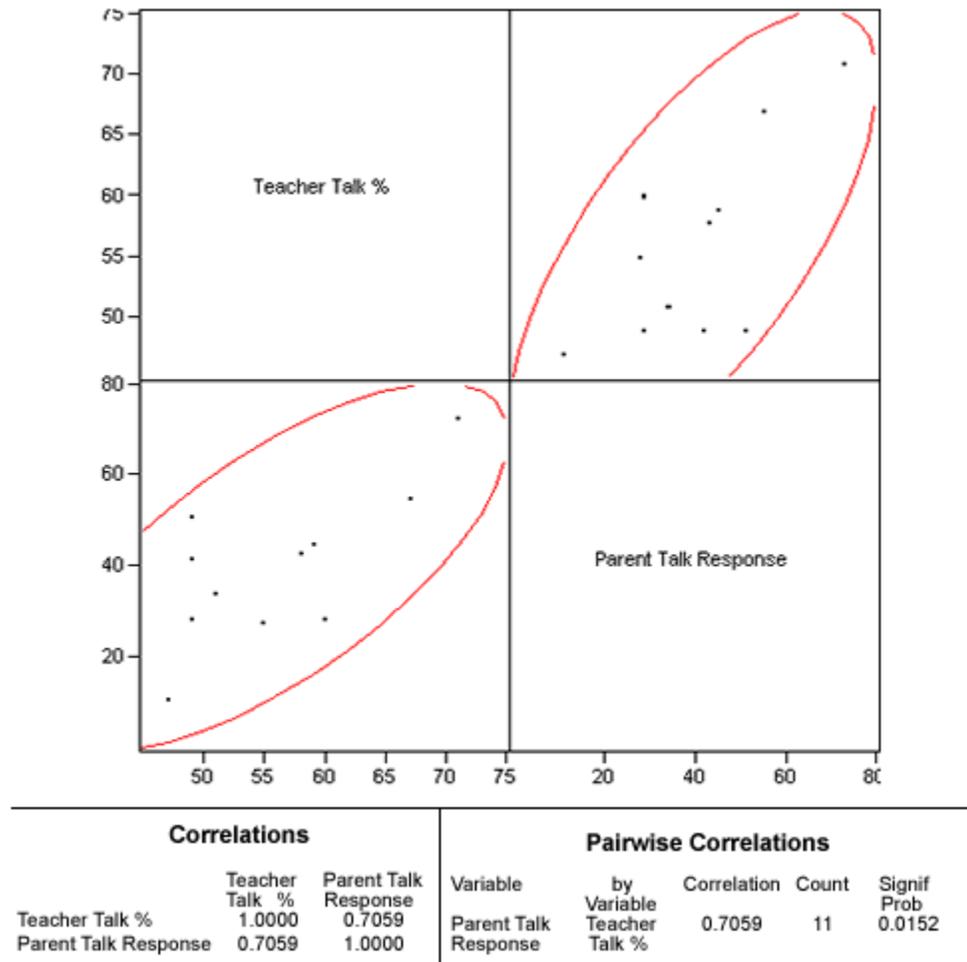


Table 4.17 graphically and numerically represents the analysis of the percentages of teacher talk and parent talk response. The table reports a fairly strong correlation of 0.7059 that is significant with a p value of 0.0152. Therefore, it is concluded that as teacher talk increases the amount of response parent talk will increase. It has now been determined that as ethical sensitivity increases the amount of teacher candidate talk increased and as teacher candidate talk increases the percentage of parent talk response increases. The next hypothesis to be tested refers to the correlation between teacher candidate ethical sensitivity and parent

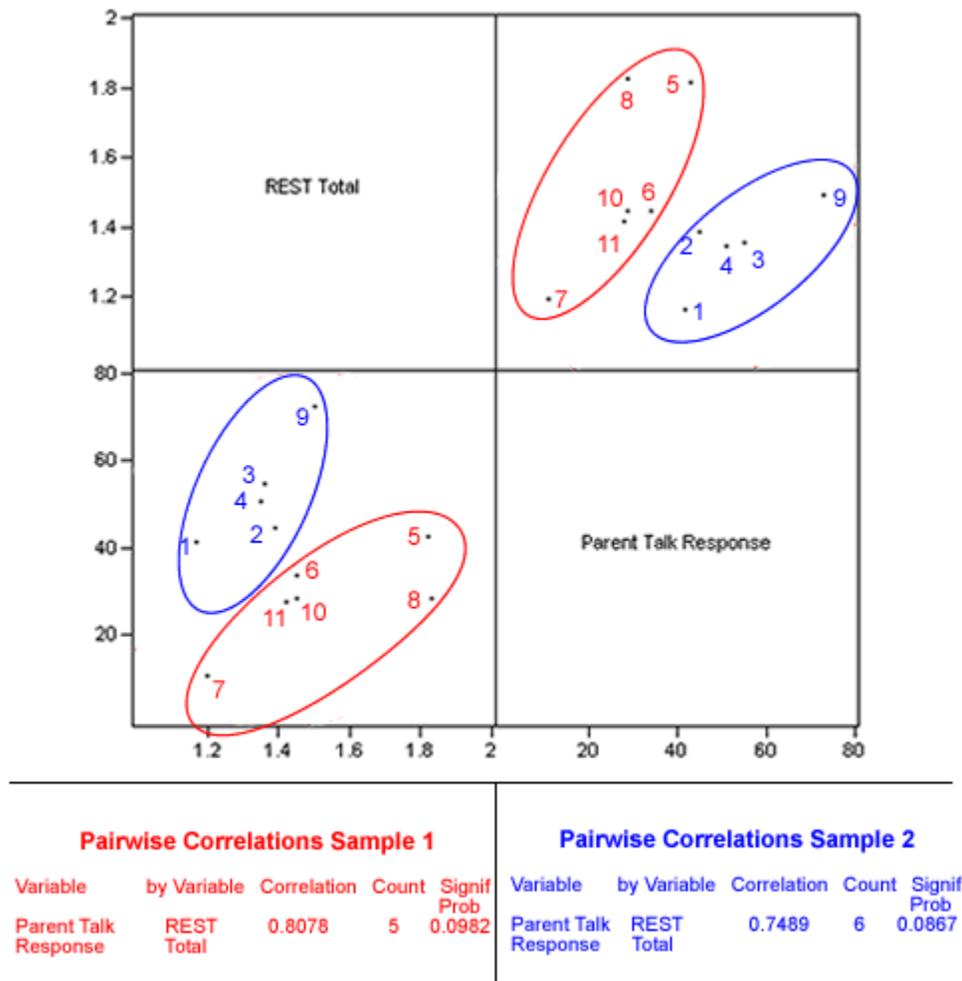
talk response. Based on the earlier conclusions it is hypothesized that as ethical sensitivity increases the percentage of parent talk response will increase as well.

Ethical Sensitivity and Parent Talk Response

The results of the initial analysis concluded that there was no significant relationship between teacher candidate ethical sensitivity and parent talk response. The initial analysis presented no clear visual relationship or numerical relationship between the variables. According to the analysis there was a correlation coefficient equal to 0.0823 which was insignificant due to the p value of 0.8098. Upon further inspection it appeared however that there were two clusters located within the sample which were further analyzed (Table 4.18). According to the subsequent analysis there were strong, significant correlations within the clusters in terms of the ethical sensitivity and parent talk response.

Table 4.18 (Ethical Sensitivity and Parent Talk Response Clusters) portrays evidence related to the hypothesis that there is a correlation between ethical sensitivity and parent talk response. The table is composed of three sections: a scatterplot matrix, correlations, and pairwise correlations. The upper half of the table shows the scatterplot REST total and Parent Talk Response. The lower half of the table is divided into a right and left portion with the right showing the Pairwise Correlation for cluster 1 (participants 1,2,3,4,9) on the left and the same statistics for cluster 2 (participants 5,6,7,8,10,11) on the right.

Table 4.18 Ethical Sensitivity and Parent Talk Response Clusters



In Table 4.18 the two clusters are separated and correlations and p scores reported. In the first group which includes participants 1 - 4, and 9 a significant correlation was found measuring 0.8078 with a p value of 0.0982. The second cluster includes participants 5 – 8, 10, and 11 and has a significant correlation of 0.7489 with a p value of 0.0867. The visual evidence also supports the conclusion that there are two separate groups with strong negative correlations.

In a continued analysis of the data for each of the clusters Table 4.19 (Participant Data for Ethical Sensitivity and Parent Talk Response Clusters) was created. The table separates the participant data from Table 4.13 into the two clusters.

Table 4.19 Participant Data for Ethical Sensitivity and Parent Talk Response Clusters

Participant Number	Participant ID	DIT Score	REST Score	DIT Level	REST Level	Indirect %	Direct %	Teacher Talk %	Parent Talk Response	Parent Talk Initiation
1	70003	54	1.17	C	A	35	65	49	42	58
2	70005	34	1.39	B	B	19	81	59	45	55
3	70012	34	1.36	B	A	15	85	67	55	45
4	80003	40	1.35	B	A	41	59	49	51	49
9	80011	32	1.5	B	B	29	71	71	73	27
5	80004	28	1.82	A	C	25	75	58	43	57
6	80005	60	1.45	C	B	14	86	51	34	66
7	80006	24	1.2	A	A	24	76	47	11	89
8	80010	46	1.83	C	C	11	89	60	29	71
10	80018	52	1.45	C	B	18	82	49	29	71
11	80021	36	1.42	B	B	34	66	55	28	72

Based on the data from the table it was determined that the average DIT score for cluster 2 was higher than cluster 1 (41 vs. 38.1), the average REST score was higher (1.35 vs. 1.52), cluster 2 had a smaller percentage of indirect interactions (21 vs. 27.8), teacher talk (53 vs. 59), and a smaller percentage of parent talk response (29 vs. 53.2). Their data supports hypotheses four through seven:

Hypothesis 4: There is a positive correlation between ethical sensitivity and teacher education candidate clinical performance in a standardized conference as measured by the proportion of indirect teacher candidate verbal interaction.

Hypothesis 5: There is a positive correlation between ethical judgment and teacher education candidate clinical performance in a standardized conference as measured by the proportion of indirect teacher candidate verbal interaction.

Hypothesis 6: There is a positive correlation between ethical judgment and teacher education candidate clinical performance in a standardized conference as measured by the proportion of teacher candidate talk.

Hypothesis 7: There is a positive correlation between ethical judgment and teacher education candidate clinical performance in a standardized conference as measured by the proportion of parent talk.

These hypotheses were based on theoretical understandings of ethical sensitivity, ethical judgment, and collaborative interactions. Teacher education candidates who are more ethically sensitive recognize the need to take the perspective of the other individuals involved and the consequences of his/her actions. Individuals at lower levels of ethical reasoning will be more concerned with personal needs and not identify with the needs of the parent. Individuals within the second schema, maintaining norms, will see the need for greater cooperation and at the highest level believe in equality of access. The highest level should involve even more acceptance and use of parent idea and suggestions. Since indirect interactions are participative and collaborative as individuals score higher on the measures of ethical sensitivity and ethical judgment they should also show lower levels of teacher talk and greater levels of initiated parent talk. The concluding findings of this within-group analysis support this notion. It was found that the cluster with the higher REST score also

had the higher DIT score. It was also concluded that this translated into decreased levels of teacher talk and parent talk response.

The next section of this post-hoc analysis will further explore the ethical identity of the teacher education candidate. It reports on three cases within the original sample and includes a more in depth analysis of each. This concluding section includes a description of the participant, analysis of their ethical sensitivity, clinical performance, and a synthesis of the findings.

Ethical Identity of Teacher Education Candidates

The post-hoc analyses included three cases. Each of the individual cases was representative of qualitatively different levels of ethical sensitivity and ethical judgment. The levels of ethical sensitivity and ethical judgment were determined through the DIT and REST Analyses and ANOVAS, tables (4.1 – 4.4). Participant 80006, who is referred to as John, is a 21 year-old male and represents the low category in terms of ethical sensitivity and judgment. Participant 70005, referred to as Mary, is a 20 year-old female representing the middle level sensitivity and judgment. Participant 80010, Catherine, is a 22 year-old female, representing the high level of both sensitivity and judgment.

It was theorized that there should be a trend in the results between the level of ethical sensitivity, ethical judgment, teacher talk percentage, and direct interaction. It is believed that as sensitivity increases, judgment should increase, percentage of parent talk should increase, and teacher candidate direct interaction should decrease. Within the cases some of these trends were realized. However, as the levels of judgment and sensitivity increased, teacher talk and direct interaction also increased. This may be the result of an increase in

comfort and thus the teacher candidate is more likely to contribute to the conversation in greater quantity and detail. Table 4.20 reports the statistics related to each of the three participants.

Table 4.20 Sample Cases

Case	Participant ID	DIT Score	REST Score	DIT Level	REST Level	Indirect %	Direct %	Teacher Talk %	Parent Talk Response	Parent Talk Initiation
A	80006	24	1.2	A	A	24	76	47	11	89
B	70005	34	1.39	B	B	19	81	59	45	55
C	80010	46	1.83	C	C	11	89	60	29	71

Case A – John

Description

John is a 20 year-old male majoring in Middle School Language Arts and Social Studies. His sensitivity score was 1.20 and he had a judgment p score of 24, both of which were at the lower level of the sample. The standardized parent described John as friendly and honest. She also noted an open and willing demeanor and his use of eye contact but stated he “seemed a little nervous”. In his debriefing John stated the most significant aspect of the conference was that it was structured for the student and that the parent was very helpful.

Sensitivity

In completing the REST John exhibited lower levels sensitivity than the average for the sample (1.20 vs. 1.49). In the first scenario he viewed, John recognized only the lack of information pertinent to teaching, he failed to recognize the lack of respect for students and differential treatment based on race and gender. In the second scenario he failed to recognize the gender slurs used, mistreatment of a colleague, and the modeling of racist values. In both

scenarios he failed to identify the responsibility to take action in defense of the students involved.

John seemed somewhat conflicted in his responses to the scenarios. In the basketball vignette he noted the racist values held and expressed by the coach, yet he seems to shift some of the blame to James (the student) when he says “James is hot headed and needs to realize that he is late to practice and needs to be punished.” In the math class vignette he only recognized the teaching behaviors/environment. He notes “...the entire classroom is disorganized and ineffective for teaching. I feel that the kids were very uncomfortable and the teacher made no use of meaningful and logical examples.” In the scenario he failed to recognize the unfair treatment of a female student and the racial stereotypes used. He concludes both sets of responses by stating the action taken should be to “fire the teacher/coach” failing to recognize the importance of confronting racist/classist/sexist beliefs held by those in positions of power or influence.

Clinical Performance

The analysis of the clinical performance component for John yielded lower levels of direct interaction and teacher talk percentages than for the other two sample cases. When John entered the conference he seemed comfortable, shook hands with the standardized parent, and introduced himself. After sitting down he leaned forward when speaking and used a variety of hand gestures. What did stand out however, is that although John seemed comfortable, the conference was clearly driven by the parent. She controlled the flow of conversation, asked more questions, and gave more suggestions.

Throughout the conference the parent seemed to make suggestions as to why her daughter was having trouble and John repeatedly missed opportunities to further explore the topics. Examples of these exchanges included:

Parent: "Denise seems to be having more trouble right now because the work is more difficult."

Teacher: "Well, what I would like to do is come up with a plan to address the problem (her inattention)."

The parent suggests that the work is more difficult yet John can only focus on the specific problem for which the conference was intended (Denise's inattention). He does not seize the opportunity to address the problem Denise may be having with the difficulty or the manner in which the classwork has changed, thus creating the problem. John also had difficulty suggesting a course of action to address the problem.

Teacher: "What do you think would be the best plan of attack here?"

Parent: "How do you give assignments? Denise said you are talking more and then giving homework, but in the past you had more discussion."

Teacher: "I try to engage students but at the end of the semester it is difficult to deviate from the direct approach."

At this point John seems really at a loss for what to do. He asks the parent what she would suggest with little idea of how he could solve the problem himself. He does not see

exactly how he can balance the end of semester needs with the needs of individual students. To further highlight how John is unaware of the needs of the individual we see the following exchange:

Parent: “Denise is worried about getting behind and her seat is in the back of the room.”

Teacher: “I guess I could move students at intervals.”

John is unaware of the feelings Denise is harboring and is focusing more on the physical changes he can make. Not identifying these needs can be evidence of his inability to envision the ramifications of his teaching behaviors or actions on the individual student. This is especially true when he is discussing the problem with a parent and the conference is solely focused on the needs of one particular student.

A final example of how John is unable to gauge the feelings associated with the conference, inability to suggest changes, and lack of his own perspective on the situation is evident in the following:

Teacher: “Well, Denise is really trying (in response to homework) and maybe that’s good enough.”

Parent: “Well, maybe that isn’t good enough for me?”

Teacher: “Well, I don’t think it’s good enough either...”

In response to this exchange the parent suggests the use of a homework log (again the parent making the suggestion) and initially John misses the suggestion. After it is reiterated by the parent he agrees that it would be a good idea. In concluding the conference John summarizes the conference by saying he will move students and sign Denise's homework log. He makes no mention of Denise's concerns about falling behind, her mother's suggestions that maybe the work is more difficult, or his own beliefs about the difficulty of managing the end of the semester and varying his instructional practice.

Synthesis

In John's ethical sensitivity analysis it was apparent that he was more in tune with the teaching aspects of the scenario than the needs of the individual students. His judgment scores reinforce this analysis. In having a low judgment score he shows that he is less likely to use post-conventional reasoning when making a decision. If he is making most of decisions or is most concerned with maintaining norms or personal interest schema he is not going to be concerned with the needs of the individuals involved, which is what was seen in his sensitivity scores.

John's low ethical sensitivity and judgment scores are reflected in his clinical performance, as well. He was unable to identify the feelings expressed in the conference by the parent, in relation to herself or Denise. John seemed very comfortable throughout the conference and it would stand to reason that he would be comfortable because he really is unaware of the alternative means through which the problem can be addressed and does not see the problem of one "uninterested" student as having ethical implications. He rarely made suggestions about how to handle the situation and often looked to the parent to offer advice.

While involving a parent is important in decision making he clearly was unsure of what he thought would be the best course of action.

Based on this case, the individual with low levels of sensitivity and judgment will engage in less direct interaction because they are not comfortable making their own suggestions or forming opinions. The level of comfort may have a significant impact on the type of talk engaged in, because John was most concerned with teaching practice but was inexperienced in the practice himself he seemed more likely to encourage the parent or praise her ideas/suggestions about how to improve his instruction pertaining specifically to her child.

The low sensitivity/judgment teacher will rarely acknowledge the feelings expressed explicitly or implicitly by the parent and will not take feelings into account when determining a course of action. In conclusion, this type of teacher will look to physical changes in the room or changes a parent can make at home rather than look at their own teaching practice in order to address a problem. They further will fail to explore the role emotion in negotiating a solution and fail to envision the consequences of any subsequent actions.

Case B – Mary

Description

Mary is a 20 year old female with an undeclared major. Her sensitivity and judgment scores were both in the mid-level range of the sample at 1.39 and 34 respectively. The standardized parent described Mary as friendly and open. She noted a pleasant look and an “I’m concerned” type of expression when discussing the student. The parent additionally commented on her positive attitude and willingness to take suggestions. The significance of

the conference for Mary was how the conference made her “feel like a real teacher”. She stated that during the conference she was able to take on the problems of Denise (the student involved) and those of the teacher and as a result of this experience she felt she was more prepared for the future.

Sensitivity

As was the case with John, Mary assessed the same scenarios yet with slightly different results. Her ethical sensitivity score was slightly higher at 1.39 showing an increase in her awareness of acts of racial and gender intolerance. The difference is most notable in her assessment of the basketball practice. In that vignette she noted the racist and classist remarks, she also noted the differential treatment of the white students, but in contrast to John she also recognized the failure of the counselor to meet the needs of James and its ramifications. Mary recognizes the importance of accepting the feelings of others “...he (the counselor) did not seem to care too much about James’ feelings. It was almost as if he wanted James to struggle through it (himself).” She also stressed the importance of addressing the situation with the coach and to not, merely, “fire him”.

Clinical Performance

The analysis of the clinical performance component for Mary yielded levels of direct interaction and teacher talk percentages in between the other two cases. Mary’s conference was characterized by her ability to involve the parent in the conversation, the identification of the needs of Denise and others, and the suggestions she makes in order to improve her own performance. Mary began the conference by introducing herself and thanking the parent for

attending. She next asked the parent if she knew of anything that might be distracting Denise, as a means of introducing the content of the conference. It was apparent throughout the conference that Mary was controlling the flow of the conversation but invited and involved the parent throughout. She involved the parent through a series of questions and by following up with what the parent stated in order to reinforce the ideas.

Parent: "Denise is aware of her problem focusing on the work and the lecturing makes it more difficult for her to stay on task."

Teacher: "We'll try to do more in class, discussion, I guess I just didn't realize how big an adjustment this has been and how much responsibility I have just asked them to take part in."

Mary also expressed an ability to identify with the needs of her students. She expresses concerns about their welfare.

Parent: "How do they (the students) know what they know what they are going to be studying? Do they get a 9-week syllabus?"

Teacher: "I worry that the kids would be too overwhelmed by the amount of work so we just cover it daily."

Mary also sees the problems of the individual student as being directly related to her actions in the classroom and suggests way in which to solve these problems herself.

Teacher: "I think if it is just that she is bored maybe I need to do a little more myself."

Parent: "Denise mentioned being able to hide out in the back of the room."

Teacher: "I usually switch seats, maybe I should do it a little more often."

Parent: "She also mentioned that she can go a whole class without being called on and she thinks that is great."

Teacher: "She thinks she's gotten away..."

Parent: "You might consider calling on her more."

Teacher: "When I am lecturing I tend to ask questions afterward, I will try to mix in questions during."

In concluding the conference Mary provides a summary of what was discussed and what actions would be taken as a result. During the summary Mary discussed the needs of all of her students and how she was going to move seats to offer equal opportunities for all and how she would ask more questions throughout the lecture. In relation specifically to Denise she discussed how she was going to involve her more by asking her more questions but providing her some support so she would be successful and more confident in her subsequent responses.

Synthesis

In Mary's ethical sensitivity analysis she expressed the need to identify and accept the feelings of the individuals involved in the ethical situation. Her judgment scores show a

moderate level of post-conventional reasoning reinforcing her attunement to the needs of others. In making most of her decisions she will take into account the needs of others but primarily in relation to accepted norms and values. Additionally, she is concerned with the needs of all of the individuals involved.

Mary's moderate sensitivity and judgment scores are reflected in her clinical performance. She was able to identify the feelings expressed in the conference and was able to see the importance of addressing these concerns or feelings. She showed a balance between her comfort in controlling the conference and some discomfort when she realized that the problems Denise was having may be attributable to her specific actions or inactions in the classroom. As a result she realizes the ethical implications of the situation and involves the needs of all of those involved including Denise, her mother, and her classmates. When determining her course of action she has some clear ideas about how she should proceed but does invite and utilize the suggestions of the parent.

Based on this case, the individual with moderate levels of both ethical sensitivity and ethical judgment will engage in greater amounts of direct interaction because they are working through their own ideas, opinions, and suggestions about how best to solve the problem. They also encourage more parent talk because they give parents the freedom to express their ideas and opinions about the situation. Parent talk is directed by the teacher through the use of questions and possible causes of the issue being discussed. Individuals at moderate levels will acknowledge the feelings expressed by parents both in relation to themselves and their children. These teachers will use these feelings expressed when making decisions but will base their decisions on the good of the entire class, not necessarily the needs of one individual student. Finally, this teacher will look to himself/herself as the agent

of change and they may expect the students to change as well. They identify that specific behaviors with which they engage in may be the root cause of the issue and that it is their responsibility to remedy the problem.

Case C – Catherine

Description

Catherine is a 22 year old female majoring in social studies education. The standardized parent noticed that although Catherine was a little bit nervous the conference still had a positive tone. The parent also stated that Catherine was willing to listen and take suggestions. Catherine, in her debrief, wrote specifically about the cooperation between the two individuals and the importance of reaching all of your students.

Sensitivity

Catherine's sensitivity score (1.83) was higher than both John (1.20) and Mary (1.39), showing an even greater awareness and recognition of racial and gender intolerance. In the math class scenario she failed to recognize the teacher's lack of information pertinent to teaching and the differential treatment based on gender. She did however, recognize the teacher's lack of self-awareness, his lack of respect for his students, and his differential treatment based on race. Additionally, she was the only individual (of the three cases) to *recognize the responsibility to confront* the teacher about his racist/sexist beliefs. She also listed a manner of approaching the teacher in a "calm and fair" way either through an administrator or group of individuals if she were uncomfortable doing so herself.

Clinical Performance

The analysis of the clinical performance component for Catherine yielded higher levels of direct interaction and teacher talk percentages than for the other two sample cases. There is no apparent relationship between either ethical sensitivity levels or ethical judgment levels and indirect interactions. However, as sensitivity and judgment decreases, direct interaction increases and the level of parent talk decreases. This relationship is apparent in Catherine's levels. She had the highest level of direct interaction within the sample and the lowest level of parent talk.

During her clinical performance Catherine seemed to be in complete control of the situation and directed the conference through the use of questions. She used a variety of nonverbal techniques to show interest (leaning forward, head nods) as well as verbal (yeah, right, ok). Like Mary she was able to identify relevant feelings and utilized the suggestions of the parent in guiding the conversation. She seemed however, unlike the others, to extend some of the parent suggestions into actions for herself.

During the conference the parent expressed some of her concerns to Catherine which were not only acknowledged but reinforced. When Catherine made suggestions, they were often in response to a parent question or comment and incorporated the ideas of the parent. When the parent stated that the unit may not be of interest to Denise but it was important to her (the parent) that she do well the following exchange occurred:

Parent: "It might be helpful to me to see what she is doing for the week."

Teacher: “On their (students) planners I can come up with a more descriptive agenda for the parents then the one that I currently use.” “Maybe getting more parental involvement through an extended syllabus will help all of the students.”

Catherine continually listened to what the parent had to say and offered suggestions as to how she could adapt to meet the specific need the parent was expressing. This behavior diverges the most from the other teacher candidates. The other two teacher candidates either incorporated exactly what the parent had said or incorporated their own idea without acknowledging the parent. Catherine offered ways in which to improve her instruction based on parent input and recognized the impact this may have on her students.

Teacher: “I am going to try to incorporate more group activities, become more of an observer rather than lecturer, and develop a more descriptive agenda for the parents.”

Teacher: “I realize I may not have been as supportive of Denise as I should have been.”

Teacher: “It is important to me that Denise and the others (students) do well in my class.”

Synthesis

Catherine was the only participant to recognize the lack of self-awareness of the teacher in the sensitivity scenario and the responsibility to confront others in positions of power who use racial or gender bias. In scoring higher than the other two participants she

showed an increase in her sensitivity to racial and gender intolerance. She identified how the needs of others should be taken into account when making decisions and the role of addressing feelings. When making these decisions, Catherine will take the perspective of others and adapt their concerns to meet the needs based on what she believes is best.

Catherine's higher than average ethical sensitivity and ethical judgment scores are reflected in her clinical performance. She was able to identify the feelings expressed and could see the importance of those feelings. She understands the ethical implications of making decisions based on one student and the role of others in the classroom as well. She utilized the suggestions of the parent and could see how her own shortcomings as a teacher could contribute to the problems of one student. Although the standardized parent thought Catherine seemed a bit nervous, Catherine did not note any nervousness in her conference debrief. I believe it is the comfort level of the individual which may contribute to the increase in both teacher talk and direct interaction percentages.

Based on Catherine's clinical performance we could conclude that an individual with high levels of both ethical sensitivity and ethical judgment will engage in even greater amounts of direct interaction because they are incorporating the suggestions or thoughts of others into their own. They show an increase in the amount of parent talk because they give parents the time necessary to fully develop ideas and suggestions and control the flow of conversation through adequate questioning. The individual at these high levels will also acknowledge the feelings of others and deem them important in decision making. The teacher will base their decisions on the feelings, thoughts, and ideas of others but ultimately the decision must be determined by a personal conscience. This teacher will see the problem as his/her own and will expect to change his/her own behaviors in order to alleviate the

situation. Within the three cases Catherine was the only teacher education candidate to recognize personal responsibility for effective teaching. The next section of this chapter reports the convergence and divergence of the findings in this study with prior research.

Convergence and Divergence with Prior Research

The study of ethical development has occurred in a variety of professions. There have been thousands of studies conducted in a different countries using the DIT, the most commonly used measure of ethical judgment. Many are studies involving the relationship between specific professional behaviors and measures of ethical development. This study differs from other studies in its attempt to identify the relationship between ethical sensitivity, ethical judgment, and ethical action in a professional/clinical context for teacher candidates. This relationship is then used to develop an understanding of the complex nature of the ethical identity of the teacher education candidate. This study converges and diverges with prior research in four areas: Ethical Sensitivity, Ethical Judgment, Teacher Candidate Perceptions, and Ethical Identity.

Ethical Sensitivity

Ethical sensitivity refers to the ability of an individual to identify the different components of an ethical situation. It also consists of identifying different courses of action and how each course of action will impact other individuals (Brabeck et al., 2000; Rest et al., 1999). In professional situations, such as teaching, ethical sensitivity is based on the expectations of the profession and the distinct codes and norms that govern its practice.

Ethical sensitivity was first assessed in dental students and has since been applied to other fields including medicine, nursing, journalism, counseling, and science (Bebeau, 2002; Brabeck et al., 2000; Clarkeburn, 2002). Studies of ethical sensitivity have shown the following: individuals within a profession show great variability (Bebeau, 2000); women tend to score higher than men (Bebeau & Brabeck, 1987); sensitivity can be reliably measured, ethical sensitivity can be improved through deliberate intervention, and ethical sensitivity is distinct from ethical judgment (Brabeck et al., 2000, Clarkeburn, 2002).

As just noted, it has been reported that individuals within a profession show great variability. The results of this study support this conclusion. The sample was shown to be normally distributed with three distinct levels of ethical sensitivity. Individuals differ from one another in the degree to which they interpret ethical problems (Wark & Krebs, 2000). One problem in education is that teachers are not always aware of the ethical impact of their actions and on occasion two educators will not perceive the same problem as being ethical in nature or will see different aspects of the same situation as being ethically relevant (Husu & Tirri, 2001). The level to which each of the undergraduate students in this sample interpreted the dilemmas, based on their own prior experience in schools, could account for the variability shown in the sample. The variability can also be an artifact of the professional situation. In professional situations, such as teaching, ethical sensitivity refers to the expectations of the profession based on the distinct codes and norms that govern its practice. Because the REST is partly based on professional ethical norms and standards related to the field of education the level to which the students are aware of these standards would have a direct impact on the participant interpretation.

Bebeau and Brabeck (1987) have shown that women tend to score higher on measures of sensitivity than men. They propose that this is the result of various factors including: differential socialization, women placing greater emphasis on interpersonal skills, and a greater ability to decode nonverbal cues related to a person's affective state. Carol Gilligan (1982) claimed that a large portion of one's reasoning should reflect either a care or justice orientation. A care orientation is associated with the promotion of the welfare of others or prevention of their harm, understanding others in their own terms, and context dependent decisions. Justice orientation is characterized by the considerations concerned with conflicting claims between the self and other (including society) and the maintenance of impartial rules, principles and standards, particularly those of fairness and reciprocity (Wark & Krebs, 2000). Gilligan further assumed that the type of orientation one relied upon was related to their gender with women preferring a caring orientation and men preferring a justice orientation.

Gilligan's work was done in direct response to the work of Kohlberg and his findings that men tended to score higher on measures of ethical development. However, it was later discovered that Kohlberg was only observing or measuring one component of ethical development and was later reported that both men and women use justice and care when making ethical justifications. It may be the case that in identifying ethical dilemmas and imagining hypothetical responses and their impacts, women tend to use an ethic of care and men an ethic of justice. If this assumption is correct it could account for the findings of Bebeau and Brabeck (1987) in which it was found that women tended to score slightly higher than men. This study supports this conclusion, regardless of sample limitations, by identifying the difference in mean value between the men (1.43) and women (1.57).

The original studies investigating the correlations between ethical sensitivity and ethical judgment used the Dental Ethical Sensitivity Test (DEST) and the DIT. Individuals participating in the study were dental students and were familiar with the professional standards for the field (Bebeau & Brabeck, 1987). The more recent correlations used the REST and the DIT. This second set of studies investigating the correlation used primarily graduate students, some of whom may have had prior teaching experience (Brabeck et. al, 2000). The study did determine that there is a moderate correlation between the variables (0.2 – 0.5) (Bebeau & Brabeck, 1987).

The sample in this study was composed of undergraduate students without prior professional experience. This study reported a non significant correlation of -.0667 and led to a rejection of the hypothesis that there was a correlation. However, since the REST contains professional standards, of which the students may have been unaware of unaccustomed to, the scores could have been compromised which could explain the lack of correlation between the scores within this particular sample. Although these findings were divergent further investigation needs to be done to completely discount the hypothesis that there is a positive correlation between the variables.

Ethical Judgment

Ethical judgment is most often assessed using the DIT. Since its inception there have been over 2,600 studies with more than 500,000 participants (Rest et al., 1999; Walker, 2002; King & Mayhew, 2002). These studies have included medicine, business, dentistry, education, and sports. Although there have been studies investigating the correlation

between ethical judgment and behavior, no studies, as yet, have investigated ethical judgment and actual (or simulated) clinical practice (Cummings et al., 2001).

Among the studies involving professional behaviors there is an abundance of evidence that teachers who reason at higher ethical judgment levels exhibit characteristics most effective to teaching. For example Chang (1994) reviewed studies involving teacher-student interactions and ethical judgment. Johnston and Lubomudrov (1987) found that teachers who utilized principled judgments encouraged students to participate in rule making and were more willing to help students understand the reasons for rules. Oser (1992) found that teachers at the principled level were more apt to encourage students to take multiple perspectives.

Teachers who reason at higher ethical judgment levels also exhibit characteristics considered more effective for parent communication. Teachers at higher levels view their roles as more democratic and facilitative (Johnston & Lubomudrov, 1987; MacCallum, 1991), and teachers who operate at higher levels better perceive student feelings and needs and create a more participative classroom climate (Johnston & Lubomudrov, 1987; Holt et al., 1980). The findings of the present study support the characteristics reported by the prior research even though prior studies dealt with teacher-student interaction and not teacher-parent interaction. This study found that as the level of ethical judgment rose the levels of indirect interaction and initiated parent talk rose as well. Participants scoring at higher levels of ethical judgment embodied each of the prior research findings; they were more democratic, facilitative, and accepting of feelings than those at lower levels of judgment. As well, post-hoc analyses suggests that teacher candidates at post-conventional levels

facilitated clinical conferences with a caregiver that were the most balanced in interaction between teacher candidates and parent.

Teacher Candidate Perceptions

Teacher education candidates and many practicing teachers hold the same view of parents. This view is that parents are primarily an obstacle to be overcome (Van Hook, 2002). Many believe that parents care less about their children than the teachers themselves (Van Hook, 2002), and parents lack interest in what is going on with their children (Keyes, 2004).

In this study the teacher education candidates did not express these same notions leading one to conclude that this study diverges with prior research. However, their responses during the conference debrief may lead one to believe that they did hold some of these views. The teacher education candidates were surprised by the desire of the parent to assist and noted how helpful the parent was (rather than being an obstacle). There was also some surprise that the parent really seemed to know what was best for their own child (rather than being uninterested or uncaring). This study also found that as the levels of ethical sensitivity and ethical judgment increased teacher candidates were more responsive to caregiver perspectives and were eager to incorporate caregiver input. This findings were not identified in prior research and should be further explored for verification.

Ethical Identity

Blasi's (1980) review of the relationship between moral/ethical reasoning and behavior remains the definitive work regarding moral/ethical judgment and action. The

review established that higher moral/ethical reasoning was predictive of better behavior across a variety of domains. This judgment-action relationship was further supported by subsequent meta-analyses (Arnold, 1989; Buchanan, 1992). Blasi's review also established that moral/ethical cognition can only explain roughly 10% of the variance in moral/ethical action in personal and professional contexts, thus there is more to moral/ethical judgment and action than purely cognition. This study reports a similar finding with a .10 correlation between ethical judgment and ethical action in a clinical context.

Based on his findings Blasi suggests the "self model" as a method of interpretation. The model is based on the idea that self identity is the explanatory concept in moral/ethical judgment and action. An identity can be characterized as generalized, salient attributes and a "fundamental sense of self" (Leicester & Pearce, 1997). Ethical values comprise one part of a person's identity and infuse the individual with a feeling of obligation to maintain their identity (Nisan, 1996). Within the model, proposed by Blasi, are three components to explain ethical functioning: the ethical self, a felt sense of personal responsibility, and self-consistency or integrity.

The ethical self focuses on the significance of moral/ethical values in one's ethical identity (Walker, 2004). An ethical identity is framed by ethical commitments and reflection on those commitments. These commitments and reflections are essential to self-understanding and yield a personality characterized by a deep, rational, reflective, affective, and motivational orientation toward ethics and morality. Moral/ethical values are rooted in the sense of self-concept and in daily professional activities. This component is borne out of Blasi's (1995) argument that "the highest degree of moral integration is achieved when one's moral understanding and concerns become a part of one's sense of identity" (p.229).

According to Infinito (2003) unless individuals “own” their actions, ethical judgment is not possible. Responsible ethical judgment and action must be reasoned to, committed to, and/or willed by a conscious agent.

The second component refers to an individuals’ sense of personal responsibility for ethical action. Not only must one ponder a hypothetical moral dilemma, but come to the realization that one is ethically obligated to undertake a course of action. This component of the self model clearly implicates affective processes and a “felt sense of personal responsibility” (Walker, 2004, p.2). In the present study only the individual with the highest levels of REST and DIT scores made decisions based on a “felt sense of personal responsibility” to the caregiver and students.

The third component of the self model is integrity which means that the person is motivated by consistency in judgment and action. Individuals at the highest levels of moral/ethical development are only satisfied when there is consistency in their judgments and actions. Ethical identity within the model proposed by Blasi underscores the significance of both cognition and emotion in moral/ethical functioning. Cognition is required for meaning and emotion is central to one’s “felt sense of personal responsibility”. This study supports this model of ethical identity through the portrayal of the three cases. According to the findings the most highly developed ethical identity is one in which decisions are made based on an ethic of justice (the needs of all), an ethic of care (needs of the individual caregiver), and a *felt sense of personal responsibility* to confront racial and gender intolerance.

Summary

This study set out to answer a series of hypotheses and questions relevant to the study of the ethical identity of teacher education candidates. This chapter reported the findings related to these hypotheses and questions. Additionally, a post-hoc analysis was conducted to better explicate the findings and produce a more profound understanding of the central question of the study: *What is the relationship between teacher candidate ethical sensitivity, ethical judgment, and ethical action in a clinical setting?*

The study produced a series of positive trends and findings related to the investigation of teacher candidate ethical identity. Blasi's review of the relationship between ethical reasoning and behavior established that roughly 1% of the variance can be explained by ethical cognition. This study found a positive correlation (.10) between ethical judgment and clinical performance (behavior). Further, as the ethical judgment of teacher candidates increases toward post-conventional levels there is more balanced interaction between teacher candidates and the caregiver in a "standardized" conference.

This study also supports the several conclusions regarding ethical sensitivity. Within the post-hoc analyses it was discovered that as teacher candidate ethical sensitivity increases the amount of parent talk response increases. It was also found that as ethical sensitivity increased teacher candidates demonstrated increasing competence in recognizing the importance of respect for all students; recognizing differential treatment based on race and the personal responsibility for confronting racist and/or sexist beliefs; integrating caregiver ideas into decision making; and recognizing how instruction impacts all students.

What is likely the most significant set of findings were the characteristics of teacher candidates at the highest levels of ethical sensitivity and ethical judgment. Blasi and others

have argued that the relationship between ethical judgment and ethical action can only be partly explained by cognition. An ethical identity is composed of several components including: ethical sensitivity, ethical judgment, cognition, emotion, and a *felt sense of personal responsibility*. The findings of this study suggest that the most highly developed ethical identity in a teacher candidate is one in which decisions are made based on an ethic of justice (the needs of all), an ethic of care (needs of the individual caregiver or student), and a *felt sense of personal responsibility* to the caregiver and students.

Conclusion

What is to follow is the final chapter of this dissertation and will draw conclusions and implications of the study. The chapter will relate the findings of chapter four with the theoretical framework proposed in chapter two in an attempt to describe the ethical identity of teacher education candidates. The chapter will also discuss the positive and negative aspects of the study design and suggest changes to the model along with discussing the implications of the research and directions for future study.

Chapter 5

Conclusions and Implications

The final chapter of this dissertation synthesizes findings, describes implications for teacher education and accrediting institutions, summarizes limitations of the investigation, and poses recommendations for further research. The research synthesis proposes a conception of the ethical identity of the teacher education candidate. The chapter begins with a summary of the significant findings related to the research hypotheses and research questions. This summary does not give a detailed analysis of each hypothesis and question but rather discusses the findings deemed most important to the study of teacher candidate ethical identity. The implications of the study are discussed next, in the context of teacher education candidates and teacher education programs. The implications section also speaks to specific courses of action that should be taken by those involved in teacher education with regard to the assessment and development of teacher candidate ethical identity. Limitations of the study follow the implications and will include both limitations associated with the correlational method and the limitations regarding the use of the standardized parent. The concluding section of the chapter will include closing remarks in light of analyses and limitations and recommendations for further research.

Synthesis of Findings

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate several questions and hypotheses regarding the ethical identity of teacher education candidates. Chapter four of this dissertation reported each of the specific findings related to the research hypotheses and

research questions. Post-hoc analyses were conducted which included both within-group analyses and the use of three sample cases. Post-hoc analyses were instrumental in providing additional evidence necessary to develop a more thorough understanding of teacher candidate ethical identity. The central theme of the study was to better understand the following question: *What is the relationship between teacher candidate ethical sensitivity, ethical judgment, and ethical action in a clinical setting?*

Post-hoc findings suggest that as teacher candidate ethical sensitivity increased the amount of parent talk response increased in the clinical conference setting. As well, it was hypothesized that as teacher candidate ethical sensitivity increased the parent would initiate more dialogue due to an awareness of teacher receptivity. Teacher candidate receptivity and acceptance would lead to increased collaboration and thus more parent input. As teacher candidates' ethical sensitivity levels increased, they demonstrated increasing competence in recognizing the importance of respect for all students; increasing competence in recognizing differential treatment based on race; increasing commitment and personal responsibility for confronting racist and/or sexist beliefs; increasing willingness to integrate caregiver ideas into decision making; and increasing competence in recognizing how instruction impacts all students. Therefore, it is concluded that as teacher candidate ethical sensitivity increases, greater competence in ethical action results.

As teacher candidate ethical judgment scores increased toward more post-conventional levels, the interactions between teacher candidate and "standardized" parent were more balanced. Balance connotes an acceptance of the other person as a valuable contributor to the relationship. A balanced interaction exhibits the process of turn-taking which is a means of framing the function, meaning, and effects of language for the

purpose of controlling the “flow” of dialogue (Ress & Cervero, 1997). This back-and-forth flow of dialogue can lead to collaborative interactions (Robinson, 1998) which assist in the facilitation of learning (Chizhik, 1998) or interpersonal meaning. Balance is also a means by which to remove positions of dominance or subordination in a relationship. By removing these positions a more collaborative, interactive, and ethical relationship can develop.

The most significant findings within this study were the characteristics of teacher candidates at the highest levels of ethical sensitivity and ethical judgment. Theorists (Lapsley & Narvaez, 2004), have suggested that an ethical identity is composed of several components which include: ethical sensitivity, ethical judgment, cognition, emotion, and a *felt sense of personal responsibility*. The findings of this study suggest that the most highly developed ethical identity in a teacher candidate is one in which decisions are made based on an ethic of justice (the needs of all), an ethic of care (needs of the individual caregiver or student), and a *felt sense of personal responsibility* to the caregiver and students.

The daily realities teachers face require them to make decisions regarding situations they may have never before been in or received training to address. In the field of education the choices the teacher makes will have a significant impact on the life of everyone involved. As a result, when making moral/ethical decisions in classrooms “justice must be tempered by care, and vice versa” (Obidah, Jackson-Minot, Monroe, & Williams, 2004). An ethic of care would suggest that the teacher discover commonalities with his/her students, treat each with respect, kindness, and fairness, and serve as a model for the students to emulate. The result is the creation of a community in which each person is not only responsible for himself/herself but also for one another. Teachers also have a responsibility to others both inside and outside of the school. They are responsible for maintaining order in their

classrooms and keeping each student safe. At times it is necessary to use an ethic of justice or a combination of justice and care. Schools are social institutions with rules and regulations in place to ensure the safety of students as well as the rights of each student to receive an education. Students must also learn to function in a society steeped in rules, regulations, and laws. Schools are a reflection of the larger society and as such are governed by rules ensuring “fairness” (Obidah, et al., 2004). These rules, however, must be tempered by empathy and care to counteract the instances of injustice and inequality present in both schools and the larger society.

Implications

This study grew out of a need to establish a new vision of teacher professionalism. This vision encompasses skills in parent/caregiver communication, knowledge of the teaching/learning process, and the dispositions of ethical sensitivity, ethical judgment, and ethical behavior in a clinical context. The need for this new vision is in response to the unchanging nature of teacher candidate dispositions, the unchanging pool of candidates entering the teaching profession, and the changing demographics of the student population. It has been estimated that within the next 20 years nearly 70% of the children in American schools will be non-white or Hispanic. While the composition of schools continues to change and become more economically, linguistically, and ethnically diverse, teachers continue to reflect the majority culture.

This majority culture (white, middle class) is characterized by different values, some of which include competition, individualism, freedom (defined as being left alone by others), and work ethic (O’Connor, 1993). Individuals within the majority culture hold differing

degrees of power (Banks, 1991) which results in a power differential between and amongst individuals and determines who will have access to power and privilege in a society (O'Connor, 1993). According to Banks (1993) an individual must learn to identify their own positions, interests, philosophies of ideals and assumptions in order to expand access to the power and privilege in society. A critical analysis of these positions particularly as they relate to issues such as ethnicity and culture (Howard, 2003) are necessary if, ultimately, he/she is going to learn, understand, and accept individuals from other cultures (O'Connor, 1993).

Part of the acceptance of individuals from other cultures is developing an appreciation for the cultural capital each student has to offer. This cultural capital embodies the norms, social practices, ideologies, language, and behavior that are part of a group's identity and frequently the cultural capital is different from the majority culture worldview and norms (Howard, 2003). Although steps have been identified that ensure that teacher candidates are developing an appreciation for diversity it is common for many of these students to be apprehensive about diversity and multiculturalism (Gay & Howard, 2000).

The lack of teacher candidate exposure to diversity and apprehension about learning multicultural perspectives can have a serious negative impact on communication. Most teacher education students have led monocultural lives and thus have not had the opportunity to broaden their communication skills across racial or ethnic lines (Ladson-Billings, 1999) and students as well as their parents/caregivers will increasingly be from different cultural groups will subsequently talk, write, and listen in ways that are different from school patterns and expectations. Yet, teacher candidates are expected to develop effective relationships

with parents/caregivers even though they receive little, if any, training or support in parent/caregiver communication.

Teacher education's response to changing demographics and the need for enhanced communication skills has been primarily a reactive one rather than a reconceptualization of teacher education. Most programs use workshops, institutes, and courses to deal with the "problem" of culturally different students (Ladson-Billings, 1999) and a review conducted by Ladson-Billings (1995) indicated that many teacher education programs were satisfied with adding multicultural content rather than changing a philosophy or structure. Further, few teacher education programs provide education in moral/ethical dispositions which can provide a framework through which intercultural communication can be addressed and improved.

Moral education has been a component of the teaching profession as far back as the American Colonial Era and current schools have maintained this tradition in drastically different times (Obidah, et al., 2004). Schools today play more of a custodial role than ever before and it is now increasingly the case that both parents work. According to Goodlad (1999) "schools set parents free to the degree they are caring places, (and) have provided parents with piece of mind." What Goodlad is referring to is the freedom to work outside of the home and knowing that their children are being taught, cared for, and protected. Parents tend to have three distinct priorities for their children in relation to schools: (1) that their children are known, (2) that their children are safe, and (3) that their children are treated fairly. When parents send their children to school, they believe teachers behave ethically in the classroom, transmit values upheld by society, and serve as role models for their children (Sirotnik, 1990).

Teachers are continuously subjected to ethical dilemmas and are expected to make ethical decisions of great variety on a daily basis (Strike, 1990; Strike & Soltis, 1986) and the ethical nature of the teaching profession has been well established by research, professional teaching organizations, and schools of education. Recently, the federal government has been making it easier for individuals to enter the teaching profession with only bachelor's degrees and little or no formal teacher education. However, over the past 10 years the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) along with the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC) and the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) have been working to clarify what teachers are required to know and demonstrate (knowledge, skills, and dispositions) (Diez, 1999). It is imperative that teacher education programs recognize this trend to place less qualified individuals in classrooms and work to better prepare their own graduates. Teachers need to be aware of the needs of students and parents/caregivers, have a firm understanding of the professional knowledge base, and be equipped to make sound ethical decisions in their classrooms. This is what separates professionals in the field of education from those with merely bachelors degrees in specific subject areas.

NCATE defines these dispositions as the values, commitments, and professional ethics that influence behaviors toward students, families, colleagues, and communities and affect student learning, motivation, and development as well as the educator's own professional growth (NCATE, 2002). NCATE further states that dispositions are guided by beliefs and attitudes related to values such as caring, fairness, honesty, responsibility, and social justice (NCATE, 2002). The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) has noted among its core propositions how the ethical dimension of teaching

distinguishes it from other professions. Teachers are to model the role of an educated person and students learn to read and draw lessons from their teacher's behavior and character. It is incumbent upon teachers to conduct themselves in a manner that students might emulate and thus professional teaching should emphasize its ethical nature (NBPTS, 2003).

Although accrediting institutions make explicit the importance of moral/ethical dispositions in education a review of research findings in teacher education reveal that many teacher education programs do little to change the entrenched beliefs of teacher education candidates (Chang, 1994; Hill, 2000). According to Grant (1999) most university missions either implicitly or explicitly list the goal of providing an education that will enable graduates to be competent professionals, serve a society composed of different races, socioeconomic situations, languages, and lifestyles. Grant (1999) has also found that it is difficult for some pre-service teachers to work with k-12 students who are different (race, class, gender) from themselves. Many of these pre-service teachers will cling to old traditions, ideas, or conceptions and many teacher education candidates believe that they already have what it takes to be a good teacher and therefore have little to learn from formal teacher education.

Effective teacher education programs are based on the conception of teacher candidate learning and development. These programs acknowledge the complexity of the profession which includes the classroom, school, and community. These programs are grounded in a substantial and verifiable knowledge base and are sensitive to the ways teacher candidates think, feel, and make meaning from their experience (Reiman, 1999b). Effective teacher education programs also acknowledge the role of parents/caregivers in the education of their children. Effective teacher education programs deliberately promote the

development of dispositions necessary for effective instruction and these dispositions include ethical decision making.

Unfortunately, schools can be places where inequality is legitimated because of meritocratic ideology. They can reinforce relationships of dominance and subordination (Grant, 1999) or they can be places where social justice is enacted and racial and gender discrimination are combated. Teachers deal with moral/ethical issues on a daily basis yet may be ill-equipped to do so. It is incumbent upon programs involved in teacher education to foster growth in teacher candidate's ethical identity. Teacher candidates must learn to make moral/ethical decisions in their classrooms using an ethic of care, an ethic of justice, and *a felt sense of personal responsibility*.

Findings from this study of ethical judgment, racial/ethical sensitivity, and ethical action in a clinical setting suggest that Blasi's (1980) comprehensive review of the relation between moral reasoning and behavior is a definitive work on the question of relationships between moral judgment, moral sensitivity, and action. The review established clear significance of reasoning in moral functioning, demonstrating that higher moral reasoning was predictive of better behavior across a variety of domains. Blasi (1993) advanced the "self model" as a way to comprehend ethical/moral psychology and identity. This model uses self identity as the central explanatory concept in ethical/moral functioning. It is intended to integrate moral cognition and moral personality within a framework that better explicates ethical behavior.

The self model has three major components of ethical functioning that could guide program design in Colleges of Education. The first component, the ethical self, focuses on the significance of moral values in one's ethical identity (Walker, 2004). One has an ethical

identity to the extent that the self is framed by ethical commitments and reflections on those commitments. One's ethical commitments and reflections are essential to one's self-understanding and they yield to a personality characterized by a deep, rational, reflective, affective, and motivational orientation toward ethics and morality. Moral values are rooted in one's self-concept and in daily professional activities. This component reflects Blasi's (1995) argument that "the highest degree of moral integration is achieved when one's moral understanding and concerns become a part of one's sense of identity" (p.229). Applying this component to teacher education, understanding of teaching candidates' ethical identity would be framed by understanding these candidates' ethical commitments and their reflections on those commitments as represented in class discussions, written essays, and service activities.

The second component of Blasi's self model refers to individuals' sense of personal responsibility for ethical action. It is one thing to think about a hypothetical moral problem; it is quite another to come to the realization that one is ethically obligated to undertake a course of action. This component of Blasi's self model clearly implicates affective processes and a *felt sense of personal responsibility* (Walker, 2004, p.2). Similarly, in this study teacher candidates at higher levels of racial/ethical sensitivity described their responsibility to understand concerns of caregivers. Applying this component to teacher education, teacher educators might openly discuss their own sense of responsibility for learners and the profession, thus encouraging candidates to consider and discuss their own responsibilities and commitments as teachers.

The third component in Blasi's self model is self-consistency or integrity. Self-consistency means that the person is motivated by consistency in judgment and action. In fact, the highly ethical person is *only* satisfied by consistency between ethical judgments and

ethical action. One's self-integrity is at stake in the ethical action. Thus, teacher candidate ethical identity within Blasi's construct of the self model underscores the significance of both cognition and emotion to moral/ethical functioning. Cognition is required for meaning making while emotion is central to one's felt sense of personal responsibility. Teachers or teacher candidates of high ethical integrity would be motivated to have consistency between their judgments and their actions. Integrating this component within teacher education programs, faculty would attend to congruence or lack of congruence between teacher candidate judgments and actions, and make visible these congruencies or incongruencies for students. For example, if a teacher candidate espoused equity yet his/her instruction was only directed to a small number of the students in the classroom, this incongruity between principle and action would be discussed between the student and faculty member.

Limitations of the Study

The purpose of correlational research is to discover relationships between two or more variables. A relationship is said to exist when the status on one variable tends to reflect the status on another variable. Correlational research is used to develop an understanding of related events, conditions, or behaviors or to make predictions for one variable based on the other (Gay, 1999). Within this study the Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used. This particular type of correlation was selected for three reasons. First, each of the variables used are continuous interval data. Second, the Pearson r is a parametric statistic and measures used in the study are based on parametric assumptions (Charles & Mertler, 2003). Third, it was believed that since each of the components, ethical sensitivity, ethical judgment,

and ethical action, are all parts of a central construct, ethical identity, there should be a low to moderate correlation between the components.

The primary limitation to this type of analysis is the understanding that correlation does not imply causation (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). It is, therefore, impossible to conclude that there is a cause and effect relationship between ethical identity and ethical action. This study, however, did not seek to establish a cause and effect relationship but rather show that there was a relationship between variables.

A second limitation to the study is the sample selection. It is suggested that the sample be as homogeneous as possible in order that the number of extraneous variables be minimized (Gall et al., 1996). To address this concern, a purposeful stratified sample was selected based on DIT scores. This study sample was also constructed in such a way as to be reflective of the overall teacher population as well as the current teacher candidate pool. The small sample size, however, resulted in a limited range of scores and possibly restricted the opportunity for statistically significant results. Additional study limitations are found in the use of the standardized parent and follow.

While every effort is made to ensure consistency between participant experiences in the clinical performance component, each individual will interpret the clinical conference (verbal, nonverbal, setting cues) differently. In an effort to combat this source of error only one standardized parent was used in the study. That parent participated in a training session which followed a prescribed protocol and the parent was advised that it was necessary to “present the same scenario” to each of the participants.

The use of the standardized parent in the classroom and clinical settings offers an opportunity to add realism and relevance to teacher education instruction. It provides the

student with the opportunity for trial and error, understanding and appreciation, and personal and professional growth. To ensure the “reality” of the simulated conference a standardized parent was used who is familiar with conferences from both the perspective of a teacher and that of a parent. The conference format was based upon a model developed and utilized with beginning and mentor teachers in a school system and the problem with which the students dealt was common to the profession.

In an effort to provide each of the participants with the “same” experience, the setting was contrived in such a manner as to provide easy replication. Each of the conferences was held in the same room with the same standardized parent. All participants attended the same training session and received the same handouts. By adhering to standardized procedures a model was adapted from the medical community and did have direct and significant benefits to teacher education candidates by offering them an opportunity to participate in a crucial aspect of the teaching profession in a non-threatening, practical, and controlled manner.

Recommendations for Further Research

This chapter has included a synopsis of the significant findings and implications of those findings in relation to teacher education programs. The next section will discuss the suggested directions for future research in the area of ethical identity and teacher education candidates. This concluding section of this chapter will prescribe future directions for teacher education programs in their quest to more fully develop teacher education candidates able to tackle the complex moral/ethical decisions they are forced to make each day in their classrooms. Three recommendations for further research include the following:

1. *Reinvestigate the variables (ethical sensitivity, ethical judgment, clinical performance) using a larger sample and better means of assessing clinical performance.* Many of the non-significant findings within this study were the result of a small sample size. It is suggested that the study be replicated using a larger sample. It has also been suggested that the Flanders Interaction Analysis may not be the best measure of clinical performance. Other instruments should be investigated or created to address this concern.
2. *Use a pre-test/post-test design where the candidates take part in each of the assessments in the sophomore year and again after the student teaching experience.* Cognitive developmental theory tells us that as individuals undergo a complex new experience the assimilation/accommodation helps individuals grow within specific cognitive domains. Therefore, after taking part in the student teaching experience, students should show significant growth in the areas of ethical sensitivity and ethical judgment.
3. *Reinvestigate the variables using a sample demographically different from the original.* This sample was constructed in a homogenous manner, it contained all white students and primarily females. The standardized parent was different from the sample in that she was an African American female. The sample should be changed to include more diverse individuals and a greater percentage of males. It could also be reconfigured in such a way as to have primarily teacher candidates who are persons of color and a standardized parent who is white. There are several permutations of the sample which can be investigated which would serve to expand the knowledge base.

Conclusion

This study demonstrated that the assessment of teacher candidate ethical sensitivity and ethical judgment can be accomplished both efficiently and effectively. Based on these findings, along with the significant results of the study, and the ethical implications for the teaching profession, teacher education programs should be involved in the development of teacher candidate ethical identity. The following recommendations are suggested for teacher education programs:

- 1. The assessment of ethical sensitivity and ethical judgment should be conducted early in the teacher education program (sophomore year). This can be accomplished in the foundations of education or other introductory education course.*
- 2. Teacher education candidates should be trained in parent/caregiver communication. “Standardized” parents need to be enlisted (possibly teachers from a local school system), trained, and compensated. Teacher candidates should have an opportunity to engage in a clinical experience with the standardized parent along with time to self-assess the conference.*
- 3. A deliberate method for the development of teacher candidate ethical sensitivity and ethical judgment should be constructed based on Blasi’s self-model. This could be achieved through the use of videos, dilemma discussions, teacher narratives, and/or Socratic style questioning.*

Only by making students aware of the racial and gender intolerance present in schools, assisting them in their ethical decision making, and helping them to discover their *felt sense of personal responsibility* can we begin to effectively educate the next generation of teachers. These teachers will be working with a population of students more diverse than ever before and it is increasingly likely that they will be less like the parents of those children (economically, culturally, and racially) than teachers of the past generation. If we are to establish a new vision for teacher professionalism it must begin at the level of the teacher education programs.

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Appendix A
Informed Consent

The Relationship Between the Ethical Identity of Pre-Service Teachers and Behavior in Clinical Performance

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This study is a quantitative assessment of the ethical identity of pre-service teachers. It is based on the need to better understand the relationship between ethical sensitivity and the nonverbal and verbal interactions of pre-service teachers in relation to parents.

INFORMATION

In this study, you will be asked to

1. Take the Defining Issues Test (DIT) a paper-and-pencil measure of post-conventional moral reasoning (30 minutes)
2. Take the Racial Ethical Sensitivity Test (REST), a computer version assessment of ethical sensitivity to acts of racial and gender intolerance that occur in school settings (30 minutes)
3. Participate in a standardized parent conference (30 minutes including training/information session)

RISKS

There are no foreseeable risks involved in the study, however participants will view scenes of racial or gender bias.

BENEFITS

There is very little research regarding ethical sensitivity and clinical performance so this research will benefit the field of moral/ethical research. Participants will have the opportunity to engage in a standardized parent conference and will receive training prior to the conference, very little training is conducted in pre-service teacher education pertaining to parent conferencing. Participants may benefit in the future as a result of their participation.

CONFIDENTIALITY

The information in the study records will be kept strictly confidential. Data will be stored securely in one computer and hard file that will be destroyed upon completion of the study. No reference will be made in oral or written reports which could link you to the study.

COMPENSATION (if applicable)

For participating in this study you will receive \$10 for completion of the DIT and REST and an additional \$50 for completion of the clinical performance.

CONTACT

If you have questions at any time about the study or the procedures, you may contact the researcher, Michael Maher at michael_maher@ncsu.edu, or 919-601-6662.

Appendix B
Standardized Conference Information

Protocol for Standardized Parent Training Session

Introduction

Instructor/Investigator: Hello and thanks for agreeing to participate in the third component of this study An Investigation of Pre-Service Teacher Ethical Identity. By agreeing to participate in this study you will be expected to take part in this training session and the clinical performance component. The clinical performance component will consist of a 15 minute parent/caregiver problem solving conference. This training session will consist of three parts: general information, conference steps, and closure.

General Information

Instructor/Investigator: In this component of the study you will be involved in a simulation. Your role is that of parent/caregiver of a 12 year old female. You are attending a problem solving conference with the social studies teacher. The student (Denise Johnson) is generally a good student, receives average grades, and is mostly quiet both at home and in school.

Instructor/Investigator: Do you have any questions about the student?

Instructor/Investigator: You are to simulate a concerned but not assertive parent. You are generally intimidated by the school environment. Although you want to do what is best for your child you are unsure how to proceed because you are only casually able to be involved in the school. Your dress, speech, and demeanor should be somewhat ambiguous (it would be best to allow the “teacher” to draw their own conclusions about your socioeconomic status etc.). Please allow the teacher candidate “teacher” to drive the direction of the conference and model your responses according to their questions/comments.

Instructor/Investigator: Do you have any questions about your role?

Instructor/Investigator: The conference will follow a pre-set format which will be discussed shortly. The conference is to last for a period of 15 minutes to ensure standardization. As a part of this training you and I will discuss the steps and possible responses.

Conference Steps

1. Greeting:

Teacher: “Hello, Ms. Johnson and thank you for agreeing to meet with me about Denise”.

Parent: Hi, thanks for arranging this meeting.

Teacher: “Hello, I am (name), Denise’s social studies teacher”

Parent: (Nod)

2. Purpose:

Teacher (does not invite parent response): “I have asked you here today because I am concerned about Denise.”

Parent: “OK”

Teacher (invites parent response): “I would like to inform you of a development I have noticed and try to come up with a solution.”

Parent: “Well, I am glad you are concerned and would like to work with you to resolve it.”

3. Confidentiality:

Teacher (notes confidential nature): “I have not yet discussed this problem with anyone else here at the school, I wanted to speak with you first.”

Parent: “I appreciate your doing that, I think we can develop a solution without involving others.”

Teacher (has involved others/no confidentiality): “I have informed (name/title) of the situation and we agreed Denise should be tested for ADD.”

Parent: “Well, I am disappointed that you would involve someone else without first consulting me.”

4. Parent Comment:

Teacher: “Is there anything you would like to comment on?”

Parent (teacher seems interested in comment): “I am glad you picked up on this and would really like to come up with a solution.”

Parent (teacher does not seem interested in comment): “No, not really.”

5. Outcome:

Teacher (cooperative solution): “By the end of this conference I would like to come to an agreement for resolving this situation”

Parent: “I would like to work with you to help Denise.”

Teacher (self-solution): “By the end of this conference I plan on sharing some of the thoughts I have developed about how to help Denise and what you can do at home.”

Parent: “Alright.”

6. Engage in Purpose:

Teacher: “I have noticed recently that Denise, who normally is a good student, is becoming easily distracted. She starts assignments but is not completing many of them. When I ask her to focus on the task she remains quiet and will often get back to work but quickly drifts off again.”

Parent: If the teacher has been using your input offer some suggestions on what might be done or offer a reason for the behavior (eg. Ill grandparent etc.). If the teacher has not been using your

suggestions/advice invite them to continue “What would you like to try in class?” “What should I try at home?”

7. Closure:

Teacher: “Thanks for agreeing to come in today, I am glad we were able to resolve this.” “I will follow up with you on the status of our plan.”

Parent: Comment if invited.

Closure

Instructor/Investigator: Thank you all for agreeing to participate in the study. The schedule listing your date and times will be provided before we leave.

Instructor/Investigator: Do you have any other questions, comments, or concerns I need to address?

Parent Training Session Handout

General Information

In this component of the study you will be involved in a simulation. Your role is that of parent/caregiver of a 12 year old female. You are attending a problem solving conference with the social studies teacher. The student (Denise Johnson) is generally a good student, receives average grades, and is mostly quiet both at home and in school.

You are to simulate a concerned but not assertive parent. You are generally intimidated by the school environment. Although you want to do what is best for your child you are unsure how to proceed because you are only casually able to be involved in the school. Your dress, speech, and demeanor should be somewhat ambiguous (it would be best to allow the “teacher” to draw their own conclusions about your socioeconomic status etc.). Please allow the teacher candidate “teacher” to drive the direction of the conference and model your responses according to their questions/comments.

Conference Steps

1. Greeting:

Teacher: “Hello, Ms. Johnson and thank you for agreeing to meet with me about Denise”.

Parent: Hi, thanks for arranging this meeting.

Teacher: “Hello, I am (name), Denise’s social studies teacher”

Parent: (Nod)

2. Purpose:

Teacher (does not invite parent response): “I have asked you here today because I am concerned about Denise.”

Parent: “OK”

Teacher (invites parent response): “I would like to inform you of a development I have noticed and try to come up with a solution.”

Parent: “Well, I am glad you are concerned and would like to work with you to resolve it.”

3. Confidentiality:

Teacher (notes confidential nature): “I have not yet discussed this problem with anyone else here at the school, I wanted to speak with you first.”

Parent: “I appreciate your doing that, I think we can develop a solution without involving others.”

Teacher (has involved others/no confidentiality): “I have informed (name/title) of the situation and we agreed Denise should be tested for ADD.”

Parent: “Well, I am disappointed that you would involve someone else without first consulting me.”

4. Parent Comment:

Teacher: “Is there anything you would like to comment on?”

Parent (teacher seems interested in comment): “I am glad you picked up on this and would really like to come up with a solution.”

Parent (teacher does not seem interested in comment): “No, not really.”

5. Outcome:

Teacher (cooperative solution): “By the end of this conference I would like to come to an agreement for resolving this situation”

Parent: “I would like to work with you to help Denise.”

Teacher (self-solution): “By the end of this conference I plan on sharing some of the thoughts I have developed about how to help Denise and what you can do at home.”

Parent: “Alright.”

6. Engage in Purpose:

Teacher: “I have noticed recently that Denise, who normally is a good student, is becoming easily distracted. She starts assignments but is not completing many of them. When I ask her to focus on the task she remains quiet and will often get back to work but quickly drifts off again.”

Parent: If the teacher has been using your input offer some suggestions on what might be done or offer a reason for the behavior (eg. Ill grandparent etc.). If the teacher has not been using your suggestions/advice invite them to continue “What would you like to try in class?” “What should I try at home?”

7. Closure:

Teacher: “Thanks for agreeing to come in today, I am glad we were able to resolve this.” “I will follow up with you on the status of our plan.”

Parent: Comment if invited.

Protocol for Teacher Candidate Training Session

Introduction

Instructor/Investigator: Hello and thanks for agreeing to participate in the third component of this study *An Investigation of Pre-Service Teacher Ethical Identity*. By agreeing to participate in this study you will be expected to take part in a training session and the clinical performance component. The clinical performance component will consist of a fifteen minute parent/caregiver problem solving conference and you will receive a fifty dollars for your participation. The training session will consist of four parts: general information, demonstration of conference, independent practice, closure.

General Information

Instructor/Investigator: In this component of the study you will be involved in a simulation. Your role is that of a middle school social studies teacher. You are holding a problem solving conference with the parent/caregiver of a student in your class. The student (Denise Johnson) is a 12 year old, African American female. She is generally a good student, receives average grades and is mostly quiet. You have noticed recently that she often is easily distracted from her work and tends to begin assignments but becomes off-task quite easily and often. The conference will follow a pre-set format that will be discussed and demonstrated shortly. The conference is to last for a period of 15 minutes and will be stopped at that point. After the conference an individual will be available to answer questions or discuss the outcomes if necessary.

Instructor/Investigator: Are there any questions, comments, or concerns at this point about your role or the characteristics of the student?

Conference Steps

Pass out handout with role, student characteristics, and conference steps

Instructor/Investigator: The conference should begin with a simple greeting.

8. Greeting:

- “Hello, Ms. Johnson and thank you for agreeing to meet with me about Denise”.

Instructor/Investigator: This should be followed by a brief statement of purpose.

9. Purpose:

- “I have asked you here today because I am concerned about Denise.”
- “I would like to inform you of a development I have noticed and try to come up with a solution.”

Instructor/Investigator: Next you should explain your view on confidentiality.

10. Confidentiality:

- “I have not yet discussed this problem with anyone else here at the school, I wanted to speak with you first.”
- “I have discussed the situation with the principal (counselor) in order to get some additional advice/input.”

Instructor/Investigator: At this point you should ask the parent if there is anything they would like to comment on.

11. Parent Comment:

- “Is there anything you would like to comment on?”
- “Is there anything you would like to say at this point?”

Instructor/Investigator: After the parent comment you should discuss the intended outcome for the conference.

12. Outcome:

- “By the end of this conference I would like to come to an agreement for resolving this situation”

Instructor/Investigator: Next you should engage in the purpose of the conference.

13. Engage in Purpose:

- “I have noticed recently that Denise, who normally is a good student, is becoming easily distracted. She starts assignments but is not completing many of them. When I ask her to focus on the task she remains quiet and will often get back to work but quickly drifts off again.”

Instructor/Investigator: Finally, you should provide some closure to the conference.

14. Closure:

- “Thanks for agreeing to come in today, I am glad we were able to resolve this.” “I will follow up with you on the status of our plan.”

Instructor/Investigator: Are there any questions, comments, or concerns about the conference steps before the demonstration?

Demonstration of Conference

At this point two individuals will demonstrate the steps associated with the conference with a moderator. The moderator will lead a discussion of the steps involved and how each step was covered by the “teacher” and “parent”. Individual questions and concerns will be addressed following the conference.

Instructor/Investigator: Are there any questions, comments, or concerns at this point?

Independent Practice

Participants are now asked to work with a partner and complete one practice cycle as a parent and one as the teacher (this is intended to help them to accommodate them to the new role without giving specific training that might alter the intended outcome). The participants should complete steps 1-5 of the conference and switch roles. The moderator along with assistants can circulate around the room to offer assistance or advice as needed.

Instructor/Investigator: Are there any questions, comments, or concerns at this point?

Closure

Instructor/Investigator: Thank you all for agreeing to participate in the study. The schedule listing your date and time will be provided before we leave.

Teacher Candidate Training Session Handout

General Information

In this component of the study you will be involved in a simulation. Your role is that of a middle school social studies teacher. You are holding a problem solving conference with the parent/caregiver of a student in your class. The student (Denise Johnson) is a 12 year old, African American female. She is generally a good student, receives average grades and is mostly quiet. You have noticed recently that she often is easily distracted from her work and tends to begin assignments but becomes off-task quite easily and often.

Conference Steps

Greeting:

- “Hello, Ms. Johnson and thank you for agreeing to meet with me about Denise”.

Purpose:

- “I have asked you here today because I am concerned about Denise.”
- “I would like to inform you of a development I have noticed and try to come up with a solution.”

Confidentiality:

- “I have not yet discussed this problem with anyone else here at the school, I wanted to speak with you first.”
- “I have discussed the situation with the principal (counselor) in order to get some additional advice/input.”

Parent Comment:

- “Is there anything you would like to comment on?”
- “Is there anything you would like to say at this point?”

Outcome:

- “By the end of this conference I would like to come to an agreement for resolving this situation”

Engage in Purpose:

- “I have noticed recently that Denise, who normally is a good student, is becoming easily distracted. She starts assignments but is not completing many of them. When I ask her to focus on the task she remains quiet and will often get back to work but quickly drifts off again.”

Closure:

- “Thanks for agreeing to come in today, I am glad we were able to resolve this.” “I will follow up with you on the status of our plan.”

Teacher Candidate Conference Debrief

3. What stands out as most significant about this conference?

4. What thoughts or feelings do you have about the conference?

Appendix C

Information for administering the Racial Ethical Sensitivity Test

Information for conducting a standardized parent conference

Implementation Information

Racial Ethical Sensitivity Test (REST)

Uses:

- Assessment of Ethical Sensitivity
- Pre-Test early in teacher education and Post-Test after student teaching
- Pre-Test / Post-Test related to an intervention

Requirements:

- Computer with CD-Rom and 3 ¼ in. drive
- Headphones or speakers
- Microsoft Word
- Apple Quicktime Player

Time:

- Approximately 1 – 1 ½ hours for administration which includes two videos and responses
- Approximately 10 minutes to score each protocol

Cost:

- There is no cost associated with the administration
- Scorers (graduate students or faculty) must be trained and should be compensated for their time
- Students participating may be paid if the protocol is being used for a study. They may pay for the administration if it is a program requirement.

Procedure (Example):

- Develop informed consent form
- Recruit student participants
- Schedule computer lab or individual workstations (ensure that all requirements are installed)
- Administer the REST
- Two independent scorers rate the answers according to scoring procedures

Information Regarding the REST:

<http://blake.montclair.edu/~sirins/REST-WEBPAGES/REST.htm>

Brabeck, M., Rogers, L., Sirin, S., Handerson, J., Ting, K., & Benvenuto, M. (2000). Increasing ethical sensitivity to racial and gender intolerance in schools: Development of the racial ethical sensitivity test (REST). *Ethics and Behavior*, 10(2), 119-137.

Implementation Information

Standardized Parent Conference

Uses:

- Conferencing Skills
- Ethical Sensitivity and/or Ethical Judgment Analyses
- Self-Efficacy or other Analyses

Requirements:

- Parent(s)
- Training Sessions
- Video Camera
- TV/VCR

Time:

- Approximately 15 minutes per conference
- Approximately 30 minutes to 1 hour for analysis or debriefing
- Approximately 1 hour each for parent and teacher training sessions (basic)

Cost:

- It is suggested that parents be paid approximately \$25 – 50 per hour. In-service teachers who have children of their own are recommended since they will have experience with conferencing from both perspectives.
- Student participants may be required to pay for the experience to defer the cost of the standardized parents

Procedure (Example):

- Develop informed consent forms
- Recruit and train parents
- Recruit students
- Schedule time and place for experience (rooms with a two-way mirror work best)
- Assess or Self-Assess the experience
- Schedule a 2nd session